- 1 Title Page
- 2 Uncovering the Genetic Profiles Underlying the Intrinsic Organization of the
- 3 Human Cerebellum
- 4 Running Title: Genetic substrates of cerebellar functional organization
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Abstract

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Decoding the genetic profiles underlying the cerebellar functional organization is critical for uncovering the essential role of the human cerebellum in various high-order functions and malfunctions in neuropsychiatric disorders. However, no effort has been made to systemically address this. By combining transcriptome data with the intrinsic functional connectivity of the human cerebellum, we not only identified 443 network-specific genes but also discovered that their gene co-expression pattern correlated strongly with intra-cerebellar functional connectivity. Of these genes, 90 were also differentially expressed in the cerebral cortex and linked the cortico-cerebellar cognitive-limbic networks. To further discover the biological functions of these genes, we performed a "virtual gene knock-out" by observing the change in the coupling between gene co-expression and functional connectivity and divided the genes into two subsets, i.e., a positive gene contribution indicator (GCI⁺) and a negative gene set (GCI-). GCI+ is mainly involved in cerebellar neurodevelopment, while GCI is related to neurotransmission and is significantly enriched in various neurological and neuropsychiatric disorders that are closely linked the cerebellar functional abnormalities. Collectively, our results provide new insight into the genetic substrates behind the functional organization of the human cerebellum with relevance to the possible mechanism of cerebellar contributions to related neurological and psychiatric disorders.

Introduction

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Converging evidence from animal and human studies is advancing our understanding of the human cerebellum, which has been shown to be engaged in motor, complex cognitive, and emotional behaviors^{1,2}. While such functional diversity of the cerebellum was believed to derive from its extensive afferent and efferent connections to extra-cerebellar structures, rather than being limited to a uniform cerebellar cortical cytoarchitecture^{1,3-6}. It is well known that the macroscale functional organization of the human nervous system is widely accepted as being ultimately regulated by the underlying microscale gene expression⁷⁻¹⁰. Therefore, unraveling the genetic profiles underlying the cerebellar functional organization could help us understand how the cerebellum organizes different functional subregions that have homogeneous cytoarchitecture into functional networks that support its engagement in various functions¹¹ as well as increasing our understanding of its relevance in diverse brain diseases^{12,13}. However, the genetic mechanism supporting the functional organization of the human cerebellum is largely unknown. Only a few studies have attempted to investigate the genetic expression pattern of the human cerebellum, but they provided inconsistent results in terms of genetic expression variability. For instance, Hawrylycz et al.¹⁴ and Negi and Guda¹⁵ both found that gene expression is highly homogeneous across the anatomical regions of the healthy adult cerebellum. In contrast, Aldinger et al. 16 and Wang and Zoghbi 10 found that cerebellar development and function are

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governed by the precise regulation of molecular and cellular programs and that the gene expression pattern is heterogeneous across spatial and temporal scales. In addition, differences in gene expression patterns between the cerebellar gyri and sulci¹⁷, and considerable cerebellar regional specializations containing specific cell types, as revealed by high-throughput single-nucleus RNA-seq¹⁸ have been found in the mouse cerebellum. This inconsistency in the genetic variability of the cerebellum needs to be further explored because the relevant studies that showed homogeneity^{14,15} only explored the overall cerebellar genetic expression pattern across its gross macro-anatomical boundaries (e.g., cerebellar lobules) and might have failed to fully reflect the functional organization of the human cerebellum^{19,20}. In the past decade, functional topological maps describing the organization of the human cerebellum using task²¹ and task-free functional magnetic resonance imaging $(fMRI)^{22,23}$, specifically, cerebellar functional networks^{22,23} separate intra-cerebellar functional gradients²⁴, have been proposed. In particular, Buckner et al.²² employed resting-state functional connectivity (rsFC) of the cerebello-cortical circuit as a tool to map the intrinsic functional architecture of the human cerebellum and proposed a possible functional parcellation into 7 networks and 17 networks. It is thus possible to decode the genetic profiles of cerebellar functional organization by investigating the molecular genetic substrates simultaneously linking cerebellar functional heterogeneity and its drivers, i.e., the connections. Whether and how the hypothesized determination of connections in cerebellar functional heterogeneity⁶ interact with microscale gene expression is still an open question. To address this, one

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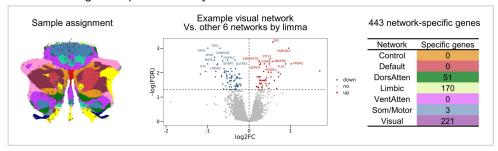
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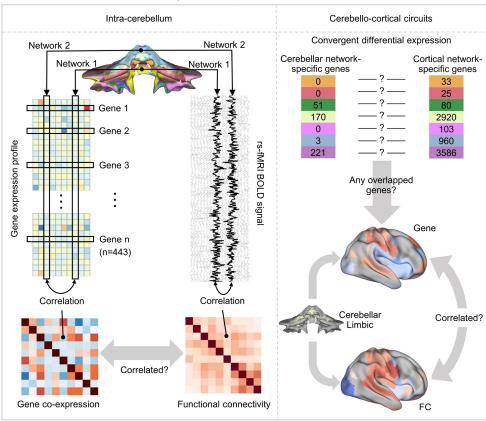
and neuropsychiatric disorders.

promising approach is imaging-transcriptomics analysis²⁵⁻²⁷, which allows the brain-wide spatial analysis of microscopic transcriptome data to be combined with macroscopic neuroimaging phenotypes⁷. Thus, our goal was to investigate for the first time the neurobiological genetic mechanism underlying the functional organization of the human cerebellum to examine the correlation between the genes linking cerebellar functional heterogeneity and the functional integration of the human cerebellum. The schematic of the experimental design was shown in Fig. 1. Specifically, the Allen Human Brain Atlas (AHBA) transcriptome data⁷ was combined with a cerebellar functional parcellation atlas²² to identify the cerebellar network-specific genes (Fig. 1a). Then we found that the gene co-expression pattern of the network-specific genes showed a high correlation with the intra-cerebellar FC (Fig. 1b, left). In addition, we observed coupling between the gene co-expression of ~20% network-specific genes and FC across the cerebello-cortical limbic and control networks (Fig. 1b, right). Furthermore, by applying a series of functional annotation tools to these genes (Fig. 1c), we identified two gene sets separately involved in cerebellar neurodevelopment and neurotransmission and obtained interesting genetic evidence supporting the implications of cerebellar functional organization in many neurological and psychiatric disorders. The current exploration can provide a starting point in the effort to understand the molecular basis of cerebellar functional organization and open the door for investigating the pivotal role played by the cerebellum in many neurological

a. Differential gene expression analysis



b. Correlation between FC and gene co-expression



c. Functional annotation

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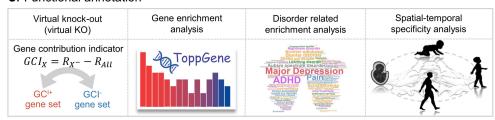


Fig. 1 | **Analysis pipeline. a** Differential gene expression analysis. We assigned the AHBA cerebellar samples into 7 cerebellar functional networks (left)²² and averaged each gene's expression within the same network individually. Then we compared the gene expression in each network with all the other networks by limma²⁸ (middle) with

a fold change > 0 and FDR corrected p < .05 as an indicator (Red indicates that the genes we found were significantly positively expressed in the visual network.). Thus, we obtained the network-specific genes for 7 networks (right). **b** Correlations between the gene co-expression and the FC included intra-cerebellar and cerebello-cortical circuits. Intra-cerebellum: for each pair of networks, we calculated the gene expression similarity between them using 443 cerebellar network-specific genes and then constructed the gene co-expression matrix. The FC matrix was constructed by correlating the BOLD signal for all pairs. Then the relationship between the genetic correlation and functional correlation was evaluated. Cerebello-cortical circuits: We first defined the cortical network-specific genes as we had for the cerebellum and tested whether any convergently expressed genes occurred. Then we used the overlapping genes to obtained the cortical genetic correlation for each cerebellar network and evaluated the relationship between the cortical genetic and functional correlation for each cerebellar network. c Functional annotation includes virtual knock-out (KO), gene enrichment analysis, disorder-related enrichment analysis, and spatial-temporal specificity analysis.

Results

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The cerebellar network-specific genes derived based on the functional segregation

within the cerebellum

The genes that were expressed much more in one network than in all the other six networks in the cerebellum and cerebral cortex were identified based on the differential gene expression analysis and are referred to as cerebellar network-specific genes and cortical network-specific genes, respectively. We identified 443 cerebellar network-specific genes (Supplementary sheet 2, 3) using all samples from 6 donors

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across 7 networks. The distribution of these network-specific genes is shown in Table 1, which shows that these were mainly expressed in the limbic (n = 170), dorsal attention (n = 51), somato/motor (n = 3), and visual (n = 221) networks. We also obtained 6,987 cortical network-specific genes (Supplementary sheet 5, 6, Table 1) using the same strategy and found that the cerebellar and cortical network-specific genes distribution patterns were highly correlated (r = 0.95, p = .00108). Moreover, we found that 90 of these 443 cerebellar network-specific genes (~ 20%) (Supplementary sheet 7, 8, Table 1) were convergently expressed in the cerebral cortex and that a significant overlap between the cerebellar and cortical network-specific genes of the limbic and somatomotor networks occurred (limbic overlap = 56, hypergeometric ps < .0001; somatomotor overlap = 2, hypergeometric ps < .01). This means that the 56 limbic genes were differentially expressed in the limbic cortex and the limbic cerebellum and that the 2 somatomotor genes were differentially expressed in the somatomotor cortex and somatomotor cerebellum. Overlapped genes were also found in the visual network but failed to pass the hypergeometric test (visual overlap = 33, with hypergeometric ps = .84), and no overlap was found for the other 4 networks (ventral attention, dorsal attention, control, default, Supplementary sheet 7).

		Cerebellum	Cortex	Overlap genes
Control		0	33	0
Default		0	25	0
Dorsal Attention		51	80	0
Limbic		170	2920	56*
Ventral Attention		0	103	0
SomatoMotor		3	960	2*
Visual		221	3586	33
Total (unique)		443	6987	90

Table 1 | Counts of significantly expressed genes within each network compared to other networks (referred to as network-specific genes for simplicity). Here we defined the cerebellar (n = 443, left column, Supplementary sheets 2, 3) and cortical network-specific genes (n = 6987, middle column, Supplementary sheets 5, 6) across the cerebellar²² and cortical²⁹ 7-network strategies. The rightmost column measures the overlap between the cerebellar and cortical network-specific genes for each network (Supplementary sheets 7, 8), * Hypergeometric $ps \le .01$.

The co-expression of the cerebellar network-specific genes highly correlated with

intra-cerebellar FC

Using the 443 cerebellar network-specific genes, we constructed the gene co-expression matrix for the 2 bi-hemisphere donors and explored the relationship between gene correlation and FC within the cerebellum. Across all the available network-network pairs, the genetic co-expression correlates with the FC within the cerebellum (r = 0.48, p = .00088, with permutation test p = .01700, Fig. 2). The genetic correlations were either positive or negative, but the FCs were all positive, and the negative genetic correlation corresponded to a mild functional correlation (Fig. 2d, red). This correlation between gene co-expression and FC was referred to as

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Gene-FC correlation throughout present paper for simplicity. To validate the Gene-FC correlation within the cerebellum, we also leveraged the task-free 7-network parcellation, task-based multi-domain task battery (MDTB) functional parcellation²¹, and the cerebellar lobular parcellation³⁰ to re-perform the aforementioned steps (Fig. 2d). The gene co-expression and FC within the cerebellum also correlated when analyzed based on the 7-network parcellation (r = 0.76, p = .00090, Fig. 2d, Supplementary Fig. 1), the MDTB functional parcellation (r = 0.42, p = .00388, Fig. 2d, Supplementary Fig. 2), and the cerebellar lobular parcellation (r = 0.19, p= .03616, Fig. 2d, Supplementary Fig. 3). The Gene-FC correlation for the lobular parcellation, however, failed to pass the Bonferroni corrected significance level (p < .05). This is consistent with the observation that, compared with cerebellar morphological boundaries, a functional atlas performs better in terms of functional representativeness^{19,20}. Therefore, the 443 cerebellar network-specific genes that we derived based on the functional segregation of the cerebellum also correlated with the functional integration of the cerebellum. This Gene-FC correlation was not generated by chance, so it was consistent using a different parcellation resolution and independent cerebellar functional atlas although it disappeared in the lobular parcellation. Moreover, the control test exhibited no Gene-FC correlation when the gene co-expression was constructed using non-network-specific genes (Supplementary sheet 28) regardless of whether the test was thresholdless or thresholded. These findings further confirmed that these 443 network-specific genes play a key role in

intra-cerebellar functional organization.

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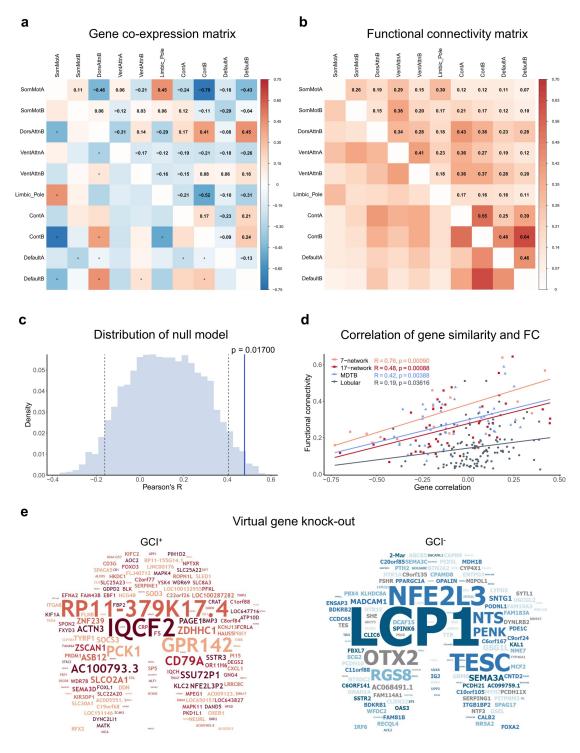


Fig. 2 | Network-specific gene co-expression correlates with functional connectivity (FC) within the cerebellum. a Genetic correlation was shown by the co-expression matrix (Supplementary sheet 9) constructed for two bi-hemisphere donors across 10 cerebellar networks using 443 cerebellar network-specific genes

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derived from all six donors. The 10 cerebellar networks corresponded to the networks containing samples from both bi-hemisphere donors (Supplementary Table 3). Genetic correlation revealed both positive (red) and negative (blue) correlations, * Bonferroni corrected $p \le .05$. **b** The FC matrix (Supplementary sheet 10) shows the functional correlation for the 10 cerebellar networks using 1,018 subjects from the HCP S1200 release³¹. They were positively correlated with each other, and all passed the Bonferroni corrected significant threshold $p \le .0001$. c Distribution of the null model constructed using a permutation test that evaluated whether our Gene-FC correlation was generated by chance. The vertical black dashed lines correspond to the p values of .05 and .95; our observed Gene-FC correlation, shown by the blue vertical line, corresponds to p = .01700. d The overall intra-cerebellar Gene-FC correlation using different parcellations: task-free 7-network (orange) and 17-network (red) parcellation of the cerebellar functional atlas based on the cerebello-cortical rsFC, task-based MDTB functional parcellation (blue) based on the task activation pattern, and cerebellar lobular parcellation (grey). The Pearson's correlation R and p values are shown by corresponding colors. e The GCI⁺ (n = 246, left) and GCI⁻ (n = 197, right) gene list were displayed on flattened shape of the cerebellum. Convergently expressed genes among the cerebellar and cortical network-specific genes correlated with the FC across the cerebello-cortical cognitive-limbic networks Since 90 of the 443 cerebellar network-specific genes were convergently expressed across the cerebello-cortical circuit, we wanted to know whether these ~20% genes correlated with the FC across the cerebello-cortical circuit. A correspondence between the genetic and functional correlations was identified for the limbic (r = 0.36, FDR corrected p = .03026, Fig. 3a) and control networks (r = -0.33, FDR corrected p = .03449, Fig. 3b) but was not significant for the somatomotor (r = -0.15, FDR

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corrected p = .39433), dorsal attention (r = -0.19, FDR corrected p = .28134), ventral attention (r = -0.04, FDR corrected p = .77856), or default (r = 0.10, FDR corrected p = .54382) networks. The high cortical genetic similarity between the limbic system and the adjacent control network (r = -0.90, FDR corrected p < .0001), somatomotor network (r = -0.55, FDR corrected p < .0001), and ventral attention network (r = -0.72, FDR corrected p < .0001) indicates that the gene co-expression between the cerebellar limbic network and the cortex reflects a gradual genetic gradient rather than genetic dissimilarity between the cerebellar limbic network and the other cerebellar networks. In addition, while controlling the effect of the cortical genetic similarity between the limbic and control networks, the partial correlation showed no cortical Gene-FC correlation for the control network (r = -0.13, p = .31596), which implies that the significant cortical Gene-FC correlation for the control network was induced by the high cortical genetic similarity between the cerebellar limbic and control networks. This is also consistent with the finding that convergently expressed genes were only observed in the limbic network, but not in the control network (Table 1). Overall, these 443 cerebellar network-specific genes not only correlated with the intra-cerebellar FC, but ~20% of them were also linked with the cerebello-cortical cognitive-limbic networks.

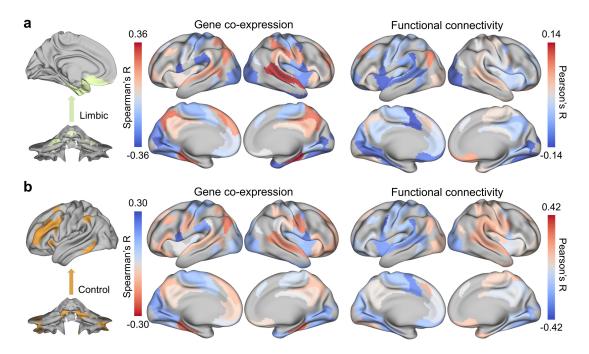


Fig. 3 | Genetic and functional cortical correlation of limbic and control cerebellar networks seeds. Both were calculated for 2 bi-hemisphere donors across 10 cerebellar networks and 59 cortical parcels that contained samples from both bi-hemisphere donors. a Limbic: The cortical gene co-expression (Supplementary sheet 11) was calculated using the 90 overlapping genes between the cerebellar and cortical network-specific genes by Spearman's correlation. The FC across each cerebellar network with each cortical parcel was calculated using Pearson's correlation (Supplementary sheet 12). The cortical limbic genetic and functional correlations were correlated with each other (r = 0.36, FDR corrected p = .03026). b Control: The cortical gene co-expression and the FC for the control network were correlated with each other (r = -0.33, FDR corrected p = .03449). Noted, the color bar of gene co-expression was inverted considering the negative Gene-FC correlation for the control network.

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Functional annotation revealed distinct biological properties of GCI⁺ and GCI⁻ separated by virtual KO In addition to the overall correlation between gene co-expression and the functional integration of the cerebellum, we investigated each gene's importance to the intra-cerebellar Gene-FC correlation by scoring the 443 cerebellar network-specific genes based on the gene contribution indicator (GCI). Using the virtual gene knock-out (KO) procedure, we were able to classify the 443 network-specific genes that linked cerebellar functional segregation and integration into two groups: a 246 GCI positive gene set (GCI⁺, Fig. 2e left, Supplementary sheet 13) and a 197 GCI negative gene set (GCI⁻, Fig. 2e right, Supplementary sheet 14). The distinction between the two sets is that the virtual KO of GCI⁺ genes increased the Gene-FC correlation, whereas the virtual KO of GCI⁻ genes decreased the Gene-FC correlation. Based on the winner-take-all principle, GCI genes may have a critical impact on the functional organization of the cerebellum; an example is that the top genes, LCP1 and TESC, enable GTPase binding and calcium binding, respectively³², which are key functions within signaling transduction. Therefore, we applied a range of bioinformatics tools to further explore the underlying roles of the GCI⁺ and GCI⁻. The gene ontology (GO) enrichment analysis of the GCI⁺ and GCI⁻ is shown in Fig. 4a. The GCI⁺ was mainly enriched in microtubule-related terms, including the microtubule associated complex (ID: 0005875, FDR corrected p = .00050), motile

cilium (ID: 0031514, FDR corrected p = .00156), and dynein complex (ID:

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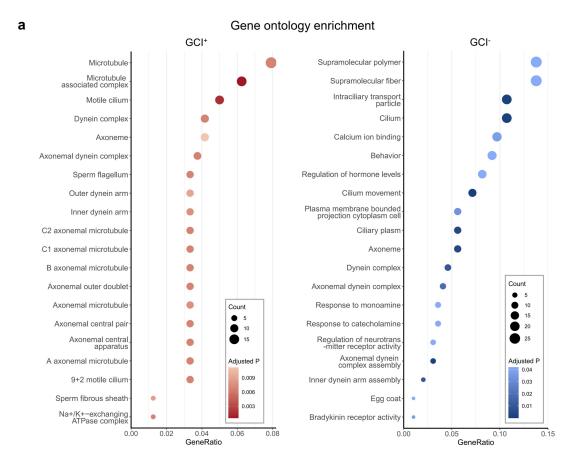
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GO:0030286, FDR corrected p = .00678). Compared with GCI⁺, the GCI⁻ was not only enriched in microtubule-related terms but was also significantly enriched in terms related to neurotransmitter transport, such as calcium ion binding (ID: 0005509, FDR corrected p = .03709), regulation of hormone levels (ID: 0010817, FDR corrected p = .04195), response to catecholamine (ID: 0071869, FDR corrected p = .04195), response to monoamine (ID: 0071867, FDR corrected p = .04195), and regulation of neurotransmitter receptor activity (ID: 0099601, FDR corrected p = .04195). This is consistent with their different pathway enrichment results (Supplementary sheets 15,16) in that the GCI⁺ was primarily enriched in some basic biological pathways: proximal tubule bicarbonate reclamation (ID: M4361, FDR corrected p = .03197) and glycolysis/gluconeogenesis (ID: M39474, FDR corrected p = .03197), which provides the energy need during microtube-related processes. In contrast, the GCI was primarily involved in signaling transduction, especially in some neurotransmission pathways, such as the neuroactive ligand-receptor interaction (ID: M13380, FDR corrected p = .03877). Since the GCI⁺ and GCI⁻ are involved in different biological processes, we hypothesized that they also play different roles in brain disease or related to different brain diseases. Unexpectedly, we found no link between GCI⁺ and any brain-related illnesses (Fig. 4b, left) but observed an involvement of GCI- in various neurological and neuropsychiatric disorders (Fig. 4b, right), including autistic disorder (ID: C0004325, FDR corrected p = .04734), alcoholic intoxication (ID: C0001973, FDR corrected p = .02349), mental depression (ID: C0011570, FDR corrected p = .04167),

pain (ID: C0030193, FDR corrected p = .00141), learning disorders (ID: C0023186, 312 FDR corrected p = .02349) and others. Many of these, especially mental depression 313 and autistic disorder, have a close relationship with the human cerebellum, in which 314 patients have shown functional connectivity abnormalities^{33,34}. The mental 315 depression- and autistic disorder-associated genes were TRH, PENK, TTR, ADCY5, 316 NRXN1, HTR1A, HTR2C, NTS, PEX5L (n = 9, Supplementary sheet 16) and 317 DLGAP2, TRH, PENK, RYR3, SEMA3A, NRXN1, TESC, ABCG2, PCDH10, 318 CNTN4, HTR1A, CALB2, HTR2C, DNAAF4, FOLR1, NTS, GRM8, UPP2 (n = 18, 319 Supplementary sheet 16), respectively, and the overlapping genes were TRH, PENK, 320 321 NRXN1, HTR1A, HTR2C, NTS (n = 6).



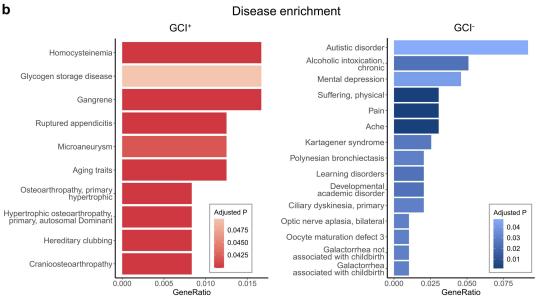


Fig. 4 | The gene ontology (GO) and disease enrichment analysis for GCI⁺ and GCI⁻. a Bubble plot shows the GO enrichment top 10 terms for GCI⁺ (left) and GCI⁻ (right) (all results are shown in Supplementary sheets 15 and 16, respectively). The biological process (BP), cellular component (CC), and molecular function (MF) are

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displayed together. The dot size (count) represents the number of genes that are within the interest GCI⁺ or GCI⁻ gene panels as well as a specific GO term (y-axis). The color shows the FDR corrected p value. **b** Gradient barplot showing the disease enrichment for all representative results for GCI⁺ and top 15 representative terms for GCI⁻. The color represents the FDR corrected *p* value. In light of the distinct properties of GCI⁺ and GCI⁻, we wanted to know whether the roles played by these two gene sets showed variable prevalence at different ages. By leveraging the BrainSpan dataset³⁵ and applying the analysis strategy of CSEA tool³⁶, we found that GCI⁺ showed significant overexpression in early middle fetal, late middle fetal, late fetal, and neonatal early infancy compared with GCI (Fig. 5a). These stages neatly correspond to the timeline of the protracted development of the human cerebellum³⁷, which extends from the early embryonic period until the end of the first postnatal year. This appears to be consistent with the observation that the GCI⁺ is involved in some fundamental biological processes, especially microtubule-related activity, whose dynamics play a key role in cerebellar neurodevelopment³⁸. In contrast, compared with the GCI⁺, the GCI⁻ was significantly expressed in late infancy, early childhood, adolescence, and young adulthood (Fig. 5b), which includes the highest neurodevelopmental risk windows for autism spectrum disorder (ASD)³⁹ and major depression disorder (MDD)⁴⁰, both of which we found in the disease enrichment analysis.

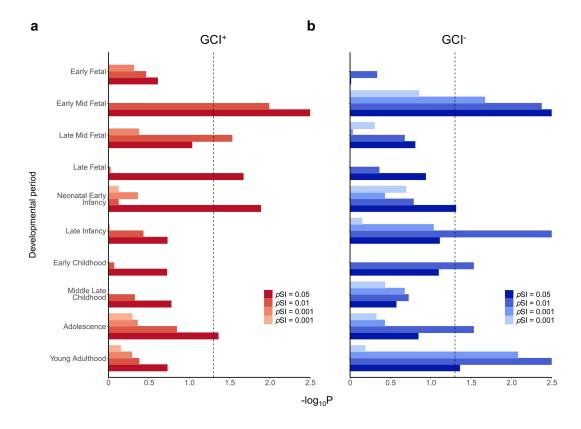


Fig. 5 | Integrative spatial-temporal specificity analysis of GCI⁺ (a) and GCI⁻ (b) within the cerebellum. The specificity index probability (pSI = .05, .01, .001, .001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .0001, .

Discussion

The current study provided a first tentative exploration of the genetic differential and co-expression linked with the functional organization of the human cerebellum

and has the potential for elaborating and rethinking the neurobiological underpinnings of the cerebellar functional organization. Furthermore, we identified two gene sets involved in cerebellar neurodevelopment and neurotransmission and found interesting, indirect genetic evidence supporting the key role played by the cerebellar functional network in many neurological and psychiatric disorders, which hints at a possible mechanistic explanation for the cerebellar contributions to related neurological and psychiatric disorders.

The genetic profiles underlying cerebellar functional segregation correlate with

intra-cerebellar and cerebello-cerebral connections

In this study we found correlations between the identified cerebellar network-specific genes and the intra-cerebellar connection and cerebello-cerebral FC. These findings could provide possible empirical genetic support for the hypothesized decisive role of cerebellar connectivity in the functional heterogeneity of the cerebellum. First, while obtaining the network-specific genes, we found significant differences in the number of identified genes between the functional specificity (i.e., limbic, visual networks) and functional diversity networks (i.e., the control, default networks); specifically, more differentially expressed genes were in the former and vice versa in the latter⁴¹. This was also found in a previous cortical gene expression homogeneity analysis⁷ that showed that a relatively high differential expression pattern was observed in the primary sensory cortex, area 38, and the primary visual cortex, a finding that closely corresponds with the somatomotor, limbic, and visual networks. But the findings

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related to the inconsistency in the amount of somatomotor cerebellar (n = 3) and somatomotor cortical network-specific genes (n = 960) were not completely clear. One possible explanation may be that the preferential links between the cerebellar representations of body space and the motor, somatosensory, and premotor cortices are difficult to distinguish²². The cerebellar network-specific genes we obtained are not in keeping with the highly homogeneous gene expression within the human cerebellum suggested by its anatomic atlas^{7,14}. Even though we selected a definition of differentially expressed genes using an FDR corrected statistical threshold rather than an arbitrary threshold and although lobule-specific genes were identified using our statistical threshold, these genes did not correlate with the FC of the human cerebellum. This indicates that the arbitrary fold change threshold was not appropriate for determining biologically meaningful but subtle differences⁴² and that the genes underlying the lobular segregation are not related to the resting-state activity of the human cerebellum. These findings support, from a genetic perspective, the idea that the morphological subdivisions of the cerebellum do not correspond well to its functional representation^{19,20}. Second, the overall distribution patterns of the cerebellar and cortical network-specific genes were highly correlated, a finding that is consistent with a similar macroscale principle that was identified in the cerebellar and cortical functional organization^{24,43}. These correlated patterns may be related to the way that we defined the cerebellar network, which was by projecting the cerebral cortical networks onto the cerebellum by computing the functional connections between the

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two regions²². More interestingly, the molecular genetic substrates simultaneously linking functional heterogeneity and integration could only be observed across the functional subdivision, regardless of whether the parcellation was based on the task-free cerebello-cortical rsFC²² or the intra-cerebellar task-based activation pattern²¹, but disappeared in the lobular parcellation. These interpretations are further supported by the widely accepted notion about the human cerebellum that its functional specialization is dominated by its connection with extracerebellar structures rather than within its homogeneous cytoarchitecture⁶. Although no intra-cerebellar anatomical fiber connections linking adjacent or distant cerebellar regions with each other have been found^{44,45}, it is widely accepted that the intra-cerebellar functional map is a consequence of the topological arrangement of its extra-cerebellar anatomical connections⁶. This proposed relationship between extraand intra-cerebellar connectivity can in turn be expected to affect the resting-state activity between cerebellar regions²⁴. Third, in addition to the intra-cerebellar Gene-FC correlation, we observed a direct correlation between genes underlying the cerebellar functional specialization and cerebello-cerebral FC with respect to the limbic and control networks. The Gene-FC correlation in the control network was mainly caused by the genetic similarity between these two networks; this interaction between limbic-emotion and control-cognition has been confirmed both anatomically and behaviorally⁴⁶. For instance, the integrated processing by the emotion and cognition areas has been identified solely based on their anatomical connections⁴⁷. This relationship can also be

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observed in that, when looking at the top of a hill, a sad mood induces a steeper perception of the hill than a happy one⁴⁸. One possible reason why we only obtained this correspondence in the limbic network may be the low functional heterogeneity⁴¹ and inter-individual functional variability⁴⁹ of the limbic network compared with others as well as the complexity of gene expression; i.e., the Gene-FC correlation is not fully portrayed by the differentially expressed genes²⁷. Considering the large differences between the cerebellum and cortex in terms of their gene expression patterns¹⁴ and structure-function relationships⁵⁰ as well as the individual variability of their functional networks⁵¹, identifying 90 convergently expressed genes that linked the cerebello-cortical cognitive-limbic networks is very significant and may hold clues to the molecular underpinnings of the cognitive-emotion roles played by the cerebello-cortical circuit. For example, the HTR1A and HTR2C, which are both preferentially expressed in the cerebellar and cortical limbic network, are pivotal genes in serotonin transmission, play a modulation role in the limbic system, and act as important therapeutic targets in limbic system-related disorders⁵². Cerebellar neurodevelopment features of GCI+, cerebellar neurotransmission, neurological, and neuropsychiatric disorders-related features of GCI-Interestingly, we derived two gene subsets with pronouncedly different characteristics based only on the direction in which each gene influenced the intra-cerebellar Gene-FC correlation by applying a simple virtual KO approach on the 443 cerebellar network-specific genes. By using a series of bioinformatic tools, we found converging

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evidence for GCI+ and GCI- involvement in cerebellar neurodevelopment and cerebellar neurotransmission, respectively. It is also interesting to speculate that these 443 network-specific genes that link both cerebellar functional segregation and integration have a relationship with some brain-related disorders since prior evidence showed that the cerebellar functional organization plays a key role in various neurological^{13,53} and neuropsychiatric disorders¹², most of which possess common underlying genetic risks⁵⁴. But a tricky problem emerged in that the genes we are interested in were derived from healthy individuals. This could be tackled to some extent by using the virtual KO method, which can simulate the different expression levels of each gene and thus coarsely corresponds to a fraction of the expression level under normal health and disease situations. This is why we thought that we might be able to see whether the GCI⁺ and GCI⁻ are related to a specific disease even though the genes were derived from healthy individuals. The GCI⁺ is involved in many microtubule-related terms and is overexpressed throughout the protracted development of the cerebellum. The dynamics and flexibility of microtubules were found to be essential throughout cerebellar development because they affect the morphological alterations of Purkinje cells³⁸. In addition, some genes of the GCI+, such as GTPBP255 and Lin28b56, were found to play a key role in neurodevelopment; overexpression of the Lin28b gene can induce the development of pathological lobulation in the cerebellum⁵⁶. This converging evidence prompts our speculation that the GCI+ is engaged in cerebellar neurodevelopment. Unexpectedly, the GCI⁺ showed no link to brain-related diseases,

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which appears to be consistent with its primary involvement in many fundamental biological functions. However, this lack of disease linkage is inconsistent with the significant overexpression of GCI⁺ genes during the protracted development of the cerebellum, in that many researchers pointed out that this protracted development increased the susceptibility of the cerebellum to many psychiatric disorders³⁷. This likely is complemented by the overexpression of GCI in the early middle fetal and neonatal early infancy periods. Other possible explanations include that there are few genetic studies of the cerebellum compared with the cerebral cortex as well as large genetic expression differences between the cerebellum and extra-cerebellar structures¹⁴, so the related datasets may lack sufficient information that is specific to the cerebellum. This calls for future studies seeking to provide a more complete explanation by considering multiple perspectives. The GCI was found to be involved in many neurotransmission processes, enriched in various neurological and psychiatric disorders, and significantly overexpressed in late infancy, early childhood, adolescence, and young adulthood compared with GCI⁺. These results are mutually supportive. Neurotransmission has long been thought to play a crucial role in various neurological⁵⁷ and neuropsychiatric disorders^{58,59}. For example, the abnormal transmission of monamines and catecholamines, such as serotonin and dopamine, has been widely linked with many psychiatric disorders, and these transmitters have thus became potential treatment targets⁶⁰. The time period through which the GCI⁻ genes are expressed includes the high-risk time windows for GCI-enriched disorders, such as mental depression (aged

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18–29)⁴⁰ and autistic disorder (from infancy to childhood)³⁹, and the high expression of GCI in early middle fetal life might be associated with the prenatal risk factors associated with depression⁶¹ and autism⁶². Moreover, we found that the GCI was enriched in many neurological and neuropsychiatric disorders including mental depression, autistic disorder, pain, alcoholic intoxication, learning disorder, and others. These disorders are closely related to alterations of the cerebellar FC. Examples include: the dynamic FC of the cerebello-cortical affective-limbic network is associated with the severity of MDD patients³³; ASD patients display decreased FC between the cerebellum and some cortical regions involved in cognitive systems⁶³; the cerebellum is one of the brain regions most sensitive to the harmful effects of chronic alcohol abuse⁶⁴, and the cerebello-cortical FC of patients with alcohol use disorder has been shown to have changes in both flexibility and integration⁶⁵. Therefore, the GCI⁻ provides a possible micro-macro interacted mechanistic explanation for the engagement of the cerebellum in various neurological and neuropsychiatric disorders; i.e., one of the ways these risk genes play a role in the pathogenesis of corresponding diseases may be through their interactions with the cerebellar FC, which results in pathological manifestations as abnormalities in cerebellar functional connectivity, such as the fluctuation in the correspondence of the Gene-FC relationship found in the present study. The GCI⁻ also provides a promising genetic resource for investigating the cerebellar engagement in a range of brain diseases. For example, finding that overlapping genes, i.e., NRXN1, are associated with mental depression and autistic disorder supported previous clinical studies showing that rare and common variants in NRXN1 carried risks for MDD⁶⁶, ASD, and schizophrenia⁶⁷, and HTR1A, which has a high expression in the cerebellum¹⁵, was found to be involved in pain, mental depression, autistic disorder, alcoholic intoxication, learning disorder, and other conditions.

Limitations

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The interpretation of our findings has several caveats. First, the AHBA dataset itself has many shortcomings, although it provides an unprecedented opportunity to combine brain imaging data with genetic information. The AHBA gene expression data was obtained using microarray technology, which did not include the expression of non-encoding RNA (such as snRNA and microRNA) and lacks cellular level information because it averaged a variety of cell types within a single sample. The overall pattern of gene expression, gene regulation, epigenomics, and improved cellular resolution is helpful for fully understanding the causal relationship between genes and functional organization, which is a greater challenge for neuroscience than just identifying a link between genetic and imaging data. Second, the gene co-expression we constructed only considered one small part of the relationship between the genes and FC thereby it did not fully recapitulate the complexity of the brain transcriptome, such as gene-gene interactions⁶⁸. That is one possible reason why we only found a cerebello-cortical Gene-FC correlation for the cognitive-limbic networks. Last, simple correlation approaches, such as used in this study, are only able to prioritize genes for further investigation and cannot fully explore the

relationship between genes and functional organization. As a result, further exploration is hindered by the intricacies of genetic and epigenetic regulation. This makes the discussion and explanation of the different directions of this correlation challenging. For example, why the direction of influence on the Gene-FC correlation could separate these 443 genes into two distinct gene sets with definitely different functions remains unclear, so further related exploration is necessary but very challenging. Nevertheless, in light of the current limited understanding of the details about how genes contribute to large-scale functional organization, the prioritization of genes and the related functional annotation presented here are still necessary and important²⁵.

Conclusions

Overall, we found that the network-specific genes underlying cerebellar functional heterogeneity correlated with the intra-cerebellar and cerebello-cerebral FC, a finding which indicates that the genetic infrastructure associated with functional segregation coalesces to form a collective system, which has a close relationship with the functional integration of these functional subregions. The current study has thus unveiled part of the neurobiological genetic substrate underlying the cerebellar functional organization. We also identified important indirect genetic markers that support the key role played by the cerebellar functional network in many brain disorders. This hints at the possibility of establishing a "cerebellar functional abnormality – gene – disorder" loop as well as of bridging the knowledge gap

between the genetic mechanisms driving the cerebellar functional organization and the heritable risks of disorders, especially major depression and autistic disorder. The current study also prioritizes genes for future studies that will focus on the genetic correlates of the cerebellar functional organization, the genetic implications of cerebellar malfunction in the pathogenesis of many neurological and mental disorders, and future genetic treatment targets for the cerebellar functional abnormalities of these disorders.

Materials and Methods

AHBA preprocessing

The AHBA⁷ is a publicly available transcriptome dataset (http://www.brain-map.org), which provides normalized microarray gene expression data from six adult donors (ages 24, 31, 34, 49, 55, and 57 years; n = 4 left hemisphere only, n = 2 both left and right hemispheres). Supplementary table 1 shows the demographic information.

The preprocessing pipeline was referred to in Anderson et al.²⁷, and included data filtering, probe selection, sample selection, and assignment. We first filtered the probes with the AHBA binary indicator to mitigate the background noise and excluded probes without an Entrez ID. Then for the genes that corresponded to two or more probes, we chose the probe with the maximum summed adjacency to represent the corresponding gene expression; otherwise the probe with the highest mean

expression was retained, using the CollapseRows function⁶⁹ in R. The first two steps

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generated 20,738 unique mRNA probes, which provided expression data for 20,738 genes. As suggested by Arnatkeviciute et al.⁷⁰ and given the known transcriptional differences¹⁴ between the cortical and sub-cortical regions and the cerebellum, we separated the cortical and cerebellar samples a priori based on the slab type and structure name provided by AHBA and processed them separately later. In the end, 337 samples were retained for the cerebellar cortex and 1,701 samples for the cortical cortex. Finally, we respectively assigned these 337 cerebellum samples and 1,701 cortical samples into the cerebellar functional network atlas²² and cortical functional networks atlas²⁹, both of which have 7- and 17-network parcellation strategies. For each cerebellar sample, we first generated a single $1 \times 1 \times 1$ mm³ region of interest (ROI) at the MNI coordinate for each sample using AFNI⁷¹. The network label from either region 7 or 17 was assigned, if the ROI fell within a cerebellar network of the Buckner atlas. Considering the uneven and discrete sampling of the AHBA data⁷, if the $1 \times 1 \times 1$ mm³ ROI did not overlap with any network, the associated ROI was expanded to $3 \times 3 \times 3$ mm³, and if the $3 \times 3 \times 3$ mm³ ROI overlapped with the functional atlas, the network that had the maximum number of shared voxels with the ROI was assigned. Otherwise, the steps above were repeated for a $5 \times 5 \times 5$ mm³ ROI. The cerebellar samples were excluded (n = 22) if the $5 \times 5 \times 5$ mm³ ROI did not overlap with any cerebellar networks. Supplementary tables 2 and 3 show the distributions of the cerebellar sample assignment for the 7-network and 17-network atlases. The assignment of the AHBA cortical samples into the cortical functional network atlas was consistent with the method used for the cerebellum, and the cortical sample distributions are shown in Supplementary tables 4 and 5.

Differential gene expression analysis across functional networks

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The gene expressions of the cerebellar samples within the same network were averaged for each gene across the samples, resulting in 20738 genes × 7 or 17 network matrices for each donor. Then we calculated the differential gene expression across the 7 networks using the R limma package²⁸ by comparing the gene expression in one network (e.g., control) with the remaining 6 networks (e.g., default, limbic, visual, etc.). The traditional minimum fold change threshold was not suitable for determining biologically meaningful but subtly different expressions⁴². Instead, we applied the Benjamini-Hochberg (BH) method to control the false discovery rate (FDR), and the FDR corrected statistical threshold $q \le .05$ combined with a fold change > 0 was used as the key indicator for differentially expressed genes. The residual donor effects were accounted for by using limma's duplicateCorrelation tool²⁸. For simplicity, the genes that were differentially expressed across cerebellar networks are referred to as cerebellar network-specific genes throughout this paper. The cortical network-specific genes were identified in the same way. The only difference was that the gene expression of the cortical samples was first averaged within each parcel (51 and 114 parcels, which corresponded to the 7- and 17-networks, respectively)²⁹ and then averaged within each network.

Cerebellar resting-state functional connectivity (rsFC)

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The minimally preprocessed^{72,73} Human Connectome Project (HCP) S1200 release dataset³¹, which has 1,018 subjects with both structural MRI and resting-state functional MRI (rs-fMRI, HCP S1200 manual), was used. The preprocessing pipeline includes artifact correction (correction of gradient nonlinearity distortion, realignment for head motion, registration of fMRI data using structural data, reduction of geometric distortions due to B0 field inhomogeneity, etc.) as well as denoising by ICA-FIX^{74,75}. Time courses were extracted from these CIFTI grayordinate-format preprocessed rs-fMRI images, and the global signal was regressed as well. The resting-state BOLD time series were averaged within each cortical parcel of the 7- or 17-network cortical atlases and within each cerebellar network of the 7- or 17-network cerebellar atlases²², separately. The rsFC within the cerebellum was computed using the Pearson's correlation for the averaged time courses for each ROI of interest. Because four runs were performed for each subject, the correlation values were separately calculated for each run, Fisher's z-transformed, and averaged across the runs, resulting in a 17 × 17 networks matrix. The same process was used to calculate the correlations between each functional cerebellar network and each cortical parcel, resulting in a 114 cortical parcels × 7 cerebellar networks functional correlation matrix, which represents the rsFC across the cerebello-cortical circuit. Regardless of whether the FC was within the cerebellum or across the cerebello-cortical circuit, both categories of FC were defined using the more

fine-grained 17-network parcellation to increase the spatial resolution. The only exception was that the cerebellar 7-network was applied while calculating the FC across the cerebello-cortical circuit to compare each cerebellar network more directly.

Correlation between gene co-expression with intra-cerebellar rsFC

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To fully capture the genetic correlation with the FC within the cerebellum, we leveraged the genetic samples of the 2 bi-hemisphere donors when constructing the gene co-expression matrix because the rsFC of the cerebellum is bilateral. Therefore, the gene co-expression was analyzed for the 2 bi-hemisphere donors using the 443 differentially expressed genes derived from all 6 donors across 7 networks, using a finer 17-network parcellation to increase the spatial resolution. Ten networks that contained samples from both bi-hemisphere donors were retained (Table S3). For each bi-hemispheric donor, the log2 gene expression of the cerebellar samples was mean-normalized and then averaged within each network. The cerebellar 10×10 networks correlation matrix was calculated using the Spearman's correlations individually, then Fisher transformed, and finally averaged to construct the final 10 networks gene co-expression matrix. The correlation significance level of the gene co-expression was evaluated using the overlap between the correlation matrix for these two individuals and adjusted by Bonferroni correction. Meanwhile, we transformed the 17 \times 17 networks rsFC matrix into a 10 \times 10 networks size to be consistent with the gene co-expression matrix. Finally, the relationship between the 10 10 networks gene co-expression and the 10 × 10 networks rsFC matrix was

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computed using Pearson's correlation. The correlation between the gene co-expression and FC is referred to as the Gene-FC correlation throughout the present paper for simplicity. To test whether these Gene-FC relationships were identified by chance, we randomly shuffled the network labels of each cerebellar sample 10,000 times, kept the distribution probability of the sample in each network consistent, and then reperformed the previous analyses with the same criteria for each permutation. In addition, to confirm that the verified Gene-FC correlation within the cerebellum is meaningful and to evaluate its robustness, we also recalculated it using several different parcellations, i.e., a task-free 7-network parcellation, independent task-based multi-domain task battery (MDTB) functional parcellation²¹, and cerebellar lobular parcellation³⁰. The criteria for each step were consistent with our main method. Lastly, we employed a control test to learn whether the Gene-FC correlation could be obtained using only the network-specific genes, that is, no Gene-FC correlation while using other genes. We randomly select 443 genes from the full gene set without the network-specific genes and referred to them as non-network-specific genes. Then we calculated the Gene-FC correlation using the non-network-specific genes and ran this step randomly 10,000 times. In addition to these thresholdless non-network-specific genes, we applied a set of thresholds to the averaged original log2 gene expression data to confirm that these non-network-specific genes were expressed in the cerebellum and to test whether the gene co-expression pattern constructed using these

threshold non-network-specific genes was correlated with FC.

Correlation between gene co-expression and rsFC across the cerebello-cortical

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To fully investigate the cerebellar functional organization, we also explored the relationship between the cerebello-cortical FC and the genetic correlation based on the strategy used in Anderson et al.²⁷. First, we defined the network-specific genes in the cortex using the same procedure as we had for the cerebellum and examined the genes that overlapped within the same network of the cerebellum and the cortex using a hypergeometric test. Then the gene co-expression matrix was constructed between 6 cerebellar networks and 59 cortical parcels from the 2 bi-hemisphere donors, using the 90 unique genes derived from the overlap between the cortical network-specific genes and the cerebellar network-specific genes. Here, the cerebellar 7-network parcellation was selected to compare the different cerebellar networks more directly. The visual network was excluded because it only had two samples that were solely from one of the 2 bi-hemisphere donors. For the cerebral cortex, 59 cortical parcels that contained samples from both bi-hemisphere donors were estimated. The log2 mean-normalized expression within each cerebellar network and each cortical parcel was estimated individually and correlated using Spearman's p, Fisher-transformed, and averaged. We transformed the 114 cortical parcels × 7 cerebellar networks rsFC matrix into 59 cortical parcels × 6 cerebellar networks size to be consistent with the gene co-expression matrix. Finally, the relationship between the cortical genetic correlation and the cerebello-cortical rsFC matrix was computed using Pearson's

correlation across 6 cerebellar networks and adjusted by the Benjamini-Hochberg method to correct for multiple comparisons.

Gene functional annotation

Virtual Gene Knock-out (KO)

To extend our investigation of the overall relationship between gene co-expression and FC within the cerebellum, we referred to a similar previous approach 76,77 and termed it the "Virtual Gene Knock-out (KO)" to evaluate each gene's contribution to the Gene-FC correlation. In brief, we deleted each of the 443 cerebellar network-specific genes one-by-one to simulate the gene knock-out, then constructed the gene co-expression matrix without that gene, analyzed the correlation between the FC and the gene co-expression, and finally calculated the difference in the correlation coefficient between before and after the simulated deletion, with the result being defined as the gene contribution indicator (GCI). Based on the GCI, we identified two different gene sets that had opposite effects on the Gene-FC correlation: a GCI positive gene set (GCI⁺) and a GCI negative gene set (GCI⁻). The virtual KO of GCI⁺ increased the Gene-FC correlation, and, accordingly, its expression decreased the Gene-FC correlation; in contrast, the virtual KO of GCI⁻ decreased the correlation, and, accordingly, its expression increased the Gene-FC correlation.

GO, pathway, and disorder enrichment analysis (ToppGene portal)

To characterize the biological role of GCI⁺ and GCI⁻, we applied the ToppGene

portal⁷⁸ to conduct a gene ontology (GO), pathway, and disorder enrichment analysis. 721 The Benjamini-Hochberg method for false discovery rate (FDR-BH correction) (q 722 723 < .05) was chosen to correct for multiple comparisons. 724 Spatial-Temporal Analysis To investigate the overall spatial-temporal expression features of these genes, we 725 applied an online cell type-specific expression analysis (CSEA) tool³⁶ to do the 726 enrichment analysis of the genes within the cerebellum during different lifespan 727 windows. Here, a specificity index probability (pSI = .05, .01, .001, and .0001,728 permutation corrected) was used to define the probability of a gene being expressed in 729 each time window relative to all other time windows to represent the varying 730 stringencies for enrichment. The significance of the overlap between the interest gene 731 set and those enriched in a specific time window was evaluated by Fisher's exact test, 732 733 and the Benjamini-Hochberg method for false discovery rate (FDR-BH correction) was chosen to correct for multiple comparisons. 734 **Acknowledgments** 735 This work was partially supported by the Natural Science Foundation of China (Grant 736 Nos. 82072099, 91432302, and 31620103905), the Strategic Priority Research 737 Program of Chinese Academy of Sciences (XDB32030200), National Key R&D 738 739 Program of China (Grant No. 2017YFA0105203), Beijing Municipal Science & 740 Technology Commission (Grant Nos. Z161100000216152, Z171100000117002), the Youth Innovation Promotion Association, and the Beijing Advanced Discipline Fund. 741

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Conflict of Interest

- 745 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial
- or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

Supplementary Material

748 Shown in supplementary figures and supplementary sheets.

Data availability

- 750 R 3.6.1 and custom scripts were used to perform statistical analysis, all R packages
- 751 were mentioned explicitly in the text where the package was used. The analysis code
- is freely available (https://github.com/FANLabCASIA/CerebellarGeneFCCorrelation).
- 753 The ToppGene website (https://toppgene.cchmc.org/) and CSEA tool
- 754 (http://genetics.wustl.edu/jdlab/csea-tool-2/) which used to do the functional
- annotation of genes were all freely accessible. A Supplementary Data file provides
- complete gene lists, the output of differential expression, rs-fMRI, genetic correlation,
- validation results, and functional annotation results.

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