



## Identification of genetic modifiers of murine hepatic $\beta$ -glucocerebrosidase activity

Anyelo Durán<sup>a,1</sup>, Boris Rebolledo-Jaramillo<sup>a,1</sup>, Valeria Olguin<sup>a</sup>, Marcelo Rojas-Herrera<sup>a</sup>, Macarena Las Heras<sup>a</sup>, Juan F. Calderón<sup>a</sup>, Silvana Zanolungo<sup>b</sup>, David A. Priestman<sup>c</sup>, Frances M. Platt<sup>c</sup>, Andrés D. Klein<sup>a,\*</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Centro de Genética y Genómica, Facultad de Medicina, Clínica Alemana, Universidad del Desarrollo, Santiago, Chile

<sup>b</sup> Department of Gastroenterology, Faculty of Medicine, Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile, Santiago, Chile

<sup>c</sup> Department of Pharmacology, University of Oxford, Oxford, OX1 3QT, UK

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### ABSTRACT

The acid  $\beta$ -glucocerebrosidase (GCCase) enzyme cleaves glucosylceramide into glucose and ceramide. Loss of function variants in the gene encoding for GCCase can lead to Gaucher disease and Parkinson's disease. Therapeutic strategies aimed at increasing GCCase activity by targeting a modulating factor are attractive and poorly explored. To identify genetic modifiers, we measured hepatic GCCase activity in 27 inbred mouse strains. A genome-wide association study (GWAS) using GCCase activity as a trait identified several candidate modifier genes, including *Dmrtc2* and *Arhgef1* ( $p=2.1 \times 10^{-7}$ ), and *Grik5* ( $p=2.1 \times 10^{-7}$ ). Bayesian integration of the gene mapping with transcriptomics was used to build integrative networks. The analysis uncovered additional candidate GCCase regulators, highlighting modules of the acute phase response ( $p=1.01 \times 10^{-8}$ ), acute inflammatory response ( $p=1.01 \times 10^{-8}$ ), fatty acid beta-oxidation ( $p=7.43 \times 10^{-5}$ ), among others. Our study revealed previously unknown candidate modulators of GCCase activity, which may facilitate the design of therapies for diseases with GCCase dysfunction.

### 1. Introduction

Hydrolytic enzymes are abundant in the lysosome; more than 60 acidic hydrolases have been described to date [1]. In addition to its digestive and recycling functions, the lysosome orchestrates metabolic adaptations to external cues [2]. The acidic lysosomal  $\beta$ -glucocerebrosidase (GCCase) enzyme degrades glucosylceramide into glucose and ceramide [3]. GCCase is encoded by the *GBA1* gene. Loss-of-function variants in this gene cause the rare lysosomal storage disorder Gaucher disease (GD) [4]. *GBA1* variants also significantly increase the risk of developing Parkinsonism and Parkinson's disease (PD) [5]. In addition to other mechanistic data, this observation highlights the role of lysosomal dysfunction as a risk factor for PD [6]. Therefore, an exogenous increase of GCCase activity and other related enzymes is an attractive therapeutic strategy that has not yet been thoroughly explored.

Although treatments for Gaucher disease are available, they have

clinical limitations [7]. Studying how GCCase is modulated can allow us to i) learn about its regulation and possibly ii) develop new targeted therapies to treat these diseases which diseases be more specific. One attractive approach to identify new therapeutic targets to modulate GCCase is to use the natural genetic diversity present in populations of individuals (i.e., model organisms) to identify genetic modifiers that control a given trait [8]. By integrating gene mapping with other sets of -omics, it is possible to find regulatory elements underlying the variation in a given trait [9]. This holistic population-based approach is called systems genetics [10].

Inbred mouse strains arise from crossing siblings for at least 20 generations [11]. The Hybrid Mouse Diversity Panel (HMDP) [8] corresponds to a panel of genotyped inbred strains where other -omics data are also available [8,12]. The HMDP panel has been used to perform association studies and find modifier genes for a variety of complex traits [13,14].

Here, we used a systems genetics approach to identify putative

\* Corresponding author. Av. Las Condes 12.461, Postal Zip code 7590943, Santiago, Chile.

E-mail address: [andresklein@udd.cl](mailto:andresklein@udd.cl) (A.D. Klein).

<sup>1</sup> Equal contribution.

modifier genes/networks of GCCase activity in mice. To this end, we measured hepatic GCCase activity in 27 strains of mice. A genome-wide association (GWAS) analysis identified putative modifier genes. We used Mergeomics analysis to integrate GCCase activity, gene mapping, and available liver transcriptomic data. Our study revealed genes, networks, and biological processes that might regulate GCCase function.

## 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Mouse tissues

We used 8 weeks-old mice livers derived from 27 inbred mouse strains which were kindly donated by Dr. Aldons Luis (University of California, Los Angeles). (i) 129X1/SvJ (n=5), (ii) A/J (n=5), (iii) AKR/J (n=5), (iv) BALB/cJ (n=5), (v) BTBR T<+> tf/J (n=5), (vi) BUB/BnJ (n=3), (vii) C3H/HeJ (n=3), (viii) C57BL/6J (n=5), (ix) C58/J (n=5), (x) CAST/EiJ (n=3), (xi) CBA/J (n=5), (xii) CE/J (n=5), (xiii) DBA/2J (n=5), (xiv) FVB/NJ (n=3), (xv) KK/HLJ (n=3), (xvi) LG/J (n=4), (xvii) LP/J (n=3), (xviii) MA/MyJ (n=3), (xix) NOD/ShiLtJ (n=5), (xx) NON/ShiLtJ (n=5), (xxi) NZB/BINJ (n=5), (xxii) NZW/LacJ (n=5), (xxiii) PL/J (n=5), (xxiv) RIIS/J (n=3), (xxv) SEA/GnJ (n=5), (xxvi) SM/J (n=5), (xxvii) SWR/J (n=5). Tissues were homogenized and adjusted to 50 mg tissue/ml in H<sub>2</sub>O, with a Potter-Elvehjem tissue homogenizer (Omni International, USA) and then stored at -80 °C until further use. This liver was selected because of its high relevance in the generation of pathophysiological phenotypes in GD [4].

### 2.2. GCCase activity assays

GCCase activity was determined using an artificial fluorescent substrate based on 4-methylumbelliferone (4-MU) [15]. For this purpose, liver homogenates were diluted 1/10 with GCCase buffer (200 mM citrate-phosphate buffer, pH 5.2, containing 0.25% Triton X-100, 1.25 mM EDTA, 4 mM 2-mercaptoethanol, all these reagents from Calbiochem, Merck KGaA, Darmstadt, Germany). Three cycles of freezing and thawing with liquid nitrogen were performed to disrupt the cell membranes. Subsequently, 10 µl of the diluted homogenates (5 µg of total protein from each sample) were mixed with and without 10 µl of 0.3 mM N-butyldoxydeoxyjirimycin (NB-DGJ) for 30 min on ice. NB-DGJ is a β-glucocerebrosidase 2 (GBA2; non-lysosomal enzyme) inhibitor that does not inhibit GCCase [16] (Toronto Research Chemicals, North York, Ontario, Canada). Thereafter, the tubes were placed in a 37 °C water bath, and 40 µl of the substrate 4-methylumbelliferyl-β-D-glucopyranoside (4.5 mM 4-MU-β-D-Glc in GCCase buffer) (Sigma, Dorset, England) was added. The reaction was stopped after 30 min of incubation by the addition of 400 µl cold 0.5 M Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> at pH 10.7 (Panreac Applichem, Barcelona, Spain). Fluorescence was measured at 340 nm excitation and 460 nm emission with a gain of 40 in a semi-automated plate reader (Synergy HT, BioTek, Winooski, USA). Fluorescence values were normalized to protein content in each sample as obtained by a BSA assay (Pierce BCA Protein Assay Kit; Thermo Fisher Scientific, Illinois, USA). To calculate GCCase specific activity, a 4-MU standard curve was constructed, and the final value was adjusted to 1 h of enzymatic reaction. For each biological sample, at least three technical replicates were performed.

### 2.3. Phylogenetic tree and GWAS using an efficient mixed model association (EMMA)

We used the average GCCase activity per mouse strain as a phenotype to perform the GWAS using an Efficient Mixed Model Association Study (EMMA v.1.1.2) [17]. In addition, we included in the analysis the mouse HapMap reference panel, consisting of 4 million SNVs downloaded from <http://mouse.cs.ucla.edu/mousehapmap/full.html> [18]. The R package for EMMA was downloaded from <http://mouse.cs.ucla.edu/emma/> [19]. P-value was recorded as the strength of the genotype-phenotype

associations. To build to phylogenetic tree we used the EMMA uses a kinship matrix to run hierarchical clustering using R [19].

### 2.4. Gene expression array

The hepatic transcript levels of inbred mouse strains were downloaded from the repository GSE16780 UCLA Mouse MDP Liver Affy HT M430A MDP Liver [20]. If there was more than one probe quantifying the same gene, the values were averaged.

### 2.5. Functional impact of gene variants

We downloaded the genomes of three strains with low and high GCCase activity respectively (CBA/J, A/J, FVB/NJ, CAST/EiJ, BUB/BnJ, and C58/J) from the Mouse Phenome Database (MPD) (RRID: SCR\_003212) of Jackson Laboratory (<https://phenome.jax.org/>) and Mouse Genomes Project of Sanger Institute [21]. The Impact of variants was assessed using SIFT (sorting intolerant from tolerant) [22] and SnpEff [23].

### 2.6. Integrative networks of genomic and transcriptomic data

To study how genomic and liver transcriptomic variation contributes to hepatic GCCase activity variability in the 27 HMDP strains, we employed Mergeomics v1.18 [24]. To build Bayesian networks of integrative omics underlying GCCase activity, two modules of Mergeomics are required: a) marker set enrichment analysis (MSEA) and b) weighted key driver analysis (wKDA). MSEA requires the following data inputs: 1) EMMA GWAS results: i) marker-GCCase activity association (marker-value) and ii) gene-marker mapping file (gene-marker); 2) functionally related gene sets (module-gene), which are preloaded in Mergeomics. These results are integrated through the package algorithm to find sets of genes associated with GCCase activity. The parameter settings of the MSEA module included: i) type of permutation at the gene level. ii) minimum (10) and maximum (500) number of genes in the sets. iii) the minimum and maximum overlap ratio between sets of genes associated with disease/trait = 0.33 (33% overlap). iv) the number of gene or marker permutations = 2000 and finally v) the MSEA FDR cutoff was ≤25% [25], this analysis calculates the Benjamini-Hochberg FDR [26].

To identify key driver (KD) genes, which are defined as the gene hubs most significantly associated with other genes in the network, we used wKDA [24]. The wKDA module takes input data from the MSEA results generated in the previous step and a defined liver tissue Bayesian network corresponding to human and rodent expression datasets of earlier studies [27]. The parameters for running wKDA included i) Search depth of wKDA = 1, which means that we search for key-drivers whose immediate neighborhood is enriched for MSEA significant genes, ii) the edge type of wKDA = incoming and outgoing directionality, iii) the minimum overlap, is the threshold above which hubs will be designated as co-hubs, of wKDA = 0.33, and iv) the edge factor of wKDA = 0.5, which means an unweight network. This module projected sets of genes associated with liver GCCase activity onto a Bayesian liver network, representing seemingly causal relationships between genes and KD genes [27]. We ran both Mergeomics modules in the R package [19].

### 2.7. Gene ontology enrichment

ShinyGO v0.61 [28], for gene ontology (GO) enrichment analysis for network modules, was employed. This tool has annotations for model organisms. The chromosomal gene location, metabolic pathways, gene clustering, and protein interaction networks can be plotted [28].

### 2.8. Statistics

Prism v9.1.0 (GraphPad software, San Diego, CA) and the R package [25] was used for statistical analysis and included a two-tailed Student's

t-test and ANOVA with Bonferroni test. Pearson for correlation analyses was employed. The significant value was considered as  $p < 0.05$ .

### 3. Results

#### 3.1. Liver GCase activity varies among mouse strains

We measured hepatic GCase activity by fluorimetry in the liver of 27 inbred mice strains with different phylogenetic origins (Fig. 1A) using an artificial substrate 4-MU- $\beta$ -D-Glc. We observe significant variability in the average enzymatic activity between the different strains (Fig. 1B). This activity was higher in the BUB/BnJ and C58/J strains ( $p < 0.001$ ; mean  $\pm$  95%confidence interval;  $39.3 \pm 25.0$ – $53.5$  and  $40.1 \pm 29.57$ – $50.6$  respectively) compared to MA/MyJ and CBA/J ( $20.7 \pm 10.3$ – $31.2$  and  $23.8 \pm 16.8$ – $30.7$  respectively).

#### 3.2. GWAS identified putative modifier genes of GCase activity

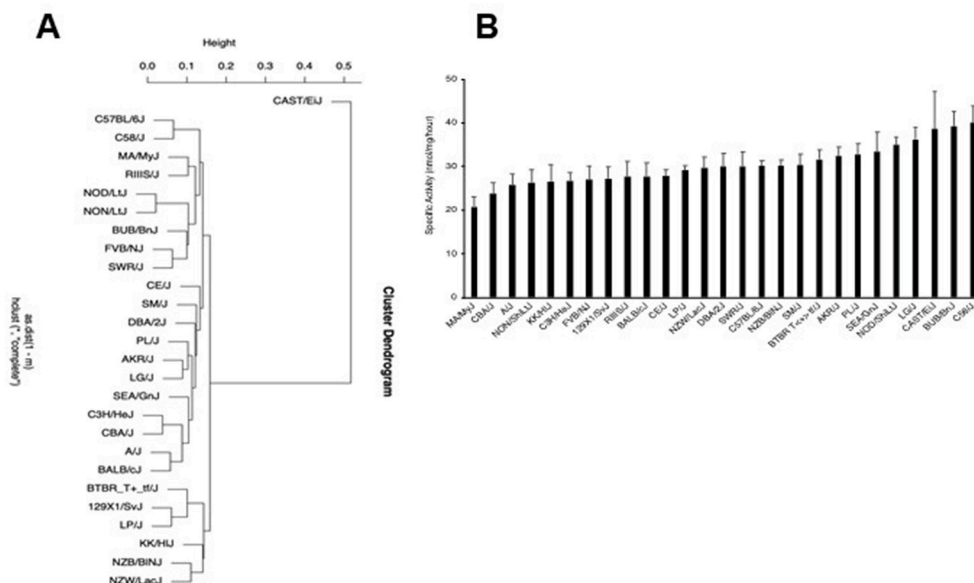
To uncover possible modifier genes, we performed a GWAS analysis with EMMA. EMMA is a statistical test that corrects the strains' population structure and genetic relatedness. EMMA applies a mixed models for association mapping, allowing to substantially increase the computational speed and reliability of the results by reducing false positives associations [17]. We found 271 significant Single Nucleotide Variants (SNVs)  $p \leq 4.1 \times 10^{-6}$  that exceeded the threshold of suggestive associations previously established [36], represented in 9 non-redundant genes (Table S1 and Fig. 2A). Among all the variants identified, we found an exonic variant in the *Myo6* gene, one in the 3'UTR region of *Dmrtc2* and *Arhgef1*, among others (Table S1). Then, we organized the strains by GCase activity and plotted the genotypes of the top associated markers. The strains with low and intermediate activities present a different distribution pattern than those with high GCase activity (Fig. 2B). Strains AKR/J and PL/J showed a different distribution pattern. Perhaps in these two strains, spontaneous mutations arose in some of their generations after genotyping, as described for C3H/HeN, BL6, BALBc, and FVB [29]. A suggestive association threshold (blue line) (Fig. 2A)  $p \leq 4.1 \times 10^{-6}$  was calculated in Ref. [17,29] and ii) a Bonferroni correction, which resulted in a much stricter  $p$ -value of  $1.28 \times 10^{-8}$ , denoted by the red line in Fig. 2A. Interestingly we observed variants at different genomic locations with a genotype-phenotype association that exceeds the empirical  $p$ -value (Fig. 2A & B).

#### 3.3. Associations between hepatic transcripts levels and GCase enzyme activity

The significant SNVs in a GWAS can be regulators of gene expression levels. Thus, we performed correlation studies between GCase activity and liver transcripts levels. To this end, we downloaded the hepatic gene expression array data from an online repository (GSE16780 UCLA Mouse MDP Liver Affy HT M430A) [20]. The array included the probes for seven of the nine identified genes. Associations were explored (Fig. S1). No significant correlations were found. The array data that we used did not include probes for *Spag16* and *Dmrtc2* genes. Therefore, it was not possible to test correlations with these two genes. For *ErbB4* and *Zic4* we observed a trend ( $p=0.07$ ). The signals in a Manhattan plot can be labeling coding or other no coding genomic variability. To explore this possibility, we downloaded the genomes of three low (CBA/J, A/J, and FVB/NJ) and three high (CAST/EiJ, BUB/BnJ, and C58/J) GCase activity strains from the Mouse Genomes Project of Sanger Institute [21]. We identified predicted splice and or miss sense variants in *Grik5*, *Impg1*, *Myo6*, and *Spag16* (Fig. 2C). To assess the implications of miss sense variants we used SIFT (sorting intolerant from tolerant) [22] and SnpEff [23].

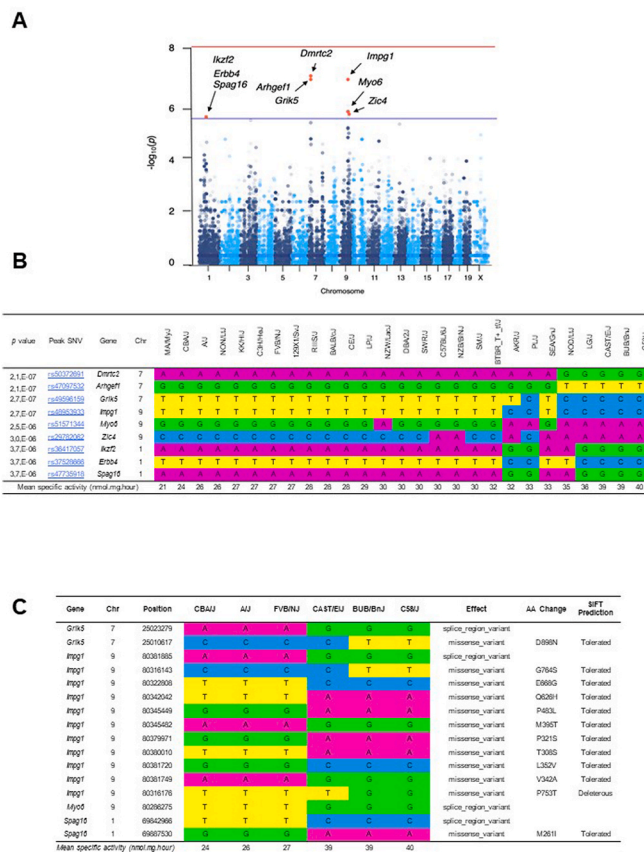
#### 3.4. Identification of modules, key drivers, and pathways associated with GCase activity

EMMA/GWAS results were used to identify modules and key driver genes within the coexpression network re-constructed for mouse/human liver, using Mergeomics v1.18. We used 20 pre-defined mouse gene sets [24] and FDR  $< 25\%$ . The MSEA module of Mergeomics highlighted modules which correspond to mouse liver expression data converted to human gene symbols (Table S2). The wKDA identified 4 top key drivers (*Itih4*, *Hsd3b5*, *Ocel1*, *Pigr*) and 18 total network hubs (Fig. 3A, Table S2). We included the significant correlations between GCase activity, and the transcripts identified in the network (Fig. 3B), and of the driver genes (Fig. S2). Gene sets obtained from the MSEA analysis were used to perform a GO term enrichment analysis. Significantly enriched pathways included acute-phase response ( $p=1.01 \times 10^{-8}$ ), acute inflammatory response ( $p=1.01 \times 10^{-8}$ ), fatty acid beta-oxidation ( $p=7.43 \times 10^{-5}$ ), fatty acid catabolic process ( $p=8.99 \times 10^{-4}$ ), cellular lipid catabolic process ( $p=3 \times 10^{-3}$ ), ion transport ( $p=3 \times 10^{-2}$ ), cell surface receptor signaling pathway ( $p=4 \times 10^{-2}$ ), among others associated with biological processes (Fig. 4A). Cellular component analysis highlighted blood



**Fig. 1.** Variation in the hepatic GCase activity among inbred mouse strains. (A) Hierarchical clustering of the genetic distance among the 27 used strains, based on EMMA's kinship calculation (B) Levels of GCase activity in the liver of 27 mouse inbred strains. Values are presented as mean  $\pm$  standard error ( $n=5$  biological sample with three technical replicates). ANOVA analysis revealed significant differences among the groups ( $p=0.0028$ ).





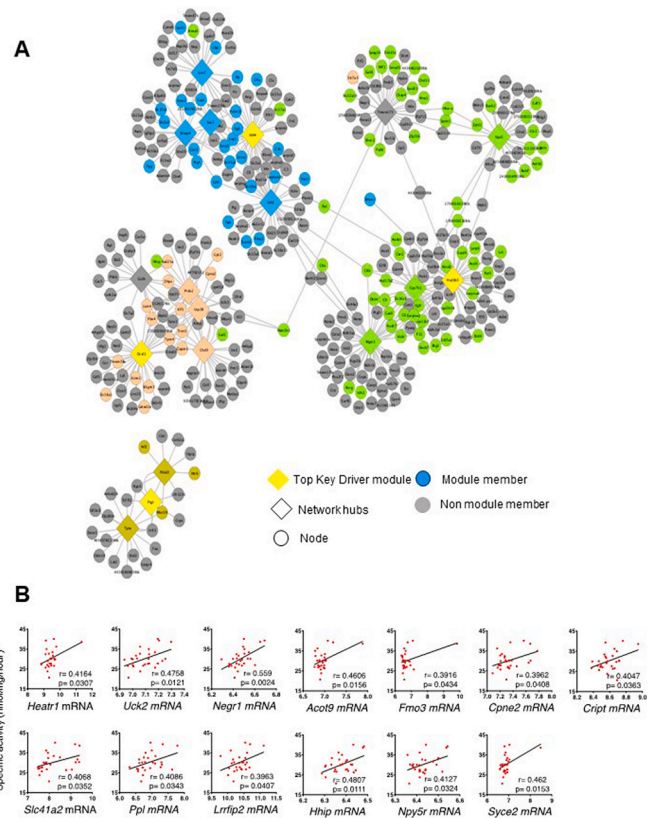
**Fig. 2.** GWAS identifies putative modifiers of hepatic GCase activity. (A) Manhattan plot highlights the top associated GCcase activity genes plotted as chromosome position versus the inverse of the negative logarithm of the association p-value. (B) Strains were organized according to GCcase enzymatic activity, from lowest to highest, and the genotype of the peak associated SNV and genomic regions are shown. Adenine (A), purple; cytosine (C), blue; guanine (G), green; thymine (T), yellow; Chr, chromosome. (C) Miss sense and coding variants in the top associated genes in three strains with low GCcase activity and three high activity levels. Same color code than in (B) was used. The effect of the variant, Amino Acid (AA) change, and SIFT prediction were plotted. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the Web version of this article.)

microparticle ( $p=6 \times 10^{-2}$ ), early endosome ( $p=4 \times 10^{-1}$ ), protein-lipid complex ( $p=4 \times 10^{-1}$ ), organelle lumen ( $p=4 \times 10^{-1}$ ) and others (Fig. 4B). Molecular function revealed fatty-acyl-CoA binding ( $p=1 \times 10^{-2}$ ), anion-sodium symporter activity ( $p=1 \times 10^{-2}$ ), among others (Fig. 4C).

**4. Discussion**

Our goal was to identify putative modifier genes/networks of hepatic GCcase activity using a system genetics strategy. Identifying modulable genetic modifiers of GCcase activity offers a feasible and attractive therapeutic alternative for diseases with lysosomal dysfunction, bringing us closer to a precision medicine-based approach.

Our study associated 271 SNVs (Table S1) within nine genes (*Dmrtc2*, *Arhgef1*, *Grik5*, *Impg1*, *Myo6*, *Zic4*, *Ikt2*, *Erbb4*, *Spag16*) to liver GCcase activity (Fig. 2A & B), and four key drivers (*Itih4*, *Hsd3b5*, *Ocel1*, *Pigt*) (Fig. 3A-D, Table S3). We found no literature linking these newly associated genes to the GCcase enzyme directly. However, the identified genes are associated with several human diseases: *Grik5* to bipolar disorder [30]; *Erbb4* to schizophrenia [31]; and melanoma [32]; *Myo6* to deafness [33]; *Arhgef1* to primary Immunodeficiencies [34]; *Impg1* to

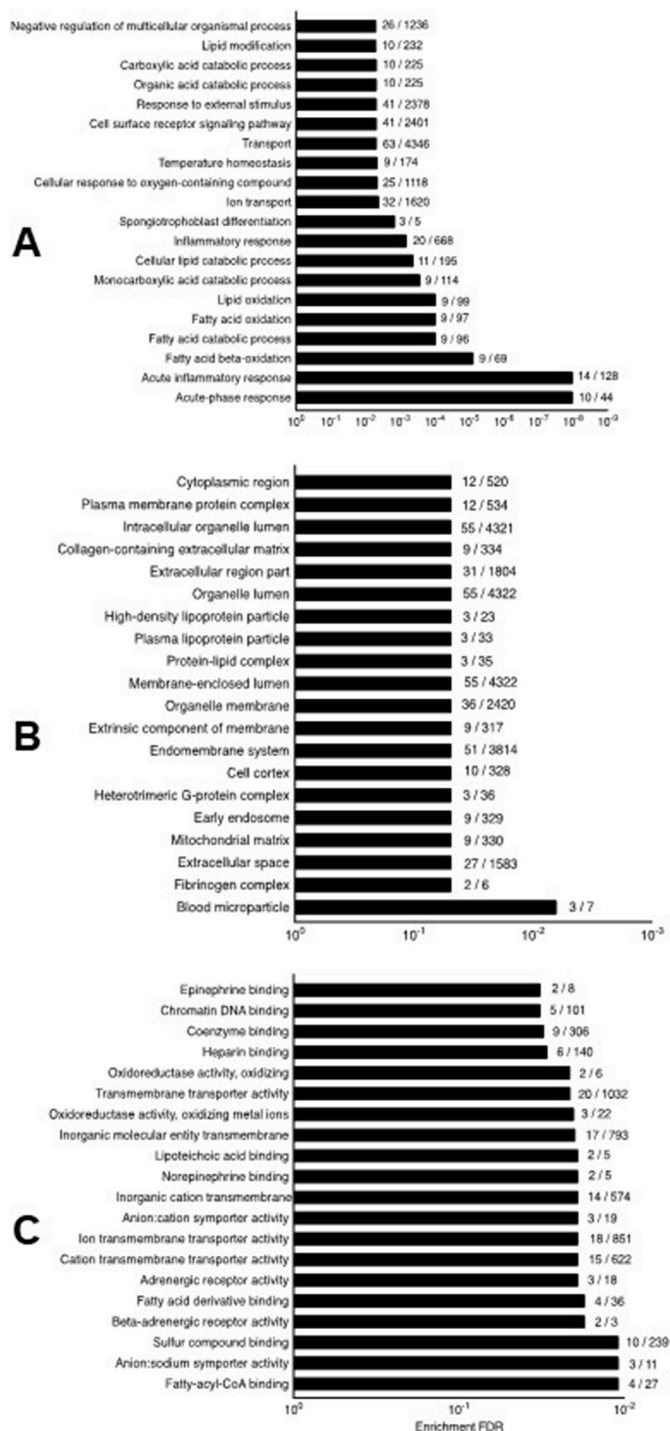


**Fig. 3.** Integrative network of GCcase activity. The gene hubs of the network are represented with diamonds and Key Driver (KD) genes by yellow diamonds. Gene modules are indicated with a different color. Non-member genes are expressed in grey. Red edges show the multiple interactions of KD with other genes. (A) *Itih4*; Inter-Alpha-Trypsin Inhibitor Heavy Chain 4. (B) *Hsd3b5*; hydroxy-delta-5-steroid dehydrogenase, 3 beta- and steroid delta-isomerase 5. (C) *Ocel1*; Occludin/ELL Domain Containing 1. (D) *Pigt*; Phosphatidylinositol Glycan Anchor Biosynthesis Class T. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the Web version of this article.)

vitelliform macular dystrophies [35] and *Zic4* to Dandy-Walker malformation [36]. A connection between these disorders and GCcase activity should be therefore explored.

In addition, the integrative networks identified additional putative regulators of GCcase activity. The KD genes have been linked to different functions: *Itih4* to inflammatory responses [37] and liver development and regeneration [38]. *Hsd3b5* to steroid hormones biosynthesis [39], *Ocel1* to cancer prognosis [40] and *Pigt* to glycosylphosphatidylinositol transfer (GPI) proteins [41]. Alterations in these functions have been reported in GD patients, such as i) lymphoid neoplasms [42]; ii) gammopathies [43]; iii) predisposition to infections [44]; iv) immune system dysregulation [45]. Widespread inflammation has been studied in depth in GD. Foamy GD macrophages, known as Gaucher cells, release inflammatory molecules including IL1 $\beta$ , TNF- $\alpha$ , MCP-1 and IL-6, [46,47]. Our results support a role for GCcase in the immune response and or this inflammatory pathway(s) can regulate GCcase activity.

Our study has some limitations, i) we used public data from a liver expression array of HMDP strains instead of RNAseq. The array has limited probes to capture the transcriptomic landscape of the tissue. Thus, we cannot infer the eventual roles of other genes, different isoforms, splice variants, and genes with a low level of expression [48]. ii) we used liver homogenates. Several cell types make up the liver, and each cell subgroup could have specific contributions to the variability of



**Fig. 4.** Identification of enriched GO terms associated with the modules of GCase activity. (A) Biological process. (B) Cellular component. (C) Molecular function.

the phenotype studied [49–52].

In conclusion, our study has revealed candidate modulators of GCase activity. Further functional analyses are required to understand how the identified genes regulate GCase activity in hepatic cells. The newly identified targets might be relevant for designing therapies for patients with GCase dysfunction, such as Gaucher and Parkinson's disease.

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## Author contributions

AD, BRJ, and DAP performed the experiments, analyzed the data, wrote the paper. VO, and JFC reviewed and edited the document and provided helpful discussions. ADK, SZ, FMP conceptualization, analyzed the data, revised the manuscript, funding acquisition.

## Declaration of competing interest

None.

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## Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbrep.2021.101105>.

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