Title: Variant-to-gene mapping identifies *ARHGEF12* as a primary open-angle

glaucoma effector gene operating within retinal ganglion cells

Authors: Vrathasha Vrathasha[1,2,†], Matthew C. Pahl[3,4,†], James A. Pippin[3,4], Sergei

Nikonov[2], Jie He[1,2], Mina Halimitabrizi[1,2], Laxmi Moksha[1,2], Rebecca Salowe[1], Amy-Ann

Edziah[1], Yuki Bradford[5], Yan Zhu[1], Harini V. Gudiseva[2], Venkata R. M. Chavali[2], Bruna

Lopes da Costa[2], Anne Marie Berry[2], Peter M. J. Quinn[2], Qi N. Cui[1,2], Eydie Miller-Ellis[1],

Prithvi S. Sankar[1], Ahmara G. Ross[1,2], Victoria Addis[1], Shefali S. Verma[6], Andrew D.

Wells[3,6,7,8], Struan F. A. Grant[3,4,9,10,11, †], Joan M. O'Brien[1,2,†,*]

┼Authors contributed equally

* Corresponding author: Penn Medicine Center for Genetics of Complex Disease, 25 N

38th St, Philadelphia, PA 19104 (joan.obrien@pennmedicine.upenn.edu; phone: 215-

900-4204)

Affiliations:

1. Center for Genetics of Complex Disease, Department of Ophthalmology,

University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA 19104, USA

2. F.M. Kirby Center for Molecular Ophthalmology, University of Pennsylvania,

Philadelphia, PA 19104, USA

3. Center for Spatial and Functional Genomics, The Children's Hospital of

Philadelphia, Philadelphia, PA 19104, USA.

4. Division of Human Genetics, The Children's Hospital of Philadelphia, Philadelphia, PA 19104, USA

5. Department of Medicine, Perelman School of Medicine, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA 19104, USA.

6. Department of Pathology and Laboratory Medicine, Perelman School of Medicine, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA, USA

7. Department of Pathology, The Children's Hospital of Philadelphia, Philadelphia, PA 19104, USA

8. Institute for Immunology & Immune Health, Perelman School of Medicine, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA 19104, USA

9. Department of Pediatrics, Perelman School of Medicine, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA 19104, USA.

10. Department of Genetics, Perelman School of Medicine, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA 19104, USA.

11. Division of Diabetes and Endocrinology, The Children's Hospital of Philadelphia, 3615 Civic Center Boulevard, Philadelphia, PA 19104, USA

Abstract: Primary open-angle glaucoma (POAG), a leading cause of irreversible

blindness, has a strong genetic basis. The Primary Open-Angle African Ancestry

Glaucoma Genetics study previously identified 46 risk loci. To pinpoint causal variants

and their corresponding effector genes, we analyzed gene expression, chromatin

accessibility, and conformation in two ocular cell-types: trabecular meshwork cells

(hTMCs) and retinal ganglion cells derived from induced pluripotent stem cells (hiPSC-

RGCs). We identified 24 candidate genes in hTMCs and 56 in hiPSC-RGCs. The

ARHGEF12 gene was selected for further validation because it was nominated by local

and distal promoter interactions in both cell-types and has reproducible prior evidence of

its association with POAG. While its role in hTMCs is established, its function in RGCs is

unclear. hiPSC-RGCs generated from a POAG donor homozygous for the risk allele

showed reduced *ARHGEF12* expression, altered morphology, and disrupted neuronal

activity. This framework enables functional evaluation of additional POAG risk variants.

Introduction:

Over the past two decades, genome-wide association studies (GWAS) have revealed thousands of single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) that are statistically associated with complex phenotypes and disease risk.[1-3] The vast majority of these GWAS-implicated signals are located in non-coding regions of the genome, presumably influencing disease susceptibility by altering the expression of one or more target genes.[4-6] However, the assumption that the nearest gene to the GWAS-implicated signal represents the true effector gene has proven insufficient. Instead, effector genes can be located tens or hundreds of kilobases distal to regulatory elements due to long-range interactions at the 3D genome level.[4,6-12] As GWAS itself does not unambiguously reveal which target genes and cell types are affected by the discovered signals, this complexity hinders the interpretation of potential disease mechanisms.[8,13-15]

Historically, the study of 3D genome organization has been challenging due to a lack of relevant methodologies. However, over the past decade, chromosome conformation capture (3C)-based techniques, such as Hi-C and its derivatives, have enabled mapping of putative contacts across a range of genomic distances.[16,17] Structural genomics approaches have been successfully applied to several complex genetic disorders, implicating novel risk genes. For type 2 diabetes, 3D genomic approaches revealed that a causal variant for the strongest signal in the *TCF7L2* gene[18,19] also functions as a regulatory region for *ACSL5*.[20] Similar approaches in osteoporosis[6], obesity[21-23], carpal tunnel syndrome[8], type 2 diabetes[24], and rheumatoid arthritis[25] have similarly implicated novel causal target genes that drove functional follow-up studies.

However, such 3D genomic efforts in the context of primary open-angle glaucoma

(POAG) remain limited, despite the disease being a leading cause of irreversible

blindness worldwide.[26-28] POAG has a strong heritable component, ranging from 13% to

81%.[29-32] Several monogenic mutations have been reported for POAG, but only account

for 5% of all cases.[33-36] Thus far, GWAS analyses have identified 329 risk loci associated

with POAG and its related endophenotypes.[37-53] However, the vast majority of these loci

are harbored in non-coding areas of the genome and therefore do not directly pinpoint

the underlying specific gene(s), cell types, or mechanisms.[39] Translating these results to

biological insights requires systematic identification of putative causal variants and the

corresponding candidate effector genes, together with functional verification in either

cellular or animal models.[24,54-56] Indeed, Wang *et al* reported that using scATAC-seq-

derived peaks in the human retina could assign a SNP (rs4821699), located in the intronic

region of *TRIOBP,* as a contributing causal variant to glaucoma by altering the gene's

expression in retinal ganglion cells (RGCs).[12]

The Primary Open-Angle African Ancestry Glaucoma Genetics (POAAGG) study

previously conducted a GWAS on POAG in African ancestry individuals, identifying 46

risk loci.[37] In this study, we employed 3D-genomic approaches to implicate causal

variants and their corresponding effector genes at these POAG loci. We generated 3D

genomics data using two glaucoma-related ocular cell lines: human trabecular meshwork

cells (hTMCs) and retinal ganglion cells derived from human induced pluripotent stem

cells (hiPSC-RGCs), as gene regulatory elements are known to be cell-type and tissue-

specific. Our analyses implicated 24 genes in hTMCs and 56 genes in hiPSC-RGCs. The

ARHGEF12 gene was prioritized for functional follow-up, as multiple signals in both cell

types contacted its promoter, and it displayed contacts to a fine-mapped SNP from our

prior GWAS.[37] Though this gene has an established role in intraocular pressure (IOP)

regulation in hTMCs,[41] its function in RGCs remains poorly understood. We detected

significant differences in the *ARHGEF12* mRNA expression, ultrastructure of cellular

organelles, and spike firing rate in disease-variant hiPSC-RGCs derived from POAG and

control subjects.

Results:

Chromatin contact maps of hiPSC-RGCs and hTMCs

First, we sought to implicate candidate causal variant-effector gene pairs for the 46

POAG-associated loci identified by the POAAGG study.[37] We used ATAC-seq to identify

putative cis-regulatory elements (cREs) harboring proxy SNPs in both cell types and used

promoter-focused Capture C in hTMCs and Hi-C in hiPSC-RGCs to capture chromatin

contacts. Additionally, we generated RNA-seq data for both models to contextualize gene

expression in these cells (**Fig. 1a**). For these experiments, three biological replicates were

sequenced at standard or higher depth, with the exception of hiPSC-RGCs Hi-C, which

was performed in duplicate (**Fig. S1a**). While Hi-C is a genome-wide approach, Promoter-

focused Capture C enriches for contacts specifically at promoters, which can contribute

to differences in contacts detected. Libraries passed other QC metrics, such as the

expected fragment size distribution and proportion of long-range cis-reads in the

chromatin interaction data (**Fig. S1b,c**).

First, we focused on identifying open chromatin regions (OCRs) that may act as

regulatory elements to influence gene expression. We identified 132,634 OCRs in hTMCs

and 255,543 OCRs in hiPSC-RGCs that were reproducible in at least two replicates in

each cell type. A subset of OCRs was shared in both cell types, with 47.5% of the OCRs

found in hTMCs and 26.7% of the OCRs found in hiPSC-RGCs also detected in the

reciprocal cell type (**Fig. 1b**). As expected, most OCRs were in non-coding regions such

as introns and intergenic regions (**Fig. 1c**).

We then mapped these OCRs to effector genes using matched chromatin

conformation data. We considered both proximal OCRs overlapping promoter regions

themselves and OCRs overlapping distal promoter-interacting regions defined by Hi-C or

Promoter-focused Capture C, as well as distal OCRs (**Fig. 1d**). The significant distal

promoter interaction regions were considered using either Chicago[57] for promoter-

focused Capture C data, and the combination of Mustache[58] and FitHiC2[59] to call

interaction in the hiPSC-RGC Hi-C data.[6,24] We intersected the resulting loop calls with

ATAC-seq peaks to define a set of promoter-interacting region OCRs (PIR-OCRs), which

may function as long-distance cis-regulatory elements to influence gene expression. We

further considered the set of OCRs located locally to a promoter (-1500/+500bp of the

TSS) to be promoter OCRs.

A comparable number of promoter contacts were detected in both hiPSC-RGCs

and hTMCs, with Hi-C also detecting many non-promoter contacts (**Fig. 1e**). A subset of

these interactions involved one or more promoters (promoter-to-promoter interactions;

p2p). Comparing the distance between these interactions, we detected that non-promoter

to promoter interactions called by hiPSC-RGC Hi-C were longer than those called by

Capture C in hTMCs. However, the same difference was not observed for promoter-to-

promoter interactions across cell types (**Fig. 1f**). Overall, our approach identified 34,709

OCRs in interactions with 17,977 distinct genes in hTMCs and 39,496 OCRs contacting

19,174 genes in hiPSC-RGCs (**Fig. S1d,e**).

Promoter-open chromatin interactions correlate with gene expression

Next, we validated the association of promoter contacts across OCRs in the context of

gene regulation. We first identified the number of OCRs called per gene, which was a

mean of 5.0 in hTMCs and 6.2 in hiPSC-RGCs (**Fig. 2a**). Similarly, we examined the

mean number of genes connected per OCR, which was 2.6 in hTMCs and 2.5 in hiPSC-

RGCs (**Fig. 2b**). Given that multiple genes may be implicated at a GWAS locus, we next

sought to characterize the promoter-promoter and promoter-regulatory elements. We

found 9.2% of genes in hiPSC-RGCs and 12.1% of genes in hTMCs were in promoter–

promoter interactions with at least one other distinct gene. The number of connected

OCRs per gene was positively correlated with gene expression across both cell types

(**Fig. 2c**), suggesting that these interactions capture functional regulatory elements.

Next, we examined whether the number of OCRs contacting promoters correlated

with differences in genes between the two cell types. We identified differentially

expressed genes between hiPSC-RGCs and hTMCs. Given that we expected large

differences in expression between these two cellular models, we employed stringent

criteria, as our primary goal in this analysis was to identify cellular marker genes. We

observed 2,831 genes enriched in hTMCs and 12,316 genes enriched in hiPSC-RGCs

(**Fig. S2a; Table S1**), which may reflect greater cellular diversity in generated hiPSC-

RGCs when compared to directly harvested hTMCs. Reassuringly, known TMC and

retinal neuron genes were detected, as the gene with the highest enrichment in hTMCs

was *Fibronectin 1*, which is related to flow through the TMCs (*FN1*)[60], while in hiPSC-

RGCs it was *Cerebellar Degeneration Related 1* (*CDR1*), which is involved in retinal

neuron survival.[61] Likewise, pathway enrichment analysis revealed enrichment of

cytoskeletal, adhesion, and stress response pathways in hTMCs, which are all consistent

with the clinical reduction of aqueous humor flow through hTMCs in POAG. Rhodopsin

signaling, which plays an essential role in converting light into electrical pulses, displayed

the strongest enrichment in hiPSC-RGCs (FDR = 0.08) (**Fig. S2b**). When we correlated

the difference in the number of OCR contacts with gene expression, we observed a

moderate correlation (Spearman's Rho = 0.159, *p* < 2.2e-19; **Fig. 2d**). Although

statistically significant, this modest correlation may be limited because chromatin

accessibility does not distinguish between active enhancers and other mechanisms that

regulate gene expression. Taken together, these results are consistent with the

expectation that increased chromatin contacts are positively associated with gene

expression and may contribute to differences in expression across cell types that

correlate with clinical phenotypes in POAG.

Heritability enrichment of ocular traits in regulatory elements

Next, to determine which traits were enriched in our datasets, we conducted partitioned

linkage disequilibrium (LD) score regression to assess enrichment of polygenic signals

within genomic annotations across several eye-related traits. We included recent studies

on vision-relevant traits, such as myopia and age-related macular degeneration, using

publicly available summary statistics from GWAS in European populations. We detected

significant enrichments for myopia[62], primary open-angle glaucoma[40], IOP[63], progressive

vision loss[64], and macular telangiectasia (**Fig. 3a; Table S2**).[65] For most traits that were

enriched in both cell types, the hTMCs displayed stronger enrichment compared to

hiPSC-RGCs, except for macular telangiectasia, a retinal disease.[65] We did not detect

significant enrichment in retinoschisis.[62] Taken together, these analyses suggest that our

datasets can serve as a useful resource for investigating the non-coding contribution of

eye-relevant traits.

While LD score regression is useful for adjusting for genetic confounding and

heritability enrichment, the complexity of long-distance LD has limited its application for

recently admixed groups, such as African Americans.[66] Recently, LD score regression

has been extended to accommodate these issues in covariate-adjusted LDSC[67], which

extends the LD window and uses principal components from the LD matrix as covariates

for the regression. We performed partitioned LD score regression using our annotations

with our recent African ancestry-based GWAS.[37] While the GWAS sample size is slightly

under the threshold for consistent signals used in the UK Biobank, we detected nominal

significance with strong enrichment only in hTMCs (hTMC: Enrichment = 17.2,

Unadjusted p = 0.044). This result, combined with the significant result in the European

POAG study (**Fig.3a**)[40], motivated us to pursue variant-to-gene mapping for genome-wide

significant POAG variants.[37]

Variant-to-gene mapping of genome-wide significant POAG loci in African ancestry

individuals

We next took 46 sentinel variants representing independent signals that achieved

genome-wide significance in our prior GWAS of POAG in African ancestry indivdiuals.[37]

We first expanded to proxy variants in strong linkage disequilibrium (LD; $r^2 > 0.6$) using

either the sample matrix or TOPMED-LD[68] and LDLink 1000G reference databases.[69]

This yielded 4,438 variants, with ~56% agreement among two or more approaches (**Fig.**

3b). We then intersected these variants with OCRs showing significant chromatin

contacts at a gene promoter, identifying 44 variants in hiPSC-RGCs that collectively

interacted with 56 genes. Similarly, 10 variants in hTMCs were in contact with 24 genes

(**Table S3**). Among the loci investigated, our approach nominated at least one gene for

20 loci (43 % of signals).

From this list of putative effector genes, we prioritized variants based on: (1)

overlap of findings from our prior orthogonal approaches, such as GWAS, and implication

in other genetic studies of POAG (such as the *ARHGEF12* variant), (2) genes involved in

neuronal function (*UCHL1, TUBB2B* and its associated lincRNA *LINC02525*), (3) genes

involved in other retinal degeneration diseases (*CRB1* and *EXOSC2*), (4) antioxidant

gene (*CAT*), (5) molecules involved in key cellular pathways of eye development such as

Rho/Rho-associated kinase (ROCK) and Notch signaling pathways (*ARHGEF12*,

ROCK1, *MIB2*, *MTA1* and its associated lincRNA *AL928654.1*).

We analyzed the mRNA expression of the selected genes in hTMCs isolated from

human donor control eyes and POAG cases who underwent trabeculectomy. First, we

confirmed the authenticity of isolated hTMCs by assessing *myocilin* expression via qRT-

PCR, which showed that dexamethasone-treated cells expressed significantly higher

MYOC than untreated cells (**Fig. S3a-e**).[70] When comparing mRNA expression of genes

in hTMCs, we found that *ARHGEF12* (4 ± 0.13, $p = 0.0001$) and *ROCK1* (2.75 ± 0.12, p

$= 0.0001$) were significantly elevated in hTMCs obtained from a POAG patient carrying a

heterozygous SNP (rs11824032G>A). Similarly, *MIB2* was significantly elevated (1.72 ±

0.12, *p* = 0.0007) in POAG hTMCs with a homozygous SNP (rs4320726). However, there

was no significant difference in the expression of *CAT* (**Fig. 4a-d**). Genotype information

for the variants associated with the tested genes in each hTMC line is listed in **Table S4**.

Analysis of mRNA expression of genes in hiPSC-RGCs generated from control

and POAG lines carrying the *ARHGEF12* variant showed that *ARHGEF12* was

significantly downregulated (0.35 ± 0.05, *p* = 0.006) in the POAG hiPSC-RGCs. Similarly,

TUBB2B (0.05 ± 0.07, *p* < 0.0001), *LINC02525* (0.015 ± 0.1, *p* < 0.0001), *EXOSC2* (0.48

± 0.07, *p* < 0.0001), *UCHL1* (0.57 ± 0.15, *p* = 0.03), and *CRB1* (0.53 ± 0.15, *p* = 0.01)

genes were all significantly downregulated in POAG hiPSC-RGCs compared to control

cells. However, there was no significant difference in the expression of *ROCK1* and

MTA1/ AL928654.1 (**Fig. 4e-m**). Genotype information for each gene in the hiPSC-RGC

lines is listed in **Table S5**.

Functional validation of *ARHGEF12* variant in patient-derived hiPSC-RGCs

We initially identified *ARHGEF12* through fine mapping and colocalization analyses.[37]

We detected two variants (rs34002948 and rs11824032) corresponding to two

independent signals (r^2 = 0) with contacts to promoters of this locus in hiPSC-RGCs (**Fig.**

5a). We predicted transcription factor motifs that could be either strengthened or disrupted

by these variants (**Fig. 5b**). rs11824032 was predicted to disrupt several Kruppel-like zinc

finger family motifs, while rs34002948 was predicted to strengthen affinity for several

nuclear receptor family members. Among these, *KLF1* and *NR1I3* had the strongest

expression in hiPSC-RGCs (**Fig. 5c**). The variant rs11824032 was in close proximity to

the transcription start site (TSS) (<5kb), whereas the other variant was implicated through

a long-distance interaction (~1 Mb) spanning several genes. Indeed, this gene was

moderately expressed (TPM =1.57) in control hiPSC-RGCs, leading us to prioritize the

ARHGEF12 gene for functional validation.

We confirmed homozygous risk genotype for rs11824032G>A at the *ARHGEF12*

gene in a POAAGG subject via Sanger sequencing (**Fig. S4b**) and selected an age- and

sex-matched non-risk control (**Fig. S4a**). PBMCs were collected, reprogrammed into

hiPSCs, and differentiated into RGCs using our 2D differentiation protocol.[71-73] Day-35

FACS analysis showed *ARHGEF12*-variant hiPSC-RGCs expressed BRN3 (87%) and

SNCG (92%) (**Fig. S4d**), while control hiPSC-RGCs also expressed BRN3 (96%) and

SNCG (92%) (**Fig. S4c**).

Using western blot, we observed a trend toward decreased ARHGEF12 protein

levels (0.79 ± 0.24) in hiPSC-RGCs derived from the POAG line (n = 3), but this difference

was not statistically significant (**Fig. 5d-e**). However, ultrastructural analyses using

transmission electron microscopy (TEM) revealed marked morphological differences

between control and disease-variant hiPSC-RGCs. Control cells exhibited elongated

mitochondria with an outer double membrane, intact cristae, dense matrix, and well-

organized cytoplasm consistent with normal metabolic activity, whereas *ARHGEF12*

variant cells displayed swollen, vacuolated mitochondria, cytoplasmic disorganization,

and accumulation of autophagic vacuoles containing undigested material (**Fig. 5f**).[74]

These results highlight variant-linked cellular vulnerability.

To investigate the functional effects of the *ARHGEF12* variant on RGC activity,

fluorescent Ca^{2+} indicators were used to indirectly measure neuronal responses of

hiPSC-RGCs.[75-77] Intracellular calcium dynamics were recorded from hiPSC-RGCs

loaded with BioTracker™ 609 Red Ca^{2+} AM dye, and spontaneous activity-driven signals

were imaged using a laser-scanning confocal microscope. We analyzed fluorescence

responses from more than 200 spontaneously active RGCs from each hiPSC line and

observed a range of response dynamics. However, when averaged across all cells,

significant differences in fluorescence intensity were detected between the two hiPSC-

RGC lines (**Fig. 5g**). Total RGC activity, which was expressed as the summed amplitudes

of all Ca^{2+} responses, was 53 ± 1.75% (*n* = 215) in control hiPSC-RGCs and 28 ± 0.82%

(*n* = 213) in *ARHGEF12* variant-expressing hiPSC-RGCs (**Fig. 5h**). **Videos 5a** and **5b**

illustrate representative Ca^{2+} signals in control and *ARHGEF12* variant hiPSC-RGCs,

respectively (note that video frame rates were increased for presentation purposes).

Discussion:

POAG is highly heritable, yet known genes explain less than 10% of cases[78] and over

30% of patients do not respond to current therapies.[79,80] POAG pathogenesis remains

unclear; increased resistance to aqueous humor outflow by trabecular meshwork cells

leads to elevated intraocular pressure, which causes RGC death and optic nerve

degeneration.[81] While GWAS has identified many loci associated with POAG and its

phenotypes, most are non-coding with small effects. Here, we aimed to link SNPs to target

genes and clarify the role of coding and non-coding variants in POAG. We integrated

variants implicated by our large GWAS in overaffected and understudied African ancestry

populations with gene expression analysis, accessible chromatin peaks, and 3D

chromatin architecture maps in two glaucoma-specific cell types. Together, our analysis

implicated 24 genes in hTMCs and 56 genes in hiPSC-RGCs with paired expression from the same donors. These cell-type-specific variant lists will aid in understanding the gene-regulatory networks leading to vision loss in POAG patients.

We constructed a network of promoters and candidate cis-regulatory elements by linking promoters to ATAC-seq defined OCRs, providing a resource for investigating GWAS variants in eye-relevant traits. We characterized the interconnected promoters and open chromatin via chromatin contacts, and observed connectivity with many promoters contacting multiple OCRs and OCRs shared across promoters. We demonstrated that regulatory elements in hTMCs and hiPSC-RGCs were enriched for relevant diseases (**Fig. 3a**), with hTMCs showing stronger enrichment for heritability for most traits, which may be due to their role in regulating intraocular pressure while causing the death of RGCs as a consequence. Prior atlases[12,82] were focused exclusively on retinal cell types, highlighting the utility of expanding to other eye cell types to improve understanding of glaucoma etiology. However, these datasets were generated in a single cell state. Future work investigating chromatin conformation in these cells under different relevant conditions, such as oxidative stress and glucocorticoids, is warranted.

One of the genes of interest implicated in hiPSC-RGCs and hTMCs was *ARHGEF12*. This gene has been associated with POAG by several orthogonal approaches. Previous GWAS reports revealed an association between the *ARHGEF12* locus and endophenotypes, such as vertical cup-to-disc ratio (CDR) and IOP at the following lead variants: rs58073046[41,51], rs199800298[40], rs2305013[41], and 11:120357425.[83] Furthermore, our group previously identified genetic colocalization between the lead variant (rs11824032) mapping to *ARHGEF12* and baseline CDR.[37] Our

variant-to-gene mapping results implicated rs11824032 as a putative causal SNP

targeting its nearest gene, *ARHGEF12*. In addition, we also detected a long-range

promoter contact to rs34002948, a variant associated with the "*TECTA*" locus (**Fig 5a;**

Table S3). Given this gene's nomination by two independent signals, both local and long-

range to the gene-body, we selected *ARHGEF12* for further characterization in hiPSC-

RGCs.[41,84]

EyeBrowse, an eye-centric genome browser, has shown that *ARHGEF12* is

expressed in the TM, retina, and optic nerve.[85] Furthermore, *Arhgef12* transcripts were

detected in RGCs at P14 in mice.[86] It is widely reported that ARHGEF12 binds directly to

ABCA1 and RhoA/RhoA kinase proteins; the signaling pathway is known to reduce TM

plasticity, thereby increasing resistance to aqueous humor outflow and subsequently

increasing IOP.[87-89] However, there is very limited knowledge of its functional role in the

retina or RGCs. In our study, mRNA analysis of *ARHGEF12* transcripts in hTMCs showed

significantly elevated expression, whereas in hiPSC-RGCs, the POAG line showed

significantly downregulated expression, representing a truly novel finding. Using western

blotting, we observed that POAG hiPSC-RGCs produced lower levels of ARHGEF12

protein than control hiPSC-RGCs. Since ARHGEF12 is part of the Rho/ROCK signaling

pathway, we also investigated expression of its downstream mediators. We detected a

significant overexpression of *ROCK1* transcripts in POAG hTMCs carrying a

heterozygous SNP (rs11824032G>A) at the *ARHGEF12* gene. However, there was no

significant difference in *ROCK1* expression between control and POAG hiPSC-RGCs.

In the context of these findings, we further evaluated RGC pathophysiology in

control and POAG hiPSC-RGCs carrying the *ARHGEF12* variant by examining functional

activity through calcium imaging. Because Ca^{2+} influx through voltage-gated Ca^{2+}

channels are tightly coupled to action potential firing, dynamic intracellular Ca^{2+} changes

provide an indirect yet robust measure of neuronal function in hiPSC-RGCs. Calcium

imaging revealed pronounced differences in spontaneous activity between control and

glaucomatous hiPSC-RGCs. Specifically, fluorescence changes (ΔF/F) were 53 ± 1.75%

(*n* = 215) in control cells and 28 ± 0.82% (*n* = 213) in *ARHGEF12* variant–expressing

cells. For context, naïve RGCs in wild-type mouse retina exhibit $ΔF/F_0$ values in the range

of ~150–200%[90], underscoring both the reduced responsiveness of hiPSC-RGCs relative

to native tissue and the pronounced impairment associated with the *ARHGEF12* variant.

We also performed single-cell patch-clamp recordings to directly assess

electrophysiological properties in control and variant-expressing hiPSC-RGCs. However,

these experiments yielded inconclusive results due to low firing rates and sampling

bias.[91-94] Given these limitations, calcium imaging was chosen as a more scalable and

reliable method for functional comparison.

We also selected other genes implicated in hTMCs from our study for further

analysis, such as *CAT* and *MIB2*. TMCs are highly sensitive to oxidative stress; in fact,

several studies have reported that the progression of POAG may be due to reduced

antioxidant capacity of the TMCs.[95-97] Therefore, the presence of the *CAT* variant, an

antioxidant, in our list warranted further investigation. Serum samples collected from

patients with POAG have been reported to exhibit low levels of catalase (CAT).[98]

However, in our study, we did not detect a significant difference in *CAT* expression

between control and POAG hTMCs. Another gene of interest from our hTMC list was the

MIB2 gene, which encodes the E3 ubiquitin protein ligase involved in Notch signaling, a

pathway crucial for eye development. Furthermore, the Mouse Genome Informatics

database reported that *Mib2-deficient* mice exhibit variable neural tube closure defects

and abnormal eye morphology.[99,100] We detected a significant difference in *MIB2*

expression between control and POAG hTMCs with a homozygous SNP (rs4320726).

395   Similarly, we investigated the mRNA expression of several genes of interest from

our putative list in hiPSC-RGCs, such as *TUBB2B/ LINC02525*, *CRB1*, *EXOSC2*, *UCHL1*,

and *MTA1/ AL928654.1*. For example, the *TUBB2B* gene (*LINC02525*, its associated

lincRNA) encodes ß-tubulin, a crucial building block of neuronal cell structure. Mutations

in this gene have been reported to affect neuronal migration and axonal guidance,

resulting in severe malformations.[101,102] In our study, *TUBB2B* and *LINC02525* mRNA

expression were significantly downregulated in POAG hiPSC-RGCs carrying the

ARHGEF12 SNP. Another group reported that NMDA-mediated excitotoxicity

downregulates *ARHGEF12* and *TUBB2B* expression in neurons.[103] Similarly, *UCHL1*,

encoding a ubiquitin enzyme, is specifically expressed in neurons and is involved in

maintaining synaptic function.[104,105] Its expression was significantly downregulated in

POAG hiPSC-RGCs. The expression of *CRB1*[106-113] and *EXOSC2*[114], which are genes

with known roles in other retinal degeneration diseases, such as retinitis pigmentosa and

Leber congenital amaurosis, was also significantly downregulated. *Arhgef12* is reported

to be a modifier gene variant that contributes to *Crb1*-associated retinal dystrophy in

mice.[115] In the case of *MTA1/ AL928654.1*, we detected contacts between rs187398392

and the *Metastasis-associated 1* (*MTA1)* gene and associated lncRNA

(*AL928654.1*/*MTA1-DT*), which are both established cancer genes. While *MTA1* has not

been implicated in POAG, it has a known role in retinal development through interactions

with SIX3, which regulates the number of retinal cells during development.[116] In this study,

we did not detect a significant difference in *MTA1* and *AL928654.1* expression between

control and POAG hiPSC-RGCs.

This study focused on the *ARHGEF12* variant rs11824032, so hiPSCs were

generated only from POAG subjects with or without the risk allele, without controlling for

other variants. To address this, we are combining hiPSC-RGCs with CRISPR/Cas9 to

assess mutation-specific effects. Using prime editing, we aim to create isogenic hiPSC

lines with a single genetic background. Current editing efficiency for rs11824032G>A is

~30% in HEK293T cells (**Fig. S5**), which we will extend to hiPSCs.

In conclusion, we sought to identify SNP-to-gene relationships and to elucidate

how variants contribute to POAG pathogenesis. By integrating LD-expanded variants with

ATAC-seq and Hi-C data, we implicated 24 genes in hTMCs and 56 in hiPSC-RGCs,

including *ARHGEF12*, which was identified in our prior GWAS. qRT-PCR confirmed

differential *ARHGEF12* expression between POAG and controls, and variant-carrying

hiPSC-RGCs showed altered light-evoked responses. This extensive variant-to-gene

dataset will serve as a key resource to the POAG research community going forward.

Limitations: The hiPSC-RGC analysis of the *ARHGEF12* variant is preliminary, as we

did not investigate how the variant affects RGC function. Ca^{2+} results should also be

interpreted cautiously, since high-intensity, prolonged light stimulation may introduce

artifacts. Additionally, we measured only intracellular calcium, not the electrical activity of

RGCs.

POAG is a complex polygenic disease. To assess its heterogeneous

pathogenicity, pooled CRISPR screens could be used to introduce gRNA libraries into

hiPSCs, enabling gene overexpression or knockout.[117] These cells can then be

differentiated into RGCs, and sequencing of integrated gRNAs may reveal genes involved

in RGC function and POAG pathogenesis.

Materials and Methods:

Human iPSC culture

Undifferentiated hiPSCs were generated and characterized at the University of

Pennsylvania iPSC Core Facility, providing a comprehensive analysis of hiPSC

characteristics.[118-120] The University of Pennsylvania and the Children's Hospital of

Philadelphia Human Subjects Research Institutional Review Boards approved all human

sample collection protocols consistent with the Declaration of Helsinki. All methods were

performed in accordance with the University of Pennsylvania's relevant research

guidelines and regulations. Written informed consent was obtained from all human cell

donors. The hiPSCs were maintained in StemMACs iPSC-Brew XF (Miltenyi Biotec,

catalog #: 130-107-086, North Rhine-Westphalia, Germany) containing 50X supplement

(Miltenyi Biotec, catalog #: 130-107-087, North Rhine-Westphalia, Germany), and Pen

Strep (Life Technologies, catalog #: 10378-016, Carlsbad, CA, USA). Demographics of

the POAAGG subjects from whom the hiPSCs were generated are listed in **Table S6**.

Retinal progenitor cell (RPC) generation and conditions

hiPSCs were cultured on Matrigel-coated plates (Corning, catalog #: 354230, Corning, NY, USA) in 37°C, 5% O_2, and 5% CO_2 conditions. Cells were maintained until they reached 75% confluency. hiPSCs were then split and seeded in one well of a 6-well tissue culture dish (Corning, catalog #: 229106, Corning, NY, USA) coated with 1:100 diluted Matrigel growth factor. hiPSCs were maintained at 37 °C, 5% O_2, and 5% CO_2 until reaching 100% confluence then transferred to 37 °C, 5% CO_2 overnight prior to induction. On day 0, iPSC-Brew media was changed to RPC induction media: DMEM/F12 (50:50; Corning, catalog #: 10-092-cm, Corning, NY, USA), 1% Pen Strep (Life Technologies, catalog #: 10378-016, Carlsbad, CA, USA), 1% Glutamine MAX (Life Technologies, catalog #: 35050-061, Carlsbad, CA, USA), 1% NEAA (Life Technologies, catalog #: 11140-050, Carlsbad, CA, USA), 0.1 mM 2-ME (Life Technologies, catalog #: 21985-023, Carlsbad, CA, USA), 2% B27 supplement (w/o vitamin A; Life Technologies, catalog #: 12587-010, Carlsbad, CA, USA), 1% N2 supplement (Life Technologies, catalog #: 17502-048, Carlsbad, CA, USA), containing 2 µM XAV939 (X) (Wnt inhibitor; R&D Systems, catalog #: 3748, Minneapolis, MN, USA), 10 µM SB431542 (SB) (TGF-β inhibitor; R&D Systems, catalog #: 1614, Minneapolis, MN, USA), 100 nM LDN193189 (L) (BMP inhibitor; R&D Systems, catalog #: 6053, Minneapolis, MN, USA), 10 mM nicotinamide (Sigma-Aldrich, catalog #: N0636, St. Louis, MO, USA), and 10 ng/mL IGF1 (R&D Systems, catalog #: 291-G1, Minneapolis, MN, USA). Cultures were fed daily for 4 days. On day 4, the culture medium was exchanged for RPC induction media containing 2 µM XAV939, 10 µM SB431542, 100 nM LDN193189, 10 ng/mL IGF-1, and 10 ng/mL bFGF. The media was changed daily for 21 days.[73]

RGC differentiation

Before RGC differentiation, the medium was changed daily using iNS media containing 250 ng/mL Shh (R&D Systems, catalog #: 8908-SH, Minneapolis, MN, USA), 100 ng/mL FGF8 (R&D Systems, catalog #: 423-F8, Minneapolis, MN, USA) for 2 days. For RGC differentiation on day 24, cells were manually crossed into small clusters with Leibovitz's medium containing 34 µM D-Glucose (Research Products International, catalog #: G32045-500, Mt. Prospect, IL, USA) using the crosshatching technique as previously described[121], then re-plated at a density of 1.0×10^5 cells/well of 6-well plate coated with 1:100 diluted Matrigel growth factor in RGCs induction media containing: 100 ng/mL Follistatin 300 (R&D Systems, catalog #: 669-FO, Minneapolis, MN, USA), 0.5 µM Cyclopamine (R&D Systems, catalog #: 1623/1, Minneapolis, MN, USA), 3 µM DAPT (Stemgent, catalog #: 04-0041, Cambridge, MA, USA), and 4.2 µM Y-27632 dihydrochloride (Rock inhibitor; R&D Systems, catalog #: 1254/1, Minneapolis, MN, USA). The media was changed 24 hours post-plating with RGC induction media containing 100 ng/mL Follistatin 300 and 3 µM DAPT daily for 2 days. From day 27, media was changed to RGC induction media containing: 3 µM DAPT, 10 µM Rock inhibitor (Y27632), 5 µM Forskolin (Selleckchem, catalog #: S2449, Houston, TX, USA), 400 µM N^6,2′-O-Dibutyryladenosine 3′,5′- cyclic monophosphate sodium salt (cAMP; Sigma-Aldrich, catalog #: D0627, St. Louis, MO, USA), 40 ng/mL BDNF (R&D Systems, catalog #: 248-BDB, Minneapolis, MN, USA), 5 ng/mL NT4 (R&D systems, catalog #: 268-N4, Minneapolis, MN, USA), and 10 ng/mL CNTF (R&D systems, catalog #: 257-NT, Minneapolis, MN, USA). The media was changed every 2-3 days until day 36. After

maturation (D36), the medium was exchanged every 3-4 days with RGC induction media

containing 3 µM DAPT and 10 µM Rock inhibitor (Y27632).[73]

hTMCs

For the 3D genomic experiments, such as RNA-seq, ATAC-seq, and Hi-C, Primary

trabecular meshwork cells were used, which were commercially obtained (ScienCell,

catalog #: 6590, Carlsbad, CA, USA).

For the functional validation of the variants, hTM tissue strips were isolated either

from whole globes or obtained from glaucoma patients during trabeculectomy surgery at

the Scheie Eye Institute. hTM tissues isolated from post-mortem donor eyes were

obtained from the National Disease Research Interchange (NDRI). Whole globes were

bisected near the equator, and the iris, lens, and ciliary processes were gently removed

from the anterior segment. The anterior segment was then divided into two half-wedges.

Using fine-tipped forceps, hTM tissue was grasped at the cut edge of each wedge and

gently pulled away. Each hTM strip was cut into three pieces. hTM tissue from whole

globes and trabeculectomy (typically 0.5–1 mm) was incubated for 30 minutes in DMEM

(Gibco, catalog #: 11885-084, Waltham, MA, USA) containing 10 mg/mL dispase (Gibco,

catalog #: 17105-041, Waltham, MA, USA) and 10 mg/mL collagenase (Gibco, catalog #:

17104-019, Waltham, MA, USA) at 37°C. Tissues were washed once with DMEM, then

placed onto gelatin-coated plates with coverslips. hTM pieces from whole globes were

distributed into three wells of a 6-well plate, while surgical hTM tissue was placed in one

well. Coverslips were positioned to secure the tissue, and DMEM supplemented with 10–

20% FBS (Cytiva Hyclone, catalog #: SH30910.03, Logan, UT, USA) and penicillin-

streptomycin (Gibco, catalog #: 15140-122, Waltham, MA, USA) was applied. Culture

media was replaced every five days. Once the hTMCs reached confluence. Cultures were

expanded further as needed or cryopreserved for long-term storage.[70]

We validated the authenticity of the hTMCs by performing *MYOC* induction

experiments with 100 nM dexamethasone (Sigma-Aldrich, catalog #: D4902, St. Louis,

MO, USA), freshly added to the media every 2–3 days for two weeks, which significantly

increased *MYOC* expression by qRT-PCR relative to untreated controls.[70] For all our

experiments, we used primary TM cultures from Passage 2 (P2) to Passage 4 (P4).

Demographics of the patients from whom the hTMCs were isolated are listed in **Table**

S7.

Sanger sequencing

DNA was extracted from hTMCs, control, and *ARHGEF12* disease-variant hiPSC-RGCs

using the Purelink genomic DNA mini kit (Invitrogen, catalog #: K1820-01, Waltham, MA,

USA). DNA was quantified using the Qubit dsDNA BR assay kit (Invitrogen, catalog #:

Q32853, Waltham, MA, USA) and Qubit 2.0 fluorometer. PCR was performed using the

GoTag Green Master Mix (Promega, catalog #: M7122, Madison, WI, USA), and the

primer sets are listed in **Table S8**. PCR products were purified using Gel and PCR

cleanup kit (Macherey-Nagel, catalog #: 74069.250, Düren, Germany) and submitted for

Sanger sequencing at the Penn Genomic and Sequencing Core. Sequencing data were

analyzed using NCBI BLAST and the UGENE (Unipro) software.

ATAC-seq in hTMCs and hiPSC-RGCs

A total of 50,000 to 100,000 cells were centrifuged at 500 xg for 5 min at 4°C. The cell

pellet was washed with cold PBS and resuspended in 50 µL of cold lysis buffer (10 mM

Tris-HCl, pH 7.4, 10 mM NaCl, 3 mM MgCl2, 0.1% NP-40/IGEPAL CA630) and

immediately centrifuged at 550 xg for 10 min at 4°C. Nuclei were resuspended in the

Nextera transposition reaction mix (25 µL 2x TD Buffer, 2.5 µL Nextera Tn5 transposase

(Illumina, USA Cat #FC-121-1030), and 22.5 µL nuclease-free H2O) on ice, then

incubated for 45 min at 37°C. The tagmented DNA was then purified using the Qiagen

MinElute kit, eluted with 10.5 µL Elution Buffer (EB). Ten microliters of purified tagmented

DNA were PCR amplified using Nextera primers for 12 cycles to generate each library.

The PCR reaction was subsequently cleaned up using 1.5x AMPureXP beads

(Agencourt, Beverly, MA, USA), and concentrations were measured by Qubit. Libraries

were paired-end sequenced using an Illumina NovaSeq 6000 (CHOP 51 bp read length).

Image files were demultiplexed using bcf2fastq (v2.20.0, Illumina, San Diego, CA,

USA). Briefly, pair-end reads from three biological replicates for each cell type were

aligned to hg38 genome using bowtie2,[122] and duplicate reads were removed from the

alignment. Narrow peaks were called independently for each replicate using macs2 (-p

0.01 --nomodel --shift -75 --extsize 150 -B --SPMR --keep-dup all -callsummits),[123] and

ENCODE blacklist regions were removed from peaks in individual replicates. The

reproducible peak set (ATAC-seq peaks called by MACS peaks called with q-value <

0.01) was used as the consensus OCRs for each cell type. ATAC-seq fragment

distribution plots were generated using the fragSizeDist function from the Bioconductor

package ATACseqQC (v 1.28.0)[124] with the deduplicated bam files.

Hi-C in hiPS-RGC

For the hiPS-RGCs, Hi-C libraries were prepared for two biological replicates using the Arima-HiC kit (Arima Genomics, catalog #: A410030, Carlsbad, CA, USA), according to the manufacturer's protocols. Briefly, cells were crosslinked using formaldehyde. Crosslinked cells were then subject to the Arima-HiC protocol, which utilizes multiple restriction enzymes (targeting ^GATC and G^ANTC) to digest chromatin. Arima-HiC sequencing libraries were prepared by first shearing purified proximally ligated DNA and then size-selecting 200–600 bp DNA fragments using AmpureXP beads (Beckman Coulter, catalog #: A63882, Brea, California, USA). The size-selected fragments were then enriched using Enrichment Beads (provided in the Arima-HiC kit) and then converted into Illumina-compatible sequencing libraries with the Swift Accel-NGS 2S Plus DNA Library Kit (Swift, catalog #: 21024, Ann Arbor, MI, USA) and Swift 2S Indexing Kit (Swift, catalog #: 26148, Ann Arbor, MI, USA). The purified, PCR-amplified DNA underwent standard QC (qPCR, Bioanalyzer, and KAPA Library Quantification (Roche, catalog #: KK4824, Basel, Switzerland)) and was sequenced with unique single indexes on the Illumina NovaSeq 6000 Sequencing System at 2x51 base pairs. For these biological replicates, two technical replicates were performed to fill the appropriate S4 flow cell.

Promoter Capture C in hTMCs

For the hTM library, 107 fixed cells were thawed at 37ºC, followed by centrifugation at RT for 5 mins at 1845 xg. The cell pellet was resuspended in 1 mL of dH2O supplemented with 5 µL 200X protease inhibitor cocktail, incubated on ice for 10 minutes, and then centrifuged. Cell pellet was resuspended to a total volume of 650 µL in dH2O. 50 µL of

cell suspension was set aside for pre-digestion QC, and the remaining sample was

divided into 3 tubes. Both pre-digestion controls and samples underwent a pre-digestion

incubation in a Thermomixer (BenchMark, Tempe, AZ, USA) with the addition of 0.3%

SDS, 1x NEB DpnII restriction buffer, and dH$_2$O for 1 hour at 37ºC, shaking at 1,000 rpm.

A 1.7% solution of Triton X-100 was added to each tube, and shaking was continued for

another hour. After pre-digestion incubation, 10 µL of DpnII (NEB, 50 U/µL) was added

to each sample tube only and continued shaking along with pre-digestion control until the

end of the day. An additional 10 µL of DpnII was added to each digestion reaction, and

the mixture was digested overnight. The next day, an additional 10 µL of DpnII was added,

and the mixture continued to shake for another 2-3 hours. 100 uL of each digestion

reaction was then removed, pooled into one 1.5 mL tube, and set aside for digestion

efficiency QC. The remaining samples were heat-inactivated by incubating at 1000 rpm

in a MultiTherm for 20 minutes at 65°C to inactivate the DpnII, followed by cooling on ice

for an additional 20 minutes. Digested samples were ligated with 8 uL of T4 DNA ligase

(HC ThermoFisher, 30 U/µL) and 1X ligase buffer at 1,000 rpm overnight at 16°C in a

MultiTherm.

The next day, an additional 2 µL of T4 DNA ligase was spiked into each sample

and incubated for another few hours. The ligated samples were then de-crosslinked

overnight at 65°C with Proteinase K (20 mg/mL; Denville Scientific, Holliston, MA, USA)

along with pre-digestion and digestion control. The following morning, both controls and

ligated samples were incubated for 30 min at 37°C with RNase A (Millipore, Burlington,

MA, USA), followed by phenol/chloroform extraction, ethanol precipitation at -20°C, the

3C libraries were centrifuged at 1000 xg for 45 min at 4°C to pellet the samples. The

controls were centrifuged at 1845 xg. The pellets were resuspended in 70% ethanol and

centrifuged as described above. The pellets of 3C libraries and controls were

resuspended in 300 μL and 20 μL dH2O, respectively, and stored at −20°C. Sample

concentrations were measured by Qubit. Digestion and ligation efficiencies were

assessed by gel electrophoresis on a 0.9% agarose gel and by quantitative PCR (SYBR

green; Thermo Fisher, Waltham, MA, USA).

Isolated DNA from 3C libraries was quantified using a Qubit fluorometer (Life

Technologies, Carlsbad, CA, USA), and 10 μg of each library was sheared in dH_2O using

a QSonica Q800R to an average fragment size of 350bp. The QSonica settings used

were 60% amplitude, 30 seconds on, 30 seconds off, with 2-minute intervals, for a total

of 5 intervals at 4°C. After shearing, DNA was purified using AMPureXP beads

(Agencourt, Beverly, MA, USA). DNA size was assessed using a Bioanalyzer 2100 with

a DNA 1000 Chip (Agilent, Santa Clara, CA, USA), and DNA concentration was

determined via Qubit. SureSelect XT library prep kits (Agilent, Santa Clara, CA, USA)

were used to repair DNA ends and for adaptor ligation following the manufacturer's

protocol. Excess adaptors were removed using AMPureXP beads. Size and

concentration were verified using a Bioanalyzer with a DNA 1000 Chip and a Qubit

fluorometer before hybridization. One microgram of adaptor-ligated library was used as

input for the SureSelect XT capture kit using the manufacturer's protocol and our custom-

designed 41K promoter Capture-C library. The quantity and quality of the captured library

were assessed using a Bioanalyzer with a high-sensitivity DNA Chip and a Qubit

fluorometer. SureSelect XT libraries were then paired-end sequenced on the Illumina

NovaSeq 6000 platform (CHOP; 51 bp read length).

Hi-C and Promoter Capture C data were processed using the HiCUP pipeline

(v0.7.4).[125] Significant chromatin contacts were called with Chicago (Score > 5)[57] for

Promoter-focused Capture C data (Chicago Score > 5), and used the combination of

Mustache (FDR < 0.1)[58] and FitHiC2 (FDR < 1x10-6)[59] as performed previously.[6,24]

RNA-seq in hTMCs and hiPSC-RGCs

RNA was isolated from ~1 million of each cell type using Trizol Reagent (Invitrogen,

Waltham, MA, USA), purified using the Directzol RNA Miniprep Kit (Zymo Research,

Irvine, CA, USA), and depleted of contaminating genomic DNA using DNAse I. Purified

RNA was checked for quality on a Bioanalyzer 2100 using the Nano RNA Chip, and

samples with RIN > 7 were used for RNA-seq library preparation. RNA samples were

depleted of rRNA using QIAseq Fastselect RNA removal kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany).

Samples were then processed for library preparation using the SMARTer Stranded Total

RNA Sample Prep Kit (Takara Bio, Kusatsu, Shiga, Japan) according to the

manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, the purified first-strand cDNA is amplified into RNA-

seq libraries using SeqAmp DNA Polymerase and the Forward and Reverse PCR Primers

from the Illumina Indexing Primer Set HT for Illumina. The quality and quantity of the

libraries were assessed using the Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer system and Qubit fluorometer

(Life Technologies, Carlsbad, California, USA). Sequencing of the finalized libraries was

performed on the NovaSeq 6000 platform at the CHOP Center for Spatial and Functional

Genomics.

RNA-seq was processed using the STAR (v 2.7.9a) pipeline, aligned to hg38 with

gencode V30 as the reference. Reads were counted using HTSeq (v2.0.2)[126], and TPM

values were calculated using the effective gene length.

Differential expression analysis was conducted using standard procedures in the

edgeR framework.[127] First gene counts were aggregated across technical replicates.

Low-expressed genes were then filtered using the filterByExpr function with the default

parameters. Normalization was performed with the trimmed-median of the means method

implemented in calcNormFactors. Dispersions were estimated with replicate cell types as

a group and parameter robust = TRUE. The model of 0 ~ cell type was fitted using

glmQLFit with parameter robust = TRUE and tested with glmQFLTest across the cell type

contrast. P-values were adjusted using the Benjamini-Hochberg procedure. Given the

extreme differences observed between cell types, we opted for a strict cutoff of

abs(logFC) > 7 and FDR < 1e-6 to focus on the strongest differential marker genes. TPM

values were calculated as previously described using the effect-gene length.[128] Pathway

enrichment was conducted using the hypergeometric test implemented in phyper in R (R

Core Team, 2025).

LD Score Regression

We checked our chromatin annotations for GWAS heritability enrichment using LD-score

regression implemented in LDSC.[129] Publicly available EUR summary statistics were

processed using the munge_sumstats.py script provided with ldsc

(https://github.com/bulik/ldsc). Annotation files were constructed using open chromatin

regions defined for hTMCs or hiPSC-RGCs. For European GWAS studies, LD score

regression (v 1.01)[129,130] was run using the European 1000 Genomes Phase3 reference

data and developer-provided baseline v2.2 reference files.[131] Enrichment analyses were

run with the default parameters, with the exception of –print-coefficients set. Tests were

adjusted with Bonferroni correction and false discovery rate (FDR) using the R function

p-adjust. Dot plots were generated using the ggplot2 package (v. 4.0.1). For AFR ancestry

analyses, covariate-adjusted LD score regression[67] was used to adjust enrichment

estimates for recent admix ancestry by incorporating principal components calculated and

using an expanded LD window. To construct the reference, the hg38 1000G plink

reference files were retrieved from the plink website. Principal components were

computed using the eigenstrat smartpca function[132] with the default parameters except

numoutevac: 10. These were used in conjunction with the bed file for the 52 binary

baseline annotations, as well as hTMC and hiPSC-RGCs as above, to build annotations

with --ld-wind-cm set to 20 as previously described.[67] This was used as the annotation to

calculate enrichment as above.

Genomic Analyses

Comparative analyses for promoter contacts: TPM values were correlated with the

number of promoter-connected OCRs using the Spearman correlation coefficient,

implemented in the cor.test function with method="speaman" from R (v4.4.0).

SNP selection and LD expansion: Sentinel SNPs were collected from our previous African

ancestry GWAS.[37] These were expanded to any SNPs in high LD ($R^2 > 0.6$) with the

signal from the LD matrix of the population, or the EUR/AFR variants from the 1000

genomes high coverage set from LDLink[68] or TOPMED-LD.[69]

<u>Variant to gene mapping:</u> Using the expanded set of genome-wide significant GWAS

sentinels and their proxy variants, we intersected variants with the set of OCRs that either

overlapped known promoter regions (−1500/+ 500 bp of gencode V30 TSS) or OCR

overlapping promoter interacting regions identified by Capture C/ Hi-C in either hiPSC-

RGCs or hTMCs. Genomic coordinate overlaps were identified using the R package

GenomicRanges (ver 1.56.2)[133] against the hg38 genome reference.

<u>Transcription factor motif disruption:</u> We used motifbreakR (v.2.19.5)[134] to predict

transcription factors that may have disrupted binding by the highlighted variants

(rs11824032, rs34002948, rs187398392). Position weight matrices from hocomoco

v10[135] were queried against the hg38 genome with the reference and alternative allele.

Motifs with strong disruption were predicted using the motifBreakR function, with

parameters: filterp = TRUE, threshold = 1e-3, method = "ic", bkg = c(A=0.25, C=0.25,

G=0.25, T=0.25), and BPPARAM=BiocParallel::bpparam(). P-values were calculated

with the calculatePvalue() function. The TPM-adjusted expression values were then

plotted to identify which of the putative regulators may act in hiPSC-RGCs.

FACS analysis

hiPSC-RGC cultures were lifted using TrypLE Express (Invitrogen, catalog #: 12605-010,

Waltham, MA, USA) and collected by centrifugation at 1600 rpm for 5 minutes at 4 °C.

The pelleted cells were resuspended in 1X PBS supplemented with 0.5% bovine serum

albumin and 0.1% sodium azide (FACS buffer). Cells were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde

(v/v) for 15 min at room temperature (RT), followed by permeabilization using 0.5%

Tween-20 (v/v) for 10 min at RT. Cells were incubated with anti-BRN3 Alexa Fluor 594

(Santa Cruz, catalog #: sc-390780, Santa Cruz, CA, USA) and anti-SNCG Alexa Fluor

488 (Santa Cruz, catalog #: sc-65979, Santa Cruz, CA, USA). Stained cells were

analyzed using LSRFortessa B in the Penn Cytomics and Cell Sorting Shared Resource

Laboratory at the University of Pennsylvania (RRID:SCR_022376). The data were further

analyzed using FACS software (FlowJo 10.8.1, Ashland, OR, USA).

qRT-PCR

Total RNA was extracted from hTMCs and hiPSC-RGCs using RNeasy® Mini Kit

(Qiagen, catalog #: 74104, Hilden, Germany). For each sample, 150 ng of total RNA was

reverse transcribed using the SuperScript® III first-strand cDNA synthesis kit (Invitrogen,

catalog #: 18080-051, Waltham, MA, USA). Amplified cDNA was quantified using Fast

SYBR™ Green Master Mix (Applied Biosystems, catalog #: 4385612, Foster City, CA,

USA) on a QuantStudio 6 Pro (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA), and the primer

sets are listed in **Table S9**. All results were normalized to *GAPDH* housekeeping control

and were from three technical replicates for each experimental condition. The relative

gene expression was compared to that of control cells to obtain normalized gene

expression, which is represented as the mean ± SEM.

Western blot

hiPSC-RGCs from control and *ARHGEF12*-variant lines were scraped off the dish and centrifuged at 1600 rpm for 5 minutes. The pellet was extracted using RIPA buffer (Cell Signaling, catalog #: 9806S, Danvers, MA, USA), which contained protease and phosphatase inhibitors (Roche, catalog #: 03115828001, Mannheim, Germany). Cells were sonicated (15 s X 3) and then incubated on ice for 20 minutes. After lysing the cells, cell debris was removed by centrifugation at 20,000 xg for 30 minutes, and the supernatant containing the cytoplasmic extract was transferred to a new tube. The protein content of the cell lysates was determined using the Qubit protein assay (Invitrogen, catalog #: Q33221, Waltham, MA, USA) with the Qubit 2.0 fluorometer and then normalized to ensure equal protein content. Protein extracts were analyzed using SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis with Mini-Protean precast gels (Bio-Rad, catalog #: 4561094, Hercules, CA, USA) and followed by a western blot. The samples were analyzed for ARHGEF12 protein (Life Technologies, catalog #: PA5143957, Carlsbad, CA, USA), and β-actin (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, catalog #: sc-47778, Santa Cruz, CA, USA) was used as the loading control. The experiments were repeated at least three times.

Transmission electron microscopy (TEM)

hiPSC-RGCs from a healthy control line and a POAG-associated *ARHGEF12*-variant line were cultured on 14-mm glass coverslips placed in a standard 24-well plate. Cells were plated at a density of 1×10^5 cells per well to achieve a uniform monolayer suitable for

ultrastructural analysis. Cells were maintained under RGC differentiation conditions until

they formed a healthy monolayer suitable for ultrastructural analysis.

Cells grown on coverslips were fixed with 0.1 M sodium cacodylate buffer (pH 7.4)

containing 2.5% glutaraldehyde and 2.0% paraformaldehyde and incubated overnight at

4 °C. After thorough buffer washes, samples were post-fixed in 2.0% osmium tetroxide

containing 1.5% potassium ferricyanide ($K_3Fe(CN)_6$) for 1 hour at room temperature,

followed by rinsing with deionized water. En bloc staining was performed using 2%

aqueous uranyl acetate.

The samples were then dehydrated through a graded ethanol series, infiltrated,

and embedded in EMbed-812 resin (Electron Microscopy Sciences, Fort Washington,

PA). Ultrathin sections were stained with uranyl acetate and Sato lead stain and examined

using a Talos L120C transmission electron microscope equipped with a Ceta 16 M digital

camera.

Calcium imaging

Intracellular calcium within live hiPSC-RGCs was stained using BioTracker™ 609 Red

Ca2+ AM Dye (Sigma-Aldrich, catalog #: SCT021, St. Louis, MO, USA). 8 µL of the dye

(80 µM) was diluted in 902 µL of 1X PBS, along with 10 µL of Pluronic® F-127 (Sigma-

Aldrich, catalog # 9003-11-6, St. Louis, MO, USA) and 80 µL of DMSO. hiPSC-RGCs

were incubated with the diluted dye for 40 minutes at 37 °C. Images of cells were acquired

using an Olympus Fluoview 1000 confocal laser-scanning microscope equipped with an

Olympus XLPlan N at 25X magnification. Images were acquired at a resolution of 256 x

256 pixels, at ~2 frames per second, and covered an area of 509 × 509 µm. During

imaging, cells were continuously perfused with Ames' medium equilibrated with a 5% CO_2

/ 95% O_2 gas mixture and maintained at 35 °C. Imaging parameters were optimized to

capture large fields of view and monitor the activity of as many cells as possible, which

necessarily resulted in slower scan rates (approximately 2 frames per second). Under

these conditions, individual action potential-evoked Ca^{2+} transients cannot be temporally

resolved; instead, firing activity is represented as a normalized fluorescence change

(ΔF/F), where ΔF reflects the increase in fluorescence associated with action potential-

evoked Ca^{2+} influx and, for short bursts of firing, with spike rate and spike number,

population-average ΔF/F provides a useful metric for comparing functional activity across

cell types. Fluorescence responses in somas and dendrites were calculated with custom,

ScanImage-compatible algorithms in Matlab. Fluorescent structures were outlined by

hand using the roipoly function (Signal Processing Toolbox; The MathWorks). The

fluorescence intensity of a neuron is reported throughout as the average intensity of all

pixels over its soma, including the nucleus. Data was analyzed with custom software

(Matlab; The MathWorks). The mean time-dependent fluorescent signal from each RGC

(F) was normalized by subtracting the mean pre-stimulus signal intensity *(F0)*, which is

expressed as *ΔF = F – F0*. The normalized neuronal responses (*ΔF/F0*) for each RGC

were then calculated.[90,136]

Prime editing

<u>Plasmid Constructs and Cloning</u>: The pCMV-PEmax-P2A-GFP (Addgene plasmid #

180020) prime editor was used.[137] pegRNA and nsgRNA's were cloned into the pU6-

tevopreq1-GG-acceptor (Addgene plasmid # 174038), using BsaI Golden Gate

assembly (NEB).[138] All oligos were ordered from Integrated DNA Technologies (IDT).

pU6-Sp-pegRNA-ARHGEF12: pegRNA spacer, top strand oligonucleotide:

5'‑CACCGTCTGATCTCCTCAGAGACTAGTTTC‑3'; bottom strand oligonucleotide:

5'‑CTCTGAAACTAGTCTCTGAGGAGATCAGAC‑3' and Installation 3'-extension, top

strand oligonucleotide: 5'‑GTCCTCCCACTGCATCCCTAGTCTCTGAGGAGAT‑3';

bottom strand oligonucleotide:

5'‑CGCGATCTCCTCAGAGACTAGGGATGCAGTGGGA‑3'. pU6-ARHGEF12-nsgRNA-

1: nsgRNA spacer 1, top strand oligonucleotide:

5'‑CACCGCCTCCTCTGGGCTCCTCCTCGTTTC‑3'; bottom strand oligonucleotide:

5'‑CTCTGAAACGAGGAGGAGCCCAGAGGAGGC‑3'. pU6-ARHGEF12-nsgRNA-2:

nsgRNA spacer 2, top strand oligonucleotide:

5'‑CACCGTCTTCTCACAGGCATCTCTGGTTTC‑3'; bottom strand oligonucleotide:

5'‑CTCTGAAACCAGAGATGCCTGTGAGAAGAC‑3'. nsgRNA termination, top strand

oligonucleotide: 5'‑GTCCTTTTTTTTCGCGGTTCTATCTAG‑3'; bottom strand

oligonucleotide: 5'‑CGCGCTAGATAGAACCGCGAAAAAAAA‑3', this is used in place of

pegRNA 3'-extension when making nsgRNA using pU6-tevopreq1-GG-acceptor.

Scaffold, top strand oligonucleotide:

5'‑AGAGCTAAGAAATTAGCAAGTTGAAATAAGGCTAGTCCGTTATCAACTTGAAAAA

GTGGGACCGAGTCG‑3'; bottom strand oligonucleotide:

5'‑GGACCGACTCGGTCCCACTTTTTCAAGTTGATAACGGACTAGCCTTATTTCAACT

TGCTAATTTCTTAG‑3'.

<u>Cell culture and transfection of HEK293T cells</u>: This was performed as previously

described.[139] HEK293T cells were cultured in DMEM (Thermo Fisher Scientific)

supplemented with 10% FBS. HEK239T cells were seeded, one day prior to transfection,

at 50000 cells/well in 24 well plate. The plasmid constitution for transfection is

1050ng:393.75ng:78.75ng of CMV-PEmax: U6-pegRNA: U6-ngRNA. Lipofectamine

2000 (Thermo Fisher) and plasmid DNA were mixed at a 1:1 mass ratio. Cells were

collected 72 hours post transfection for DNA extraction and analysis.

DNA extraction: This was performed as previously described.[140] HEK293T cells were

detached with trypsin, DPBS washed, and finally re-suspended in 30 µl of DPBS.

HEK293T cells were subsequently incubated at 95°C for 20 mins, 4ul of 20mg/ml

Proteinase K (Promega) was added, and a further incubation at 56°C for 1h followed by

a final 30 min incubation at 95°C. This crude DNA extract was then used as template for

PCR.

Analysis of prime editing efficiency: The ARHGEF12 rs11824032 SNV locus (Forward

Primer: 5'-GTGGAGGTGGATGCCCAAC-3', Reverse Primer: 5'-

AATTGGGCCGACTGGGATTA-3') was amplified using primers. The subsequent

amplicon was processed by Genewiz for their Sanger sequencing service. Editing

efficiency analysis was performed using EditCo's ICE Analysis tool (ICE CRISPR

Analysis. 2025. v3.0. EditCo Bio: https://ice.editco.bio/#/).

Statistical analysis

For the quantitative gene and protein expression data, as well as *ΔF/F0*, all data are

represented as mean ± SEM. Each experiment was conducted in triplicate for statistical

analysis. Differences in gene transcript and protein expression, *ΔF/F0* between control

and POAG hiPSC-RGCs and hTMCs were analyzed using the Student's *t* test for two-

group comparison by statistical software (GraphPad Prism 10.0; GraphPad Software,

Inc., La Jolla, CA, USA). *p-values of < 0.05 were considered statistically significant.

References

1. Klein RJ, Zeiss C, Chew EY, et al. Complement factor H polymorphism in age-related

macular degeneration. *Science*. 2005;308(5720):385–389. doi:

10.1126/science.1109557.

2. Yengo L, Vedantam S, Marouli E, et al. A saturated map of common genetic variants

associated with human height. *Nature*. 2022;610(7933):704–712. doi: 10.1038/s41586-

022-05275-y.

3. Schizophrenia Working Group of the Psychiatric Genomics Consortium. Biological

insights from 108 schizophrenia-associated genetic loci. *Nature*. 2014;511(7510):421–

427. doi: 10.1038/nature13595.

4. Maurano MT, Humbert R, Rynes E, et al. Systematic localization of common disease-

associated variation in regulatory DNA. *Science*. 2012;337(6099):1190–1195. doi:

10.1126/science.1222794.

5. Gallagher MD, Chen-Plotkin AS. The post-GWAS era: From association to function.

Am J Hum Genet. 2018;102(5):717–730. doi: 10.1016/j.ajhg.2018.04.002.

6. Chesi A, Wagley Y, Johnson ME, et al. Genome-scale capture C promoter

interactions implicate effector genes at GWAS loci for bone mineral density. *Nature*

Communications. 2019;10(1):1260. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-019-09302-x. doi:

10.1038/s41467-019-09302-x.

7. Schaub MA, Boyle AP, Kundaje A, Batzoglou S, Snyder M. Linking disease

associations with regulatory information in the human genome. *Genome Res*.

2012;22(9):1748–1759. doi: 10.1101/gr.136127.111.

8. Pahl MC, Liu L, Pippin JA, et al. Variant to gene mapping for carpal tunnel syndrome

risk loci implicates skeletal muscle regulatory elements. *eBioMedicine*.

2024;101:105038.

https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S2352396424000732. doi:

10.1016/j.ebiom.2024.105038.

9. Ratnapriya R, Sosina OA, Starostik MR, et al. Retinal transcriptome and eQTL

analyses identify genes associated with age-related macular degeneration. *Nat Genet*.

2019;51(4):606–610. doi: 10.1038/s41588-019-0351-9.

10. Marchal C, Singh N, Batz Z, et al. High-resolution genome topology of human retina

uncovers super enhancer-promoter interactions at tissue-specific and multifactorial

disease loci. *Nature Communications*. 2022;13(1):5827. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-

022-33427-1. doi: 10.1038/s41467-022-33427-1.

11. Orozco LD, Chen H, Cox C, et al. Integration of eQTL and a single-cell atlas in the

human eye identifies causal genes for age-related macular degeneration. *Cell Rep*.

2020;30(4):1246–1259.e6. doi: 10.1016/j.celrep.2019.12.082.

12. Wang SK, Nair S, Li R, et al. Single-cell multiome of the human retina and deep

learning nominate causal variants in complex eye diseases. *Cell Genom*.

2022;2(8):100164. doi: 10.1016/j.xgen.2022.100164. Epub 2022 Jul 27. doi:

10.1016/j.xgen.2022.100164.

13. Javierre BM, Burren OS, Wilder SP, et al. Lineage-specific genome architecture

links enhancers and non-coding disease variants to target gene promoters. *Cell*.

2016;167(5):1369–1384.e19. doi: 10.1016/j.cell.2016.09.037.

14. Downes DJ, Cross AR, Hua P, et al. Identification of LZTFL1 as a candidate effector

gene at a COVID-19 risk locus. *Nat Genet*. 2021;53(11):1606–1615. doi:

10.1038/s41588-021-00955-3.

15. Schnitzler GR, Kang H, Fang S, et al. Convergence of coronary artery disease

genes onto endothelial cell programs. *Nature*. 2024;626(8000):799–807. doi:

10.1038/s41586-024-07022-x.

16. Jerkovic I, Cavalli G. Understanding 3D genome organization by multidisciplinary

methods. *Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol*. 2021;22(8):511–528. doi: 10.1038/s41580-021-00362-

w.

17. Bonev B, Cavalli G. Organization and function of the 3D genome. *Nature Reviews*

Genetics. 2016;17(11):661–678. https://doi.org/10.1038/nrg.2016.112. doi:

10.1038/nrg.2016.112.

18. Palmer ND, Hester JM, An SS, et al. Resequencing and analysis of variation in the

TCF7L2 gene in african americans suggests that SNP rs7903146 is the causal diabetes

susceptibility variant. *Diabetes*. 2011;60(2):662–668. doi: 10.2337/db10-0134.

19. Grant SFA, Thorleifsson G, Reynisdottir I, et al. Variant of transcription factor 7-like

2 (TCF7L2) gene confers risk of type 2 diabetes. *Nat Genet*. 2006;38(3):320–323. doi:

10.1038/ng1732.

20. Xia Q, Chesi A, Manduchi E, et al. The type 2 diabetes presumed causal variant

within TCF7L2 resides in an element that controls the expression of ACSL5.

Diabetologia. 2016;59(11):2360–2368. doi: 10.1007/s00125-016-4077-2.

21. Smemo S, Tena JJ, Kim K, et al. Obesity-associated variants within FTO form long-

range functional connections with IRX3. *Nature*. 2014;507(7492):371–375.

https://doi.org/10.1038/nature13138. doi: 10.1038/nature13138.

22. Claussnitzer M, Dankel SN, Kim K, et al. FTO obesity variant circuitry and adipocyte

browning in humans. *N Engl J Med*. 2015;373(10):895–907. doi:

10.1056/NEJMoa1502214.

23. Rosen CJ, Ingelfinger JR. Unraveling the function of FTO variants. *N Engl J Med*.

2015;373(10):964–965. doi: 10.1056/NEJMe1508683.

24. Su C, Gao L, May CL, et al. 3D chromatin maps of the human pancreas reveal

lineage-specific regulatory architecture of T2D risk. *Cell Metab*. 2022;34(9):1394–

1409.e4. doi: 10.1016/j.cmet.2022.08.014.

25. Yang J, McGovern A, Martin P, et al. Analysis of chromatin organization and gene

expression in T cells identifies functional genes for rheumatoid arthritis. *Nature*

Communications. 2020;11(1):4402. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-020-18180-7. doi:

10.1038/s41467-020-18180-7.

26. Quigley HA, Broman AT. The number of people with glaucoma worldwide in 2010

and 2020. *Br J Ophthalmol*. 2006;90(3):262–267.

27. Tielsch JM, Katz J, Sommer A, Quigley HA, Javitt JC. Family history and risk of

primary open angle glaucoma. the baltimore eye survey. *Arch Ophthalmol*.

1994;112(1):69–73. doi: 10.1001/archopht.1994.01090130079022 [doi].

28. Muñoz B, West SK, Rubin GS, et al. Causes of blindness and visual impairment in a

population of older americans: The salisbury eye evaluation study. *Arch Ophthalmol*.

2000;118(6):819–825. doi: 10.1001/archopht.118.6.819.

29. Cuellar-Partida G, Craig JE, Burdon KP, et al. Assessment of polygenic effects links

primary open-angle glaucoma and age-related macular degeneration. *Sci Rep*.

2016;6:26885. doi: 10.1038/srep26885.

30. Teikari JM. Genetic factors in open-angle (simple and capsular) glaucoma. A

population-based twin study. *Acta Ophthalmol (Copenh)*. 1987;65(6):715–720. doi:

10.1111/j.1755-3768.1987.tb07069.x.

31. Sanfilippo PG, Hewitt AW, Hammond CJ, Mackey DA. The heritability of ocular

traits. *Surv Ophthalmol*. 2010;55(6):561–583. doi: 10.1016/j.survophthal.2010.07.003.

32. van Koolwijk LME, Despriet DDG, van Duijn CM, et al. Genetic contributions to

glaucoma: Heritability of intraocular pressure, retinal nerve fiber layer thickness, and

optic disc morphology. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci*. 2007;48(8):3669–3676. doi:

10.1167/iovs.06-1519.

33. Awadalla MS, Fingert JH, Roos BE, et al. Copy number variations of TBK1 in

australian patients with primary open-angle glaucoma. *Am J Ophthalmol*.

2015;159(1):124–30.e1. doi: 10.1016/j.ajo.2014.09.044.

34. Rezaie R, Child C, Hitchings H, et al. Adult-onset primary open-angle glaucoma

caused by mutations in optineurin. *Science*. 2002;295(5557):1077–1079.

https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1066901. doi: 10.1126/science.1066901.

35. Stone EM, Fingert JH, Alward WL, et al. Identification of a gene that causes primary

open angle glaucoma. *Science*. 1997;275(5300):668–670. doi:

10.1126/science.275.5300.668.

36. Sakurada Y, Mabuchi F, Kashiwagi K. Genetics of primary open-angle glaucoma

and its endophenotypes. *Prog Brain Res*. 2020;256(1):31–47. doi:

10.1016/bs.pbr.2020.06.001.

37. Verma SS, Gudiseva HV, Chavali VRM, et al. A multi-cohort genome-wide

association study in african ancestry individuals reveals risk loci for primary open-angle

glaucoma. *Cell*. 2024;187(2):464–480.e10.

https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0092867423013387. doi:

10.1016/j.cell.2023.12.006.

38. Singh N, Kizhatil K, Duraikannu D, Choquet H, Saidas Nair K. Structural framework

to address variant-gene relationship in primary open-angle glaucoma. *Vision Res*.

2025;226:108505.

https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0042698924001494. doi:

10.1016/j.visres.2024.108505.

39. Choquet H, Wiggs JL, Khawaja AP. Clinical implications of recent advances in

primary open-angle glaucoma genetics. *Eye (Lond)*. 2020;34(1):29–39. doi:

10.1038/s41433-019-0632-7.

40. Choquet H, Paylakhi S, Kneeland SC, et al. A multiethnic genome-wide association

study of primary open-angle glaucoma identifies novel risk loci. *Nat Commun*.

2018;9(1):2278–4. doi: 10.1038/s41467-018-04555-4.

41. Springelkamp H, Iglesias AI, Cuellar-Partida G, et al. ARHGEF12 influences the risk

of glaucoma by increasing intraocular pressure. *Hum Mol Genet*. 2015;24(9):2689–

2699. doi: 10.1093/hmg/ddv027.

42. Wiggs JL, Yaspan BL, Hauser MA, et al. Common variants at 9p21 and 8q22 are

associated with increased susceptibility to optic nerve degeneration in glaucoma. *PLoS*

Genet. 2012;8(4):e1002654. doi: 10.1371/journal.pgen.1002654.

43. Thorleifsson G, Walters GB, Hewitt AW, et al. Common variants near CAV1 and

CAV2 are associated with primary open-angle glaucoma. *Nat Genet*. 2010;42(10):906–

909. doi: 10.1038/ng.661.

44. Han X, Gharahkhani P, Hamel AR, et al. Large-scale multitrait genome-wide

association analyses identify hundreds of glaucoma risk loci. *Nat Genet*.

2023;55(7):1116–1125. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41588-023-01428-5. doi:

10.1038/s41588-023-01428-5.

45. Gharahkhani P, Jorgenson E, Hysi P, et al. Genome-wide meta-analysis identifies

127 open-angle glaucoma loci with consistent effect across ancestries. *Nat Commun*.

2021;12(1):1258–4. doi: 10.1038/s41467-020-20851-4.

46. Bailey JNC, Loomis SJ, Kang JH, et al. Genome-wide association analysis identifies

TXNRD2, ATXN2 and FOXC1 as susceptibility loci for primary open-angle glaucoma.

Nat Genet. 2016;48(2):189–194. doi: 10.1038/ng.3482.

47. Gharahkhani P, Burdon KP, Fogarty R, et al. Common variants near ABCA1,

AFAP1 and GMDS confer risk of primary open-angle glaucoma. *Nat Genet*.

2014;46(10):1120–1125. doi: 10.1038/ng.3079.

48. Burdon KP. Genome-wide association studies in the hunt for genes causing primary

open-angle glaucoma: A review. *Clin Exp Ophthalmol*. 2012;40(4):358–363. doi:

10.1111/j.1442-9071.2011.02744.x.

49. Shiga Y, Akiyama M, Nishiguchi KM, et al. Genome-wide association study

identifies seven novel susceptibility loci for primary open-angle glaucoma. *Hum Mol*

Genet. 2018;27(8):1486–1496. doi: 10.1093/hmg/ddy053.

50. Lo Faro V, Bhattacharya A, Zhou W, et al. Novel ancestry-specific primary open-

angle glaucoma loci and shared biology with vascular mechanisms and cell

proliferation. *Cell Rep Med*. 2024;5(2):101430. doi: 10.1016/j.xcrm.2024.101430.

51. MacGregor S, Ong J, An J, et al. Genome-wide association study of intraocular

pressure uncovers new pathways to glaucoma. *Nat Genet*. 2018;50(8):1067–1071. doi:

10.1038/s41588-018-0176-y.

52. Osman W, Low S, Takahashi A, Kubo M, Nakamura Y. A genome-wide association

study in the japanese population confirms 9p21 and 14q23 as susceptibility loci for

primary open angle glaucoma. *Hum Mol Genet*. 2012;21(12):2836–2842. doi:

10.1093/hmg/dds103.

53. Chen Y, Lin Y, Vithana EN, et al. Common variants near ABCA1 and in PMM2 are

associated with primary open-angle glaucoma. *Nat Genet*. 2014;46(10):1115–1119.

https://doi.org/10.1038/ng.3078. doi: 10.1038/ng.3078.

54. Trang KB, Sharma P, Cook L, et al. 3D chromatin-based variant-to-gene maps

across 57 human cell types reveal the cellular and genetic architecture of autoimmune

disease susceptibility. *Genome Biol*. 2025;26(1):414–4. doi: 10.1186/s13059-025-

03880-4.

55. Palermo P, Chesi C, Zimmerman Z, et al. Variant-to-gene mapping followed by

cross-species genetic screening identifies GPI-anchor biosynthesis as a regulator of

sleep. *Sci Adv*. 2023;9(1):eabq0844. https://doi.org/10.1126/sciadv.abq0844. doi:

10.1126/sciadv.abq0844.

56. Thulson E, Davis ES, D'Costa S, et al. 3D chromatin structure in chondrocytes

identifies putative osteoarthritis risk genes. *Genetics*. 2022;222(4):iyac141. doi:

10.1093/genetics/iyac141. doi: 10.1093/genetics/iyac141.

57. Cairns J, Freire-Pritchett P, Wingett SW, et al. CHiCAGO: Robust detection of DNA

looping interactions in capture hi-C data. *Genome Biol*. 2016;17(1):127–2. doi:

10.1186/s13059-016-0992-2.

58. Roayaei Ardakany A, Gezer HT, Lonardi S, Ay F. Mustache: Multi-scale detection of

chromatin loops from hi-C and micro-C maps using scale-space representation.

Genome Biol. 2020;21(1):256–0. doi: 10.1186/s13059-020-02167-0.

59. Kaul A, Bhattacharyya S, Ay F. Identifying statistically significant chromatin contacts

from hi-C data with FitHiC2. *Nat Protoc*. 2020;15(3):991–1012. doi: 10.1038/s41596-

019-0273-0.

60. Steely HT, Browder SL, Julian MB, Miggans ST, Wilson KL, Clark AF. The effects of

dexamethasone on fibronectin expression in cultured human trabecular meshwork cells.

Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci. 1992;33(7):2242–2250.

61. Schmelter C, Fomo KN, Brueck A, et al. Glaucoma-associated CDR1 peptide

promotes RGC survival in retinal explants through molecular interaction with acidic

leucine rich nuclear phosphoprotein 32A (ANP32A). *Biomolecules*. 2023;13(7):1161.

doi: 10.3390/biom13071161. doi: 10.3390/biom13071161.

62. Verma A, Huffman JE, Rodriguez A, et al. Diversity and scale: Genetic architecture

of 2068 traits in the VA million veteran program. *Science*. 2024;385(6706):eadj1182.

doi: 10.1126/science.adj1182.

63. Bonnemaijer PWM, Leeuwen EMv, Iglesias AI, et al. Multi-trait genome-wide

association study identifies new loci associated with optic disc parameters. *Commun*

Biol. 2019;2:435–9. eCollection 2019. doi: 10.1038/s42003-019-0634-9.

64. Carey CE, Shafee R, Wedow R, et al. Principled distillation of UK biobank

phenotype data reveals underlying structure in human variation. *Nat Hum Behav*.

2024;8(8):1599–1615. doi: 10.1038/s41562-024-01909-5.

65. Scerri TS, Quaglieri A, Cai C, et al. Genome-wide analyses identify common

variants associated with macular telangiectasia type 2. *Nat Genet*. 2017;49(4):559–567.

doi: 10.1038/ng.3799.

66. Zakharia F, Basu A, Absher D, et al. Characterizing the admixed african ancestry of

african americans. *Genome Biol*. 2009;10(12):R141–r141. Epub 2009 Dec 22. doi:

10.1186/gb-2009-10-12-r141.

67. Luo Y, Li X, Wang X, et al. Estimating heritability and its enrichment in tissue-

specific gene sets in admixed populations. *Hum Mol Genet*. 2021;30(16):1521–1534.

doi: 10.1093/hmg/ddab130.

68. Huang L, Rosen JD, Sun Q, et al. TOP-LD: A tool to explore linkage disequilibrium

with TOPMed whole-genome sequence data. *Am J Hum Genet*. 2022;109(6):1175–

1181. doi: 10.1016/j.ajhg.2022.04.006.

69. Machiela MJ, Chanock SJ. LDlink: A web-based application for exploring

population-specific haplotype structure and linking correlated alleles of possible

functional variants. *Bioinformatics*. 2015;31(21):3555–3557. doi:

10.1093/bioinformatics/btv402.

70. Keller KE, Bhattacharya SK, Borrás T, et al. Consensus recommendations for

trabecular meshwork cell isolation, characterization and culture. *Exp Eye Res*.

2018;171:164–173. doi: 10.1016/j.exer.2018.03.001.

71. Vrathasha V, Nikonov S, Bell BA, et al. Transplanted human iPSC-derived retinal

ganglion cells integrate into mouse retinas and are electrophysiologically functional.

iScience. 2022:105308.

https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S2589004222015802. doi:

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.isci.2022.105308.

72. Gudiseva HV, Vrathasha V, He J, Bungatavula D, O'Brien JM, Chavali VRM. Single

cell sequencing of induced pluripotent stem cell derived retinal ganglion cells (iPSC-

RGC) reveals distinct molecular signatures and RGC subtypes. *Genes*. 2021;12(12).

doi: 10.3390/genes12122015.

73. Chavali VRM, Haider N, Rathi S, et al. Dual SMAD inhibition and wnt inhibition

enable efficient and reproducible differentiations of induced pluripotent stem cells into

retinal ganglion cells. *Scientific Reports*. 2020;10(1):11828.

https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-020-68811-8. doi: 10.1038/s41598-020-68811-8.

74. Capetian P, Müller L, Volkmann J, Heckmann M, Ergün S, Wagner N. Visualizing

the synaptic and cellular ultrastructure in neurons differentiated from human induced

neural stem cells-an optimized protocol. *Int J Mol Sci*. 2020;21(5):1708. doi:

10.3390/ijms21051708. doi: 10.3390/ijms21051708.

75. Tian L, Hires SA, Mao T, et al. Imaging neural activity in worms, flies and mice with

improved GCaMP calcium indicators. *Nat Methods*. 2009;6(12):875–881. doi:

10.1038/nmeth.1398.

76. Rumyantsev OI, Lecoq JA, Hernandez O, et al. Fundamental bounds on the fidelity

of sensory cortical coding. *Nature*. 2020;580(7801):100–105.

https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-020-2130-2. doi: 10.1038/s41586-020-2130-2.

77. Chen Q, Cichon J, Wang W, et al. Imaging neural activity using Thy1-GCaMP

transgenic mice. *Neuron*. 2012;76(2):297–308. doi: 10.1016/j.neuron.2012.07.011.

78. Kwon YH, Fingert JH, Kuehn MH, Alward WLM. Primary open-angle glaucoma. *N

Engl J Med*. 2009;360(11):1113–1124. doi: 10.1056/NEJMra0804630.

79. Aptel F, Aryal-Charles N, Giraud J, et al. Progression of visual field in patients with

primary open-angle glaucoma - ProgF study 1. *Acta Ophthalmol*. 2015;93(8):615. doi:

10.1111/aos.12788.

80. Heijl A, Leske MC, Bengtsson B, et al. Reduction of intraocular pressure and

glaucoma progression: Results from the early manifest glaucoma trial. *Arch Ophthalmol*.

2002;120(10):1268–1279. doi: 10.1001/archopht.120.10.1268.

81. Weinreb RN, Aung T, Medeiros FA. The pathophysiology and treatment of

glaucoma: A review. *JAMA*. 2014;311(18):1901–1911.

82. Yuan Y, Biswas P, Zemke NR, et al. Single-cell analysis of the epigenome and 3D

chromatin architecture in the human retina. *bioRxiv*. 2025. doi:

10.1101/2024.12.28.630634.

83. Gao XR, Huang H, Nannini DR, Fan F, Kim H. Genome-wide association analyses

identify new loci influencing intraocular pressure. *Hum Mol Genet*. 2018;27(12):2205–

2213. doi: 10.1093/hmg/ddy111.

84. Springelkamp H, Iglesias AI, Mishra A, et al. New insights into the genetics of

primary open-angle glaucoma based on meta-analyses of intraocular pressure and optic

disc characteristics. *Hum Mol Genet*. 2017;26(2):438–453. doi: 10.1093/hmg/ddw399.

85. Wistow G, Peterson K, Gao J, et al. NEIBank: Genomics and bioinformatics

resources for vision research. *Mol Vis*. 2008;14:1327–1337.

86. Macosko EZ, Basu A, Satija R, et al. Highly parallel genome-wide expression

profiling of individual cells using nanoliter droplets. *Cell*. 2015;161(5):1202–1214.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2015.05.002. doi: 10.1016/j.cell.2015.05.002.

87. Wang J, Liu X, Zhong Y. Rho/rho-associated kinase pathway in glaucoma (review).

Int J Oncol. 2013;43(5):1357–1367. doi: 10.3892/ijo.2013.2100.

88. Fukuhara S, Chikumi H, Gutkind JS. Leukemia-associated rho guanine nucleotide

exchange factor (LARG) links heterotrimeric G proteins of the G(12) family to rho. *FEBS*

Lett. 2000;485(2-3):183–188. doi: 10.1016/s0014-5793(00)02224-9.

89. Pattabiraman PP, Maddala R, Rao PV. Regulation of plasticity and fibrogenic

activity of trabecular meshwork cells by rho GTPase signaling. *J Cell Physiol*.

2014;229(7):927–942. https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/24318513

https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC3965649/. doi: 10.1002/jcp.24524.

90. Li L, Feng X, Fang F, et al. Longitudinal in vivo Ca2+ imaging reveals dynamic

activity changes of diseased retinal ganglion cells at the single-cell level. *Proceedings of*

the National Academy of Sciences. 2022;119(48):e2206829119.

https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.2206829119. doi: 10.1073/pnas.2206829119.

91. Wienbar S, Schwartz GW. The dynamic receptive fields of retinal ganglion cells.

Prog Retin Eye Res. 2018;67:102–117. doi: 10.1016/j.preteyeres.2018.06.003.

92. Sanes JR, Masland RH. The types of retinal ganglion cells: Current status and

implications for neuronal classification. *Annu Rev Neurosci*. 2015;38:221–246. doi:

10.1146/annurev-neuro-071714-034120.

93. Chichilnisky EJ, Kalmar RS. Functional asymmetries in ON and OFF ganglion cells

of primate retina. *J Neurosci*. 2002;22(7):2737–2747. doi: 10.1523/JNEUROSCI.22-07-

02737.2002.

94. Fiscella M, Farrow K, Jones IL, et al. Recording from defined populations of retinal

ganglion cells using a high-density CMOS-integrated microelectrode array with real-time

switchable electrode selection. *J Neurosci Methods*. 2012;211(1):103–113. doi:

10.1016/j.jneumeth.2012.08.017.

95. Wang M, Zheng Y. Oxidative stress and antioxidants in the trabecular meshwork.

PeerJ. 2019;7:e8121. doi: 10.7717/peerj.8121.

96. Ammar DA, Hamweyah KM, Kahook MY. Antioxidants protect trabecular meshwork

cells from hydrogen peroxide-induced cell death. *Translational Vision Science &*

Technology. 2012;1(1):4.

97. Böhm EW, Buonfiglio F, Voigt AM, et al. Oxidative stress in the eye and its role in

the pathophysiology of ocular diseases. *Redox Biology*. 2023;68:102967.

https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S2213231723003683. doi:

10.1016/j.redox.2023.102967.

98. Majsterek I, Malinowska K, Stanczyk M, et al. Evaluation of oxidative stress markers

in pathogenesis of primary open-angle glaucoma. *Exp Mol Pathol*. 2011;90(2):231–237.

99. Reis LM, Seese S, Maheshwari M, et al. Novel genetic diagnoses in septo-optic

dysplasia. *Genes (Basel)*. 2022;13(7):1165. doi: 10.3390/genes13071165. doi:

10.3390/genes13071165.

100. Wu JI, Rajendra R, Barsi JC, et al. Targeted disruption of Mib2 causes

exencephaly with a variable penetrance. *Genesis*. 2007;45(11):722–727.

101. Jaglin XH, Poirier K, Saillour Y, et al. Mutations in the beta-tubulin gene TUBB2B

result in asymmetrical polymicrogyria. *Nat Genet*. 2009;41(6):746–752. doi:

10.1038/ng.380.

102. Cederquist GY, Luchniak A, Tischfield MA, et al. An inherited TUBB2B mutation

alters a kinesin-binding site and causes polymicrogyria, CFEOM and axon

dysinnervation. *Hum Mol Genet*. 2012;21(26):5484–5499. doi: 10.1093/hmg/dds393.

103. Ugalde-Triviño L, Tejeda GS, Esteban-Ortega GM, Díaz-Guerra M. A brain-

accessible peptide modulates stroke inflammatory response and neurotoxicity by

targeting BDNF-receptor TrkB-T1 specific interactome. *Theranostics*.

2025;15(10):4654–4672. doi: 10.7150/thno.111272.

104. Zhang M, Deng Y, Luo Y, et al. Control of BACE1 degradation and APP

processing by ubiquitin carboxyl-terminal hydrolase L1. *J Neurochem*.

2012;120(6):1129–1138. doi: 10.1111/j.1471-4159.2011.07644.x.

105. Bilguvar K, Tyagi NK, Ozkara C, et al. Recessive loss of function of the neuronal

ubiquitin hydrolase UCHL1 leads to early-onset progressive neurodegeneration. *Proc*

Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2013;110(9):3489–3494. doi: 10.1073/pnas.1222732110.

106. Mehalow AK, Kameya S, Smith RS, et al. CRB1 is essential for external limiting

membrane integrity and photoreceptor morphogenesis in the mammalian retina. *Hum*

Mol Genet. 2003;12(17):2179–2189. doi: 10.1093/hmg/ddg232.

107. Weleber RG. Infantile and childhood retinal blindness: A molecular perspective

(the franceschetti lecture). *Ophthalmic Genet*. 2002;23(2):71–97. doi:

10.1076/opge.23.2.71.2214.

108. Massey-Harroche D, Delgrossi M, Lane-Guermonprez L, et al. Evidence for a

molecular link between the tuberous sclerosis complex and the crumbs complex. *Hum*

Mol Genet. 2007;16(5):529–536. doi: 10.1093/hmg/ddl485.

109. Kukekova AV, Nelson J, Kuchtey RW, et al. Linkage mapping of canine rod cone

dysplasia type 2 (rcd2) to CFA7, the canine orthologue of human 1q32. *Invest*

Ophthalmol Vis Sci. 2006;47(3):1210–1215. doi: 10.1167/iovs.05-0861.

110. van de Pavert SA, Meuleman J, Malysheva A, et al. A single amino acid

substitution (Cys249Trp) in Crb1 causes retinal degeneration and deregulates

expression of pituitary tumor transforming gene Pttg1. *J Neurosci*. 2007;27(3):564–573.

doi: 10.1523/JNEUROSCI.3496-06.2007.

111. Stehle IF, Imventarza JA, Woerz F, et al. Human CRB1 and CRB2 form homo- and

heteromeric protein complexes in the retina. *Life Sci Alliance*. 2024;7(6):e202302440.

doi: 10.26508/lsa.202302440. Print 2024 Jun. doi: 10.26508/lsa.202302440.

112. Sylla MM, Kolesinkova M, da Costa BL, Maumenee IH, Tsang SH, Quinn PMJ. A

novel pathogenic CRB1 variant presenting as leber congenital amaurosis 8 and

evaluation of gene editing feasibility. *Doc Ophthalmol*. 2023;147(3):217–224. doi:

10.1007/s10633-023-09951-w.

113. Lopes da Costa B, Kolesnikova M, Levi SR, et al. Clinical and therapeutic

evaluation of the ten most prevalent CRB1 mutations. *Biomedicines*. 2023;11(2):385.

doi: 10.3390/biomedicines11020385. doi: 10.3390/biomedicines11020385.

114. Di Donato N, Neuhann T, Kahlert A, et al. Mutations in EXOSC2 are associated

with a novel syndrome characterised by retinitis pigmentosa, progressive hearing loss,

premature ageing, short stature, mild intellectual disability and distinctive gestalt. *J Med*

Genet. 2016;53(6):419–425. doi: 10.1136/jmedgenet-2015-103511.

115. Weatherly SM, Collin GB, Charette JR, et al. Identification of Arhgef12 and prkci as

genetic modifiers of retinal dysplasia in the Crb1rd8 mouse model. *PLoS Genet*.

2022;18(6):e1009798. doi: 10.1371/journal.pgen.1009798.

116. Manavathi B, Peng S, Rayala SK, et al. Repression of Six3 by a corepressor

regulates rhodopsin expression. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 2007;104(32):13128–13133.

doi: 10.1073/pnas.0705878104.

117. Bock C, Datlinger P, Chardon F, et al. High-content CRISPR screening. *Nature*

Reviews Methods Primers. 2022;2(1):8. https://doi.org/10.1038/s43586-021-00093-4.

doi: 10.1038/s43586-021-00093-4.

118. Duong TT, Vasireddy V, Ramachandran P, et al. Use of induced pluripotent stem

cell models to probe the pathogenesis of choroideremia and to develop a potential

treatment. *Stem cell research*. 2018;27:140–150.

119. Sullivan SK, Mills JA, Koukouritaki SB, et al. High-level transgene expression in

induced pluripotent stem cell–derived megakaryocytes: Correction of glanzmann

thrombasthenia. *Blood*. 2014;123(5):753–757.

120. Maguire JA, Gagne A, Mills JA, Gadue P, French DL. Generation of human control

iPS cell line CHOPWT9 from healthy adult peripheral blood mononuclear cells. *Stem*

Cell Research. 2016;16(1):14–16.

121. Espuny-Camacho I, Michelsen KA, Gall D, et al. Pyramidal neurons derived from

human pluripotent stem cells integrate efficiently into mouse brain circuits in vivo.

Neuron. 2013;77(3):440–456.

122. Langmead B, Trapnell C, Pop M, Salzberg SL. Ultrafast and memory-efficient

alignment of short DNA sequences to the human genome. *Genome Biol*.

2009;10(3):R25–r25. Epub 2009 Mar 4. doi: 10.1186/gb-2009-10-3-r25.

123. Zhang Y, Liu T, Meyer CA, et al. Model-based analysis of ChIP-seq (MACS).

Genome Biol. 2008;9(9):R137–r137. Epub 2008 Sep 17. doi: 10.1186/gb-2008-9-9-

r137.

124. Ou J, Liu H, Yu J, et al. ATACseqQC: A bioconductor package for post-alignment

quality assessment of ATAC-seq data. *BMC Genomics*. 2018;19(1):169–3. doi:

10.1186/s12864-018-4559-3.

125. Wingett S, Ewels P, Furlan-Magaril M, et al. HiCUP: Pipeline for mapping and

processing hi-C data. *F1000Res*. 2015;4:1310. doi: 10.12688/f1000research.7334.1.

126. Putri GH, Anders S, Pyl PT, Pimanda JE, Zanini F. Analysing high-throughput

sequencing data in python with HTSeq 2.0. *Bioinformatics*. 2022;38(10):2943–2945.

doi: 10.1093/bioinformatics/btac166.

127. Robinson MD, McCarthy DJ, Smyth GK. edgeR: A bioconductor package for

differential expression analysis of digital gene expression data. *Bioinformatics*.

2010;26(1):139–140. doi: 10.1093/bioinformatics/btp616.

128. Su C, Argenziano M, Lu S, et al. 3D promoter architecture re-organization during

iPSC-derived neuronal cell differentiation implicates target genes for

neurodevelopmental disorders. *Prog Neurobiol*. 2021;201:102000. doi:

10.1016/j.pneurobio.2021.102000.

129. Finucane HK, Bulik-Sullivan B, Gusev A, et al. Partitioning heritability by functional

annotation using genome-wide association summary statistics. *Nat Genet*.

2015;47(11):1228–1235. doi: 10.1038/ng.3404.

130. Bulik-Sullivan BK, Loh P, Finucane HK, et al. LD score regression distinguishes

confounding from polygenicity in genome-wide association studies. *Nat Genet*.

2015;47(3):291–295. doi: 10.1038/ng.3211.

131. Gazal S, Finucane HK, Furlotte NA, et al. Linkage disequilibrium-dependent

architecture of human complex traits shows action of negative selection. *Nat Genet*.

2017;49(10):1421–1427. doi: 10.1038/ng.3954.

132. Patterson N, Price AL, Reich D. Population structure and eigenanalysis. *PLoS*

Genet. 2006;2(12):e190. doi: 10.1371/journal.pgen.0020190.

133. Lawrence M, Huber W, Pagès H, et al. Software for computing and annotating

genomic ranges. *PLoS Comput Biol*. 2013;9(8):e1003118. doi:

10.1371/journal.pcbi.1003118.

134. Coetzee SG, Coetzee GA, Hazelett DJ. motifbreakR: An R/bioconductor package

for predicting variant effects at transcription factor binding sites. *Bioinformatics*.

2015;31(23):3847–3849. doi: 10.1093/bioinformatics/btv470.

135. Kulakovskiy IV, Vorontsov IE, Yevshin IS, et al. HOCOMOCO: Towards a

complete collection of transcription factor binding models for human and mouse via

large-scale ChIP-seq analysis. *Nucleic Acids Res*. 2018;46(D1):D252–D259. doi:

10.1093/nar/gkx1106.

136. Borghuis BG, Tian L, Xu Y, et al. Imaging light responses of targeted neuron

populations in the rodent retina. *J Neurosci*. 2011;31(8):2855–2867. doi:

10.1523/JNEUROSCI.6064-10.2011.

137. Chen PJ, Hussmann JA, Yan J, et al. Enhanced prime editing systems by

manipulating cellular determinants of editing outcomes. *Cell*. 2021;184(22):5635–

5652.e29. doi: 10.1016/j.cell.2021.09.018.

138. Nelson JW, Randolph PB, Shen SP, et al. Engineered pegRNAs improve prime

editing efficiency. *Nat Biotechnol*. 2022;40(3):402–410. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41587-

021-01039-7. doi: 10.1038/s41587-021-01039-7.

139. Lopes da Costa B, Helms KM, Theodore K, et al. Prime editing for the investigation

of aberrant splicing defect associated with a pathogenic PRPH2 variant. *Mol Ther*

Nucleic Acids. 2025;36(4):102740. doi: 10.1016/j.omtn.2025.102740.

140. Caruso SM, Tsai Y, da Costa BL, et al. Prime editing strategy to install the PRPH2

c.828+1G>A mutation. *Adv Exp Med Biol*. 2023;1415:97–102. doi: 10.1007/978-3-031-

27681-1_15.

1308

1309

Authorship Contribution Statement

Conceptualization: V.V., M.C.P., S.F.A.G., and J.M.O.; methodology: V.V., M.C.P., S.F.A.G, and J.M.O.; software: M.C.P., Y.B., Y.Z., S.S.V., S.F.A.G., and J.M.O.; validation: V.V., M.C.P., S.F.A.G., and J.M.O.; formal analysis: V.V., M.C.P., S.F.A.G., and J.M.O.; investigation: V.V., M.C.P., J.A.P., S.N., J.H., M.H., M.L., A.A.E., H.V.G., V.R.M.C., B.L., A.M.B., A.G.R., Q.N.C., E.M.E., P.S.S., V.A.; resources: S.F.A.G. and J.M.O.; data curation: V.V., M.C.P., J.H., L.M., P.M.J.Q., S.F.A.G., and J.M.O.; writing – original draft: V.V., M.C.P., and R.J.S.; writing – review & editing: all authors; visualization: V.V., M.C.P., S.F.A.G., and J.M.O.; supervision: S.F.A.G. and J.M.O.; project administration: V.V., M.C.P., S.F.A.G., and J.M.O.; funding acquisition: S.FA.G. and J.M.O.

Financial Disclosures

The authors have no financial disclosures.

Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

Funding/Support

This work was supported by the National Eye Institute, Bethesda, MD (1R01EY023557) and Vision Research Core (P30 EY001583) grants. Funds also came from the F.M. Kirby Foundation, Research to Prevent Blindness, UPenn Hospital Board of Women Visitors, and Paul and Evanina Bell Mackall Foundation Trust. The Ophthalmology Department at the Perelman School of Medicine and the VA Hospital in Philadelphia, PA, also provided support. The sponsors/funding organizations had no role in the design or conduct of this

1332   research. Penn Cytomics is partially supported by the Abramson Cancer Center NCI

1333   Grant (P30 016520). SFAG is supported by the Daniel B. Burke Endowed Chair for

1334   Diabetes Research.

1335

Figure 1: Constructing the cRE network of glaucoma-relevant cell types using ATAC-seq, RNA-seq, and chromatin conformation. (a) Schematic of the libraries constructed for the two cellular models of hiPSC-RGCs and hTMCs. While RNA-seq and ATAC-seq were performed on both hiPSC-RGCs and hTMC, chromatin conformation was characterized via Hi-C in hiPSC-RGCs and Promoter Focused Capture C in hTMCs. (b) The number of OCRs defined by ATAC-seq was specific to each cell type (yellow = hTMCs; pink = hiPSC-RGCs). OCRs were considered shared if there was a 1bp overlap with an OCR in the opposite cell type. (c) The proportion of OCRs falling into each category of genomic region annotations (exons, introns, intergenic, or promoter). (d) Schematic of cases for overlaying chromatin conformation with open chromatin data. Regions with significant interactions in either Promoter Focused Capture C or Hi-C are termed Promoter Interacting Regions (PIR). OCRs overlapping such regions are considered putative cREs for the targeted promoter. OCRs that overlay promoters (-1500bp/+500bp from a TSS) themselves are also considered as potential regulatory elements. Variants located in OCRs and nominated by these approaches are considered potentially regulatory. (e) The number of contacts per cell type that are between a promoter and a non-promoter region, between two promoters, or between two non-promoter regions (only found in Hi-C). (f) The cumulative distribution of the distance of significant chromatin interactions called in hTMCs and hiPSC-RGCs, stratified by either promoter to non-promoter (p2c) or promoter to promoter (p2p).

Figure 2: Promoter-connected OCRs are correlated with increased gene expression. (a) The number of OCRs per gene versus the log-scaled number of genes with the specified number of OCRs in each cell type (pink = hiPSC-RGC; yellow = hTMC). (b) The number of genes connected per log-scaled OCR for each cell type. (c) The number of OCRs contacting a gene promoter versus expression quantified in log2(1+TPM) for each cell type. d) The difference in expression against the difference in the number of OCRs predicted to be connected to each gene. In (c) and (d), the trend line from the linear association is shown with the shaded region representing 95% confidence interval.

Figure 3: Dot plot depicting the results of partitioned LD score regression for hTMCs and hiPSC-RGCs across several European ancestry GWAS studies. Dot size depicts the size of enrichment and is colored by the coefficient z-score (higher corresponds to stronger association). *indicates the enrichment is significant following Bonferroni correction, # indicates the result is significant following FDR correction, and ‡ indicates significance of the baseline-adjusted cell type coefficient FDR. (b) To identify effector genes of risk loci identified in our African ancestry GWAS of POAG37, we expanded sentinel variants by LD (R2 > 0.6) using either the TOPMED-LD68 or LDLink69 reference databases. These variants were intersected with putative PIR-OCRs to identify the subset likely to be causal and their effector genes in hTMC and hiPSC-RGCs.

hTMCs

Figure 4: Quantitative mRNA expression analyses of prioritized genes implicated in hTMCs and hiPSC-RGCs. The quantitative expression profiles of the putative genes using qRT-PCR, in cell lines with and without POAG. In hTMCs, genes include: (a) *ARHGEF12*, (b) *ROCK1*, (c) *MIB2*, and (d) *CAT*. In hiPSC-RGCs, genes include: (e) *ARHGEF12*, (f) *ROCK1*, (g) *TUBB2B*, (h) *LINC02525*, (i) *CRB1*, (j) *EXOSC2*, (k) *UCHL1*, (l) *MTA1*, and (m) *AL928654.1*. CNTL= cells from a visually unaffected control subject and *ARHGEF12* c.032G>A= hiPSC-RGCs generated from a POAG subject with *ARHGEF12* SNP. Dots equal each technical replicate; *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001, ****p<0.0001.

Figure 5: Nomination of *ARHGEF12* as a putative effector gene for African ancestry POAG in hiPSC-RGCs. (a) Genomic track showing contact frequency, promoter contacts, and chromatin accessibility for *ARHGEF12*. Two implicated SNPs, rs11824032 and rs34002948, are highlighted. (b) Motifs predicted to be disrupted by these variants (circles = rs11824032; triangles = rs34002948). The x-axis is the difference in information content (log scale) relative to the alternative/reference alleles, with the -log10 P value on the y-axis. Color corresponds to the transcription factor name. (c) The expression level of predicted transcription factors and implicated genes across each replicate of hiPSC-RGC in the *ARHGEF12* locus. (d) Western blots depicting ARHGEF12 protein and (e) quantification of the levels in control and POAG hiPSC-RGCs. (f) Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images revealing ultrastructural analyses of morphological differences between control and *ARHGEF12* variant hiPSC-RGCs. Arrows pointing towards mitochondria and N: Nucleus. Scale bars as indicated. (g) Representative fluorescence responses from action potential firing in control and POAG hiPSC-RGCs. For simplicity, fluorescence from only one cell is shown for each condition. Note that the number of control RGCs exhibiting spontaneous Ca² responses is substantially greater than the number observed in POAG hiPSC-RGCs (see Videos 5a and 5b). (h) The total sum of all RGC amplitudes in control and *ARHGEF12* variant expressing hiPSC-RGCs. CNTL= hiPSC-RGCs from a visually unaffected control subject and *ARHGEF12* c.032G>A= hiPSC-RGCs generated from a POAG subject with *ARHGEF12* SNP. Dots equal the number of cells quantified in each technical replicate; *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001, ****p<0.0001.