

1 *Alzheimer's disease risk gene BIN1 modulates neural network activity through the*
2 *regulation of L-type calcium channel expression in human induced neurons*

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27 **Abstract**

28 Bridging Integrator 1 (*BIN1*) is the second most important Alzheimer’s disease (AD) risk
 29 gene after *APOE*, but its physiological roles and contribution to brain pathology are largely
 30 elusive. In this work, we tackled the short- and long-term effects of BIN1 deletion in human
 31 induced neurons (hiNs) grown in bi-dimensional cultures and in cerebral organoids. We
 32 show that *BIN1* loss-of-function leads to specific transcriptional alterations in glutamatergic
 33 neurons involving mainly genes associated with calcium homeostasis, ion transport and
 34 synapse function. We also show that BIN1 regulates calcium transients and neuronal
 35 electrical activity through interaction with the L-type voltage-gated calcium channel Cav_{1.2}
 36 and regulation of activity-dependent internalization of this channel. Treatment with the
 37 Cav_{1.2} antagonist nifedipine partly rescues neuronal electrical alterations in *BIN1* knockout
 38 hiNs. Together, our results indicate that BIN1 misexpression impairs calcium homeostasis in
 39 glutamatergic neurons, potentially contributing to the transcriptional changes and neural
 40 network dysfunctions observed in AD.

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Introduction

The Bridging Integrator 1 (*BIN1*) is the second most associated genetic determinant with the risk of late-onset Alzheimer's disease (LOAD), after the Apolipoprotein E (*APOE*) gene¹⁻⁴, and it is only since the report of its association with AD more than ten years ago that its role in brain functions started to be investigated. In the adult human brain, *BIN1* is mainly expressed by oligodendrocytes, microglial cells, glutamatergic and GABAergic neurons⁵⁻⁷ and its expression is reduced in the brains of AD patients compared to healthy individuals⁷⁻⁹. How this reduced expression of *BIN1* may affect AD pathogenesis remains poorly understood.

Changes in *BIN1* expression have been controversially associated with amyloid precursor protein (APP) processing towards the production of amyloid-beta (A β) peptides in cellular models^{10,11}. However, we recently showed that BIN1 regulates endocytic trafficking in hiPSC-derived neurons (hiNs), without significantly affecting amyloidogenic APP processing¹² and BIN1 underexpression does not modify amyloid pathology in an AD-like mouse model¹³. A direct interaction between TAU and BIN1 has also been reported^{14,15} potentially impacting learning and memory in a Tauopathy mouse model¹⁶, Tau phosphorylation and propagation in vitro¹⁶⁻¹⁹ or network hyperexcitability in rat hippocampal neurons¹⁹.

Despite these advances, no consensus has been reached on the role of BIN1 in AD pathogenesis and even its physiological functions in human brain cells remain mostly unknown. Therefore, rather than developing an Ab/Tau-based hypothesis as in most previous reports, we decided to first develop an agnostic approach to capture a BIN1-dependent molecular landscape in cerebral organoids and neural cells derived from hiPSC underexpressing this gene.

Results

Transcriptional alterations in *BIN1* KO hiNs highlight pathways related to electrical activity and synaptic transmission

To unbiasedly study possible changes in gene expression in human neural cells in function of *BIN1* expression, we generated *BIN1* wild-type (WT), and knockout (KO) cerebral organoids (COs)^{20,21}. After 6.5 months of culture, COs were composed of all the major neural cell types identified by the expression of MAP2, GFAP and NESTIN, and we did not observe any gross differences in size or morphology of COs between genotypes (Fig. 1A). Western blot analyses confirmed the absence of *BIN1* protein in *BIN1* KO COs (Fig. 1B). Using snRNA-seq, we recovered the transcriptional profile of 4398 nuclei that were grouped into 7 major cell clusters based on the expression of cell type markers (Fig. 1C-D). As observed in the human brain⁷, *BIN1* expression in COs was mainly detected in oligodendrocytes and glutamatergic neurons (Fig. 1D). Notably, we observed a significant reduction in the proportion of glutamatergic neurons in *BIN1* KO compared to WT COs (Fig. 1E), suggesting their selective loss or reduced differentiation. Using Wilcoxon test after sctransform normalization and variance stabilization of molecular count data²², we detected 124, 75, 4 and 1 differently expressed genes (DEGs; $|\log_2FC| > 0.25$ and FDR < 0.05) respectively in glutamatergic neurons, astrocytes, NPCs and oligodendrocytes, when comparing gene expression in single cell populations of *BIN1* KO and WT COs (Fig. 1F; Sup. Table 1). Gene ontology (GO) term enrichment analysis for DEGs identified in *BIN1* KO glutamatergic neurons revealed a significant enrichment for several terms associated with synaptic transmission, calcium binding and ion channels (Fig. 1G; Sup. Table 2). In *BIN1* KO astrocytes, we found enrichment for GO terms associated with neuronal differentiation (Sup. Table 2). In addition, since *BIN1* is expressed at very low level in WT COs astrocytes and we noticed several DEGs regulated by neuronal activity, such as *APBA1*, *GRIN2B*, *NPAS3* and *RORA* (Sup. Table 1)²³, changes in astrocytes are likely secondary to neuronal modifications/dysfunctions. Accordingly, we observed 65 DEGs in glutamatergic neurons of *BIN1* heterozygous (HET) compared to WT COs but only 6 DEGs in astrocytes (Sup. Fig. 1). Similar transcriptional alterations were observed in *BIN1* KO hiNs generated in bi-dimensional cultures (Sup. Fig. 2).

We next aimed at evaluating the cell-autonomous effect of *BIN1* deletion in glutamatergic neurons and, for this purpose, we generated *BIN1* WT or KO pure glutamatergic neuronal cultures by direct lineage-reprogramming of human NPCs (hNPCs) using doxycycline-inducible expression of ASCL1 (see online methods). After validation that ASCL1 expression efficiently reprogrammed hNPCs into highly pure neurons (hereafter ASCL1-hiNs; Fig. 1H), we added exogenous human cerebral cortex astrocytes to support functional neuronal maturation and synaptic connectivity²⁴. After 4 weeks of differentiation and snRNA-seq analyses (n=3114 from 2 independent culture batches), we observed that ASCL1-hiNs (~70% of all the cells; see Online Methods for a full description of the cellular populations) were composed of glutamatergic neurons (~92%) with a small proportion of GABAergic neurons (~2%) or of cells co-expressing low levels of markers of both neuronal subtypes (~6%). We detected 675 DEGs ($|\log_2FC| > 0.25$ and FDR < 0.05) in *BIN1* KO compared to WT glutamatergic neurons, and only 1 DEG in GABAergic neurons (Fig. 1K; Sup. Table 3). As observed in COs (Fig. 1G) and spontaneously differentiated hiNs (Sup. Fig. 2), GO term enrichment analysis revealed a significant enrichment for terms associated with synaptic transmission, ion channel activity and calcium signaling pathways (Fig. 1L; Sup. Table 4). Noteworthy, exogenously added human astrocytes co-cultured with *BIN1* WT and KO hiNs showed a low number of DEGs (25 in Astro-I and 18 in Astro-II; Sup. Table 3), likely again reflecting an astrocyte reaction to primary changes in hiNs in response to *BIN1* deletion.

Altogether, results obtained from 2D and 3D models indicate that *BIN1* loss-of-function leads to specific transcriptional changes associated with functional properties of glutamatergic neurons.

Molecular alterations in *BIN1* KO organoids and hiNs resemble those observed in the brains of AD patients

We then sought to evaluate whether molecular alterations in our neural models may recapitulate some of those observed in the brain of AD cases. For this purpose, we used a publicly available snRNA-seq dataset generated from the entorhinal cortex (EC) and superior frontal gyrus (SFG) of AD patients at different Braak stages⁹. We first observed a progressive and significant decrease in *BIN1* mRNA levels in glutamatergic neurons (Fig. 2A), suggesting that reduced *BIN1* expression in this cell type may be a common feature occurring in the AD

pathology progression. We then compared DEGs identified in *BIN1* KO glutamatergic neurons (either from COs or ASCL1-hiNs) with those identified in the same cell subtype of AD brains (Sup. Table 5). Remarkably, DEGs identified in *BIN1* KO glutamatergic neurons (either from COs or ASCL1-hiNs) showed a statistically significant overlap with DEGs detected in this cell population in AD brains at different Braak stages (Fig. 2B). In astrocytes, however, a similar significant overlap could only be observed between COs and AD brains (Fig. 2B). GO analysis based on DEG overlap between *BIN1* KO ASCL1-hiNs and AD brain glutamatergic neurons indicated significant enrichment for pathways associated with glutamate receptor activity and gated channel activity (Fig. 2C). Similarly, DEG overlap between *BIN1* KO COs and AD brain glutamatergic neurons was significantly enriched for genes associated with glutamate receptor activity, gated channel activity and calcium ion binding (Fig. 2D; Sup. Table 6). No significant enrichment was observed for DEG overlap between *BIN1* KO COs and AD brain astrocytes (data not shown). Altogether, these observations suggest that *BIN1* loss-of-function is sufficient to elicit gene expression alterations in glutamatergic neurons in part similar of those observed in AD brains and associated with functional properties of glutamatergic neurons.

We finally investigated if AD-like biochemical modifications may occur in our different models by measuring the levels of phosphorylated TAU, APP, APP CTF- β and A β peptides. We detected an increase in the intracellular levels of phospho-TAU (Ser202, Thr205) in *BIN1* KO compared to WT cultures both in 2D and 3D cultures (Fig. 2E-H). In agreement with our previous observations in cerebral organoids (Lambert et al., 2022), we did not detect any significant differences neither in the concentrations of soluble A β (1-x) or A β (1-42), nor in the intracellular levels of full-length APP and APP CTF- β in *BIN1* KO compared to WT hiN cultures in 2D (Sup. Fig. 3). Altogether, these results indicate that *BIN1* underexpression may be sufficient to induce AD-related Tau hyperphosphorylation in glutamatergic neurons.

Number of synaptic contacts is decreased in BIN KO organoids

Since synapse loss is also an early marker of AD development, we then assessed whether *BIN1* deletion may affect synaptic connectivity in our different models. Using immunohistochemistry experiments, we did not find any significant differences in the number of putative synaptic contacts (% SYP assigned) in *BIN1* KO compared to WT ASCL1-hiNs, both at 4 and 6 weeks of differentiation (Fig. 3A-D). We also studied glutamatergic

synapses functionally using real-time imaging of ASCL1-hiNs expressing glutamate sensor iGLUSnFr²⁵. Like our observations based on immunocytochemistry, we did not detect differences neither in the number of glutamatergic synapses (active spots) nor in the frequency of events (change in fluorescence levels in active spots) in *BIN1* KO compared to WT ASCL1-hiNs (Sup. Fig. 4; Sup. Movies 1 and 2). In contrast, *BIN1* KO COs showed a significant reduction in the number of synaptic contacts (Fig. 3H), mainly due to a reduction in the number of post-synaptic spots expressing HOMER1 (Fig. 3E-F). Thus, our data indicate that long term *BIN1* underexpression may affect synaptic connectivity, even if not detectable at short term in 2D culture.

***BIN1* null deletion modifies electrical activity pattern in ASCL1-hiNs**

Although we cannot exclude that the latter observations may be linked to a difference between 2D and 3D cultures per se, we postulated that the decrease in synaptic contacts after long-term *BIN1* deletion may be a consequence of synapse down-scaling resulting from chronically increased neuronal excitability due to deregulation of functional properties of glutamatergic neurons^{41,42}. To directly address this possibility, we used multi-electrode arrays (MEA) to record and quantify multi-unit activity (MUA) in ASCL1-hiNs cultured in a microfluidic device, which guides neurites into microchannels that are positioned over recording electrodes (Sup. Fig. 5). As observed in dissociated cultures of cortical cells²⁶, 2D cultures of ASCL1-hiNs cells exhibited a diverse range of spontaneous activity patterns, including regular discharges, population bursts and period activity (Sup. Fig. 4). In this respect, we found a conspicuous change in the temporal organization of MUA after *BIN1* deletion, mainly characterized by an increased number of spike bursts at 4 weeks (Sup. Fig. 4). These alterations may result from compensatory adjustments in neuronal connectivity, intrinsic membrane properties or both. To disentangle these possibilities, we used waveform-based spike sorting to examine the functional consequences of *BIN1* deletion at the single neuronal level (Fig. 4). We identified a similar number of single units per recording electrode between genotypes (WT: 4.92 ± 2.34 ; KO: 5.27 ± 2.45), indicating that *BIN1* deletion does not impair the expression neither the density of active units within culture microchannels. However, we observed reduced single-unit activity (SUA) frequency (Fig. 4B) and increased SUA amplitude (Fig. 4C) in *BIN1* KO compared to WT ASCL1-hiNs. Interestingly, we could not detect significant changes in the number of bursts per neuron

(WT: 11.01 ± 6.71 ; KO: 10.36 ± 8.59), although the burst duration and the number of spikes within a burst were significantly decreased in *BIN1* KO compared to WT ASCL1-hiNs (Fig. 4D-E), demonstrating the pertinence of performing spike sorting in MEA data. With this approach, we demonstrate the temporal disorganization observed in *BIN1* KO hiNs networks (Fig. 4F) by computing the array-wide spike detection rate (ASDR), which reveals the strength of the synchronized population activity, and the autocorrelograms of SUAs, which allows the apprehension of synchronized periodicity. Both methods revealed striking modifications in the temporal organization of SUAs in *BIN1* KO compared to WT ASCL1-hiNs (Fig. 4G-I). While most spikes of *BIN1* WT neurons occurred at periodic intervals of about 8-10 s, the spikes of *BIN1* KO neurons were randomly distributed, suggesting that *BIN1* deletion in neurons impairs the capacity of these cells to generate organized patterns of electrical activity. Accordingly, the percentage of spikes occurring outside of bursts was significantly higher in *BIN1* KO than in WT ASCL1-hiNs (Fig. 4J).

Acute MEA recordings in 5-month-old COs also revealed a significant increase in spike frequency in *BIN1* KO compared to WT COs (Fig. 5A-B), but these experiments represent a very narrow time shot of COs differentiation. Therefore, to evaluate chronic alterations in neuronal electrical activity in this system, we developed an original approach based on the expression of activity-related genes (ARGs)²⁷. While neurons stimulated with brief patterns of electrical activity transcribe rapid primary response genes (rPRGs) or early response genes (ERGs), those stimulated with sustained patterns of electrical activity express delayed primary response genes (dPRGs), secondary response genes (SRGs) and late response genes (LRGs) (Fig. 5C)^{28,29}. Using Cell-ID³⁰, we analyzed the enrichment for these gene signatures (Sup. Table 7) in our COs at single-cell resolution. As expected, we observed that ARG signatures were predominantly enriched in neurons (Fig. 5D). Quantification of the proportion of neurons significantly enriched for specific signatures ($p_{adj} < 0.05$) revealed a significantly higher proportion of glutamatergic neurons enriched for dPRGs, SRGs and LRGs in *BIN1* KO compared to WT COs (Fig. 5E). Enrichments for SRGs and LRGs were specific for this cell type and could not be observed either in GABAergic neurons (Fig. 5E) or in *BIN1* HET glutamatergic neurons (Sup. Fig. 6). Thus, *BIN1* deletion leads to alterations in neuronal electrical activity before observable changes in synaptic connectivity, suggesting that functional changes in *BIN1* KO ASCL1-hiNs are likely a consequence of altered cell-intrinsic properties.

BIN1 regulates neuronal Ca^{2+} dynamics through LVGCCs

Since we found significant enrichment for several terms associated with calcium binding and ion channels, we postulated that actors of these pathways may be responsible for such altered cell-intrinsic properties. To probe whether Ca^{2+} dynamics was altered in *BIN1* KO ASCL1-hiNs, we performed calcium imaging in 4-week-old cultures (Sup. Movies 3 and 4). We observed a significant increase in the frequency of Ca^{2+} transients in *BIN1* KO compared to WT ASCL1-hiNs, associated with changes in fluorescence dynamics indicative of longer times to reach the maximum intracellular Ca^{2+} levels and to recover baseline levels (Fig. 6A-F).

LVGCCs are key regulators of Ca^{2+} transients in neurons, which play a fundamental role in neuronal firing and gene transcription regulation³¹. We thus sought to determine if BIN1 may interact and regulate LVGCC expression in hiNs, as previously described for cardiomyocytes³². First, we performed proximity ligation assay (PLA) to probe a possible interaction between BIN1 and Cav_{1.2} or Cav_{1.3}, the two LVGCCs expressed in ASCL1-hiNs (Sup. Fig. 7). We observed a widespread BIN1-Cav_{1.2} PLA signal (Fig. 6G) and, to a lesser extent, a BIN1-Cav_{1.3} one in neurons (Sup. Fig. 7). Next, we quantified neuronal LVGCC protein level and observed an increase in total Cav_{1.2} levels in *BIN1* KO compared to WT ASCL1-hiNs (Fig. 6H-I). Protein levels of neither Cav_{1.3}, nor the members of the Cav₂ family (Cav_{2.1}, Cav_{2.2} and Cav_{2.3}) were increased in the same cultures (Sup. Fig. 7), suggesting a specific regulation of Cav_{1.2} expression by BIN1.

Notably, LVGCCs are key regulators of the synchronous firing pattern in neurons³³ and one of the homeostatic mechanisms protecting neurons from hyperexcitability involves activity-dependent internalization of those channels³⁴. Thus, to evaluate whether BIN1 deletion may impair this mechanism, we stimulated ASCL1-hiNs with KCl 65nM for 30 min and collected total and endosomal proteins for analysis. We confirmed an increase in the global level of Cav_{1.2} in *BIN1* KO ASCL1-hiNs that was independent of KCl treatment (Fig. 6J). However, Cav_{1.2} expression in the endosomal fraction was increased by 50% after KCl treatment in *BIN1* WT, whereas this increase was only of 10% in *BIN1* KO ASCL1-hiNs (Fig. 6K). This effect was specific for Cav_{1.2} since both early endosome antigen 1 (EEA1) and Cav_{1.3} expression increased in both *BIN1* WT and KO ASCL1-hiNs at similar levels after KCl treatment (Fig. 6K).

These last observations prompted us to investigate whether the network dysfunctions observed in *BIN1* KO ASCL1-hiNs may be related to the increased Cav_{1.2} protein levels. For this purpose, we treated these cells with nifedipine, a specific antagonist of Cav_{1.2} at a physiologically relevant concentration (50 nM) for 2 weeks. We observed a partial recovery of the oscillatory pattern of neuronal electrical activity observed in WT cells (Fig. 6L). Interestingly, the percentage of spikes outside bursts was not affected by nifedipine treatment in *BIN1* WT, but significantly decreased in *BIN1* KO ASCL-hiNs (Fig. 6M), indicating a partial recovery of burst organization. To note, no difference in firing rates was observed whatever the models and conditions (Fig. 6N). Altogether, these data support the view that BIN1 contributes to the regulation of electrical activity through the regulation of Cav_{1.2} expression/localization in human neurons.

Discussion

In this work, we show that the AD genetic risk factor *BIN1*, plays a critical role in the regulation of neuronal firing homeostasis in glutamatergic neurons. Complete deletion of *BIN1* gene in these neurons is sufficient to alter the expression of the LVGCC Cav_{1.2}, leading to altered calcium homeostasis and neural network dysfunctions in human neurons *in vitro*. These functional changes are correlated with changes in the expression of genes involved in synaptic transmission and ion transport across the membrane, as well as increased Tau phosphorylation. In long-term neuronal cultures using COs, we confirm that *BIN1* loss-of-function affects electrical activity and leads to synapse loss, transcriptional and biochemical alterations resembling those observed in the AD brain. These results suggest that misexpression of BIN1 in glutamatergic neurons may contribute to early stages of AD pathophysiology by dysregulating neuronal firing homeostasis through LVGCCs.

Neuronal network dysfunctions are observed in AD patients at early stages of the disease and precede or coincide with cognitive decline^{35–37}. Under physiological conditions, neuronal networks can maintain optimal output through regulation of synaptic and cell-intrinsic mechanisms³⁸. Our results suggest that normal levels of BIN1 expression in glutamatergic neurons are fundamental to regulate neuronal firing rate homeostasis. Indeed, *BIN1* deletion in hiNs is sufficient to dysregulate network oscillations even without impacting the number of functional synaptic contacts, suggesting that the desynchronization observed in *BIN1* KO hiNs circuits are a consequence of miscarried homeostatic controls of neuronal activity.

One key mechanism controlling neuronal spiking activity is the regulation of Ca²⁺ homeostasis^{31,33,39}. Increased neuronal electrical activity induces the turnover of LVGCCs from the plasma membrane through endocytosis³⁴ and regulates the transcription of genes encoding for calcium-binding proteins and calcium-mediated signaling⁴⁰, mechanisms aiming to restore local Ca²⁺ signaling cascades and protect cells against aberrant Ca²⁺ influx. We show that BIN1 interacts with Cav_{1.2} in hiNs, similar to previous findings in cardiac T tubules³² and in mouse hippocampal neurons¹⁹ and provide evidence supporting a novel role for BIN1 in the regulation of activity-dependent internalization of Cav_{1.2} in human neurons, thus linking BIN1 to firing homeostasis in human neurons through that LTVGCC.

Loss of Ca^{2+} homeostasis is an important feature of many neurological diseases and has been extensively described in AD^{41,42}. Interestingly, DEGs identified in glutamatergic neurons in our different cell culture models are enriched for calcium-related biological processes. This is also observed for DEGs detected both in glutamatergic neurons of *BIN1* KO COs and in AD brains. Thus, reduced expression of *BIN1* in glutamatergic neurons may contribute to the breakdown of Ca^{2+} homeostasis in the AD brain, potentially contributing to neuronal circuit dysfunctions. Consistent with this hypothesis, we have previously shown a significant reduction in the expression of the transcript encoding for the neuron-specific *BIN1* isoform 1 in bulk RNA-sequencing data from a large number of AD patients⁷ and we show in this work that *BIN1* expression is reduced in glutamatergic neurons of AD brains at late Braak stages.

Altogether, our results suggest that *BIN1* misexpression in glutamatergic neurons may primarily undermine Ca^{2+} homeostasis, leading to changes in neuronal electrical activity. In a later stage, gene expression and circuit-level alterations such as synapse loss would occur, likely because of altered neuronal electrical activity. A corollary to this model would be that early treatments aiming to restore Ca^{2+} homeostasis and neuronal electrical activity may have a beneficial impact in AD. Interestingly, a Mendelian randomization and a retrospective population-based cohort study found evidence suggesting that Ca^{2+} channel blockers are associated with a reduced risk of AD^{43,44}. In the future, it would be interesting to study the impact of these drugs for AD onset/progress as a function of genetic variants in the *BIN1* locus.

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Declaration of interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Author contributions

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Figure legends

Figure 1: Transcriptional changes in *BIN1* KO hiNs. (A) Immunohistochemistry for GFAP (red), MAP2 (green) and DAPI (blue) in 6.5-month-old *BIN1* WT and KO COs. (B) Western blots showing the isoforms of *BIN1* detected in WT and the absence of *BIN* protein in KO COs. (C) UMAP representation of the different cell subtypes in COs identified using snRNA-seq. (D) Dot plot representing the expression for *BIN1* and key markers used to annotate cell subtypes. (E) Proportion of cell subpopulations in both genotypes (**** $p < 0.0001$; Chi-squared test). (F) Volcano plots representing DEGs comparing KO vs WT in astrocytes and glutamatergic neurons. DEGs with adjusted p -value < 0.05 and $|\log_2FC| > 0.25$ are shown in red. Gene labels are shown for top 10 genes in terms of \log_2 FoldChange and p -value. (G) Functional enrichment analysis of DEGs identified in glutamatergic neurons. Bar plots representing the top 10 enriched gene ontology (GO) terms in biological processes (BP), cellular components (CC) and molecular function (MF) at $p_{adj} < 0.01$. (H) Images showing *BIN1* WT and KO hiNs 7 days after the beginning of doxycycline treatment immunolabeled for neuronal markers MAP2 and TUBB3 and astrocyte marker GFAP and stained with DAPI. (I) UMAP representation of the different cell subtypes identified in ASCL1-hiNs cultures using snRNA-seq. (J) Dot plot representing expression of key markers used to annotate cell subtypes. (K) Volcano plot representing DEGs comparing *BIN1* KO vs WT glutamatergic neurons. DEGs with adjusted p -value < 0.05 and $|\log_2FC| > 0.25$ are shown in red. Gene labels are shown for calcium- and synapse-related genes. (L) Functional enrichment analysis of DEGs identified in glutamatergic neurons. Bar plots representing the top 10 enriched GO terms in each category at $p_{adj} < 0.01$.

Figure 2: Similar molecular alterations in *BIN1* KO hiNs and glutamatergic neurons of the AD brain. (A) Box plot representing *BIN1* mRNA in expression through different Braak stages in entorhinal cortex (EC) and superior frontal gyrus (SFG) (***) $p_{adj} < 0.001$; Wilcoxon test). (B) Dot plot representing the overlap between DEGs identified in glutamatergic neurons of the AD brain and *BIN1* KO ASCL1-hiN cultures (left) or *BIN1* KO COs (right). (C-D) Network representation of enriched GO terms in overlapping DEGs between AD brains and glutamatergic neurons in culture. Enriched GO terms were identified using over-representation test. (E) Western blot for total TAU protein C-terminal (TAU-C), phosphorylated (p)-TAU at Ser202, Thr205 (AT8) and β -ACTIN in 4-week-old ASCL1-hiNs

cultures. (F) Quantification of TAU-C/ β -ACTIN and p-TAU/TAU-C levels in *BIN1* KO ASCL1-hiNs normalized to WT (* $p=0.0262$; Mann-Whitney test). (G) Western blot for total TAU protein C-terminal (TAU-C), phosphorylated (p)-TAU at Ser202, Thr205 (AT8) and β -ACTIN in 6.5month-old COs. (H) Quantification of TAU-C/ β -ACTIN and p-TAU/TAU-C levels normalized to WT (* $p=0.0357$; # $p=0.0714$; Mann-Whitney test).

Figure 3: Similar synaptic density in *BIN1* WT and KO ASCL1-hiNs. (A-B) Immunocytochemistry using the astrocyte marker GFAP, neuronal marker MAP2, pre-synaptic marker SYP and post-synaptic marker HOMER1 in *BIN1* WT ASCL1-hiNs after 4 weeks of differentiation in a three-chamber microfluidic device. Scale bar = 200 μ m. Rectangular box in A is magnified in B, allowing the identification of putative synaptic contacts (B'). (C-D) Fraction of SYP spots assigned by HOMER1 spots in MAP2 processes at 4 and 6 weeks ASCL1-hiNs cultures ($n=8$ independent devices for each genotype). (E) Immunohistochemistry for HOMER1 (red), SYP (green) in 6.5-month-old *BIN1* WT and KO COs. (F) Quantifications of the number of SYP and HOMER1 spots, and the percentage of SYP assigned by HOMER1 spots in *BIN1* WT and KO COs (** $p=0.0076$; *** $p=0.0002$; Mann-Whitney test; $n=3$ COs per genotype).

Figure 4: Disorganization of neuronal activity in *BIN1* KO ASCL1-hiNs. (A) Raster plots showing the decomposition of multi-unity activity (MUA, black lines) into single-unit activity (SUA, colored lines) using spike waveform clustering. (B-E) Quantification of single-neuron firing rate (B; ** $p=0.0034$), spike amplitude (C; * $p=0.0106$), burst duration (D; **** $p<0.0001$) and number of spikes per burst (E; **** $p<0.0001$) at 4 weeks. Mann-Whitney test; $n=5$ independent experiments; WT: 376 neurons; KO: 416 neurons). (F) Raster plots showing SUA recorded from 5 different electrodes of *BIN1* WT (left) or KO (right) ASCL1-hiNs cultures after 4 weeks of differentiation. (G) Array-wide spike detection rate (ASDR) plots based on SUA recorded in *BIN1* WT and KO ASCL1-hiNs cultures. Each line represents one independent culture batch. (H-I) Normalized autocorrelogram heatmap (H, each line refers to one SUA) and averaged correlation (I) for all SUAs recorded in 5 independent *BIN1* WT and KO ASCL1-hiNs cultures. (J) Percentage of spikes outside of bursts (* $p=0.0417$, Mann-Whitney test).

Figure 5: Altered electrical activity in *BIN1* KO COs. (A) Representative raster plots showing detected spikes in 5-month-old *BIN1* WT and KO COs recorded in a multi-well MEA device. (B) Spike frequency in Hz (** $p=0.0068$; Mann-Whitney test; $n=4$ WT and 3 KO COs). (C) Scheme indicating the different sets of ARGs regulated by brief and sustained patterns of electrical activity^{28,29}. rPRGs: rapid primary response genes; dPRGs: delayed primary response genes; SRGs: secondary response genes; ERGs: early response genes; LRGs: late response genes; Exc – glutamatergic neurons; Inh – GABAergic neurons. (D) Feature plots showing the enrichment score of single cells for ARG signatures. Enrichment scores correspond to the $-\log_{10}(p_{adj})$ of the Cell-ID-based enrichment test. (E) Proportions of glutamatergic (left) and GABAergic neurons (right) enriched for the different ARG signatures according to genotype (* $p<0.05$; *** $p<0.001$; Chi-squared test).

Figure 6: Altered frequency of calcium transients in *BIN1* KO ASCL1-hiNs. (A) Snapshot of a 4-week-old ASCL1-hiNs culture labeled with Oregon green BAPTA. (B) Representative plot of fluorescence change over time in 1000 frames. (C) Representative traces showing the fluorescence changes in *BIN1* WT and KO ASCL1-hiNs. Red dashed lines indicate the time to reach the fluorescence maximal intensity (raising time - t_1) and to return to baseline (recovery time - t_2). (D) Quantification of calcium transients in *BIN1* WT and KO ASCL1-hiNs (**** $p<0.0001$; Mann-Whitney test; $n=3$ independent cultures for each genotype; number of active cells per condition: 754 (WT), 1006 (KO)). (E-F) Quantification of rising time (t_1) and recovery time (t_2) for calcium transients (** $p=0.0022$; **** $p<0.0001$; Mann-Whitney test). (G) Images showing PLA spots using anti-BIN1 and anti-Cav_{1.2} antibodies in 4-week-old *BIN1* WT and KO hiNs. Cells were also immunolabeled for the neuronal marker MAP2 (green), the astrocyte marker GFAP (white), and stained with DAPI (blue). (H) Western blot for Cav1.2 (without and with blocking peptide) and β -ACTIN in 4-week-old ASCL1-hiNs cultures. (I) Quantification of Cav1.2/ β -ACTIN levels in *BIN1* WT and KO ASCL1-hiNs cultures ($^{\&}p=0.0585$; $^{\#}p=0.0217$; * $p=0.0286$; Unpaired t-test). (J) Western blot for Cav_{1.2} and β -ACTIN in the total protein extracts from 4-week-old ASCL1-hiNs treated with KCl (+) or vehicle (-). Plot shows the quantification of Cav_{1.2} normalized by β -ACTIN. (K) Western blot for Cav_{1.2}, Cav_{1.3} and EEA1 in the endosomal protein extracts from 4-week-old ASCL1-hiNs treated with KCl (+) or vehicle (-). Plot shows the optical density of these proteins (**** $p<0.0001$; Chi-square test). (L) Auto-correlograms of 4-week-old *BIN1* WT and KO hiNs treated or not with 50 nM

Nifedipine for 2 weeks. (M) Percentage of spikes outside of bursts (WT vs WT+NIF: $**p_{adj}=0.0034$; WT vs KO: $*p_{adj}=0.0124$; Dunn's multiple comparison test). (N) Average firing rates.

Supplementary data

Sup. Figure 1: Figure 1: Transcriptional changes in *BIN1* HET COs. (A) Immunohistochemistry for GFAP (red), MAP2 (green) and DAPI (blue) in 6.5-month-old *BIN1* WT and HET COs. (B) Western blots showing the decrease in *BIN1* expression in HET COs. (C) UMAP representation of the different cell subtypes in COs identified using snRNA-seq. (D) Cell proportions in each subpopulation in WT and HET COs. (E) Volcano plot representing DEG comparing HET vs WT in astrocytes and glutamatergic neurons. DEGs with adjusted p-value <0.05 and $|\log_2FC| >0.25$ are shown in red. Gene labels are shown for top 10 genes in terms of \log_2 FoldChange and p-value. (F) Functional enrichment analysis of DEGs identified in *BIN1* HET glutamatergic neurons. Bar plots representing the top 10 enriched gene ontology (GO) terms in biological processes (BP), cellular components (CC) and molecular function (MF) at $p_{adj}<0.01$. (G) Venn diagram showing the overlap between DEGs identified in *BIN1* HET and KO glutamatergic neurons. (H) Bar plots representing the top 10 enriched GO:BP for common DEGs. (I) Immunohistochemistry for HOMER1 (red), synaptophysin (SYP, green) in 6.5-month-old *BIN1* WT and HET COs. (J) Quantification of the percentage of SYP assigned by HOMER1 spots in *BIN1* WT and HET COs ($***p=0.0002$; Mann-Whitney test; $n=3$ COs per genotype).

Sup. Figure 2: Transcriptional changes in spontaneously differentiated *BIN1* KO hiNPCs. (A) UMAP representation of the different cell subtypes identified in 2D hiNPC cultures after 6 weeks of differentiation using snRNA-seq. (B) Proportion of cell subpopulations in both genotypes. (C) Dot plot representing expression of key markers used to annotate cell subtypes. (D) Volcano plot representing DEGs comparing *BIN1* KO vs WT glutamatergic neurons. DEGs with adjusted p-value <0.05 and $|\log_2FC| >0.25$ are shown in red. (E) Functional enrichment analysis of DEGs identified in glutamatergic neurons. Bar plots representing the top 10 enriched GO terms in each category at $p_{adj}<0.01$.

Sup. Figure 3: Normal APP processing in *BIN1* KO ASCL1-hiNs. (A) Western blots showing the expression of APP full-length, CTF- β and β -ACTIN at 4 weeks. (B) Quantification of the ratios APP/ β -ACTIN, CTF- β / β -ACTIN and CTF- β /APP ($n = 5$ for each genotype). (C) Quantification of soluble $A\beta_{1-x}$, $A\beta_{1-42}$ and the ratio $A\beta_{1-42}/A\beta_{1-x}$ in ASCL1-hiNs cultures at 3 and 4 weeks.

Sup. Figure 4: Normal glutamatergic transmission in *BIN1* KO ASCL1-hiNs. Box plots show the number of active spots per neuron and number of events detected by time-lapse video-microscopy in 4- or 6-week-old ASCL1-hiNs cultures transduced with the glutamate sensor iGLUSnFr (4 weeks: $n = 378$ *BIN1* WT and 266 *BIN1* KO ASCL1-hiNs; 6 weeks: $n = 685$ *BIN1* WT and 629 *BIN1* KO ASCL1-hiNs).

Sup. Figure 5: Increased spike burst frequency in *BIN1* KO ASCL1-hiNs. (A) Bright-field image of ASCL1-hiNs cultures in microfluidic/MEA devices showing the cell chamber and micro channels. Neuron somata are mainly restricted to the cell chamber, whereas neuronal processes occupy microchannels. (B) Representative raster plots showing detected spikes in electrophysiological recordings of electrodes underneath the cell chamber and the micro channels, showing the higher sensitivity of the latter. (C) Raster plots showing MUA recorded for 1 minute in *BIN1* WT and KO ASCL1-hiNs after 4 weeks of differentiation. Each line represents one electrode localized side-by-side in our microfluidic/MEA array (as in panel A). (D-E) Quantification of the number of detected spikes at different time points ($*p_{\text{adj}}=0.0141$; $***p_{\text{adj}}=0.0006$; Two-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's multiple-comparison test; $n = 5$ for each genotype). (F) Quantification of the number of spike bursts at different time points ($**p=0.004$; $\#p=0.0888$; Mann-Whitney test).

Sup. Figure 6: Subtle increase in electrical activity in *BIN1* HET COs. (A) Representative raster plots showing detected spikes in 5-month-old *BIN1* WT and HET COs recorded in a multi-well MEA device. (B) Spike frequency in Hz ($n=4$ WT and 3 HET COs). (C) Proportions of glutamatergic neurons enriched for ARG signatures according to genotype ($***p<0.001$; Chi-squared test).

Sup. Figure 7: Expression of voltage-gated calcium channels in ASCL1-hiNs. (A) Violin plots showing the mRNA levels of Cav1 and Cav2 members of the voltage-gated calcium channel families L-type, P/Q-type, N-type and R-type detected in ASCL1 hiNs. (B) Images showing PLA spots using anti-BIN1 and anti-Cav1.3 antibodies in 4-week-old *BIN1* WT hiNs. Cells were also immunolabeled for the neuronal marker MAP2 (green), the astrocyte marker GFAP (white), and stained with DAPI (blue). (C) Western blots showing the expression of Cav1.3, Cav2.1, Cav2.2 and Cav2.3 in 4-week-old ASCL1h hiNs. (D) Quantification of protein expression.

Sup. Movies 1 and 2: Time-series of 1000 frames taken from *BIN1* WT and KO ASCL1-hiNs transduced with iGLUSnFr after 2 weeks of differentiation and imaged 2 weeks later. Videos are played at 100 fps.

Sup. Movies 3 and 4: Time-series of 1000 frames taken from *BIN1* WT and KO ASCL1-hiNs after 4 weeks of differentiation and labeled with Oregon Green BAPTA and imaged. Videos are played at 100 frames per second (fps).

Sup. Table 1: DEGs identified in different cell types/subtypes of COs.

Sup. Table 2: GO terms enriched for DEGs identified in different cell types/subtypes of COs.

Sup. Table 3: DEGs identified in different cell types/subtypes of ASCL1-hiNs cultures.

Sup. Table 4: GO terms enriched for DEGs identified in different cell types/subtypes of ASCL1-hiNs cultures.

Sup. Table 5: DEGs identified in different cell types/subtypes of the AD brain.

Sup. Table 6: GO terms enriched for DEGs commonly identified in *BIN1* HET or KO cells and the AD brain.

Sup. Table 7: List of ARGs used for Multiple Correspondence Analysis (MCA) in Cell-ID.

Online methods

Maintenance of cells and generation of hiNPCs and hiNs

hiPSCs modified for BIN1 in exon3 by CRISPR/Cas9 technology were sourced from Applied StemCell Inc. CA, USA. In addition to the BIN1 WT and KO hiPSCs, heterozygous (HET) iPSCs, harbouring a 1 bp insertion in one allele were also sourced Applied Stem Cells Inc. CA, USA. The parental cell line used for derivation of the cells was ASE 9109. The maintenance of these cells and the generation of hiNS, hiAs, and COs thereof, have been detailed in the publication by Lambert et al., 2022. All hiPSCs and their neuronal and glial cell derivatives including COs were maintained in media from Stemcell Technologies, Vancouver, Canada. Maintenance of cell cultures and COs were done following manufacturer's protocols which have been elucidated on the webpage of Stemcell Technologies. In addition, the embryoid body method detailed by Stemcell Technologies was used for the induction of BIN1 WT and KO hiPSCs. Cell numbers and viability were recorded using a LUNA™ Automated Cell Counter (Logos Biosystems, South Korea).

hiNs generated from ASCL1-transduced hiNPCs (protocol detailed in next section) were subjected to differentiation for 4 weeks. All differentiations were performed in tissue in 24-well cell imaging plates (0030741005, Eppendorf) culture dishes pre-coated with Poly-L-ornithine (P4957, Sigma-Aldrich) and Mouse Laminin (CC095, Sigma-Aldrich).

Differentiation protocol for induced hiNPCs

We differentiated neurons from virus-transduced hiNPCs according to an adapted protocol (Zhang et al., 2013; Yang et al., 2017). Briefly, hiNPCs are first transfected with the

TTA lentiviral construct and a passage later, the TetO-Ascl1-Puro lentiviral construct was transduced. These cells are maintained in NPM medium and expanded prior to differentiation. For differentiation of hiNs, hiNPCs are plated onto PLO/laminin-coated imaging plates at density 100,000 cells/well in NPM. After 24h, complete BrainPhys medium (BP) is added 1:1 together with 2 µg/mL doxycycline (Sigma-Aldrich) to induce TetO gene expression. The following day, 1 µg/mL puromycin (Sigma-Aldrich) was added to start cell selection. After 2-3 days (depending on the efficiency of antibiotic selection), 50,000 human cortical astrocytes were added in each well with BrainPhys containing doxycycline. After 24 hours, 2 µM of Ara-C (Cytosine β-D-arabinofuranoside) (Sigma-Aldrich) was added to arrest the proliferation of astrocytes. Half of the medium in each well was changed biweekly with fresh BrainPhys medium (StemCell Technologies) containing doxycycline until the 14th day. After that, the biweekly medium change was performed only with BrainPhys. Differentiation was allowed to continue for another 2 weeks prior to subjecting the cells to various experimental manipulations.

Human cortical astrocytes (Catalog # 1800) were sourced from ScienCell Research Laboratories, CA, USA. Maintenance and proliferation of astrocytes were done as per specifications mentioned on the datasheet from the provider which is available on their webpage.

This culture system was characterized using snRNA-seq showing that 70% of cells (n=3114 from 2 independent culture batches) expressed the pan-neuronal markers SOX11, SNAP25, DCX and RBFOX3, with 66% of cells co-expressing the glutamatergic neuron marker SLC17A6, less than 1.5% of cells co-expressing the GABAergic neuron markers DLX1, GAD1 and GAD2, and 5% of cells co-expressing low levels of markers of both neuronal subtypes. The remaining cells, immature astrocytes (Astro-I), mature astrocytes (Astro-II) and undifferentiated NPCs, represented about 15%, 8%, 4% of the cells, respectively. The first two cell populations likely represent two different states of astrocytes added to the cultures, whereas NPCs are likely cells that failed to reprogram into hiNs despite ASCL1 transduction.

Culture of Induced Neurons (hiNs) in Microfluidic Devices

Preparation of Microfluidic Devices: Three-compartment microfluidic neuron culture devices were used in which the presynaptic and postsynaptic chambers are connected to

the synaptic chamber by respectively long and short micro-channels. Details of the microfluidic device design and fabrication have been previously described (Kilinc et al, 2020).

The homemade devices were placed individually in Petri dishes for easy handling and UV sterilized for 30 min before coating for cell adhesion. The primary surface coating consisted of poly-L-lysine (Sigma-Aldrich) at 20 µg/mL in borate buffer (0.31% boric acid, 0.475% sodium tetraborate, pH 8.5). All coated devices were incubated overnight at 37°C, 5% CO₂. After a wash with DPBS, devices were then coated with 20 µg/mL laminin in DPBS and incubated overnight at 37°C in 5% CO₂. The following day, devices were carefully washed once with DPBS before cell plating.

Cell Culture: In total, 30,000 NPCs resuspended in complete Neural Progenitor Medium (NPM, Stemcell Technologies) containing 10 µM of Y-27632 ROCK inhibitor were seeded per device, half at the entrance of the presynaptic somatic chamber and half at the entrance of the postsynaptic somatic chamber. Microfluidic devices were microscopically checked at the phase contrast to ensure the cells were correctly flowing into chambers. After a minimum of 5 minutes to allow the cells to attach, devices were filled with NPM (containing 10 µM of Y-27632 ROCK Inhibitor). Water was added to the Petri dishes to prevent media evaporation, and these were then incubated at 37°C in a humidified 5% CO₂ incubator. The spontaneous neuronal differentiation of NPCs started 24 hours later, initiated by half medium change with complete BrainPhys Neuronal Medium. Induced neuron cultures were maintained for 4 to 6 weeks with half of the medium replaced biweekly with BrainPhys medium.

For induced neuron culture from NPCs transduced for Ascl1, doxycycline (2 µg/mL) was added on the first day of half medium change to induce TetO gene expression. The following day, puromycin (1 µg/mL) was added to start cell selection. Two days after the puromycin selection, a total of 5,000 human cortical astrocytes (ScienCell Research Laboratories, CA, USA) were added per device. After 24 hours, Ara-C (2 µM) was added to stop their proliferation. Half of the medium was changed twice a week with complete BrainPhys medium + 2 µg/mL doxycycline for 14 days. After that, half medium change was performed only with BrainPhys medium.

Four microfluidic devices were employed for each experimental condition (*BIN1* KO vs WT both for spontaneous neuronal differentiation and Ascl1 induction) and two

independent cultures were performed. To assess the time-course effect, neuron cultures were stopped at 4 and 6 weeks.

Generation of Cerebral Organoids

Cerebral organoids (3D Cultures) were generated from wild-type, heterozygous and knockout hiPSCs using a 4-stage protocol (Lancaster et al., 2013). The first step was the Embryoid Body (EB) Formation Stage, where hiPSCs at 80%-90% confluency were detached from the Vitronectin XF substrate using Accutase (#AT-104, Innovative Cell Technologies). To form the EB, 9000 cells were plated per well in a 96-well round-bottom ultra-low attachment plate containing EB seeding medium (Stem Cell Technologies). After two days, the EBs were transferred to a 24-well ultra-low attachment plate containing Induction Medium (Stem Cell Technologies), where each well receives 1-2 EBs. This was the Induction Stage. Two days later, the EBs were ready for the Expansion Stage. The EBs were embedded in Matrigel (Corning) and transferred to a 24-well ultra-low adherent plate with Expansion Medium (Stem Cell Technologies). After three days, the medium was replaced by Maturation Medium (Stem Cell Technologies) and the plate was placed in an orbital shaker (100 rpm speed). During this final Maturation Phase, 75% medium change was done on a biweekly basis. Organoids were allowed to mature for a period of 6.5 months.

Viral Transductions

Lentiviral constructs were produced by the Vect'UB platform within the TBM Core unit at University of Bordeaux, Bordeaux, France (CNRS UMS 3427, INSERM US 005). The lentiviral constructs used were TTA (ID # 571) and TetO-Ascl1-Puro (Addgene, Plasmid # 97329). Lentiviral infections were done in NPCs at P3 or P4. The viral constructs were transduced at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 2.5. In brief, NPCs were plated at a confluency of 1x10⁶ cells per well of a 6-well plate. After 4 hours of plating the cells, appropriate volumes of each lentiviral construct were mixed in complete Neural Progenitor medium and 50 µl of the viral medium mix was then added to each well. We transduced the TTA construct at first in the NPCs. Following one passage, the TTA-transduced cells were transduced with the construct for Ascl1. Cells having both viral constructs were then further expanded for 1 or 2 passages before being used for differentiation into hiNs.

The iGluSnFR construct was an adeno-associated viral vector (BS11-COG-AAV8) sourced from Vigene Biosciences, MD, USA. The viral construct was transduced at a MOI of 5,000 at around 10 days of differentiation for the ASCL1-hiNs. Differentiation was allowed to continue for a duration of 4 weeks prior to imaging.

Immunocytochemistry and Immunohistochemistry

Bidimensional (2D) cultures: All cells were fixed in 4% (w/v) paraformaldehyde (Electron Microscopy Sciences, Catalog # 15712) for 10 minutes in the imaging plates. Following, fixation, cells were washed thrice with PBS 0.1 M. Blocking solution (5% normal donkey serum + 0.1% Triton X-100 in PBS 0.1 M) was added to fixed cells at room temperature for 1 hour under shaking conditions. After the blocking step, primary antibodies were added to cells in the blocking solution and incubated overnight at 4°C. The following day, cells were washed with PBS 0.1 M thrice for 10 mins. Each. Alexa Fluor®--conjugated secondary antibodies in blocking solution were then incubated with the cells for 2 hours at room temperature under shaking conditions ensuring protection from light. Subsequently, 3 washes with 0.1 M PBS were done for 10 min each at room temperature under shaking conditions with protection from light. Hoechst 33258 solution was added during the second PBS wash. Cells were mounted with Aqua-Poly/Mount (Polysciences, Inc.) and imaged directly in the cell imaging plates. All images were acquired using an LSM 880 Confocal Scanning Microscope housed at the Imaging Platform of the Pasteur Institute, Lille. Duolink® Proximity Ligation Assays (PLA) was used to detect endogenous Protein-Protein Interactions. The following pairs of antibodies were used: anti-BIN1 (rabbit, 182562, abcam) and anti-Cav1.2 (mouse, 84814, abcam); or anti-BIN1 and anti-Cav1.3 (mouse, 85491, mouse). Other antibodies used for immunocytochemistry were: MAP2 (188006 and 188004, Synaptic Systems), Beta III Tubulin (MAB1637, Sigma-Aldrich), GFAP (AB5804, Millipore; and 173006, Synaptic Systems). All Alexa Fluor®-tagged secondary antibodies were sourced from Jacscon ImmunoResearch Europe Ltd.

Microfluidic Devices: Cultured induced neurons were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde in PBS for 15 min at room temperature, washed three times with PBS, and permeabilized with 0.3% Triton X-100 in PBS for 5 min at room temperature. Cells were blocked in PBS containing 5% normal donkey serum for 1 h at room temperature before overnight incubation at 4°C with the following primary antibodies: MAP2 (188006, Synaptic Systems);

HOMER1 (160004, Synaptic Systems), Synaptophysin (101011, Synaptic Systems), and GFAP (AB5804, Millipore). Cells were washed twice with PBS and incubated with the following secondary antibodies for 2h at room temperature: DyLight™ 405 Donkey Anti-Chicken (703-475-155, Jackson ImmunoResearch), Alexa Fluor 594 Donkey Anti-Guinea Pig (706-585-148, Jackson ImmunoResearch), Alexa Fluor 488 Donkey Anti-Mouse (715-545-151, Jackson ImmunoResearch) and Alexa Fluor 647 Donkey Anti-Rabbit (711-605-152, Jackson ImmunoResearch). Cells were rinsed three times with PBS and microfluidic devices were mounted with 90% glycerol.

Samples were imaged with a LSM 880 confocal microscope with a 63X 1.4 NA objective. Images were acquired at zoom 2 in z-stacks of 0.5 μ m interval. Typically, 6 images were acquired per device from the synapse chamber near the postsynaptic chamber such the image contains multiple dendrites. Images were deconvoluted using the Huygens software (Scientific Volume Imaging, Netherlands).

Cerebral Organoids: Cerebral organoids were fixed in 4% PFA (w/v) for 30 min at 4°C followed by three washes with PBS 0.1 M. Cerebral organoids were then placed in sucrose solution (30% w/v) overnight before being embedded in O.C.T (Tissue-Tek). Embedded tissue was sectioned at 20 μ m using a Cryostar NX70 Cryostat (Thermo Scientific) and mounted slides were stored at -80°C until immunostaining was performed. For immunostaining, tissue sections were brought to room temperature and then rehydrated with 3 washes with 0.1 M PBS, each for 5 mins. Slides were then washed once with PBS with 0.2% Triton X-100 for 15 mins. Tissue was blocked using 10% of donkey serum in PBS 0.1 M for 1 h at room temperature. After blocking, primary antibodies were added to 0.2 % Triton X-100 and 10% of donkey serum in PBS 0.1 M at appropriate dilutions and incubated overnight at 4°C. The next day, slides were washed with PBS 0.1 M 3 times for 5 min each with gentle shaking. Subsequently, slides were incubated with Alexa Fluor®-conjugated secondary antibodies in 0.2 % Triton X-100 and 10% of donkey serum in PBS 0.1 M for 2 h at room temperature in the dark. After secondary antibody incubation, slides were washed 3 times with PBS for 5 min with gentle shanking. Nuclei were visualized by incubating the tissue for 5 min with Hoechst 33258 stain in PBS 0.1 M. Sections were mounted using aqueous mounting medium (Polysciences). Images were acquired using an LSM 880 Confocal Scanning Microscope in concert with the ZEISS ZEN imaging software housed at the Imaging Platform of the Pasteur Institute, Lille. Image acquisition was done at 40X for the

various cellular markers in Fig. 1. The antibodies used were MAP2 (188006, Synaptic Systems) and GFAP (AB5804, Sigma-Aldrich).

Quantification of Synaptic Connectivity

Synaptic connectivity was quantified as previously described (Kilinc et al, 2020). Briefly, images were analyzed with Imaris software (Bitplane, Zürich, Switzerland) by reconstructing Synaptophysin I and HOMER1 puncta in 3D. The volume and position information of all puncta were processed using a custom Matlab (MathWorks, Natick, MA) program. This program assigns each postsynaptic spot to the nearest presynaptic spot (within a distance threshold of $1\mu\text{m}$) and calculates the number of such assignments for all presynaptic puncta.

Immunoblotting

Samples from the 2D cultures or brain organoids were collected in RIPA buffer containing protease and phosphatase inhibitors (Complete mini, Roche Applied Science) and sonicated several times at 60%-70% for 10 seconds prior to use for the immunoblotting analyses. Protein quantification was performed using the BCA protein assay (ThermoFisher Scientific). 10 μg of protein from extracts were separated in NuPAGE 4-12% Bis-Tris Gel 1.0mm (NP0321BOX, Thermo Scientific) or 3-8% Tri-Acetate gel (EA03755BOX, Thermo Scientific) and transferred on to nitrocellulose membranes 0.2 μm (#1704158, Bio-Rad). Next, membranes were incubated in milk (5% in Tris-buffered saline with 0.1% Tween-20 (TBST)) or SuperBlock (37536, ThermoFisher Scientific) to block non-specific binding sites for 1 hour at room temperature, followed by several washes with TBST 0.1% or TNT 1x as washing buffers. Immunoblottings were carried out with primary antibodies overnight at 4°C under shaking condition. The membranes were washed three times in the washing buffer, followed by incubation with HRP-conjugated secondary antibodies for 2 hours at room temperature under shaking condition. The membranes were washed three times in washing buffer, and the immune reactivity was revealed using the ECL chemiluminescence system (SuperSignal, ThermoScientific) and imaged using the Amersham Imager 600 (GE Life Sciences). Optical densities of bands were quantified using the Gel Analyzer plugin in Fiji-ImageJ. The primary antibodies used for the immunoblots were as follows: BIN1 (ab182562, Abcam), APP C-terminal (A8717, Sigma-Aldrich), Tau (A002401-2, Agilent)

Phospho-Tau(Clone: AT8) (MN1020,ThermoFisher Scientific), CaV1.3 (CACNA1D) (ACC-005, Alomone), CaV2.1 (CACNA1A) (ACC-001, Alomone), CaV2.2 (CACNA1B) (ACC-002, Alomone), CaV2.3 (CACNA1E) (ACC-006, Alomone), CaV1.2 (CACNA1C) (AGP-001 and ACC-003, Alomone), blocking peptide for Anti-CaV1.2 (CACNA1C) (BLP-CC003, Alomone) and β -ACTIN (A1978, Sigma-Aldrich). Secondary antibodies used for the immunoblots were Mouse-HRP (115-035-003, Jackson ImmunoResearch), Rabbit-HRP (111-035-003, Jackson ImmunoResearch), and Guinea pig-HRP (106-035-003, Jackson ImmunoResearch).

Activity-dependent endocytosis assay

ASCL1-hiNs (n=9 cultures from each genotype) were subjected to 30 min of depolarization with 65 mM KCl or a mock treatment. Cells were then collected and pulled for endosomal fraction purification using the Minute™ Endosome Isolation and Cell Fractionation Kit (Invent Biotechnologies). Western blot was performed as described above.

AlphaLISA measurements

Cell culture media samples for AlphaLISA measurements were collected at the end of the 3rd and 4th weeks of differentiation of the ASCL1-hiNs. Alpha-LISA kits specific for human A β 1-X (AL288C, PerkinElmer) and A β 1-42 (AL276C, PerkinElmer) were used to measure the amount of A β 1-X and A β 1-42 respectively in culture media. The human A β analyte standard was diluted in the BrainPhys medium. For the assay, 2 μ L of cell culture medium or standard solution was added to an Optiplate-384 microplate (PerkinElmer). 2 μ L of 10X mixture including acceptor beads and biotinylated antibody was then added to the wells with culture media or standard solution. Following incubation at room temperature for an hour, 16 μ L of 1.25X donor beads was added to respective wells and incubated at room temperature for 1 hour. Luminescence was measured using an EnVision-Alpha Reader (PerkinElmer) at 680-nm excitation and 615-nm emission wavelengths.

Calcium and iGluSnFR Imaging

Calcium imaging was performed in 2D cultures after 4-weeks (Ascl1-induced). Prior to imaging, the cells were incubated with Oregon Green™ 488 BAPTA-1 (OGB-1) acetoxymethyl (AM) (ThermoFisher Scientific) for 1 hour. A 2.5 mM stock solution of the calcium-indicator dye was prepared in Pluronic™ F-127 (20% solution in DMSO) (ThermoFisher Scientific). 1 μ L

of the dye solution was added to 400 μ L of fresh BrainPhys medium in each well of a 24-well cell imaging plate. Existing BrainPhys media from the wells of the plate was removed and kept aside while the calcium-indicator dye was incubated in fresh BrainPhys medium. After the 1-hour incubation, the medium which was kept aside was replaced to each well. The 2D cultures were then ready to be filmed using a Spinning Disk Microscope housed at the Institut Pasteur de Lille, Lille, France using the MetaMorph imaging software.

For filming the calcium activity, 1000 images were taken using a 20X long-distance objective, 10 ms exposure time and 200ms intervals. For each well, 5 random fields were chosen, and the cellular activity was, thus, recorded.

For cells transduced with iGluSnFR, these cells were directly filmed after 4 weeks of differentiation and 500 images were taken using a 20X long-distance objective, 10 ms exposure time and 200ms intervals. Up to 8 fields per well were filmed, each field containing at least one fluorescent transduced cell along with its processes.

Analyses of Calcium Transients

All live recordings of neuronal calcium transients were first converted into .avi format after background subtraction using the FIJI software. Following these, the videos were subsequently opened using the free software for data analyses of calcium imaging, CALciumIMagingAnalyzer (CALIMA) made available online by Fer Radstake (Eindhoven University of Technology, The Netherlands). Each video recording of a field of cells was first downscaled to 2X in terms of size with a 10X zoom and was checked for the frame average mode. Moreover, in this first detection stage, pre-set filter parameters were adjusted and applied to enable the detection of the maximum number of fluorescent cells in each field. In the analysis tab, detection of the average activity was checked and for pre-processing, a median of 3 was applied. All cells within the pre-set filter parameters are detected as regions of interest (ROIs) in the detection stage. Cell activity from all detected ROIs is then recorded. However, in the subsequent analysis stage, only cells showing spiking frequencies with a standard deviation of at least 2 or more were taken into consideration. Data in the form of detection spikes and the correlation (peak) are extracted and exported as CSV files.

Electrophysiological recordings in 2D cultures and cerebral organoids

ASCL1-hiNs were cultured in the aforementioned microfluidic devices bound to multi-electrode arrays (256MEA100/30iR-ITO, Multi-Channel Systems, Germany). Extracellular action potentials were recorded in 5 different cultures for both genotypes at 2, 3, 4 and 6 weeks of differentiation using the MEA2100-256-System (Multi-Channel Systems). Before recordings, MEAs were let stabilize for 5 min on the headstage to reduce artifacts due to medium movement. Signals were recorded for 1 min, at 40 kHz sampling rate, using Multi Channel Experimenter 2.16.0 software (Multi-Channel Systems). Electrical activity in cerebral organoids was recorded using 256-6wellMEA200/30iR-ITO (Multi-Channel Systems, Germany). Briefly, 5-6-month-old cerebral organoids were mounted onto MEAs and kept for 2 h in complete Brainphys medium. Then, MEAs were placed on the headstage and let stabilize for 5 min before recordings. Signals were recorded for 5 min, at 10 kHz sampling rate using Multi-Channel Experimenter 2.16.0. For rescue experiments using a calcium channel blocker, ASCL1-hiNs were cultured MEA 96-well plates (CytoView MEA 96, Axion Biosystems, USA). Extracellular action potentials were recorded in 3 independent cultures for either genotype in the presence of 50nM nifedipine (Tocris Bioscience) or vehicle using the MaestroPro (Axion Biosystems, Inc, USA). Before recordings, MEAs were let stabilize for 5 min on the MaestroPro at 37°C and 5% CO₂. Signals were recorded for 3 min, at 12.5 kHz sampling rate, using AxIS Navigator software (Axion Biosystems).

Spikes were detected using a fixed amplitude threshold of 5.5 and 4.5 standard deviations (for the 2D and 3D cultures, respectively) of the high-pass filtered (>300 Hz) signal for positive- and negative-going signals. The detection included a dead time of 3 ms to account for the refractory period of action potentials. Quantification of the number of detected spikes (MUAs) and spike bursts (defined as at least 5 spikes within 50 ms) was performed using Multi-Channel Analyzer 2.16.0 software (Multi-Channel Systems).

Spike sorting and temporal structure of spontaneous activity

Channels containing detected waveforms were manually processed offline for spike waveform separation and classification using Offline Sorter v3 (Plexon, USA). Briefly, we applied principal component analysis (PCA) to cluster spike waveforms of similar morphologies. Using this approach, we identified from 2 to 10 well-isolated units per channel, and therefore, we considered this single-unit activity (SUA). For each SUA, we computed the average firing rate, the signal-to-noise ratio, the peak-to-trough amplitude

and duration, the average power (square amplitude of the average waveform), the mode of the interspike interval distribution, and their firing patterns. It has been demonstrated that dissociated neuronal cultures can develop complex discharge structures (Wagenaar, 2006). Here, we considered burst activity if the SUA presents periods of high-frequency discharges interspersed by regular or no discharges at all. Operationally, a burst must have at least 3 spikes within 100 ms and 200 ms intervals, for the interval between the first and the second, and the second and the third discharge, respectively. After the third spike, the maximal interval to consider a discharge part of the burst was 200 ms. Thus, we computed the SUA that presented bursts, the number of bursts (i.e., the burst frequency), the average burst duration, the number of spikes within each burst, the average burst frequency, and the inter-burst interval.

Two complementary approaches investigated the temporal structures of spike trains. In the first one, we computed the array-wide spike detection rate (ASDR), which is the number of spikes detected per unit of time, summed over all electrodes in the array. This method is commonly used in the literature to demonstrate synchronous activity (aka, bursts) in MUA data (Wagenaar 2006). The second approach uses the autocorrelation function (i.e., the probability of finding two spikes at a given time interval) to calculate the oscillation score and the oscillation period of every single unit (Muresan 2008:1333, J Neurophysiol). Briefly, the oscillation score was calculated as the averaged absolute magnitude difference between the positive and negative peaks of the smoothed autocorrelation function (bin size of 200 ms). The oscillation period was calculated as the averaged time interval of the positive peaks of the autocorrelation function.

snRNA-seq Library Preparation

Nuclei isolation and Hash-tagging with oligonucleotides steps were realized on ice with pre-cold buffers and centrifugations at 4°C. 6.5-month-old BIN1 WT, HET, and KO organoids were processed as previously (Lambert et al., 2022). 4-week-old cultured ASCL1-induced BIN1 WT and KO 2D cultures were washed in the imaging plate wells with 500 µL of Deionized Phosphate Buffer Saline 1X (DPBS, GIBCO™, Fisher Scientific 11590476). Cells were resuspended with wide bore tips in 500 µL Lysis Buffer (Tris-HCL 10mM, NaCl 10mM, MgCl₂ 3mM, Tween-20 0,1%, Nonidet P40 Substitute 0,1%, Digitonin 0,01%, BSA 1%, Invitrogen™ RNAseout™ recombinant ribonuclease inhibitor 0,04 U/µL). Multiple

mechanical resuspensions in this buffer were performed for a total lysis time of 15 mins., 500 μ L of washing buffer was added (Tris-HCL 10mM, NaCl 10 mM, MgCl₂ 3 mM, Tween-20 0.1%, BSA 1%, Invitrogen™ RNaseout™ recombinant ribonuclease inhibitor 0,04 U/ μ L) and the lysis suspension was centrifuged 8 mins. at 500 g (used for all following centrifugation steps). Nuclei pellets were washed three times with one filtration step by MACS pre-separation filter 20 μ m (Miltenyi Biotec). Nuclei pellets were resuspended in 100 μ L of staining buffer (DPBS BSA 2%, Tween-20 0.01%), 10 μ L of Fc blocking reagent HumanTruStainFc™ (422302, Biolegend) and incubated 5 min at 4°C. 1 μ L of antibody was added (Total-Seq™-A0453 anti-Vertebrate Nuclear Hashtag 3 MAb414 for the WT and Total-Seq™-A0454 anti-Vertebrate Nuclear Hashtag 4 MAb414 for the KO, 97286 and 97287 respectively, Biolegend) and incubated 15 mins. at 4°C. Nuclei pellets were washed three times in staining buffer with one filtration step by MACS pre-separation filter 20 μ m (Miltenyi Biotec) to a final resuspension in 300 μ L of staining buffer for Malassez cell counting with Trypan blue counterstaining (Trypan Blue solution, 11538886, Fisherscientific). Isolated nuclei were loaded on a Chromium 10X genomics controller following the manufacturer protocol using the chromium single-cell v3 chemistry and single indexing and the adapted protocol by Biolegend for the HTO library preparation. The resulting libraries were pooled at equimolar proportions with a 9 for 1 ratio for Gene expression library and HTO library respectively. Finally, the pool was sequenced using 100pb paired-end reads on NOVAseq 6000 system following the manufacturer recommendations (Illumina).

snRNA-seq Dataset Preprocessing

Unique Molecular Index (UMI) Count Matrices for gene expression and for Hash Tag Oligonucleotide (HTO) libraries were generated using the CellRanger count (Feature Barcode) pipeline. Reads were aligned on the GRCh38-3.0.0 transcriptome reference (10x Genomics). Filtering for low quality cells according to the number of RNA, genes detected, and percentage of mitochondrial RNA was performed. For HTO sample, the HTO matrix was normalized using centered log-ratio (CLR) transformation and cells were assigned back to their sample of origin using HTODemux function of the Seurat R Package (v4)[10]. Then, normalizations of the gene expression matrix for cellular sequencing depth, mitochondrial

percentage and cell cycle phases using the variance stabilizing transformation (vst) based Seurat:SCTransform function were performed.

snRNA-seq datasets integration and annotation

To integrate the datasets from independent experiments, the harmony R package (<https://github.com/immunogenomics/harmony>) was used. In order to integrate the datasets, the SCTransform normalized matrices was merged and PCA was performed using Seurat::RunPCA default parameter. The 50 principal components (dimensions) of the PCA were corrected for batch effect using harmony::RunHarmony function. Then, the 30 first batch corrected dimensions were used as input for graph-based cell clustering and visualization tool. Seurat::FindNeighbors using default parameters and Seurat::FindClusters function using the Louvain algorithm were used to cluster cells according to their batch corrected transcriptomes similarities. To visualize the cells similarities in a 2-dimension space, the Seurat::RunUMAP function using default parameter was used. Cell clusters were then annotated based on cell type specific gene expression markers.

Differential gene expression and GO enrichment analyses

Gene expression within each main cell type was compared between conditions of interest using Wilcoxon test on the SCTransform normalized gene expression matrix. GO enrichment analysis on the differentially expressed genes was performed using the gost function of the gprofiler2 R package (CRAN).

Activity-related genes (ARGs) signature enrichment analysis at single cell resolution

To study enrichment for activity-related genes (ARGs) signature across cerebral organoid cells, the CellID R package (<https://github.com/RausellLab/CellID>) was used. ARGs obtained from Tyssowski et al. (2018) and Hravtin et al. (2018) (supplementary Table 7), were translated to the corresponding human gene name with the help of the biomaRt package using the respective Ensembl references. Then, the CellID::RunMCA was used to extract cell-specific gene signature and hypergeometric test was performed to test enrichment for ARGs in these cell signatures. To test the differential proportion of ARGs enriched cells in BIN1 deleted organoid compared to WT organoid, chi-squared test was performed.

1068

1069 *Comparative analysis with specific DEGs in AD brains*

1070 To compare the transcriptomic change observed in BIN1 deleted cerebral organoid
 1071 with those observed in AD brain, datasets from the work of Leng et al. (ref) and Morabito et
 1072 al. (ref) were taken as 2 independent references. The raw gene expression matrix was
 1073 normalized using Seurat::SCTransform and differential expression analysis was performed
 1074 within each neuronal cell type using Wilcoxon test as used for our organoid dataset. AD
 1075 related DEGs, thus, obtained were compared with our BIN1 related organoid DEGs in every
 1076 cell type. To this end, the enrichment for AD-related DEGs in BIN1-related DEGs was tested
 1077 using hypergeometric test. The background for this test was defined as all genes detected in
 1078 both datasets. The p-value of this test was used as metrics to compare the significance of
 1079 the gene overlap between neuronal cell types.

1080

1081 *Statistical analysis*

1082 Statistical analysis was performed using GraphPad Prism version 8.0.0 (GraphPad
 1083 Software, San Diego, California USA, www.graphpad.com) and R 4.2.0 (R Core Team, 2022,
 1084 <https://cran.r-project.org/bin/windows/base/old/4.2.0/>). Bar plots show mean \pm SD and
 1085 individual values. Box plots show 1-99 percentile. Statistical tests and p values are indicated
 1086 in figure legends.

1087

Figure 2

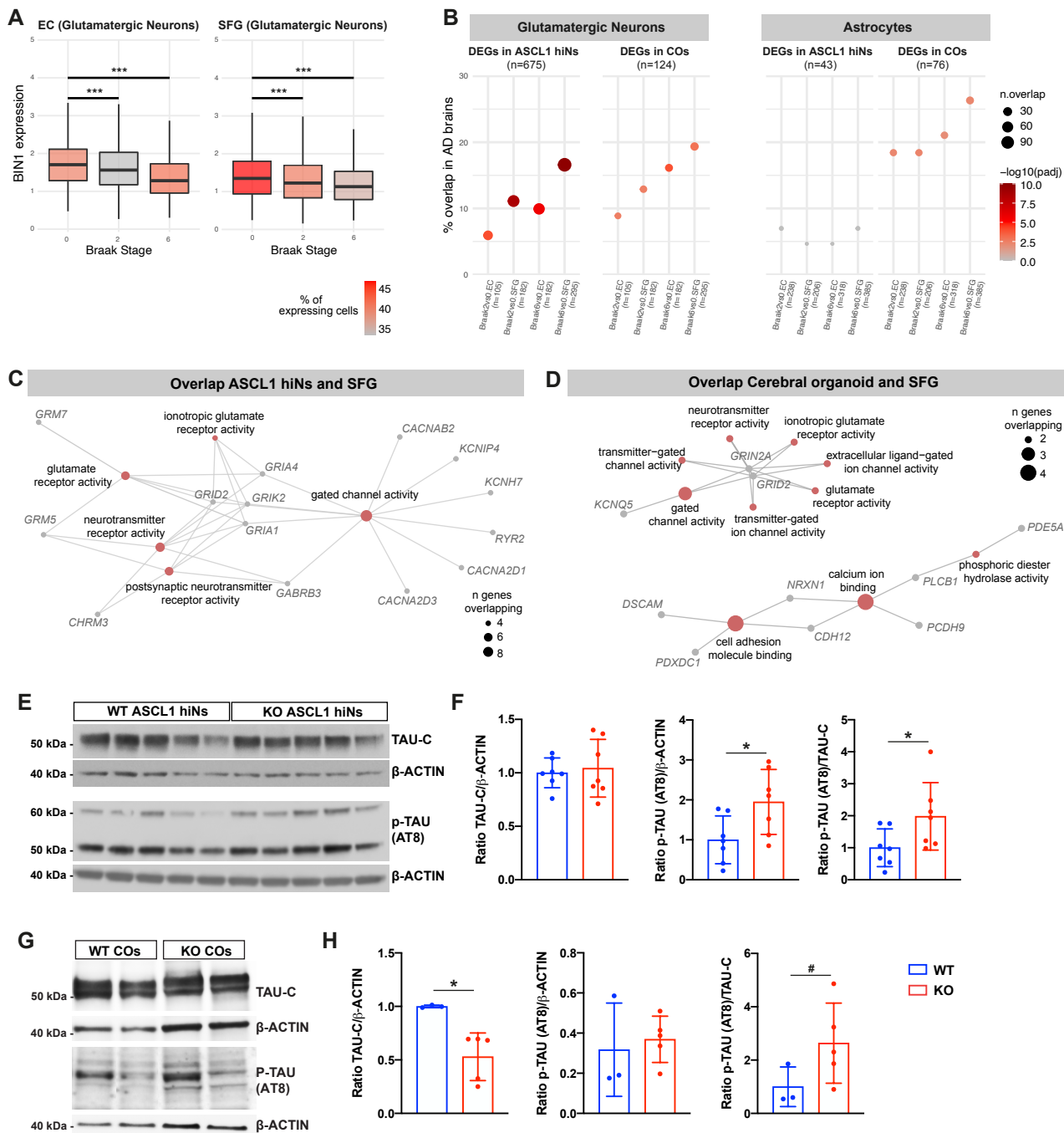
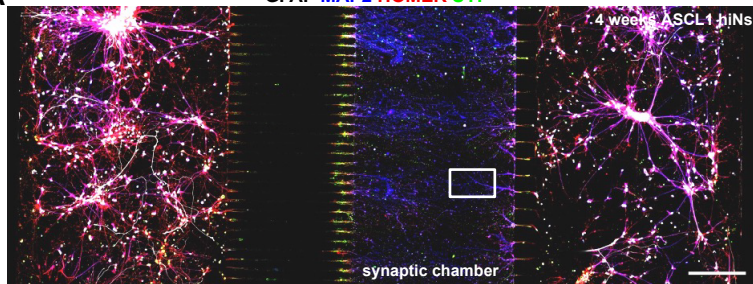


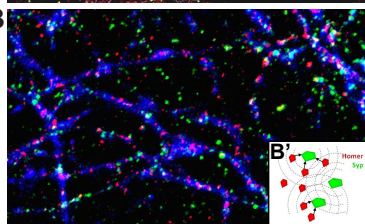
Figure 3

A

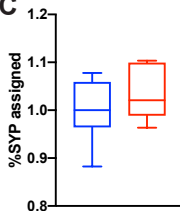
GFAP MAP2 HOMER SYP



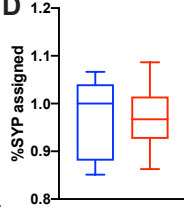
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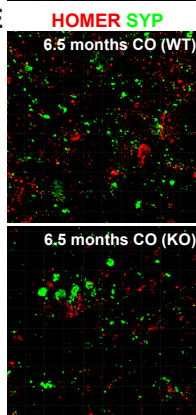
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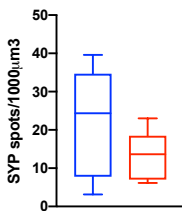
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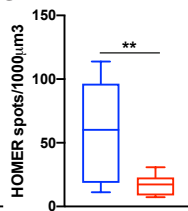
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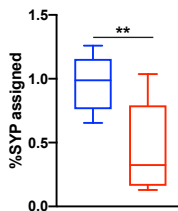
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G



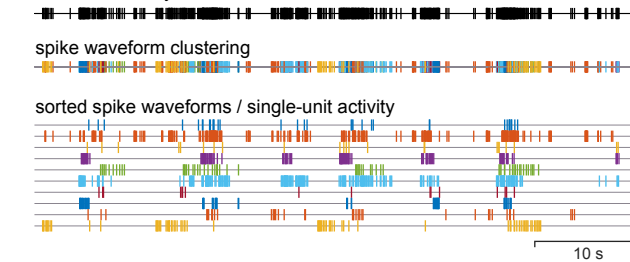
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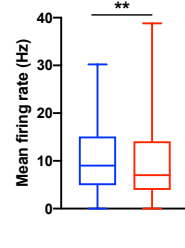
□ WT □ KO

Figure 4

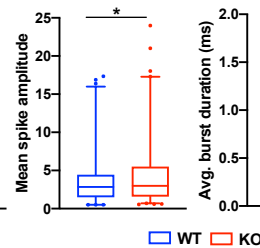
A multi-unit activity



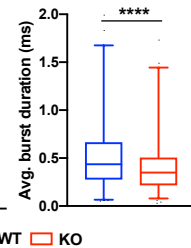
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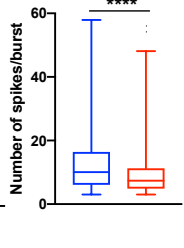
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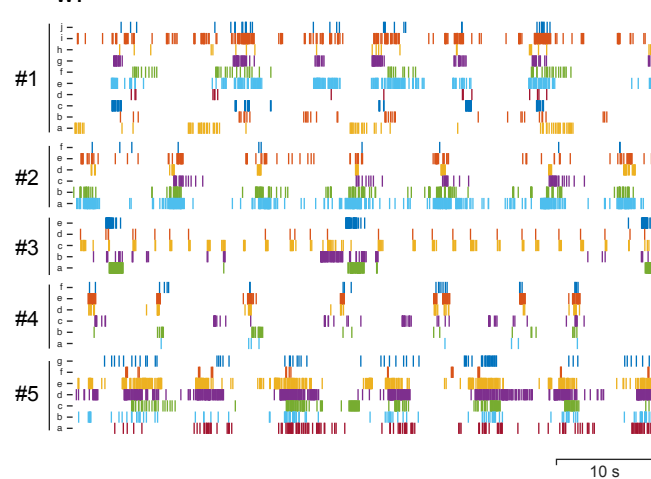
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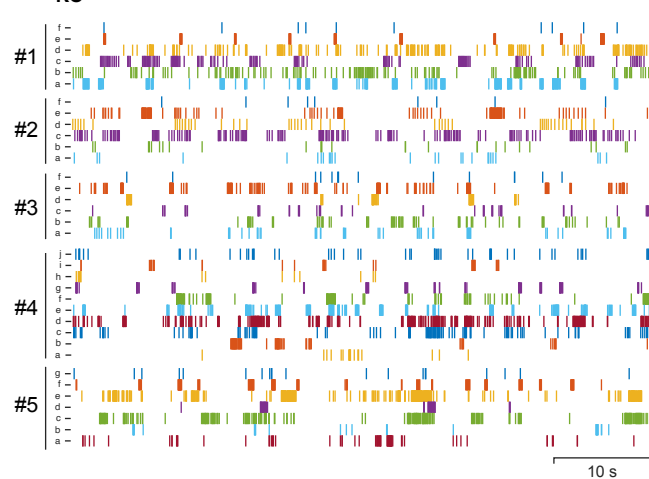
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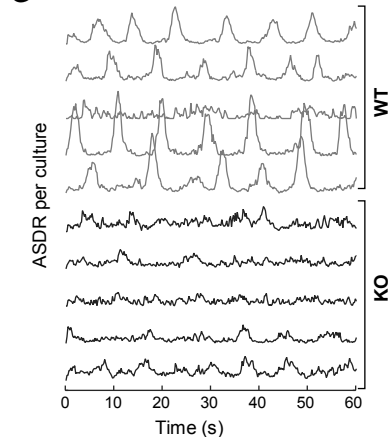
F WT



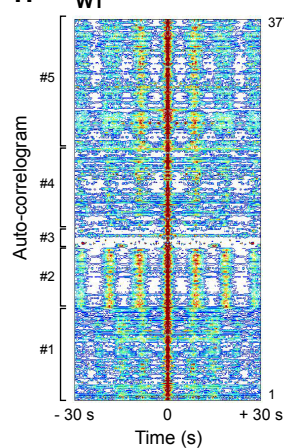
KO



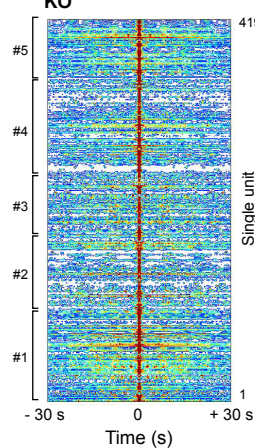
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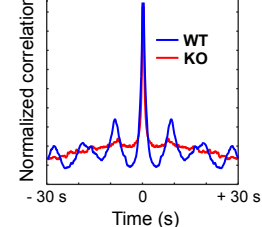
H WT



KO



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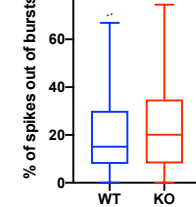


Figure 5

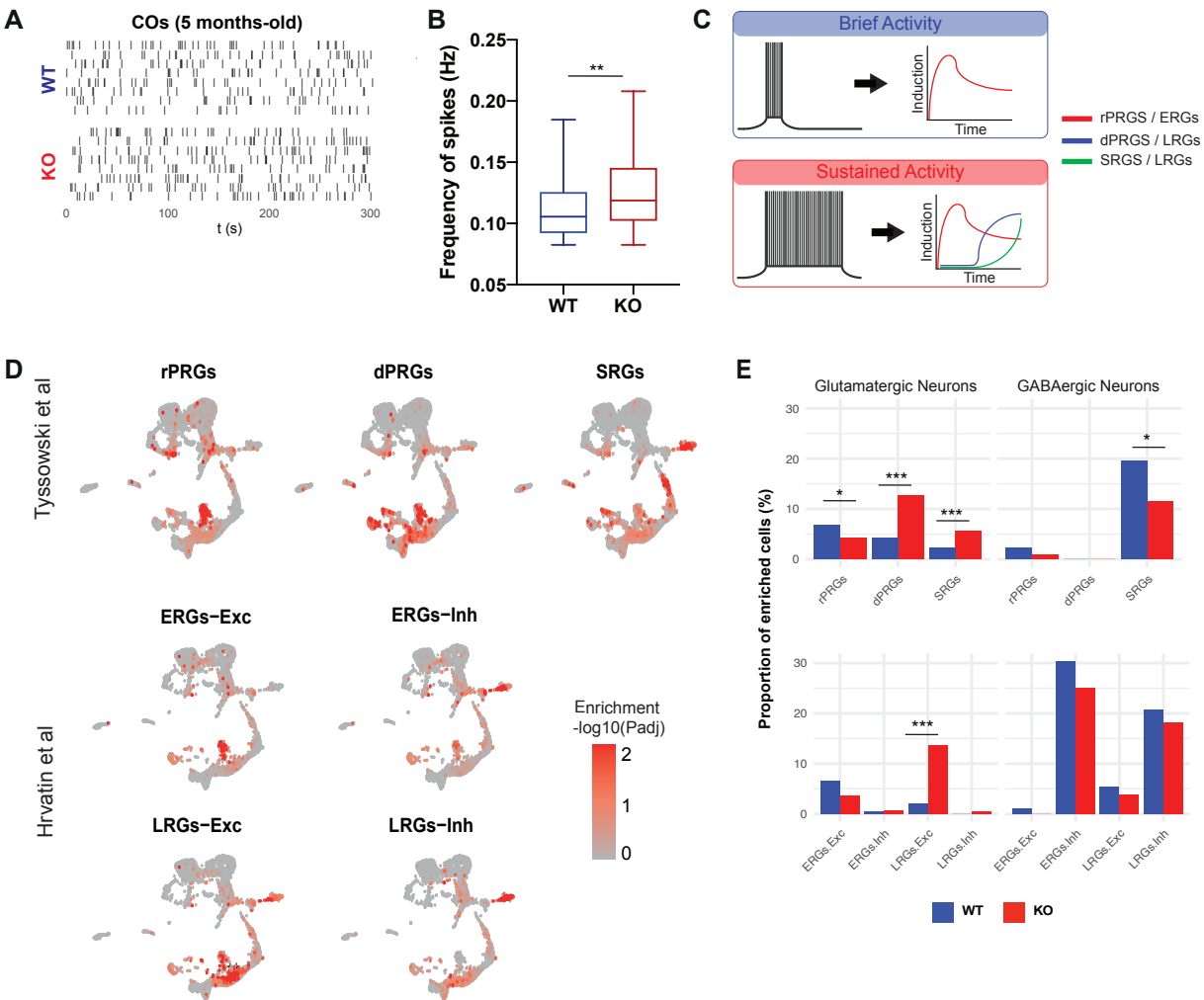


Figure 1

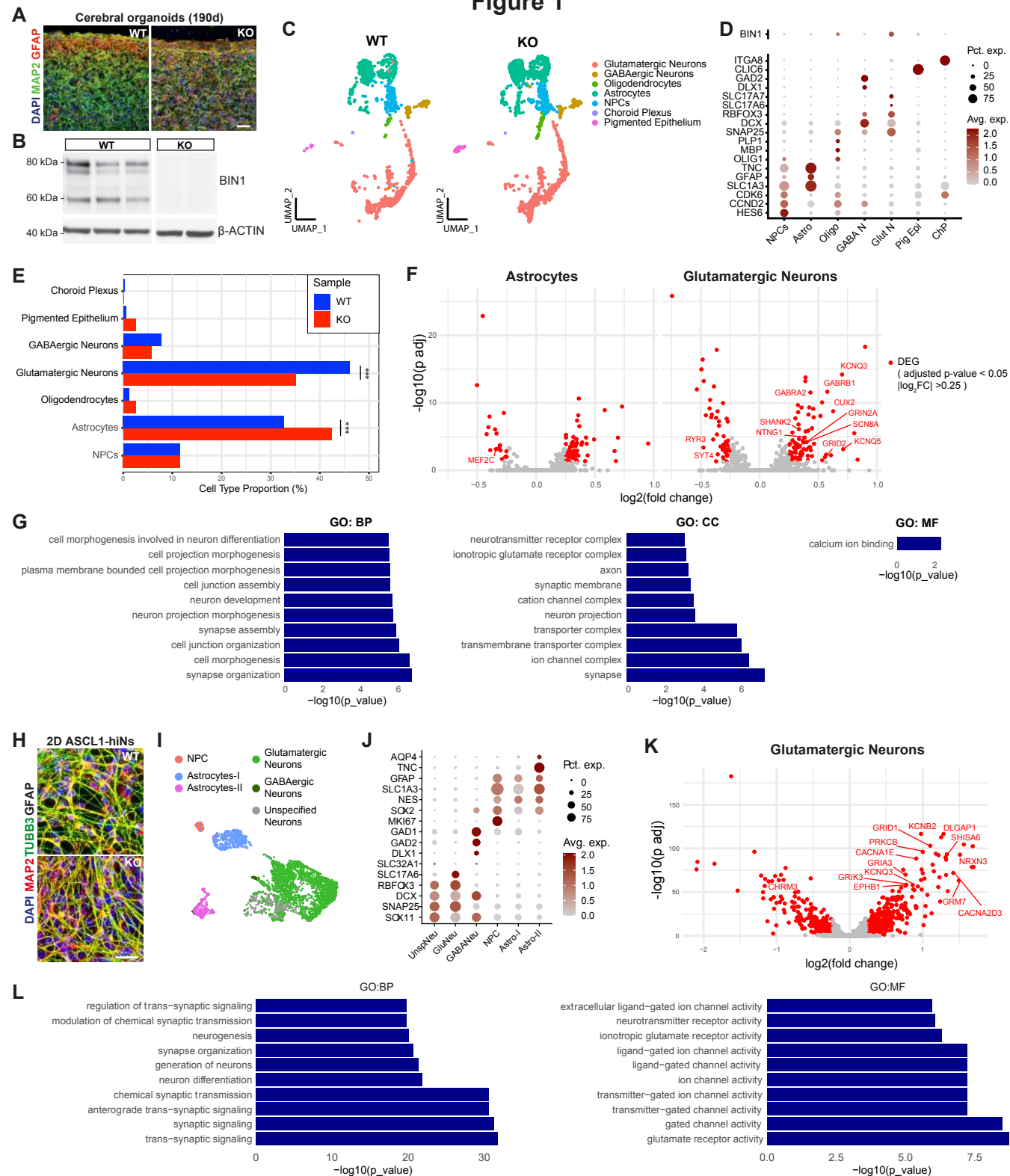


Figure 6