1	Derived <i>Homo sapiens</i> cis-eQTL regulation:
2	implications for brain evolution
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Abstract

8

The high-quality sequence of the genomes of our extinct relatives, Ne-9 anderthals and Denisovans, became recently public. At the same time, 10 we have seen the emergence of big databases of modern human genetic 11 variation. However, linking human genetic variation, neuronal phenotypes 12 and, eventually, behaviour, is only possible if we understand how variation 13 and genetic regulation interact. We used two publicly available datasets, 14 the GTEX cis-eQTL database (v7) and a catalog of high-frequency Homo 15 Sapiens specific alleles relative to the Neanderthals and Denisovan se-16 quences, to understand how high-frequency Homo Sapiens derived alleles 17 affect gene expression regulation. The resulting dataset shows that genes 18 associated with brain development are affected by Homo sapiens-specific 19 eQTL in brain areas key in human evolution such as the cerebellum. We 20 also show that some of these eQTL overlap significantly with putative 21

> regions of positive selection relative to archaic humans [Peyrégne et al., 2017]. Additionally, we tested whether any of the variants are associated with clinical conditions in modern human populations. These findings can inform future experimental work and enrich current venues of research of the Homo Sapiens brain evolution, such as the relationship between clinical and evolutionary research and the recent expansion of the cerebellum in *Homo Sapiens* [Gunz et al., 2010].

²⁹ *Keywords*— Human evolution, eQTL, brain evolution

³⁰ 1 Introduction

The high-quality DNA sequencing of two Neanderthal individuals and a Deniso-31 van from Altai and Vindija [Prüfer et al., 2014, 2017, Meyer et al., 2012] has 32 opened numerous research avenues and opportunities for studying the evolution 33 of the Homo sapiens brain with unprecedented resolution and precision. Geo-34 metric morphometric analysis on endocasts [Bruner et al., 2014, Gunz et al., 35 2010] have already suggested that the differences between Neanderthal and 36 Homo sapiens skulls could be related to changes in neural tissue that might 37 in turn have had consequences for the evolution of human cognition. In par-38 ticular, the temporal and the parietal lobes, as well as the cerebellum, have 39 been claimed to have expanded during the emergence of Homo sapiens evolu-40 tion [Gunz et al., 2010]. The sequencing of ancient human genomes made it 41 possible perform selective sweep scans to detect areas of the genome that have 42 been significantly affected by natural selection after the split with Neanderthals 43 [Racimo et al., 2014, Peyrégne et al., 2017]. Much of the early efforts relied on 44 determining the function on the few missense mutations that are Homo sapiens-45 specific. However, to characterize the effects of *Homo sapiens*-specific variants 46 we should target not only the variants that affect the structure and function of 47

the protein, but also those that regulate gene expression. Species-specific regulation of genetic expression levels might also play a big role in determining the
modern human brain phenotype [Franchini and Pollard, 2017, Gokhman et al.,
2016].

In order to link genotype and brain phenotype, previous work has explored 52 the idea of connecting modern human variation data and brain evolution. A ma-53 jor study [McCoy et al., 2017] explored the effects of Neanderthal and Denisovan 54 introgressed variants in 44 tissues and found reduced differential expression of 55 Neanderthal alleles in the cerebellum and the striatum. In a similar vein, an-56 other study [Gunz et al., 2019] examined the effects of archaic introgression on 57 brain skull shape variability in modern human populations to determine which 58 variants are more associated with a globularized skull shape, a feature of Homo 59 sapiens skulls. 60

Expanding on these approaches, we aim to understand the effects of the de-61 rived *Homo sapiens*-specific alleles in gene regulation in brain tissue. We took 62 advantage of a recent systematic review of high frequency changes in modern 63 humans [Kuhlwilm and Boeckx, 2019], which offered not only a catalog of Homo 64 sapiens-specific fixed missense mutations, but an exhaustive database with all 65 the derived *Homo sapiens* unique alleles in high frequency (90% or more cutoff). 66 We crossed this database with the GTEX version 7 database, which contains 67 information on Expression Quantitative Trait Loci (cis-eQTLs) accross tissues, 68 focusing exclusively on brain tissue. Compared to approaches that have used 69 the GTEx data in light of introgression [McCoy et al., 2017, Gunz et al., 2019], 70 our focus on the effect of the derived allele allows this study to span the whole 71 genome, as opposed to introgressed regions only. Additionally, the data gener-72 ated, unlike in McCoy et al. [2017], doesn't focus on neanderthal-specific alleles 73 but on the effect of the derived, modern-specific allele (as defined in [Kuhlwilm 74

⁷⁵ and Boeckx, 2019]).

Our results show differential regulation by derived cis-eQTLs in key brain 76 areas and circuits that are claimed to have changed significantly during the 77 emergence of *Homo sapiens*, such as the cerebellum and olfactory signalling 78 pathway [Bastir et al., 2011]. We also found genetic regulation of cellular pro-79 cesses that can potentially impact neurodevelopment and disease, such as fo-80 late one-carbon metabolism, aerobic glycolysis regulation, cell-cell adhesion and 81 regulation of cytoskeleton dynamics. Some of these processes, such as aerobic 82 glycolysis, have already been discussed in other studies in the context of human 83 evolution and human-specific diseases such as Alzheimer's Disease [Bufill et al., 84 2011]. While we limited the scope of our study to brain tissue, we found as 85 well eQTLs associated with neural crest cell development and the craniofacial 86 complex. This is of special interest, as the *Homo sapiens* face has a distinct re-87 tracted profile compared to that of archaic humans [Lacruz et al., 2019]. Some 88 of the genes that affect brain development might exert an influence in adjacent 89 tissues [Boeckx, 2017]. 90

Since the eQTLs affect genes previously identified as under selective sweep in 91 modern humans relative to archaic humans, we tested whether the eQTLs affect 92 genetic regions identified in human positive selection studies. We found Homo 93 sapiens-specific eQTLs overlap significantly with regions of positive selection 94 [Peyrégne et al., 2017] in a permutation test (n=10000) (Supp. Fig. 2). We 95 also explored whether the eQTL-associated genes were enriched in transcription 96 factor motifs with a known functionality, as well as their relationship with known 97 clinical conditions. 98

⁹⁹ Overall, the results offer a landscape of *Homo sapiens* specific gene regulation, enriching previously explored venues of research of the field of human evolution studies and opening new possibilities for variant effect testing in the

102 context of human brain evolution.

103 2 Results

We used the publicly available GTEx v7 eQTLs lists, which consist of statistically significant allele specific expression changes (as defined by GTEx [The GTEx Consortium et al., 2015]) influencing gene expression dosage in 13 different brain tissues from adult brain samples aged 20-60.

We first selected those eQTLs where the minor allele was also the ancestral 108 one (as defined by Kuhlwilm and Boeckx [2019]). The catalog of derived gene 109 changes in *Homo sapiens* we used for this study [Kuhlwilm and Boeckx, 2019] 110 imposes an arbitrary cutoff of a global 90% that allows some frequencies to be 111 under 90% as long as the overall mean fulfills the requirement. We processed 112 the data so that only those alleles that fulfill the 90% threshold in all metapop-113 ulations (as detailed in Kuhlwilm and Boeckx [2019]) are included in order to 114 apply a more stringent filter. Finally, crossing this database with the GTEx 115 allele-specific genetic regulation datasets, we retrieved all the Homo sapiens de-116 rived alleles that had a statistically significant effect in gene expression in any of 117 the adult human brain tissues and were in high frequency in modern population. 118

The resulting data includes 1,357 statistically significant unique SNPs associated with regulation of a total of 316 eGenes (i.e., genes affected by cis-regulation by at least one SNP) whose major allele falls into at least 90% frequency in all modern human metapopulations. As expected, we find some degree of functional overlap: 266 of those 1,357 eQTLs regulate various genes in the same tissue or act across different tissues. If we don't account for functional overlap we count a total of 2,507 eQTLs across 13 brain tissues (Supp. Tabl. 1).

Each eQTL has a beta score assigned to it, i.e., a normalized score of the modulatory effect of the SNP in the eGene normalized expression levels, as

\mathbf{rsID}	Gene exon	Additional notes
rs17597625	OR5I1	Under positive selection in early selective sweep [Moreno-Estrada et al., 2007]
rs2917782	STARD6	Cerebellar development [Chang et al., 2012] and Alzheimer's Disease [Yin et al., 2019]
rs2917782	PCNT	Associated with Down Syndrome and dwarfism [Rauch et al., 2008]
rs74316182	PLD4	Influences myelination [Chiba et al., 2016]

Table 1: A summary of missense variants in high frequency in modern humans where the variant also differentially affects cis-regulation of gene expression.

detailed in the GTEx consortium documentation [The GTEx Consortium et al., 2015]. In this case, the effect of an eQTL is understood as the relative gene expression difference between the minor, ancestral allele and the high-frequency derived allele. As shown in Figure 4 (C), chromosome 13 is underrepresented in terms of eQTL regulation.

In terms of distance to the transcription starting site, eQTLs tend to accumulate near the TSS (Transcription Start Site) of the regulated eGene, with a slight upward tendency (Fig. 4 A). This is in accordance with the GTEx consortium data report [The GTEx Consortium et al., 2015]: the GTEx consortium data exhibits an overall tendency towards transcriptional regulation instead of post-transcriptional regulation. We additionally report a tail of downstream variants far away from the TSS.

When listed by number of occurrences, the gene that accumulates more vari-140 ability from eQTL regulation is METTL18 (296 SNPs), followed by METTL14 141 (72 SNPs, all affecting gene cis-regulation in the cerebellum), POLI (47), a 142 DNA repair gene [Jain et al., 2017], and KATNAL2 (41), a gene implicated in 143 ciliogenesis and neurodevelopment in Xenopus [Willsey et al., 2018]. The full 144 list of occurrences per gene can be found in Supp. Table 1. Overall, close to 145 45% of SNPs accumulate in introns, consistently with the initial GTEx database 146 reports (Fig. 4 B) [The GTEx Consortium et al., 2015], while the second most 147 abundant subgroup is non-coding transcripts. 148

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We also found 15 missense mutations overlapping with cis-eQTLs, from

Tissue	Up	Down	Total	Tissue	Up	Down	Total
Adrenal gland	78	193	271	Cerebellar hemisphere	101	148	249
Amygdala	7	47	54	Hippocampus	7	44	51
BA9	22	64	86	Hypothalamus	12	74	86
BA24	82	102	184	Nucleus Accumbens	44	84	128
Caudate cortex	33	113	146	Pituitary gland	157	491	648
Cerebellum	115	348	463	Putamen	20	98	118
Substantia Nigra	3	20	23				

Table 2: Summary of up and downregulating high-frequency eQTLs in each brain tissue. BA = Brodmann's Area.

which four affect genes that have appeared in the literature related to neurodevelopment, evolution or disease (Table 1). Some of these missense mutations, such as rs74316182, regulate different eGenes in each tissue (Fig. 4 B). Additionally, there is one stop gained (rs73600054) in a cilium and flagella related gene (*CFAP157*) [Weidemann et al., 2016] and one lost (rs80336323) in *PSPN* (persephin neurothropic factor).

We found a splice region variant (rs17801742) in COL2A1, linked to Stickler Syndrome (OMIM entry number: #108300) [Guo et al., 2017] and regulating *PIGV*, a gene linked to neural crest cell regulation [Horn et al., 2014] that falls within a region of modern human positive selection [Racimo et al., 2015]. The full list of consequences can be consulted in Supp. Tab. 2.

¹⁶¹ 2.1 Directional regulation of eGenes

To check if there was a significant directionality of regulation in any genetic region or tissue we divided cis-eQTL variants in up and down effects per tissue. (Fig. 4 C , Table 2). We performed a two sample Kolmogorov–Smirnov test under the null hypothesis that the distribution of the high frequency *Homo sapiens* derived eQTLs follows a similar distribution as the GTEx significant eQTLs. The test does not reject that the upregulating eQTLs follow the same distribution as the total GTEx significant variants per tissue, which would be

> expected considering that the high-frequency eQTL list is a subset of the to-169 tal of significant variants in each tissue. However, it reports a significant (p 170 = 0.04979, maximum D² = 0.5) difference in the distribution of the downregu-171 lating eQTLs relative to the original GTEx v7 lists of significant variants per 172 tissue. Additionally, the data shows a numeric bias towards downregulating 173 eQTLs in all tisues, as visualized in Figure 3 C: in total, 681 alleles are linked 174 to gene upregulation, while 1,826 are linked to gene downregulation across tis-175 sues. We tested whether the amount of downregulating to upregulating alleles 176 in the Homo sapiens derived data follows the same proportions as the down 177 to upregulating ratios in the unfiltered significant eQTL list with a chi-square 178 goodness-to-fit test. The results show a significant difference (p < 0.05) in the 179 down to upregulating ratio compared to the unfiltered GTEx list in all tissues 180 except Brodmann's Area 24 (p-values reported in Supp. Table 3). Note that 181 the allele specific expression measures the effect of the major allele in the GTEx 182 database. Since one of the filters we impose is an equivalency between derived 183 and major allele, in a downregulating eQTL the (ancestral) low frequency allele 184 is decreasing the dosage of the eGene relative to the high-frequency Homo sapi-185 ens-derived allele. By contrast, upregulation of an eGene by an eQTL means 186 that the ancestral allele is increasing gene dosage relative to the high-frequency 187 derived allele. Given this, the strong bias towards downregulated eQTLs could 188 be reflecting our very limited sample of archaic human genomes. This is consis-189 tent with previous results of a study that uses similar resources [McCoy et al., 190 2017, which reports that Neanderthal alleles reduced genetic expression in the 191 modern human brain. Chromosome Y is depleted of eQTLs in our results for the 192 same reason, as there is no high-coverage genome of a male archaic individual 193 available at the moment (Fig. 4 C). 194



In terms of the relative proportion of eGenes to eQTLs, cerebellum and pi-



Figure 1: A) and B) Ratio of downregulating (A) and upregulating (B) eQTLs per genes affected in single tissues. C) Log value distribution in upregulating eQTL in human evolution, downregulating and total GTEx original data per tissue.

tuitary gland stand out both in up and downregulated eQTLs. (Figs. 3 A, 196 B). While the cerebellar phenotype has been claimed to be derived in mod-197 ern humans [Gunz et al., 2019], the pituitary has not been highlighted by any 198 experimental study regarding human evolution to our knowledge. However, a 199 recent account of human evolution has put forward the idea that changes in the 200 hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis could be driving the Homo sapi-201 ens sociocognitive profile (the so-called self-domestication process [Wrangham, 202 2019]). 203

Some of the SNPs with the same regulatory directionality (up or down) accumulate in linkage disequilibrium regional clusters that affect specific eGenes, such as in *METTL18* or *METTL14*. (Fig. 4 C). There are also eGenes that are



Figure 2: A) A bar plot showing the distribution of eQTL over distance to Transcription Starting Site B) Classification of the genetic consequences in our data C) A Circos plot showing the distribution along the genome of eQTLs. Each line denotes 0.5 steps in beta score (allele specific effects in gene expression), from 3 to -3. Red circles denote downregulation, green circles upregulation of eGenes. Inner rings, in blue: areas showing signals of positive selection relative to archaic humans in [Peyrégne et al., 2017] (innermost) and [Racimo et al., 2014] (outermost).

regulated exclusively in one tissue, both in up and downregulation of the archaic
allele. Some cases where the derived allele is increasing the eGene expression in
one tissue only are: *METTL14* (cerebellum), *INTS12* (adrenal gland), *STARD6*(Brodmann's Area 24), *BCHE* (caudate) and *ENSG000000254547* (pituitary).

211 2.2 Overlap with regions of evolutionary significance

To identify whether previous studies could give additional evolutionary significance to any of the genes that are affected by regulation in our data, we have tested whether the eQTLs might regulate genes associated with signals of posi-

> tive selection in modern humans versus archaics ([Peyrégne et al., 2017, Racimo et al., 2014]). We ran a permutation test (n=10000) to see if the SNPs accumulate significantly in regions under positive selection relative to archaic humans (Supp. Fig. 2). We found a significant (p < 0.006) correlation between eQTLs and regions of positive selection as defined by [Peyrégne et al., 2017]. The same test didn't show a significant overlap with an earlier positive selection study [Racimo et al., 2014].

> Overall, some eQTLs lie within regions of selective sweep, but the genes 222 that are affected by them aren't necessarily inside the sweep. It is possible 223 that gene expression modulation of genes outside the selected window is the one 224 driving the statistical significance of the positive selection scan, as it might be 225 targeting mutations that were on their own neutral but that affect translational 226 modification of gene expression levels outside the sweep region. Such a scenario 227 would apply for PIGV, ZNF37A, ARID1A, GPN2, GOLGA4, UBR1, BAP1, 228 TMEM222, C3orf35, AC097637.2 and AL117339.5. An enrichment analysis 229 failed to identify a biological category for this subset of genes. Some of these 230 genes, including PIGV, also include other eQTLs that exert cis-regulation over 231 themselves. In order to find out if any of these genes harbouring eQTLs have had 232 a functional role in human evolution, we crossed our data with the results of Zhu 233 et al. [2018], a study that presented transcriptomic data of 16 brain tissues in 234 several developmental stages (see Supp. Tab. 5). We found that 22 of the genes 235 affected by eQTLs are also found in transcriptional heterochronic clusters, ie, 236 blocks of co-expressed genes that have changed their temporal expression profile 237 during the course of evolution relative to the macaque tissue. However, a gene 238 ontology enrichment analysis failed to return any relevant association. 239

> We also tested whether any of the eQTLs fell within deserts of introgression, i.e., genetic windows of at least 1,000 Mb that have resisted genetic introgression

> from archaic humans to *Homo sapiens* ([Sankararaman et al., 2016]), as well as within regions of Neanderthal or Denisovan introgression ([McCoy et al., 2017]). The results show that none of our data entries overlap with these regions of special evolutionary interest, and that our data points are not redundant relative to other studies with a similar scope [McCoy et al., 2017]. This is most probably due to the frequency cutoff imposed on the data, as introgression fragments are generally low in frequency (unless adaptative).

249 2.3 Mechanisms of regulation

We hypothesized that part of the regulation of eGenes could be driven by transcription factor binding site motif variability. We found that there is a number of binding site motif enrichments in genes that are affected by eQTLs in different tissues. We ran a Transcription Factor Binding Site enrichment of each tissue (including both up and down eQTLs regulation) through SNP2TFBS [Kumar et al., 2017]. This tool takes as input a list of rsIDs and maps each SNP to the Transcription Factor Binding Site (TFBS) JASPAR database.

We found a significant enrichment of RUNX1 TFBS in the cerebellum. 257 MEIS1 and RUNX1 regulate Hedgehog signaling through the ATOH1 transcrip-258 tion factor [Owa et al., 2018]. The Hedgehog signaling pathway lies at the heart 250 of the developmental program of the cerebellum [De Luca et al., 2016]. Gene 260 variants affecting this pathway might have consequences for the development of 261 cerebellar tissue. Within our eQTL list affecting gene expression in the cere-262 bellum we focused on METTL14. METTL14 is of special relevance because it 263 accumulates 72 tissue-specific eQTLs in cerebellar tissue. We hypothesized that 264 we might find that transcription factors binding to sites in METTL14 are related 265 to cerebellar development, since the cerebellum is known to have expanded re-266 cently in human evolution [Gunz et al., 2010]. We found that METTL14 SNPS 267

> accumulate an enrichment of MEIS1, RUNX1 and retinoic acid (RXR-RAR) 268 (Supp. Fig. 3), possibly driving part of the statistical significance in the overall 269 tissue. Additionally, we found other tissues affected by derived eQTLs enriched 270 in transcription factor binding motifs involved in development and disease. The 271 adrenal gland and Brodmann's Area 9 derived eQTLs are enriched in EGR1 272 binding sites. EGR1 is a brain growth factor that plays a key role in stress 273 regulation, schizophrenia and synaptic plasticity [Duclot and Kabbaj, 2017]. 274 We also found that an enrichment in NFATC2 TFBS in cerebellar hemisphere 275 and hypothalamus. NFATC2 affects neuronal development and axonal growth 276 [Nguven and Di Giovanni, 2008]. Finally, we found STAT6, a regulator of the 277 neurogenesis in Xenopus upon Amyloid-beta42 administration [Bhattarai et al., 278 2016], in the pituitary. 279

> Additionally, we explored whether derived eQTLs overlapped with any know human miRNA or miRNA seeds (as defined in [Branco et al., 2018]), but found no overlap with our data.

283 2.4 Clinical data

The ultimate goal of the identification of these derived eQTLs should be bridging genotypical variation with the evolution of phenotypes. By crossing our data with the NCBI Clinvar database [Landrum et al., 2018] — a record of associations of SNPs with a broad range of clinical conditions — we expected to identify the effects of the eQTLs under specific genetic backgrounds to see if they might affect developmental pathways of the brain (full data in Supp. Tab. 4).

Our data shows that a series of conditions associated with changes in the craniofacial structure are linked to some of the modern human eQTLs. Two of the downregulating eQTLs (rs17801742, rs41317939) are known to be related

> to Stickler Syndrome (OMIM entry number: #108300), a condition that affects the development of the skull and face, among other effects. Both SNPs are downregulating *PFKM* expression levels in the cerebellum, a gene associated to aerobic glycolysis metabolism usually found in muscles. No known link exists between *PKFM* and Stickler Syndrome.

Another eQTL in our data is related to microcephalic osteodysplastic primor-299 dial dwarfism (OMIM: #210720), and epileptic encephalopathy (rs79305633). 300 One of the key characteristics of microcephalic osteodysplastic primordial dwarfism 301 is microcephaly, with the retracted development of the brain starting prenatally 302 [Reference]. Other pathologies linked to the skull-brain co-development found 303 in our data are Noonan Syndrome (OMIM: #613224) and Cowden syndrome 304 (OMIM: #615108). The form of Noonan syndrome linked to the eQTL is char-305 acterized by macrocephaly and changes in the craniofacial profile, sometimes 306 accompanied of cognitive consequences. Cowden syndome is characterized by 307 macrocephaly as well, and it is usually linked to variants in the gene coding for 308 PTEN, a key protein in brain development. Interestingly, *PTEN* harbors an ex-309 cess of modern-specific mutations compared to archaic humans [Kuhlwilm and 310 Boeckx, 2019]. Other variants of interest are one eQTL linked to Charcot-Marie 311 tooth disease (OMIM: #606482), variants associated with Parkinson disease 312 (OMIM: # 260300) and cerebellar ataxia (OMIM: #610743). 313

Despite these associations, a note of caution should be raised here as we don't fully understand the genetic background that causes these complex disorders. The eQTL-disease relationship is not necessarily causal but could contribute to the epistatic background of tissues of interest.

318 2.5 Clustered GO analysis

To shed light on whether genes affected by eQTLs affect specific networks of 319 genes we performed a gene ontology (GO) clustered analysis with Metascape 320 [Zhou et al., 2019]. Metascape performs an enrichment analysis that organizes 321 hierarchically GO by establishing a measure of distance between each category 322 and then organizing resulting GO nodes in networks according to the distance 323 between each node. We performed this analysis with a list of all the genes that 324 are affected by differential regulation across all tissues. The results of the anal-325 ysis (Supp. Fig. 1) reveal a significant number of terms related to the olfactory 326 signalling pathway, cell-cell adhesion and negative regulation of microtubule de-327 polymerization. Geometric morphometrics studies that compared Homo sapi-328 ens and Neanderthals [Bastir et al., 2011, Kochiyama et al., 2018] had already 329 identified that *Homo sapiens* has significantly larger olfactory bulbs compared 330 to Neanderthals. Cell-cell adhesion also has been found enriched previously 331 in a motif macroanalysis of the Neanderthal and Denisovan genomes [Cserhati 332 et al., 2018]. Cell adhesion is an important process in human-specific cortical 333 folding and apical progenitors cell cycle [Mora-Bermúdez et al., 2016, Wianny 334 et al., 2018]. Microtubule dynamics play an important role in neurodegenerative 335 diseases such as Alzheimer's [Hernández et al., 2013] but also in learning and 336 memory [Dent, 2017]. 337

338 **3** Discussion

Previous work such as [McCoy et al., 2017, Gunz et al., 2019] had already highlighted molecular mechanisms of evolutionary change in highly-derived tissues
in *Homo sapiens*. Here we propose that such changes also rely on regulatory
changes in human evolution in several tissues. Highly derived structures in-

> dentified in previous literature, such as the cerebellum [Gunz et al., 2010] and 343 the olfactory bulbs [Kochiyama et al., 2018] are prominent in our data. The 344 GO clustered analysis revealed a significant enrichment in olfactory signalling 345 pathway related genes in our data. An early study on the subject [Bastir et al., 346 2011] suggests that the olfactory signalling pathway overlaps significantly with 347 the memory and learning processing circuitry. Differential regulation of the ol-348 factory circuitry might have consequences for derived aspects of Homo sapiens 349 cognition. 350

> We also found that the cerebellum accumulates more differential regulation 351 than the rest of tissues (Figs. 3 A, B). In terms of molecular mechanisms, our 352 results highlight *METTL14* as a central node of regulation of cerebellar devel-353 opment. METTL14 is the second gene in terms of number of eQTLs. However, 354 in this case the differential regulation is tissue specific and accumulates in the 355 cerebellum, making it a strong candidate for one of the genes underlying the 356 cerebellar growth phenotype. METTL14, along with METTL3, is part of a 357 complex that regulates expression of N6-methyladenosine (m6a), a epitransla-358 tional RNA modificator that has an important role in cerebellar development 359 in mice [Ma et al., 2018]. 360

> Supporting the idea of a brain-face coregulatory genetic network, the data 361 shows other genes related to the craniofacial complex expressed in the brain. 362 PIGV and WHSC1 are involved in hyperphosphatasia-mental retardation syn-363 drome (OMIM: #239300) [Horn et al., 2014] and Wolf-Hirschhorn syndrome 36 (OMIM: #194190) [Yu et al., 2017], respectively. These two disorders are char-365 acterized by distinctive craniofacial profiles. Both PIGV and WHSC1 are up-366 regulated in Homo sapiens in our data. Additionally, PIGV is associated with 367 a signal of positive selection relative to the archaic human genomes [Racimo 368 et al., 2015]. The way the brain and the craniofacial complex share some of the 369

> genetic regulatory networks is reflected in the amount of *Homo sapiens* derived EQTLs in the brain linked with disorders that affect the fusion of the skull bones or typical deviations of the craniofacial disorder such as cleft palate (see section 2.4). These findings open up the possibility of using modern population clinical data to establish genetic regulatory networks that can inform about the molecular evolution of the *Homo sapiens* species, and viceversa.

> Other aspects of our results can be also found at the crossroads between 376 clinical data and evolutionary studies. Some of the eQTLs affect differential reg-377 ulation of both metabolic programming and microtubule dynamics. Our data 378 shows distinct regulation of genes such GAPDH and PFKM. Glyceraldehyde-379 3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) is one of the enzymes of the aerobic 380 glycolysis metabolic chain. The idea that aerobic glycolysis may have played 381 a role in human evolution was proposed before in [Bufill et al., 2011]. Modern 382 humans have a protracted neuronal development [Somel et al., 2009], a pheno-383 type that has been suggested [Bufill et al., 2011, Bauernfeind et al., 2014] to 384 be associated with a species-specific metabolic program involving an upregula-38 tion of aerobic glycolysis. Aerobic glycolysis correlates with key stages of the 386 development of the human brain, such as myelination, synaptogenesis and ax-387 onal elongation [Bauernfeind et al., 2014]. Changes in brain metabolism could 388 also be underlying human specific neurodegenerative diseases correlated with 389 metabolic failures, such as Alzheimer's disease [Bufill et al., 2013]. GAPDH is 390 know to provide glycolytic energy in fast axonal transport during vesicle traf-391 ficking [Zala et al., 2013] and is implicated in Alzheimer's disease, among other 392 neurodegenerative diseases [El Kadmiri et al., 2014]. 393

> Our data also shows that genes affected by eQTLs are enriched in the regulation of microtubule dynamics. Microtubule depolymerization plays a crucial role in neuronal development and synaptic plasticity [Dent, 2017], as well as in

> the pathogenesis of Alzheimer's Disease [Hernández et al., 2013]. Among the 397 genes affecting microtubule dynamics we found one that is associated to a cellu-398 lar phenotype in the same tissue where the human eQTL is affecting expression 399 levels: FMN1 in the hippocampus. Overexpression of FMN1 promotes primary 400 dendritic development in the hippocampus [Simon-Areces et al., 2011]. Whether 401 FMN1 overexpression would have the same effect in human hippocampus is cur-402 rently unknown, but this example shows how the present study can open new 403 testable hypotheses for human evolution studies concerning understudied sub-404 cortical structures. 405

> All in all, our work shows the potential of using human variation databases
> as a valuable point of entry to bridge genotype and phenotype in brain evolution
> studies.

$_{409}$ 4 Methods

We accessed the Homo sapiens high-frequency variant annotation data from 410 [Kuhlwilm and Boeckx, 2019]. The data is publicly available in https:// 411 doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.8184038. We then applied more stringent cri-412 teria to the high-frequency criteria [Kuhlwilm and Boeckx, 2019]. The study in 413 Kuhlwilm and Boeckx [2019] defines an arbitrary cutoff point of Homo sapiens 414 derived 90% frequency based on previous work, but the cutoff is global instead 415 of relative to metapopulation allele frequency, i.e., it is required that the global 416 frequency of an allele be more than or equal to 90%, but specific populations 417 can have lower frequencies. Since the data itself already included metapopula-418 tion frequency, we applied a more rigurous filter and removed any alleles that 419 where below 90% in any of the considered metapopulations. A full description 420 of the methods to create these annotations can be obtained from the origi-421 nal paper [Kuhlwilm and Boeckx, 2019]. We also obtained the publicly avail-422

> able single-tissue cis-eQTLs eGene and significant variant-gene associations (v7) 423 (https://gtexportal.org/home/datasets). We matched eQTL ID to rs IDs 424 with a lookup table provided by GTEx. The chi-square goodness-to-fit and the 425 Kolmogorov-Smirnov test were performed in R. To investigate the allelic conse-426 quences and the clinvar data we used the Biomart tool [Zerbino et al., 2018]. We 427 performed the gene ontology cluster enrichment analysis with Metascape [Zhou 428 et al., 2019] and the transcription factor enrichment with SNP2TFBS [Kumar 429 et al., 2017]. We generated all the main figures with the ggplot2 R package 430 [Wickham, 2009] and Circos [Krzywinski et al., 2009]. Supplementary Figure 1, 43 2 and 3 where generated by Metascape [Zhou et al., 2019], RegioneR [Gel et al., 432 2015] and SNP2TFBS [Kumar et al., 2017] respectively. The miRNA data was 433 extracted from the supplementary tables 6 and 7 of Branco et al. [2018]. We 434 used the supplementary table S5 from Racimo et al. [2014], the supplemen-435 tary table S2 from Peyrégne et al. [2017] for the human selective sweep data, 436 and the data from Sankararaman et al. [2016] for the deserts of introgression. 437 The evolutionary clusters data comes from the supplementary table S20 of Zhu 438 et al. [2018]. We performed the permutation test (n=1000) with the R package 439 RegioneR [Gel et al., 2015]. 440

441 Data acces

- 442 All raw data is publicly available as described in Methods. Processed single-
- 443 tissue data and clinical data can be found here: https://github.com/AGMAndirko/
- 444 GTEx_project and in the supplementary materials.

445 Acknowledgments

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

451 Author Contributions

⁴⁵² Conceptualization: CB & AA; Data Curation: AA; Formal Analysis: AA; Fund⁴⁵³ ing Acquisition: CB; Investigation: CB & AA; Methodology: CB & AA; Soft⁴⁵⁴ ware: AA; Supervision: CB; Visualization: CB & AA; Writing — Original Draft
⁴⁵⁵ Preparation: CB & AA; Writing — Review & Editing: CB & AA.

456 Disclosure declaration

⁴⁵⁷ The authors declare no conflict of interest.

458 Funding statement

AA acknowledges financial support from the Spanish Ministry of Economy
and Competitiveness and the European Social Fund (BES-2017-080366). CB
acknowledges financial support from the Spanish Ministry of Economy and

⁴⁶² Competitiveness/FEDER (grant FFI2016-78034-C2-1-P), the Marie Curie In⁴⁶³ ternational Reintegration Grant from the European Union (PIRG-GA-2009⁴⁶⁴ 256413), research funds from the Fundació Bosch i Gimpera, the MEXT/JSPS
⁴⁶⁵ Grant-in-Aid for Scientific Research on Innovative Areas 4903 (Evolinguistics:
⁴⁶⁶ JP17H06379), and support from theGeneralitat de Catalunya (2017-SGR-341).

467 Competing interest

⁴⁶⁸ Authors declare NO competing financial or non-financial interest.

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Figure 3: A) and B) Ratio of downregulating (A) and upregulating (B) eQTLs per genes affected in single tissues. C) Log value distribution in upregulating eQTL in human evolution, downregulating and total GTEx original data per tissue.



Figure 4: A) A bar plot showing the distribution of eQTL over distance to Transcription Starting Site B) Classification of the genetic consequences in our data C) A Circos plot showing the distribution along the genome of eQTLs. Each line denotes 0.5 steps in beta score (allele specific effects in gene expression), from 3 to -3. Red circles denote downregulation, green circles upregulation of eGenes. Inner rings, in blue: areas showing signals of positive selection relative to archaic humans in [Peyrégne et al., 2017] (innermost) and [Racimo et al., 2014] (outermost).