

Modern human alleles differentially regulate gene expression across brain regions: implications for brain evolution

Alejandro Andirkó^{1,2} and Cedric Boeckx^{1,2,3,*}

¹University of Barcelona

²University of Barcelona Institute of Complex Systems

³ICREA

*Corresponding author: cedric.boeckx@ub.edu

November 30, 2020

Abstract

The availability of high-coverage genomes of our extinct relatives, the Neanderthals and Denisovans, and the emergence of large, tissue-specific databases of modern human genetic variation, offer the possibility of probing the evolutionary trajectory of heterogenous structures of great interest, such as the brain. Using the GTEx cis-eQTL dataset and an extended catalog of *Homo sapiens*-specific alleles relative to Neanderthals and Denisovans, we generated a dataset of nearly fixed, *Homo sapiens*-derived alleles that affect the regulation of gene expression across 15 brain (and brain related) structures. The list of variants obtained reveals enrichments in regions of the modern human genome showing putative signals of positive selection relative to archaic humans, and bring out the highly derived status of the cerebellum. Additionally, we complement previous literature on the expression effects of ancestral alleles in the *Homo sapiens* brain by pointing at a downregulation bias caused by linkage disequilibrium.

1 Introduction

2 State-of-the-art geometric morphometric analyses of endocasts have revealed
3 significant differences between Neanderthal and *Homo sapiens* neurocrania, and
4 have led to the conclusion that specific brain regions, particularly the cerebel-
5 lum, the parietal and temporal lobes have expanded in the modern lineage as a
6 result of differential growth of neural tissue, with potential consequences for the
7 evolution of modern human cognition [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]. Other differences, affecting
8 subcortical regions that do not leave a direct impact on skulls, are harder to
9 detect, but may also exist [6].

10 Probing the nature of brain tissue differences is challenging, but the avail-
11 ability of several high-quality archaic genomes [7, 8, 9] has opened numerous
12 research avenues and opportunities to studying the evolution of the *Homo sapi-*
13 *ens* brain with unprecedented precision. Early efforts tried to determine the
14 molecular basis of archaic-modern differences based on the few missense mu-
15 tations that are *Homo sapiens*-specific [10]. But evidence is rapidly emerging
16 in favor of an important evolutionary role of regulatory variants, as originally
17 proposed more than four decades ago [11]. For instance, selective sweep scans
18 to detect areas of the genome under putative positive selection after the split
19 with the Neanderthal lineage show that regulatory variants played a prominent
20 role in ancient selection events [12]. Likewise, changes in potential regulatory
21 elements have been singled out in attempts to identify the factors that gave
22 the modern human face its shape [13, 14]. Other approaches that exploit data
23 from large biobanks have also stressed differences in gene regulatory architecture
24 between modern humans and archaic hominins [15].

25 Researchers have also explored the idea of connecting genetic variation in
26 modern human genomes, genetic expression analysis and brain evolution. A ma-
27 jor study [16] explored the effects of Neanderthal and Denisovan introgressed
28 variants in 44 tissues in modern humans. The authors found downregulation by
29 introgressed alleles in the brain, particularly in the cerebellum and the striatum.
30 In a similar vein, another study [6] examined the effects of archaic introgression
31 on brain and skull shape variability to determine which variants are associ-
32 ated with the globularized brain and skull that is characteristic of anatomically
33 modern humans. Here too, the variants with the most salient effects were those
34 found to affect the structure of the cerebellum and the striatum.

35 We show that derived alleles and genetic regulation data can be used as a
36 complementary source of information about the evolution of the brain. To this
37 end, we took advantage of the data generated in a recent systematic catalog
38 of human genetic variation [17]. This dataset provides an exhaustive collection
39 of derived, *Homo sapiens*-specific alleles found in the present human genetic
40 pool. We chose variants found at a high frequency cutoff ($\geq 90\%$), and probed
41 the effect of the modern alleles on gene expression compared to ancestral alleles
42 found at low frequencies in modern human genomes.

43 To determine the predicted effect on gene expression of these derived, mod-
44 ern human-specific alleles, we took advantage of the GTEx database (version 8).
45 By offering information about Expression Quantitative Trait Loci (cis-eQTL)
46 across tissues, the GTEx database forces us to think beyond variants that affect
47 the structure and function of proteins and consider those that regulate gene
48 expression. The GTEx data for the following central nervous system tissues
49 ('regions'): Amygdala, Caudate, Brodmann Area (BA) 9, BA24, Cerebellum,
50 Cerebellar Hemisphere, Cortex, Hippocampus, Hypothalamus, Nucleus Accum-
51 bens, Pituitary, Putamen, Spinal Cord, and Substantia Nigra. Of these samples,
52 Cerebellar Hemisphere and Cerebellum, as well as Cortex and BA9, are to be
53 treated as duplicates [18]. Though not a brain tissue *per se*, the Adrenal Gland
54 was included in our study because of its role in the Hypothalamic-pituitary-
55 adrenal (HPA) axis, an important regulator of the neuroendocrine system that

56 affects behavior.

57 We wish to stress that our focus on brain (and brain-related) structures in
58 no way is intended as a claim that the brain is the most derived structure in
59 *Homo sapiens* relative to extinct human species. While other tissues (such as
60 the bone structure of the face [19]) undoubtedly display derived characteristics,
61 we have concentrated on the brain in this study because our primary interest
62 lies in cognition and behavior, which is most directly affected by brain-related
63 changes.

64 Our study contributes to the emerging literature on the evolution of the
65 *Homo sapiens* brain, and highlights novel regulatory changes that deserve fur-
66 ther exploration. We show that regions under putative positive selection are en-
67 riched in derived, high-frequency (HF) eQTL, reinforcing the important role ge-
68 netic regulation in human evolution highlighted by previous studies [14, 15, 20].
69 Our data also complements previous work [16], but differs in an important way:
70 while McCoy and colleagues found a significant downregulation of archaic hu-
71 man alleles in the brain, we only find this effect when not controlling for linkage
72 disequilibrium. Finally, we provide evidence that eQTL affect genetic expres-
73 sion in the cerebellum more than expected by chance, after accounting for effects
74 such as tissue sample size. Additionally, genes affected by eQTL exclusively in
75 the cerebellum are enriched in microtubule-related terms in a GO analysis, sug-
76 gesting an effect of derived eQTL on cerebellar morphology and development.

77 2 Results

78 We extracted variation data from [17], a dataset that determines *Homo sapiens*
79 allele specificity using three high-coverage archaic human genomes available at
80 the moment (the Altai and Vindija Neanderthals [7, 8], and a Denisovan in-
81 dividual [9]). The original study [17] introduced an allele frequency cutoff of
82 $\geq 90\%$ to generate their High-Frequency data subset. We adopted the same filter
83 here, but, departing from the original article data, we decided to restrict our
84 attention to those derived alleles found at $\geq 90\%$ not only globally, but in each
85 of the major human populations (see Methods section).

86 The variation data was crossed with the list of variants obtained with the
87 GTEx significant cis-eQTL variants dataset to determine if the selected variants
88 affect gene expression, focusing on 15 central nervous system-related tissues.
89 The GTEx data consist of statistically significant allele effects on gene expression
90 dosage in single tissues, obtained from brain samples of adult individuals aged
91 20 to 60 [18].

92 The resulting dataset is composed of *Homo sapiens* derived alleles at high
93 frequency that have a statistically significant effect (at a FDR threshold of
94 0.05, as defined by the GTEx consortium [21]) on gene expression in any of
95 the selected adult human tissues. In quantitative terms, this amounts to 8,271
96 statistically significant SNPs associated with the regulation of a total of 896
97 eGenes (i.e., genes affected by cis-regulation). When controlling for total eQTL
98 variance between brain regions a Chi-square test reveals that the proportion of

99 derived, HF eQTL across tissues is significantly different compared to the rest
100 of non-derived, non-high-frequency eQTL ($p < 2.2e - 16$). A post-hoc residual
101 analysis indicates that regions such as the pituitary and the cerebellum are
102 among the major contributors to reject the null hypothesis that the distribution
103 is similar between both groups ($p < 0.05$).

104 Intronic variants constitute the most abundant category among the derived
105 HF eQTL dataset, but the distribution of categories likely reflects the most
106 common genetic functions near transcription start sites. We controlled for this
107 effect by testing if the functional categories of derived eQTL at high frequency
108 are significantly different from the categories of the rest of GTEx eQTL variants
109 in brain tissues, and found this to be the case (Chi-square test, $p < 2.2e - 16$).
110 NMD transcript, non coding transcript, and 5'-UTR variants are the categories
111 driving significance ($p = < 2.2e - 16$ for the three sets, residual analysis).

112 2.1 Clumping

113 To account for linkage disequilibrium and ensure statistical independence, vari-
114 ant clumping was applied through the eQTL mapping p-value at a $r^2 = 0.1$.
115 After clumping, the dataset was reduced to 1,270 alleles across tissues, out of
116 which 211 are region-specific (Figure 1B). Because eQTL discovery is highly
117 dependent on the number of tissue samples [21], tissues with more samples tend
118 to yield a higher number of significant variants, regardless of tissue specificity
119 (Figure 1C), as shown by a Spearman correlation test ($p = 0.0017$; $r = 0.74$,
120 controlled for linkage disequilibrium). However, a polynomial regression line fit
121 (blue line in Figure 1C) shows that the cerebellum, adrenal gland and BA9 fall
122 outside the regression's standard error confidence intervals (in gray in Figure
123 1C).

124 We sought to understand if the brain regions just highlighted still stand
125 out considering that most eQTL are shared among regions. The distribution
126 of clumped region-specific variants (Figure 1B) does not correlate with GTEx
127 RNAseq sample size ($p = 0.9495$, Pearson correlation test). The lack of correla-
128 tion of the region-specific variants with RNAseq sample size might be explained
129 by known effects of genetic regulation disparity between brain regions, such as
130 the distinctive profile of cerebellar eQTL [22, 23].

131 Additionally, we designed a random sampling testing approach ($n=100$) to
132 see if any particular region tends to draw more clumped unique eQTL regardless
133 of total eQTL values. The test reveals no significant difference in proportions
134 ($p = 0.3647$, Chi-square independence test). The fact that the adrenal gland
135 and the amygdala have no unique clumped variants might be driving this result.

136 2.2 Directionality of regulation

137 A previous study [16] had suggested that Neanderthal alleles present in the the
138 modern human genetic pool downregulate gene expression in brain tissue. There
139 is no significant deviance from the expected 50% proportion between down and
140 upregulating variants ($p = 0.3656$, Chi-square test) in our derived HF eQTL

141 dataset (Figure 2B). A significant deviance from the expected 50% proportion
142 ($p < 2.2e - 16$, Chi-square test) only obtains when linkage disequilibrium was
143 not controlled for (Figure 2A). A hierarchical cluster analysis of the distance of
144 normalized effect size between regions in non-clumped eQTL shows how the sub-
145 stantia nigra is particularly affected by the downregulating direction skewness
146 effect (Figure 1A).

147 The same deviation from the expected 50% up and down-regulation pro-
148 portion was present in major ancestral alleles at a 90% frequency threshold
149 ($p = < 2.2e - 16$, Chi-square test, Figure 2C), discarding the possibility that
150 the asymmetry is due to allele frequency cutoffs. However, post-hoc residual
151 analysis shows that downregulating eQTL skewness affects different tissues in
152 the major and minor ancestral eQTL sets. Our analysis suggests that the asym-
153 metric directionality of eQTL regulation is not particular of a given tissue nor
154 is accounted for by frequency. Rather, it appears to be an artifact of failure to
155 take linkage disequilibrium into account.

156 2.3 Regions of evolutionary significance

157 To determine further the evolutionary significance of any of the variants in
158 our data, we ran two randomization and permutation tests ($N = 1,000$) to
159 test whether the derived HF eQTL fell within regions under putative positive
160 selection relative to archaic humans as identified in two selective sweep studies
161 ([12, 24]).

162 We found a significant ($p = 0.001$, observed = 525 overlapping regions, ex-
163 pected = 53) overlap between eQTL and regions of positive selection as defined
164 by [12], as well as in an earlier independent study [24] ($p < 0.02$, observed =
165 673, expected = 177, Figure 3A and 3B). A Wilcoxon signed-rank test shows
166 that the number of eQTL found in positive selection regions (visualized per re-
167 gion in Figure 3C) is significantly different between studies ($p = 6.104e - 05$,
168 after controlling for length differences in the windows detected by each study).
169 A Dunn test (after Bonferroni group correction) failed to find a significant dif-
170 ference between the count of alleles per region in each selective sweep, despite
171 the apparent concordance of the studies in cerebellum (Figure 3C).

172 Additionally, we tested whether any of the eQTL fell within deserts of intro-
173 gression, i.e., genetic windows of at least 10 Mb in the *Homo sapiens* genetic pool
174 that have resisted genetic flow from Neanderthals and Denisovans ([25]). While
175 some eQTL do fall within these regions, a permutation test showed that deserts
176 of introgression are not significantly enriched for such variants ($p > 0.18$). We
177 also explored whether derived eQTL overlapped with any known human miRNA
178 or miRNA seeds (as defined in [26]), but found no overlap with our data.

179 Finally, we tested whether any of the brain-related eQTL were found in
180 genomic locations with a high score according to Pybus et al.'s ([27]) imple-
181 mentation of Fay and Wu's H test of positive selection [28]. Fay and Wu's H
182 test doesn't require ancestral sequences to detect selective sweeps, circumvent-
183 ing the low number of archaic genomes at our disposal. However, derived HF
184 eQTL don't lie within regions given a high score by Fay and Wu's H test in

185 CEU, CHB or YRI populations (at a FDR threshold of 0.01).

186 **2.4 Enrichment analysis**

187 A GO enrichment analysis for the clumped variants in the 15 regions we focused
188 on here revealed an over-representation of the categories ‘cytoplasm’, ‘catalytic
189 activity’, and ‘ion binding’ ($p < 0.05$).

190 Given the importance of the cerebellum in previous studies of great relevance
191 here [1, 6, 16], and the overrepresentation of that region in our eQTL dataset, we
192 ran a GO analysis for cerebellum-affecting eQTL. We found that these derived
193 HF eQTL lie on genes involved in microtubule-related functions (GO categories
194 ‘microtubule binding’ and ‘microtubule binding’). Microtubules play an im-
195 portant role in cerebellar neuronal migration and in maintaining morphological
196 stability through development [29].

197 In an attempt to link the derived eQTL to phenotypical effects as detected
198 by GWAS, a phenome-wide association (PheWAS) query [30] was run on the
199 clumped dataset of variants. Several variants are top hits in GWAS related
200 to the immune system and other traits of interest, such as bone mineral den-
201 sity, brain volume in various regions and lymphocyte cell count. However, a
202 downstream colocalization analysis did not find significant results in any of the
203 selected GWAS (including for traits previously claimed to be derived in human
204 evolution studies, such as cerebellar volume or Alzheimer’s disease [6, 31]).

205 **3 Discussion**

206 In this study we sought to shed light on the contribution of modern-human-
207 specific alleles found at high frequency in differential gene regulation across
208 brain regions. In so doing we hoped to complement previous work that focused
209 on the effects of introgressed variants [6, 16], as well as provide an alterna-
210 tive approach to studying fixed variants exclusively [10]. We have shown that
211 the cerebellum accumulates more derived HF eQTL than expected by chance,
212 supporting previous claims about the derived nature of the cerebellum in the
213 context of modern human evolution [3, 6, 13].

214 We did not find a significant skewness towards downregulation in derived
215 eQTL, regardless of frequency. This effect was previously detected as a char-
216 acteristic of Neanderthal alleles introgressed in the modern human genetic pool
217 [16]. The derived eQTL did show directional regulatory asymmetry but only
218 when linkage disequilibrium was not controlled for. Additional testing indicates
219 that the effect is not introduced by the high frequency cutoff imposed to the
220 data, nor introduced by the bias of a particular region in either HF or non-HF
221 alleles.

222 We also found that regions of putative positive selection exhibit an enrich-
223 ment for derived eQTL. The authors of [12] introduced fixed alleles as an addi-
224 tional source for their selective sweeps, accounting for a mean difference of 3%
225 minor allele frequency in our eQTL dataset compared to the putative positive

226 selection alleles (as per frequency values reported in [12]’s supplementary file 3).
227 This difference in minor allele frequency might affect the number of detected
228 eQTL in regions of positive selection, as the detection power of eQTL negatively
229 correlates with MAF [18], making near-fixation alleles harder to map as eQTL.
230 We suggest that derived HF eQTL might affect the modern human genetic regu-
231 lation landscape by either being drivers of positive selection or being in linkage
232 disequilibrium with causal positively selected variants. This is in agreement
233 with the authors of one of the selective sweep studies, who found that regions
234 under putative positive selection are enriched in regulatory variants [12].

235 Some of the genes associated with signals of positive selection and affected
236 by differential gene expression have already been linked to clinical phenotypes
237 or brain development. For example, *NRG4* is involved in dendritic develop-
238 ment [32], *RAB7A* has been found to be related to tau secretion, a marker of
239 Alzheimer’s disease [33], a disease hypothesized to be human-specific [31], and
240 *GABPB2* has been associated with schizophrenia [34]. We highlight as well a
241 derived eQTL in the *BAZ1B* gene that lies in one of the regions under putative
242 positive selection. This variant affects the expression of two genes in cerebel-
243 lar tissue that, like *BAZ1B* itself, are part of the Williams-Beuren Syndrome
244 Critical Region (*MLXIPL* and *NSUN5P2*). *BAZ1B* is known to be related to
245 craniofacial development in human evolution [13].

246 All in all, our work reinforces the potential of using human variation databases
247 as a valuable point of entry to connect genotype and phenotype in brain evolu-
248 tion studies, and corroborates claims about the importance of genetic regulation
249 in human brain evolution.

250 4 Methods

251 We accessed the *Homo sapiens* variant annotation data from [17]. The origi-
252 nal complete dataset is publicly available at [https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.](https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.8184038)
253 [figshare.8184038](https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.8184038). This dataset includes archaic-specific variants and all loci
254 showing variation within modern populations, using the 1000 genomes project
255 and ExAc data to derive frequencies and the human genome version *hg19* as
256 reference. As described in the original article, the authors also applied quality
257 filters in the archaic genomes (sites with less 5-fold coverage and more than
258 105-fold coverage for the Altai individual, or 75-fold coverage for the rest of
259 archaic individuals were filtered out). In ambiguous cases, variant ancestry
260 was determined using multiple genome alignments [35] and the macaque reference
261 sequence (*rheMac3*) [36].

262 For replication purposes, we wrote a script that reproduces the 90% fre-
263 quency cutoff point used in the original study. We filtered the variants according
264 to the guidelines in [17] such that: 1) all variants show 90% allele frequency, 2)
265 the major allele present in *Homo sapiens* is derived (ancestrality is either deter-
266 mined by the criteria in [35] or by the macaque reference allele), whereas either
267 archaic reliable genotypes have the ancestral allele, or the Denisovan carries the
268 ancestral allele and one of the Neanderthals the derived allele (accounting for

269 gene flow from *Homo sapiens* to Neanderthal).

270 Additionally, the original study we relied on [17] applies the 90% frequency
271 cutoff point in a global manner: it requires that the global frequency of an al-
272 lele be more than or equal to 90%, allowing for specific populations to display
273 lower frequencies. Using the metapopulation frequency information provided
274 in the original study, we applied a more stringent filter and removed any alle-
275 les that were below 90% in any of the five major metapopulations included
276 (African, American, East Asian, European, South Asian). We then harmonized
277 and mapped the high-frequency variants to the data provided by the GTEx
278 database [21]. In order to do so we pruned out the alleles that did not have an
279 assigned rsIDs.

280 Post-mortem mRNA degradation affects the number of discovered eQTL in
281 other tissues. However, we did not control for post-mortem RNA degradation,
282 since the Central Nervous System has been shown to be relatively resistant to
283 this effect. [37]. However, re-sampled tissues (here labeled ‘cerebellar hemi-
284 sphere’ and ‘Cortex’ following the original GTEx Consortium denominations)
285 do show differences compared to their original samples (‘cerebellum’ and ‘BA
286 9’). We acknowledge that the resulting data are limited by inherent problems
287 of the GTEx database, such as the use of the same individuals for different brain
288 tissue samples, the reduced discovery power of rare variants [18] or artifacts
289 introduced during RNAseq analysis.

290 Clumping of the variants to control for Linkage Disequilibrium was done
291 with Plink (version 1.9) through the *ieugwasr* R package [30], requiring a linkage
292 disequilibrium score of 0.90 (i.e., co-inheritance in 90% of cases) for an SNP to
293 be clumped. The nominal p-value of eQTL mapping was used as the criterion
294 to define a top variant; i.e., haplotypes were clumped around the most robust
295 eQTL candidate variant. Linkage disequilibrium values are extracted from the
296 1000 Genomes project ftp server ([ftp://ftp.1000genomes.ebi.ac.uk/vol11/
297 ftp/release/20130502/](ftp://ftp.1000genomes.ebi.ac.uk/vol11/ftp/release/20130502/)) by the *ieugwasr* R package.

298 Distance values for tissue hierarchical clustering were calculated by using
299 the mean values of the normalized effect size of derived HF eQTL.

300 We performed the permutation test (n=1,000) with the R package RegioneR
301 [38] using the unclumped data, as variants might clump around an eQTL falling
302 outside windows of putative positive selection, underrepresenting the number of
303 data points inside such genomic areas and reducing statistical power.

304 We performed the Gene Ontology analysis with the *gprofiler* R package [39],
305 using as background the whole genome, at a $p = 0.05$ significance threshold.
306 We performed the Phenome-wise association scan (PheWAS) (at a $p = 0.0001$
307 threshold) and colocalization analysis (at a $p = 5e - 04$ threshold for top hit
308 identification) through the *ieugwasr* [30], *MRinstruments* and *wasglue* pack-
309 ages. The selected GWAS for colocalization can be consulted in the relevant
310 section of the article’s code.

311 Figures were created with the ggplot2 R package [40] and RegioneR [38].
312 All statistical tests were controlled for power (≥ 0.8). The complete code
313 to reproduce the data processing, plot generation and analysis can be found
314 in <https://github.com/AGMAndirko/GTEX-code>. The miRNA data was ex-

315 tracted from the Supplementary Tables S6 and S7 of [26]. The human selective
316 sweep data was extracted Supplementary Table S5 from [24], and Supplemen-
317 tary Table S2 from [12]. For the deserts of introgression data we extracted the
318 information from [25].

319 Acknowledgments

320 The Genotype-Tissue Expression (GTEx) Project was supported by the Com-
321 mon Fund of the Office of the Director of the National Institutes of Health, and
322 by NCI, NHGRI, NHLBI, NIDA, NIMH, and NINDS. The data used for the
323 analyses described in this manuscript were obtained from the GTEx Portal on
324 05/15/19.

325 Author Contributions

326 Conceptualization: CB & AA; Data Curation: AA; Formal Analysis: AA; Fund-
327 ing Acquisition: CB; Investigation: CB & AA; Methodology: CB & AA; Soft-
328 ware: AA; Supervision: CB; Visualization: CB & AA; Writing — Original Draft
329 Preparation: CB & AA; Writing — Review & Editing: CB & AA.

330 Funding statement

331 AA acknowledges financial support from the Spanish Ministry of Economy and
332 Competitiveness and the European Social Fund (BES-2017-080366). CB ac-
333 knowledges financial support from the Spanish Ministry of Science and Inno-
334 vation (grant PID2019-107042GB-I00), a Leonardo fellowship from the BBVA
335 Foundation, research funds from the Fundació Bosch i Gimpera, the MEXT/JSPS
336 Grant-in-Aid for Scientific Research on Innovative Areas 4903 (Evolinguistics:
337 JP17H06379), and support from the Generalitat de Catalunya (2017-SGR-341).

338 Competing interest

339 Authors declare no competing financial or non-financial interest.

340 References

- 341 [1] P. Gunz, *et al.*, “Brain development after birth differs between Nean-
342 derthals and modern humans,” *Current Biology*, vol. 20, pp. R921–R922,
343 Nov. 2010.
- 344 [2] J.-J. Hublin, *et al.*, “Brain ontogeny and life history in Pleistocene ho-
345 minins,” *Phil. Trans. R. Soc. B*, vol. 370, p. 20140062, Mar. 2015.
- 346 [3] S. Neubauer, *et al.*, “The evolution of modern human brain shape,” *Sci.*
347 *Adv.*, vol. 4, p. eaao5961, Jan. 2018.
- 348 [4] A. S. Pereira-Pedro, *et al.*, “A morphometric comparison of the parietal
349 lobe in modern humans and Neanderthals,” *Journal of Human Evolution*,
350 vol. 142, p. 102770, May 2020.
- 351 [5] T. Kochiyama, *et al.*, “Reconstructing the Neanderthal brain using com-
352 putational anatomy,” *Scientific Reports*, vol. 8, p. 6296, Apr. 2018.

- 353 [6] P. Gunz, *et al.*, “Neandertal Introgression Sheds Light on Modern Human
354 Endocranial Globularity,” *Current Biology*, vol. 29, pp. 120–127.e5, Jan.
355 2019.
- 356 [7] K. Prüfer, *et al.*, “The complete genome sequence of a Neanderthal from
357 the Altai Mountains,” *Nature*, vol. 505, pp. 43–49, Jan. 2014.
- 358 [8] K. Prüfer, *et al.*, “A high-coverage Neandertal genome from Vindija Cave
359 in Croatia,” *Science*, vol. 358, pp. 655–658, Nov. 2017.
- 360 [9] M. Meyer, *et al.*, “A High-Coverage Genome Sequence from an Archaic
361 Denisovan Individual,” *Science*, vol. 338, pp. 222–226, Oct. 2012.
- 362 [10] S. Pääbo, “The Human Condition—A Molecular Approach,” *Cell*, vol. 157,
363 pp. 216–226, Mar. 2014.
- 364 [11] M. King *et al.*, “Evolution at two levels in humans and chimpanzees,”
365 *Science*, vol. 188, pp. 107–116, Apr. 1975.
- 366 [12] S. Peyrégne, *et al.*, “Detecting ancient positive selection in humans using
367 extended lineage sorting,” *Genome Res.*, vol. 27, pp. 1563–1572, Sept. 2017.
- 368 [13] M. Zanella, *et al.*, “Dosage analysis of the 7q11.23 Williams region identifies
369 *BAZ1B* as a major human gene patterning the modern human face and
370 underlying self-domestication,” *Sci. Adv.*, vol. 5, p. eaaw7908, Dec. 2019.
- 371 [14] D. Gokhman, *et al.*, “Differential DNA methylation of vocal and facial
372 anatomy genes in modern humans,” *Nat Commun*, vol. 11, p. 1189, Dec.
373 2020.
- 374 [15] L. L. Colbran, *et al.*, “Inferred divergent gene regulation in archaic hominins
375 reveals potential phenotypic differences,” *Nat Ecol Evol*, vol. 3, pp. 1598–
376 1606, Nov. 2019.
- 377 [16] R. C. McCoy, *et al.*, “Impacts of Neanderthal-Introgressed Sequences on
378 the Landscape of Human Gene Expression,” *Cell*, vol. 168, pp. 916–927.e12,
379 Feb. 2017.
- 380 [17] M. Kuhlwilm *et al.*, “A catalog of single nucleotide changes distinguishing
381 modern humans from archaic hominins,” *Sci Rep*, vol. 9, p. 8463, Dec.
382 2019.
- 383 [18] GTEx Consortium, “Genetic effects on gene expression across human tis-
384 sues,” *Nature*, vol. 550, pp. 204–213, Oct. 2017.
- 385 [19] R. S. Lacruz, *et al.*, “The evolutionary history of the human face,” *Nat*
386 *Ecol Evol*, vol. 3, pp. 726–736, May 2019.
- 387 [20] J. Moriano *et al.*, “Modern human changes in regulatory regions implicated
388 in cortical development,” *BMC Genomics*, vol. 21, Apr. 2020.

- 389 [21] The GTEx Consortium, *et al.*, “The Genotype-Tissue Expression (GTEx)
390 pilot analysis: Multitissue gene regulation in humans,” *Science*, vol. 348,
391 pp. 648–660, May 2015.
- 392 [22] S. K. Sieberts, *et al.*, “Large eQTL meta-analysis reveals differing patterns
393 between cerebral cortical and cerebellar brain regions,” *Scientific Data*,
394 vol. 7, Oct. 2020.
- 395 [23] L. M. F. Sng, *et al.*, “Genome-wide human brain eQTLs: In-depth analysis
396 and insights using the UKBEC dataset,” *Sci Rep*, vol. 9, p. 19201, Dec.
397 2019.
- 398 [24] F. Racimo, *et al.*, “A Test for Ancient Selective Sweeps and an Application
399 to Candidate Sites in Modern Humans,” *Molecular Biology and Evolution*,
400 vol. 31, pp. 3344–3358, Dec. 2014.
- 401 [25] S. Sankararaman, *et al.*, “The Combined Landscape of Denisovan and Ne-
402 anderthal Ancestry in Present-Day Humans,” *Current Biology*, vol. 26,
403 pp. 1241–1247, May 2016.
- 404 [26] P. R. Branco, *et al.*, “Uncovering association networks through an eQTL
405 analysis involving human miRNAs and lincRNAs,” *Sci Rep*, vol. 8, p. 15050,
406 Dec. 2018.
- 407 [27] M. Pybus, *et al.*, “1000 Genomes Selection Browser 1.0: a genome browser
408 dedicated to signatures of natural selection in modern humans,” *Nucleic
409 Acids Research*, vol. 42, pp. D903–D909, Jan. 2014.
- 410 [28] J. C. Fay *et al.*, “Hitchhiking under positive darwinian selection,” *Genetics*,
411 vol. 155, July 2000.
- 412 [29] R. Muñoz-Castañeda, *et al.*, “Cytoskeleton stability is essential for the
413 integrity of the cerebellum and its motor- and affective-related behaviors,”
414 *Scientific Reports*, vol. 8, p. 3072, Dec. 2018.
- 415 [30] B. Elsworth, *et al.*, “The MRC IEU OpenGWAS data infrastructure,”
416 preprint, *Genetics*, Aug. 2020.
- 417 [31] E. Buñil, *et al.*, “Alzheimer’s disease: An evolutionary approach,” *Journal
418 of Anthropological Sciences*, no. 91, pp. 135–157, 2013.
- 419 [32] B. Paramo, *et al.*, “An essential role for neuregulin-4 in the growth and
420 elaboration of developing neocortical pyramidal dendrites,” *Experimental
421 Neurology*, vol. 302, pp. 85–92, Apr. 2018.
- 422 [33] L. Rodriguez, *et al.*, “Rab7A regulates tau secretion,” *J. Neurochem.*,
423 vol. 141, pp. 592–605, May 2017.
- 424 [34] S.-A. Lee *et al.*, “Epigenetic profiling of human brain differential DNA
425 methylation networks in schizophrenia,” *BMC Med Genomics*, vol. 9, p. 68,
426 Dec. 2016.

- 427 [35] B. Paten, *et al.*, “Genome-wide nucleotide-level mammalian ancestor re-
428 construction,” *Genome Research*, vol. 18, pp. 1829–1843, Nov. 2008.
- 429 [36] G. Yan, *et al.*, “Genome sequencing and comparison of two nonhuman
430 primate animal models, the cynomolgus and Chinese rhesus macaques,”
431 *Nature Biotechnology*, vol. 29, pp. 1019–1023, Nov. 2011.
- 432 [37] Y. Zhu, *et al.*, “Systematic analysis of gene expression patterns associ-
433 ated with postmortem interval in human tissues,” *Scientific Reports*, vol. 7,
434 p. 5435, July 2017.
- 435 [38] B. Gel, *et al.*, “regioneR: An R/Bioconductor package for the association
436 analysis of genomic regions based on permutation tests,” *Bioinformatics*,
437 p. btv562, Sept. 2015.
- 438 [39] U. Raudvere, *et al.*, “G:Profiler: A web server for functional enrichment
439 analysis and conversions of gene lists (2019 update),” *Nucleic Acids Re-
440 search*, vol. 47, pp. W191–W198, July 2019.
- 441 [40] H. Wickham, *Ggplot2: Elegant Graphics for Data Analysis*. Use R!, New
442 York: Springer, 2009. OCLC: ocn382399721.

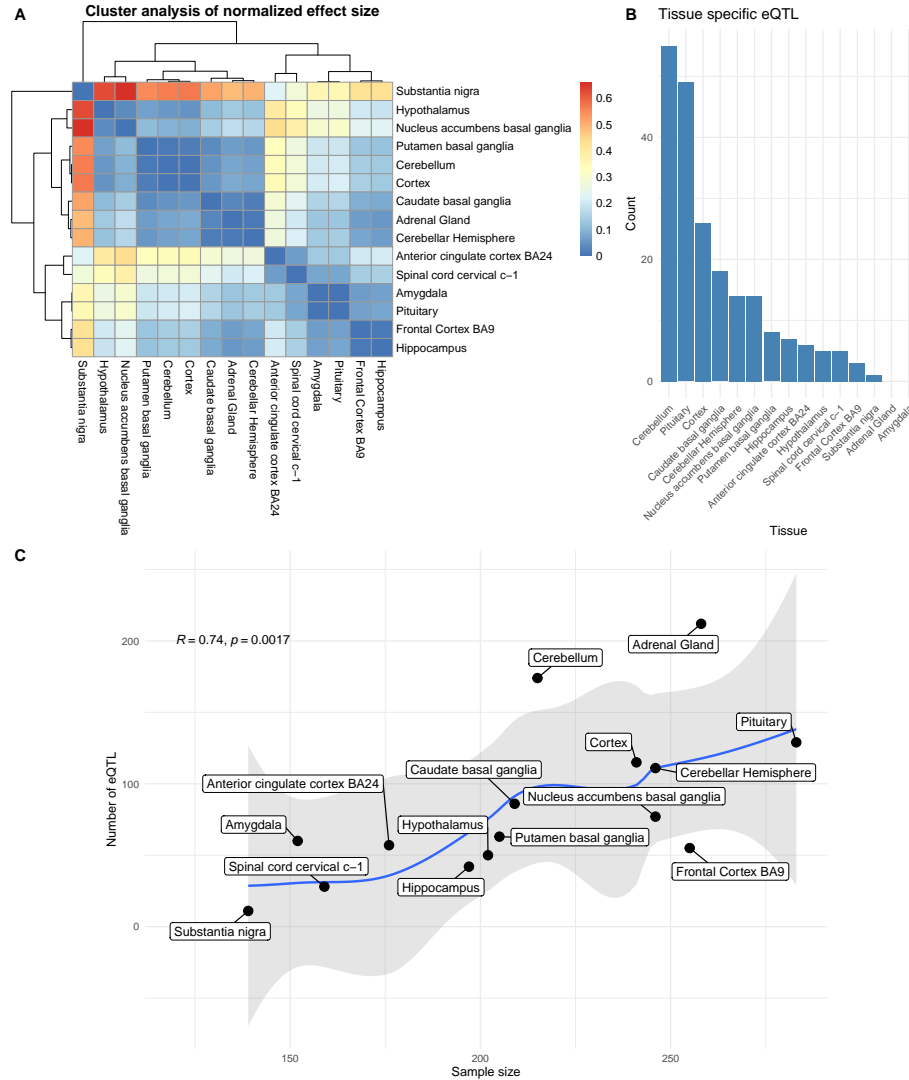


Figure 1: A: Hierarchical clustering analysis of eQTL normal effect size, not controlled for linkage disequilibrium (LD). Color denotes hierarchical distance. B: Number of tissue-specific eQTL after clumping. Adrenal gland and Amygdala do not contain tissue-specific eQTL in our dataset. C: Brain region sample size and eQTL count correlate in our dataset. The blue line marks a polynomial regression line fit, with regression's standard error confidence intervals (95%) in gray.

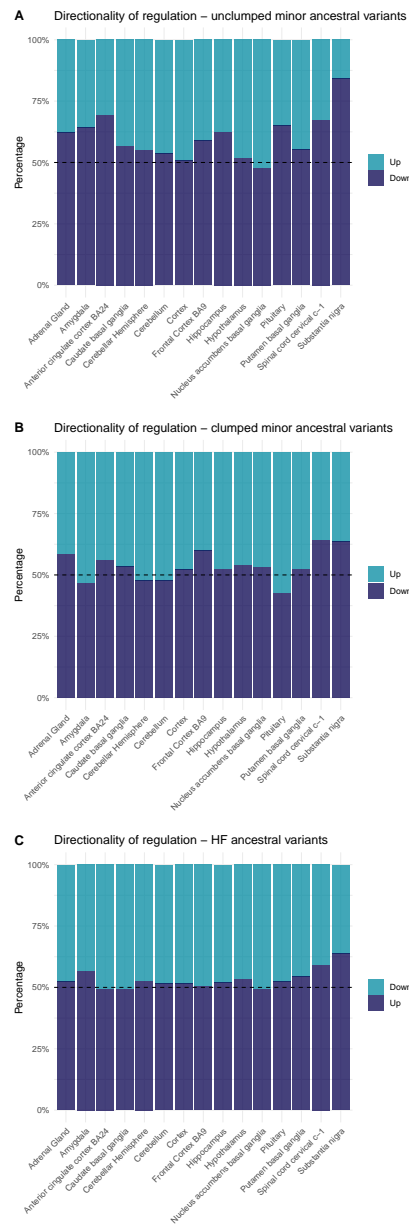


Figure 2: Distribution of up and down-regulating ancestral variants across different subsets of the data, in all eGenes. We include here data before (A) and after (B) controlling for linkage disequilibrium in minor alleles ($\geq 10\%$ frequency). A control using major ancestral alleles (at $\geq 90\%$ frequency) is included (C).

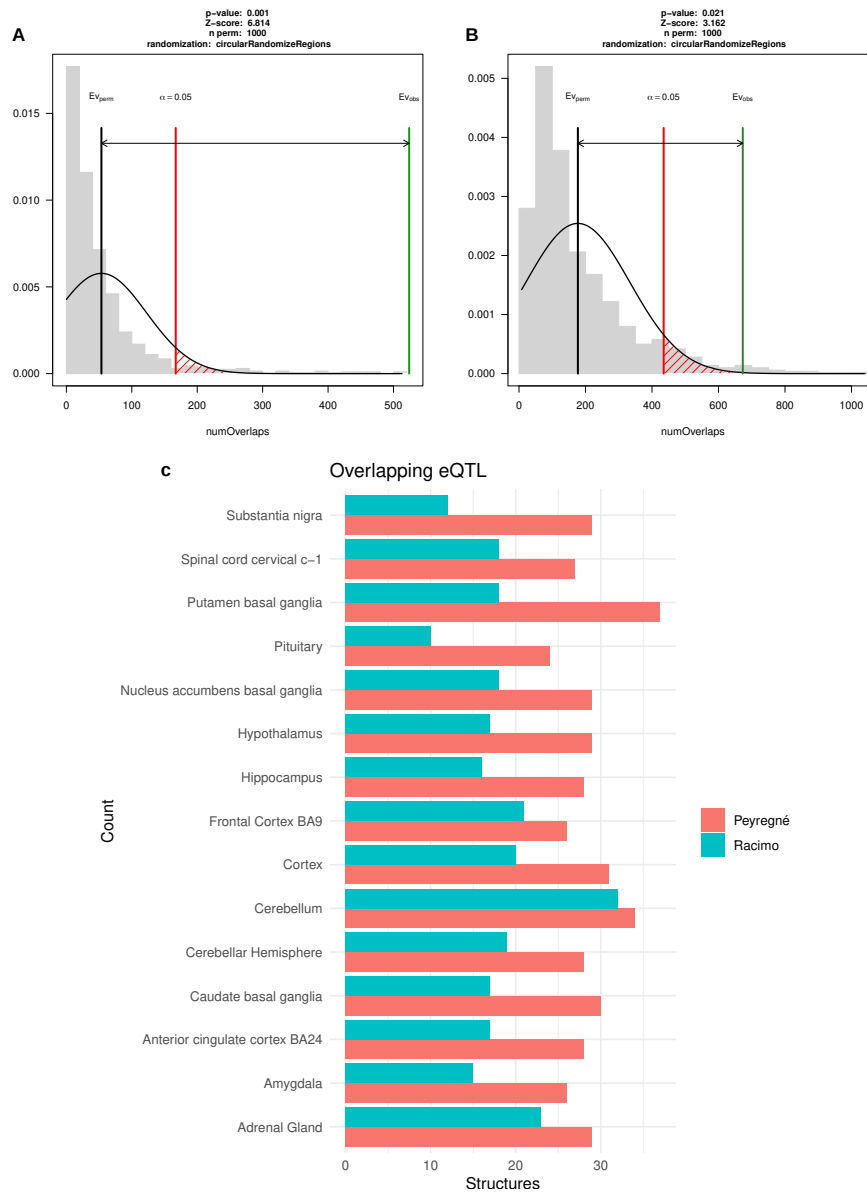


Figure 3: Derived, HF eQTL are present more than expected by chance in selective sweeps from [12] (A) and [24] (B). C shows the count of eQTL overlapping with regions under putative positive selection per region.