



Published in final edited form as:

Neuroscience. 2019 January 01; 396: A3–A20. doi:10.1016/j.neuroscience.2018.10.033.

Meta-analysis of genetic modifiers reveals candidate dysregulated pathways in Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis

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Abstract

Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis (ALS) is a neurodegenerative disease that has significant overlap with frontotemporal dementia (FTD). Mutations in specific genes have been identified that can cause and/or predispose patients to ALS. However, the clinical variability seen in ALS patients suggests that additional genes impact pathology, susceptibility, severity, and/or progression of the disease. To identify molecular pathways involved in ALS, we undertook a meta-analysis of published genetic modifiers both in patients and in model organisms, and undertook bioinformatic

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Availability of data and material

All data used in the analysis are included in the manuscript and supplemental files.

Competing interests

The authors report no competing interests.

pathway analysis. From 72 published studies, we generated a list of 946 genes whose perturbation (1) impacted ALS in patient populations, (2) altered defects in laboratory models, or (3) modified defects caused by ALS gene ortholog loss of function. Herein, these are all called modifier genes. We found 727 modifier genes that encode proteins with human orthologs. Of these, 43 modifier genes were identified as modifiers of more than one ALS gene/model, consistent with the hypothesis that shared genes and pathways may underlie ALS. Further, we used a gene ontology-based bioinformatic analysis to identify pathways and associated genes that may be important in ALS. To our knowledge this is the first comprehensive survey of ALS modifier genes. This work suggests that shared molecular mechanisms may underlie pathology caused by different ALS disease genes. Surprisingly, few ALS modifier genes have been tested in more than one disease model. Understanding genes that modify ALS-associated defects will help to elucidate the molecular pathways that underlie ALS and provide additional targets for therapeutic intervention.

Keywords

ALS; FTD; genetic modifiers; pathway analysis

Introduction

Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis (ALS) is a progressive disease that results in selective degeneration and death of upper (cortical) and lower (spinal) motor neurons. First described by Jean-Martin Charcot in 1869 (Rowland, 2001), ALS is characterized by muscle weakness, paralysis, respiratory failure, and death typically within 3–5 years of symptom onset. Within the past two decades, over 20 genes have been identified and/or implicated in ALS (Baker et al., 2006; Brenner et al., 2016; Chaussenot et al., 2014; Chen Y. Z. et al., 2004; Chesi et al., 2013; Chow et al., 2009; Cirulli et al., 2015; Couthouis et al., 2012; Cruts et al., 2006; Daoud et al., 2012; DeJesus-Hernandez et al., 2011; Deng et al., 2011; Deng et al., 1993; Elden et al., 2010; Figlewicz et al., 1994; Freischmidt et al., 2015; Greenway et al., 2006; Gros-Louis et al., 2004; Hutton et al., 1998; Johnson et al., 2014a; Johnson et al., 2010; Johnson et al., 2014b; Kabashi et al., 2008; Kenna et al., 2016; Kim H. J. et al., 2013; Kwiatkowski et al., 2009; Leblond et al., 2014; Leung et al., 2004; Maruyama and Kawakami, 2013; Millecamps et al., 2014; Mitchell et al., 2010; Munch et al., 2005; Munch et al., 2004; Nishimura et al., 2004; Parkinson et al., 2006; Pensato et al., 2015; Rademakers and van Blitterswijk, 2014; Renton et al., 2011; Rosen et al., 1993; Skibinski et al., 2005; Skvortsova et al., 2004; Smith et al., 2014; Sreedharan et al., 2008; Sreedharan and Brown, 2013; Takahashi et al., 2013; Teyssou et al., 2013; Teyssou et al., 2014; Ticozzi et al., 2011; Van Deerlin et al., 2008; Vance et al., 2009; Wu et al., 2012; Yang Y. et al., 2001). Together, mutations in superoxide dismutase 1 (SOD1), TAR DNA binding protein (TARDBP), fused in sarcoma (FUS), and chromosome 9 open reading frame 72 (C9orf72) account for approximately 60–70% of ALS cases with a family history. Other genes, including VAMP-associated protein B (VAPB), valosin-containing protein (VCP), and optineurin (OPTN), account for 30–40% of familial cases. The proteins encoded by these genes are involved in a variety of pathways, including oxidative stress (Barber et al., 2006), protein aggregation (Bruijn et al., 1998), and neuroinflammation (Hooten et al., 2015). However, despite the varied roles of these proteins in healthy cell function, disease alleles of the aforementioned

genes can lead to ALS. Even though we have made progress on understanding some aspects of ALS, we do not understand how or why mutations in functionally diverse proteins can cause what appears to be a single disease.

Insights into ALS pathological mechanisms came from the discovery that mutations in a subset of these genes can also cause frontotemporal dementia (FTD), with characteristic degeneration of frontal and temporal lobe neurons (Ratnavalli et al., 2002). ALS and FTD share many pathological hallmarks, including ubiquitinated inclusions, which have been observed in lower motor neurons and cortical neurons of patients with ALS. Furthermore, approximately 50% of ALS patients develop FTD-like symptoms and around 40% of FTD patients develop ALS-like symptoms (Ferrari et al., 2011; Ji et al., 2017; Lomen-Hoerth et al., 2002; Lomen-Hoerth et al., 2003; Strong, 2008). These observations suggest that ALS and FTD are related and may share pathways leading to neurodegeneration (Arai et al., 2006; Leigh et al., 1991; Liscic et al., 2008; Mackenzie and Feldman, 2005). One strategy that can be used to delineate shared pathways, is to find “genetic modifiers” or “modifier genes” of ALS and FTD genes, which can reveal pathological mechanisms.

Broadly defined, “modifier genes” are genes with alleles that ameliorate or exacerbate defects caused by an allele of another gene. Modifier genes, in patients, may influence clinical presentation of disease including disease onset, severity, penetrance, or progression. Classical genetic studies in model organisms have extensively used modifier gene analysis to dissect function and dysfunction, contributing to our understanding of neurodegenerative diseases (Alexander et al., 2014; Dimitriadi and Hart, 2010; Gama Sosa et al., 2012; Plantie et al., 2015; Therrien and Parker, 2014; Verbandt et al., 2016). Large scale forward genetic screens for modifiers are possible in small, genetically tractable organisms, such as *S. cerevisiae*, *C. elegans*, and *D. melanogaster* (Chen X. and Burgoyne, 2012; Sin et al., 2014). These can yield unexpected insights into mechanisms and complement hypothesis-driven studies. Most animal models of ALS compare the consequences of expressing a human protein containing the disease mutation versus the wild type form of the protein. These models have been used to identify genetic modifiers of ALS-associated defects and we surveyed their results. Also, ALS alleles may cause loss of function, which may contribute to disease pathology. Therefore, we surveyed the results of previous studies focused on identifying modifiers of either disease models or ALS-gene ortholog loss of function.

Further, ALS modifier genes have also been identified in human populations and may help explain variation in clinical presentation or disease progression. The site of onset (bulbar or spinal), age of onset, progression rate, and level of cognitive impairment can differ between patients even within the same family (Swinnen and Robberecht, 2014). The variability observed in ALS patients may be, in part, due to a result of different alleles of modifier genes that affect progression, penetrance or onset—even if these modifier alleles do not cause disease *per se*. Risk genes are also of interest, as they may reveal pathways critical for disease, even if risk genes are neither necessary nor sufficient to cause disease. Genome wide association studies (GWAS) and linkage analysis in humans with ALS have been used to identify genetic modifiers (Giess et al., 2002; Gros-Louis et al., 2004; Lee Y. B. et al., 2013).

Here, we undertook a comprehensive literature search and identified 946 genes that act as modifiers of ALS-associated defects in *S. cerevisiae*, *C. elegans*, *D. melanogaster*, *M. musculus*, or human patients. As shared mechanisms may underlie ALS, we used a gene ontology bioinformatics approach to identify pathways pertinent to disease. This bioinformatic analysis focused on 727 modifier genes that are orthologous to human genes, some of which have been identified in human studies. The results suggest that shared pathways may underlie ALS, regardless of the disease gene involved.

Experimental Methods

Literature Search

We searched the literature in PubMed from September 7, 2016 - December 31, 2016 and identified studies that reported modifier genes in ALS models or modifiers of ALS ortholog loss of function (Fig. 1). Specifically, we examined papers in PubMed reporting genetic modifiers of SOD1, TDP43, C9orf72, FUS, or VAPB. For SOD1, TDP43, C9orf72, and FUS; two independent co-authors searched the literature. The literature review included, but was not limited to, genome-wide screens and candidate genes reported to modify phenotypes in *S. cerevisiae*, *C. elegans*, *D. melanogaster*, *M. musculus*, and cell culture models. Additionally, we searched for genetic modifiers of ALS in patients, which was reviewed by Ghasemi and Brown (Ghasemi and Brown, 2017). A database was assembled in Microsoft Excel with the NCBI GeneID, modifier gene name, human ortholog name, ALS model used, type of screen (RNAi knockdown, genome-wide screen) and impact of modifier on phenotype. The total number of modifier genes (946) corresponds to all modifier genes identified in the literature survey; we did not reexamine this list to identify and eliminate orthologous genes independently identified in different model organisms, which would modestly reduce this number. Additionally, using OMIM (Online Mendelian Inheritance of Man) a list of genes known to cause ALS and/or FTD was compiled. At least 2 independent coauthors checked each ALS gene after the database was assembled to ensure the accuracy. All data used in the analysis are included in the manuscript and supplemental files.

Human Ortholog Identification

Human orthologs of modifier genes found in model organisms were identified using best match similarity with BLAST (NCBI) at blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi based on protein sequences. If there was more than one best match, then up to three were reported in the “other orthologs” column in Supplemental File 1. When genes with identical statistical scores were called as best match, both genes were included in the bioinformatics analysis. For example, *Hbr98DE* gene is an ortholog of both hnRNPA1 and hnRNPA2B1. Human ortholog identification was verified with DIOPT (<http://www.flyrnai.org/diopt>) (Hu et al., 2011). If no human ortholog was found, the modifier gene was not included in bioinformatics analysis presented herein.

Gene Ontology Bioinformatic Analysis

Gene ontology (GO) bioinformatic analysis was performed independently for lists of human genes and/or orthologs of modifier genes identified in other species. GO terms that describe Biological Processes are tested to determine if these were over-represented in the curated

gene lists, compared to the rest of the transcriptome, using a hypergeometric test implemented in the Gostat package (Falcon and Gentleman, 2007). GO terms with a p-value less than 0.05 after Bonferroni correction were considered overrepresented. In addition, a list of modifier genes associated with more than one ALS genes was assembled and independently subjected to GO analysis. The supplemental files containing lists of modifier genes and other data use in the bioinformatic analysis are available at <https://doi.org/10.26300/7asw-k867>.

Results

To identify modifier genes associated with ALS, we searched the PubMed literature database at the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) for modifiers of SOD1, TDP43, FUS, C9orf72, VAPB, and other ALS genes. In total, 72 studies were found reporting modifier genes 1) in ALS models, 2) in human patients, or 3) for loss of function alleles of ALS gene orthologs. The resulting list of genes is available in Supplemental File 1. Here, we provide an abbreviated background for ALS genes that served as the basis for our search, including a brief description of ALS models used in modifier gene studies. For each ALS gene, gene ontology bioinformatic pathway analysis was undertaken and pathways that were enriched in gene ontology analysis are discussed.

SOD1

In 1993, the discovery that point mutations in superoxide dismutase 1 (SOD1) cause ALS revolutionized the field (Deng et al., 1993; Rosen et al., 1993). SOD1 is an evolutionarily conserved, ubiquitously expressed protein that catalyzes breakdown of superoxide radicals into hydrogen peroxide and water. As the second most common gene whose mutation causes familial ALS (fALS), mutations in SOD1 account for approximately 20% of fALS cases and 5% of sporadic ALS (sALS) cases (Kaur et al., 2016). Over 100 mutations have been identified in SOD1, and almost all disease alleles are dominant in patients. From many studies, it seems likely that disease alleles cause a toxic gain of function, but loss of function may contribute to disease pathology (Bruijn et al., 1998; Saccon et al., 2013).

Two non-exclusive hypotheses for SOD1-associated ALS motor neuron degeneration dominate the field: the aggregation hypothesis and the oxidative stress hypothesis. Mutant SOD1 protein aggregates in the cytosol of SOD1 ALS patient cells are thought to confer toxicity or reduce SOD1 enzymatic activity (Stieber et al., 2000; Watanabe M. et al., 2001). Early studies in mice supported a toxic gain of function hypothesis, as SOD1 null mice do not exhibit ALS-like pathology and overexpression of mutant human SOD1 resulted in reduced enzymatic activity (Gurney et al., 1994; Reaume et al., 1996). However, how SOD1 mutations cause ALS is still debated. More recent studies suggest that SOD1 loss of function also contributes to ALS dysfunction and degeneration. One possible mechanism is that mutations in SOD1 cause loss of function by aggregation, causing abnormal buildup of superoxide radicals or hydrogen peroxide, the substrate and byproducts of SOD1 action, respectively (Beckman et al., 1993). SOD1 activity is decreased in patients with ALS, suggesting that SOD1 loss of function may contribute to pathology (Rosen et al., 1993; Watanabe Y. et al., 1997). SOD1-mediated motor neuron death may be caused by a

combination of the loss and gain of function consequences of patient alleles of SOD1 (Sahin et al., 2017).

ALS models have been created by overexpressing mutant human SOD1 protein in numerous model organisms and comparing the deleterious consequences of the mutant protein to the consequences of overexpressed wild type human SOD1 protein. Two of the most frequently used patient alleles in SOD1 ALS models are missense mutations that result in a glycine to arginine substitution at position 85 (G85R) or a glycine to alanine substitution at position 93 (G93A). As SOD1 loss of function may also contribute to ALS-associated defects, modifier genes that suppress defects associated with SOD1 loss of function alleles are also of interest. In the literature, we found 33 articles that, in combination, yielded 164 modifier genes in either SOD1 ALS model animals or animals lacking SOD1 ortholog function. These are listed in Supplemental File 1 in the SOD1 tab (Allodi et al., 2016; Bahadorani et al., 2013; Boccitto et al., 2012; Chloupkova et al., 2003; Couillard-Despres et al., 1998; Dadon-Nachum et al., 2015; Dobrowolny et al., 2008; Giess et al., 2002; Hetz et al., 2009; Jablonski et al., 2015; Kieran et al., 2007; Kumimoto et al., 2013; Lambrechts et al., 2003; Lapinskas et al., 1995; Liu et al., 2002; Lobsiger et al., 2005; Lorenzl et al., 2006; Lu et al., 2009; Lunn et al., 2009; Marden et al., 2007; Ohta et al., 2016; Pitzer et al., 2008; Reyes et al., 2010; Riddoch-Contreras et al., 2009; Sharp et al., 2008; Silva et al., 2011; Strain et al., 1998; Teuling et al., 2008; Turner et al., 2014; Wang J. et al., 2009; Yang Y. S. et al., 2009; Zhai et al., 2005).

We hypothesized that shared pathways might link SOD1 modifier genes. To identify these connections, we undertook gene ontology enrichment analysis of the assembled SOD1 modifier gene lists and identified enriched Gene Ontology (GO) pathways. Initially, this analysis was complicated by the diversity of model organisms used for modifier gene identification. To facilitate cross-species comparisons and bioinformatic analysis, the closest human ortholog of each modifier gene was identified based on amino acid similarity using reciprocal BLAST analysis. Proteins that lacked a human ortholog were excluded from bioinformatic analysis. This bioinformatic analysis revealed enrichment of pathways integral for endogenous SOD1 function: “response to reactive oxygen species” (GO:0000302) and “regulation of oxidative stress-induced intrinsic apoptotic signaling” (GO:1902175). The complete SOD1 pathway analysis is presented in Supplemental File 2, SOD1 tab, and top hits are illustrated in Fig. 2A (pathways with odds ratio > 5). The most enriched pathway for SOD1 modifier genes was “neurotransmitter reuptake” (GO:0098810). The SOD1 modifier genes from the literature survey that led to bioinformatic analysis identification of “neurotransmitter reuptake” are shown in Fig. 6.

TDP43

Ubiquitinated inclusions in affected patient neurons are a frequent pathological hallmark of ALS (Arai et al., 2006; Leigh et al., 1991; Ling et al., 2013; Liscic et al., 2008; Mackenzie and Feldman, 2005; Maekawa et al., 2009; Neumann et al., 2006). In 2006, TAR DNA binding protein 43 (TDP43), was identified as the ubiquitinated protein in intracellular aggregates in both ALS and FTD (Neumann et al., 2006). TDP43, encoded by the TARDBP gene, is a ubiquitously expressed nucleic acid binding protein that play critical roles in RNA

splicing and microRNA biogenesis (Buratti and Baralle, 2008). Over 40 missense mutations in TARDBP have been identified in ALS cases (Sreedharan and Brown, 2013). These missense mutations are almost always located in the glycine-rich C-terminal domain of the protein, which has important roles in protein-protein interactions and liquid-liquid phase separation (Wang et al. 2018; Sreedharan et al., 2008; Van Deerlin et al., 2008; Yokoseki et al., 2008).

TDP43 is predominantly found in the nucleus, with a minor fraction of the protein cycling through the cytosol. However, cytosolic TDP43 dramatically increases in patients carrying TARDBP fALS alleles, in many sALS patients, and in a large fraction of fALS patients carrying mutations in other causal genes. TDP43 mislocalization may contribute to the degeneration of motor neurons in ALS/FTD. One hypothesis is that mutant TDP43 acts through a gain of toxic function mechanism by aggregating and inhibiting the endogenous function of normal TDP43. In this model, TDP43 loss of function defects would contribute to neurodegeneration. Alternatively, mutations in TDP43 could alter endogenous RNA splicing and microRNA biogenesis via disruption of functional interactions (Conicella et al., 2016) or mutant TDP43 protein may act in an abnormal cellular compartment, resulting in neurodegeneration and indicative of a gain of toxic function mechanism.

We found eleven published studies that, in combination, reported 93 modifier genes of TDP43 ALS/FTD phenotypes (Supplemental File 1, TDP43 Tab), for either mutant TDP43 overexpression, wildtype TDP43 overexpression, or TDP43 ortholog loss of function (Armakola et al., 2012; Chou et al., 2015; Elden et al., 2010; Figley and Gitler, 2013; Jablonski et al., 2015; Kim H. J. et al., 2014; Kim S. H. et al., 2012; Liachko et al., 2013; Sreedharan et al., 2015; Zhan et al., 2013; Zhan et al., 2015). We undertook bioinformatics analysis, as described above, with these TDP43 modifier genes and found only 4 enriched GO pathways with odds ratio above 5 (Fig. 2B). Pathways are listed in Supplemental File 2, TDP43 tab, and include “G/M2 cell cycle regulation” (GO:0000086, GO:0044839) and “regulation of viral transcription” (GO:0019083, GO:0032897), for which TDP43 roles have already been described (Ignatius et al., 1995; Yamashita et al., 2014). Modifier genes that led to bioinformatic analysis identification of “G/M2 cell cycle regulation” are shown in Fig. 6.

FUS

Originally characterized as a liposarcoma oncogene, mutations in the Fused in Sarcoma gene (FUS) were found in a cohort of 197 British ALS patients in 2009. The FUS protein is a ubiquitously expressed RNA-binding protein involved in splicing and stress granule formation (Lagier-Tourenne and Cleveland, 2009). Mutations in FUS cause approximately 4–5% of all familial ALS cases. Patient mutations can be found throughout the FUS protein, but mutation of the C-terminal nuclear localization signal (NLS) is most frequently observed (Ju et al., 2011; Ling et al., 2013). In some cases, FUS mutations result in FTD, and patients with FUS-linked FTD usually show ALS symptoms (Nolan et al., 2016). These FTD patients present with FUS-immunoreactive inclusions; these inclusions are also present in the motor neurons of FUS ALS patients who lack FTD symptoms (Deng et al., 2010; Hewitt et al., 2010; Rademakers et al., 2010).

In most FUS ALS patients examined, mutant FUS is mislocalized from the nucleus and protein aggregates form in the cytoplasm (Dormann et al., 2010; Vance et al., 2009). Furthermore, cytoplasmic FUS incorporates into membraneless organelles - phase separated liquid structures (*e.g.* stress granules), which may drive mutant FUS aggregation (Bosco et al., 2010; Burke et al., 2015; Patel et al., 2015). Cytoplasmic aggregation of FUS may inhibit the maturation of RNAs integral for the survival of motor neurons, as nuclear FUS is important for mRNA splicing (Colombrita et al., 2015; Sun S. et al., 2015). Alternatively, mutant FUS may act via a gain of function mechanism where patient mutations may subvert DNA repair mechanisms, leading to cumulative increases in DNA damage (Hill et al., 2016).

We found five articles that identified 72 modifiers of FUS (Armakola et al., 2012; Chen Y. et al., 2016; Farg et al., 2013; Ju et al., 2011; Sun Z. et al., 2011) (Supplemental File 1, FUS tab). Many of these suppressor and enhancer genes were identified in genome-wide modifier screens in yeast expressing mutant human FUS at high levels (Sun Z. et al., 2011). Our bioinformatic analysis identified 34 GO terms/pathways that were enriched (Fig. 2C, Supplemental File 2, FUS tab). Many of these are related to cellular pathways associated with normal FUS protein function, including “RNA processing” (GO:0006396) and “translation” (GO:0006412). The FUS modifier genes associated with the most enriched GO term “nuclear-transcribed mRNA poly(A) tail shortening” (GO:0000289) are shown in Fig. 6.

C9orf72

In 2011, expansion of GGGGCC (G_4C_2) repeats in the non-coding region of chromosome 9 open reading frame 72 (C9orf72) was identified in ALS patients. C9orf72 expansion is one of the most common causes of ALS and FTD and accounts for approximately 40% of fALS cases (Rademakers et al., 2012). The number of G_4C_2 repeats varies dramatically between patients; Southern blot analysis from one family revealed pathogenic repeats ranging from 700–1,600 (DeJesus-Hernandez et al., 2011; Haeusler et al., 2016). In addition to the typical ALS motor neuron functional defects, C9orf72 ALS patients may have earlier disease onset, cognitive and behavioral impairment, and decreased survival compared to other patients (Rademakers et al., 2012).

Why G_4C_2 repeats cause disease is still unclear; studies have suggested the C9orf72 protein has roles in the endolysosomal pathway and vesicle trafficking (Aoki et al., 2017; Corriero and Horvitz, 2018). Three non-exclusive mechanisms have been proposed: decreased C9orf72 protein expression, toxic expanded G_4C_2 repeat RNAs, and/or toxic dipeptide repeat (DPR) proteins generated by repeat-associated non-AUG (RAN) translation of G_4C_2 repeat RNAs (Haeusler et al., 2016).

Considerable evidence suggests that high level expression of either G_4C_2 repeat-derived RNAs or DPR proteins can be toxic. G_4C_2 repeat RNA may sequester RNA binding proteins and splicing factors, thus disrupting their normal functions and causing neurodegeneration (Lee Y. B. et al., 2013; Mori et al., 2016; Xu et al., 2013). This model is supported by the observation that overexpression of Pur- α , an RNA-binding protein that physically interacts with repeat RNAs, suppresses G_4C_2 -mediated neurodegeneration in mouse neuronal cells and *D. melanogaster* (Xu et al., 2013). However, DPR proteins are also toxic. These are

produced through RAN translation of G₄C₂ repeat RNA, which occurs in the absence of an AUG initiation codon and from both sense and antisense G₄C₂ repeat strands (Zu et al., 2013). Different DPR proteins have varying levels of toxicity: the arginine-rich DPRs, poly(GR) and poly(PR) are most toxic (Jovicic et al., 2015; Kwon et al., 2014; Wen et al., 2014), poly(GA) is moderately toxic, and poly(GP) and poly(PA) are the least toxic (Freibaum et al., 2015; Wen et al., 2014).

We found eight articles that identified modifier genes for G₄C₂ RNA and/or DPR toxicity (Supplemental file 1, C9orf72 tab) (Boeynaems et al., 2016; Freibaum et al., 2015; Jovicic et al., 2015; Kramer et al., 2016; Lee K. H. et al., 2016; Mori et al., 2016; Xu et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2015). Multiple unbiased genetic screens were undertaken in *D. melanogaster* and *S. cerevisiae* for modifiers of poly(PR) toxicity (Boeynaems et al., 2016; Jovicic et al., 2015). Screens in a *D. melanogaster* eye poly(PR) model yielded modifiers encoding proteins that directly interact with poly(GR) and poly (PR) peptides (Lee K. H. et al., 2016). In a candidate-based screen using *D. melanogaster* expressing (G₄C₂)₃₀ repeats, RanGAP was identified as a suppressor of neurodegeneration (Zhang et al., 2015). No modifiers of *C9orf72* loss of function have been reported.

From these eight studies, we assembled a list of 285 genetic modifiers with human orthologs of G₄C₂ toxicity (Supplemental File 1, C9orf72 tab). Gene ontology bioinformatic analysis revealed 98 enriched GO pathways (Supplemental File 2, C9orf72 tab). These include “nuclear pore assembly”, “protein import”, and “protein export” (Fig. 3, Fig. 4). Additionally, “gene silencing by miRNA” (GO:0035195) and metabolism-associated pathways were enriched in this dataset. Genes associated with the most enriched pathway in our bioinformatics analysis, “nuclear pore complex assembly” (GO:0051292), are presented in Fig. 6.

VAPB and other ALS genes

Most studies that report ALS modifier genes focus on SOD1, TDP43, C9orf72, or FUS. Mutations in other genes also lead to ALS and insights into disease pathogenesis may arise from analysis of these other disease genes. In 2004, a P56S mutation in the Vesicle-Associated Membrane Protein-Associated Protein B/C (VAPB) gene was identified in seven different Brazilian families with afflicted individuals showing ALS and/or late-onset spinal muscular atrophy (Nishimura et al., 2004). VAPB protein interacts with SNARE proteins and regulates vesicular transport. Although the severity, presentation, and progression of disease varies between families, the VAPB P56S mutation was dominant (Nishimura et al., 2004). The P56S mutation lies in the VAPB protein Major Sperm Protein (MSP) domain, which likely mediates protein dimerization and other protein-protein interactions.

The functional consequences of VAPB P56S that lead to ALS are poorly understood, but both gain of function (Kuijpers et al., 2013; Ratnaparkhi et al., 2008) and loss of function mechanisms (Kabashi et al., 2013) have been proposed. In normal cells, VAPB mediates membrane interactions between mitochondria and the endoplasmic reticulum, which are critical for mitochondrial calcium regulation and ATP production (Stoica et al., 2014; Stoica et al., 2016). Mutations in either TDP43 or FUS can disrupt VAPB function, ultimately leading to disrupted mitochondrial calcium uptake and decreasing ATP production (Stoica et

al., 2014; Stoica et al., 2016). We found two articles describing genetic modifiers of VAPB (Deivasigamani et al., 2014; Sanhueza et al., 2015), as well as one article describing genetic modifiers of OPTN (Akizuki et al., 2013) and one article describing VCP modifier genes (Ritson et al., 2010) (Supplemental File 1, Other tab). We searched for modifier genes of other fALS-linked genes, but did not uncover additional modifier studies in the published literature. VAPB modifiers were identified in two different *D. melanogaster* screens. Deivasigamani et al. upregulated or downregulated *D. melanogaster* VAPB (*dVAP*) ortholog levels, which results in altered bristles (Deivasigamani et al., 2014). Sanhueza et al., found that high level expression of dVAP[P58S] in the *D. melanogaster* eye leads to reduced eye size and used this observation to identify 85 modifier genes (Sanhueza et al., 2015). Only one pathway, “single-organism cellular localization” (GO:1902580), was significantly enriched in our gene ontology bioinformatics.

Modifier genes associated with more than one ALS gene

If patient alleles in the genes listed above lead to a single disease, which we call ALS, then one would expect commonalities in disease mechanism and pathological processes. Accordingly, one might expect common pathways to arise from modifier gene analyses. This hypothesis is supported by previous work demonstrating that some modifier genes impact ALS-associated defects in more than one ALS model. In total, 946 modifier genes were identified from the literature with 727 corresponding human orthologs (Supplemental File 1). To look for commonalities between ALS modifier genes, we compiled a list of modifier genes with impact on more than one ALS causal gene (Table 1). For example, if a gene modified defects in both an SOD1 ALS model and a TDP43 ALS model, it was included in Table 1 (and in Supplemental File 1, multiple ALS genes). In addition, Table 1 includes modifier genes identified in ALS patient GWAS or genetic studies that have been validated in ALS models, as these are likely relevant to disease. In total, 43 modifier genes have functional impact on more than one ALS gene and are listed in Table 1.

Two genes, KPNB1 and TARDBP, were identified as genetic modifiers in more than two ALS models. KPNB1 was reported as a modifier of C9orf72, VAPB, and TDP43 ALS models. In an RNAi screen conducted in *D. melanogaster* C9orf72 model of ALS, decreased KPNB1 function enhanced PR25-mediated eye degeneration (Boeynaems et al., 2016). In HeLa cells, KPNB1 knockdown enhanced the cytosolic localization of TDP43 (Kim S. H. et al., 2012). Additionally, overexpression of the *D. melanogaster* ortholog of KPNB1, *Fs(2)Ket*, resulted in suppression of the rough eye phenotype in a VAPB model of ALS. TARDBP was reported as a modifier of C9orf72, VAPB, and VCP. RNAi knockdown of TARDBP in a C9orf72 model suppressed a viability defect and the rough-eye phenotype in a *D. melanogaster* model (Lee K. H. et al., 2016). TARDBP has also been reported as a suppressor of VCP-related degeneration (Ritson et al., 2010) and acts as a suppressor in an overexpression model of VAPB (Deivasigamani et al., 2014). While TARDBP was intentionally selected for assessment in these studies, the nuclear pore complex protein, KPNB1, was independently identified in less biased screens.

To identify common pathways associated with modifier genes, we undertook bioinformatic analysis with the genes listed in Table 1. Forty-two GO terms were enriched in this analysis.

Pathways enriched in in this modifier gene list included GO terms associated with protein transport or metabolic processes. The most enriched GO term was “protein import into nucleus, translocation” (GO:0000060).

Discussion

Modifier gene studies have the potential to dramatically increase our understanding of ALS pathogenesis and to provide insight into variation in patient symptoms, penetrance of disease, and disease progression. Modifier gene studies can provide insights into pathways associated with neuronal dysfunction and neurodegeneration in ALS. Furthermore, common genetic modifiers may link ALS caused by mutations in different genes, suggesting a common mechanism of motor neuron degeneration. Additionally, modifier genes can be used to identify pathways and targets for therapeutic intervention. Many genetic modifiers of ALS have been discovered through hypothesis-driven experiments, forward genetic screens, or genetic studies in human populations. But, to our knowledge, a comprehensive listing and analysis of modifier genes pertinent to ALS has not been undertaken previously.

It is likely that both loss and gain of function mechanisms contribute to ALS pathology. Therefore, we included modifiers of both loss- and gain of function in our survey, as well as overexpression of wildtype or mutant protein. In total, we compiled a list of 727 modifier genes with human orthologs. Many modifier genes were found in *S. cerevisiae*, *C. elegans*, *D. melanogaster*, *M. musculus*, and cell culture models of ALS. Additionally, genetic modifiers were identified in ALS patients through linkage analysis and genome wide association studies. In total, we identified 72 articles in the published literature that reported 727 modifier genes with human orthologs for SOD1, TDP43, FUS, C9orf72, VAPB, VCP, or OPTN. We searched for modifiers of other ALS-linked genes, but did not find any in the published literature. Interestingly, the 727 genes identified as modifiers of ALS corresponds to roughly 5% of human genes, consistent with the complexity of this disease. We appreciate the enormous effort these original studies represent and we hope to highlight the importance of these studies and leverage their results to identify common pathways pertinent to ALS. We note that additional modifier genes have been reported in subsequent studies, including those by Kramer et al. 2018 (Kramer et al., 2018).

Many of the pathways that were enriched in our bioinformatics analysis are associated with the endogenous functions of genes implicated in ALS and are established as dysregulated in ALS patients, including “response to reactive oxygen species” (GO:0000302) in SOD1 and “RNA processing” (GO:0006396) in FUS. Interestingly, metabolic processes were identified as enriched pathways in all of our modifier gene lists. This commonality highlights the importance of previous studies demonstrating that metabolism is affected in ALS patients (Mattiuzzi et al., 2002).

FUS and TARDBP encode RNA-associated proteins and it has been suggested that they act in the same pathways in ALS pathogenesis (Honda et al., 2013). The analysis of FUS and TARDBP modifier genes could be interpreted to support this hypothesis. When GO pathways are examined, 2 of the 12 enriched GO terms found from the list of TDP43 modifier were also included in the list of 60 FUS-modifier enriched GO terms: “cellular macromolecule metabolic process” and “viral transcription”. There were over 2000 GO

pathway terms available in our bioinformatic analysis; the small overlap we observed between FUS and TDP43 is significant, but may reflect the importance of RNA-binding proteins in these processes.

The comprehensive literature search reveals that relatively few ALS modifier genes have been tested in other models of ALS or have been identified in more than one independent modifier screen. Overall, only 43 modifier genes are reported to modify more than one ALS gene. Of these 43 genes, KNBP1 and TARDBP were reported to be modifiers in more than two ALS models. An inherent bias against the publication of “failure to suppress cross-species” may partially account for this, as well as a bias against reporting negative results, or a lack of motivation to re-test modifier genes identified in other species/models. To fully understand why mutations in specific genes cause ALS and to identify therapeutic targets, we suggest that modifier genes should be tested in multiple ALS models. This should expose commonalities and differences between ALS caused by mutations in different genes and inform the selection of therapeutic targets.

ALS modifier gene studies have already increased our understanding of pathways that may be dysregulated in this devastating disease. We provide the first comprehensive review of published ALS modifier genes and undertook bioinformatic analysis. These data suggest that common pathways may underlie ALS caused by mutations in different genes. We expect that as additional modifier genes are identified and tested in additional models of ALS, more commonalities between the different ALS genes will be found and additional therapeutic targets will be developed for the treatment of this disease.

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

Acknowledgements

We thank Robert H. Brown Jr. and the ALS@Brown community for helpful discussions.

Funding

Research reported in this publication was supported in part by the ALS Finding a Cure Foundation (to J.R.F., D.L., R.A.R., K.A.W., A.C.H.), ALS Association Grant ID 15-IIP-203 (to A.C.H.), National Institute of General Medical Sciences (NIGMS) of the National Institutes of Health (NIH) Award Number R01GM118530 (to N.L.F) and a starter grant 17-IIP-342 from the ALS Association (to N.L.F). A.H. and V.H.R. were supported in part by the Robert J. and Nancy D. Carney Institute for Brain Science Graduate Award. K.S.Y, K.H.H., K.R., and V.H.R. was supported in part by a NIMH training grant to the Neuroscience Graduate Program at Brown University (T32MH020068). K.S.Y was also supported in part by a National Institute of Neurological Disorders and Stroke (NINDS) training grant to the Neuroscience Graduate Program at Brown University (T32NS62443). Z. W. was partially supported by R01GM122083, P20GM109035, and P20GM109035. V. H. R. was partially supported by a grant from the NINDS (F31NS110301).

Abbreviations

ALS	Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis
C9orf72	Chromosome 9 open reading frame 72
fALS	Familial ALS

FTD	Frontotemporal Dementia
FUS	Fused in sarcoma
OPTN	Optineurin
sALS	Sporadic ALS
SOD1	Superoxide dismutase 1
TDP43	TAR DNA binding protein 43
VCP	Valosin-containing protein
VAPB	Vesicle-Associated Membrane Protein-Associated Protein B/C

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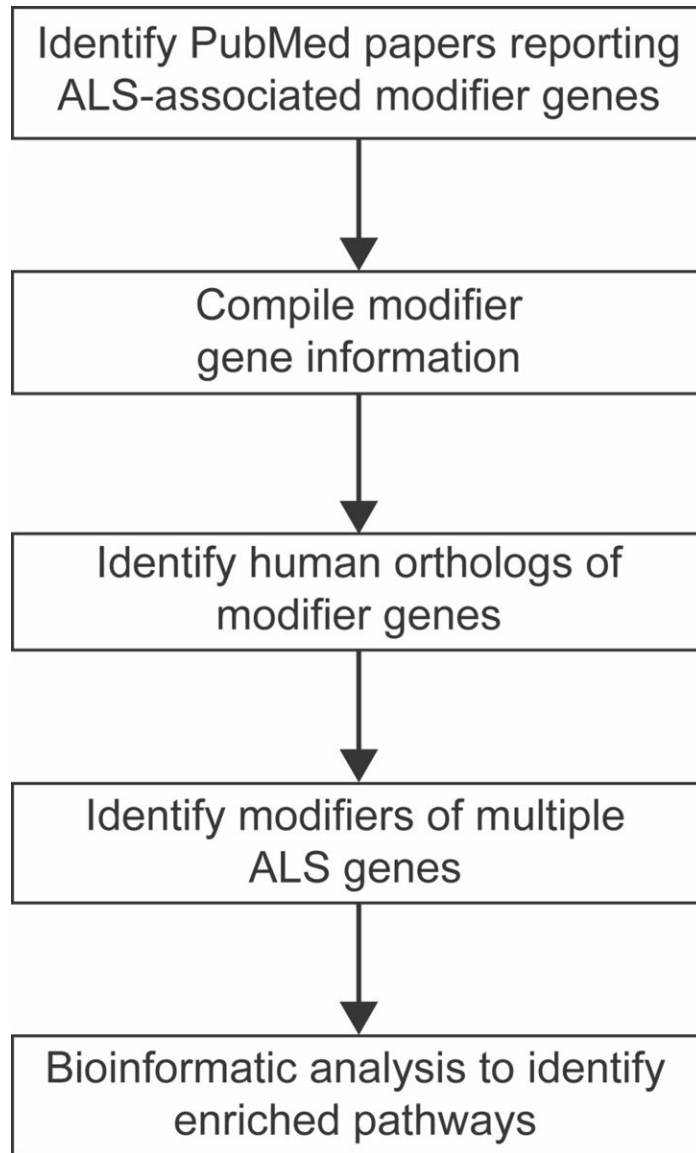


Fig. 1. Schematic representation of the workflow used to compile and analyze the list of genetic modifiers of ALS.

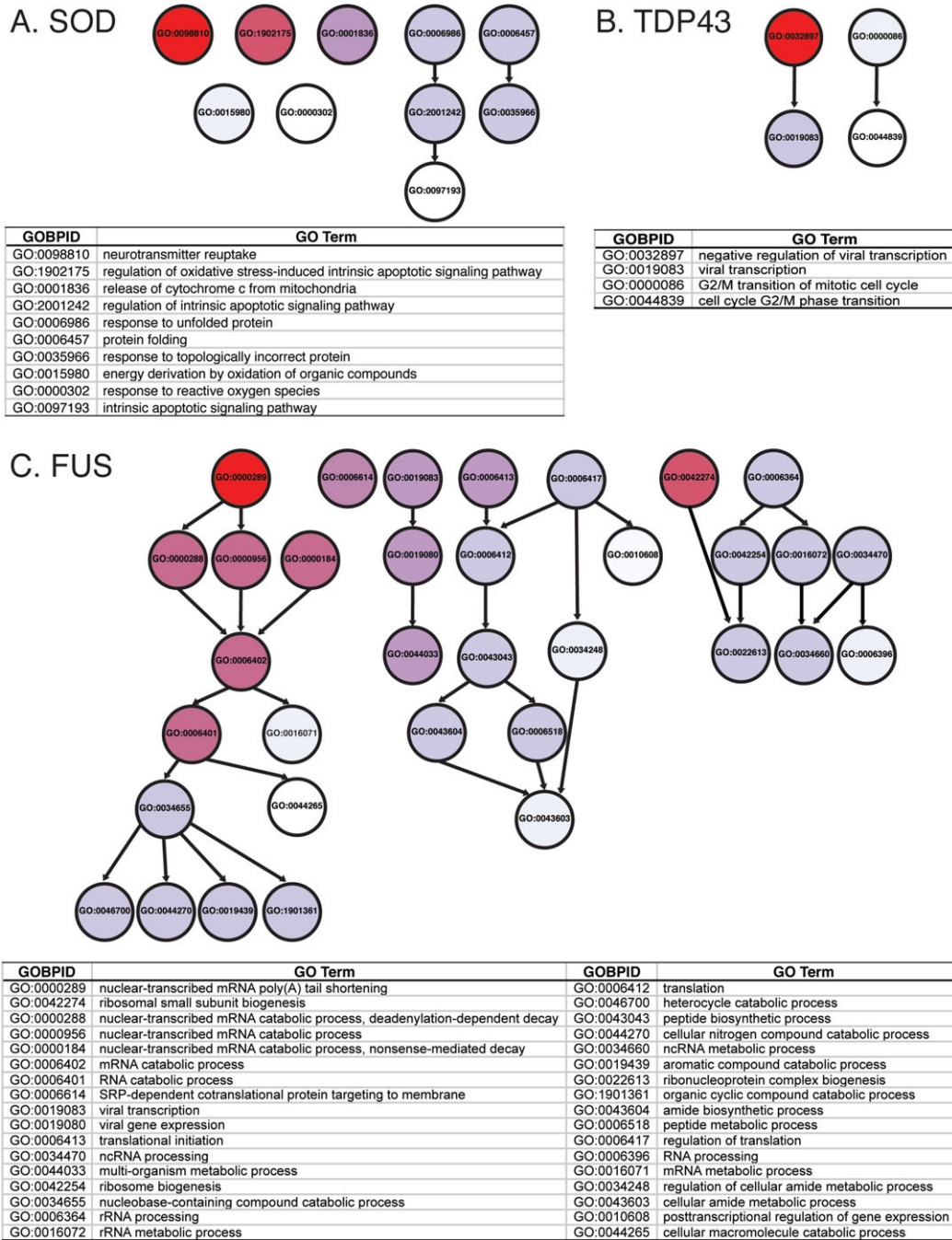


Fig. 2. GO terms enriched for SOD1, TDP43 and FUS A) Diagram (top) shows relationship between GO terms enriched in gene ontology analysis of SOD1 genetic modifiers. Arrows indicate related terms that are “nested” inside a broader category. GO terms above odd ratios of 5 or greater are listed (below); the most highly enriched genes are at the top of the list. Darker red hues indicate a higher odds ratio (the magnitude of enrichment). For example, “neurotransmitter reuptake (GO:0098810)” has an odds ratio of 29.86 and is shown in red. This indicates that we observe more genes associated with “neurotransmitter reuptake” in

the list of SOD1 genetic modifiers than expected. Though it is enriched in our dataset, “intrinsic apoptotic signaling pathway (GO:0097193)” has an odds ratio of 5.35 and is shown in white. In this case, we still observe more genes than expected with “intrinsic apoptotic signaling pathway” in our dataset, but not to the same extent as “neurotransmitter reuptake” genes. B) GO terms enriched in TDP43 modifiers, presented as in panel A. C) GO terms enriched in FUS modifiers, presented as in panel A.

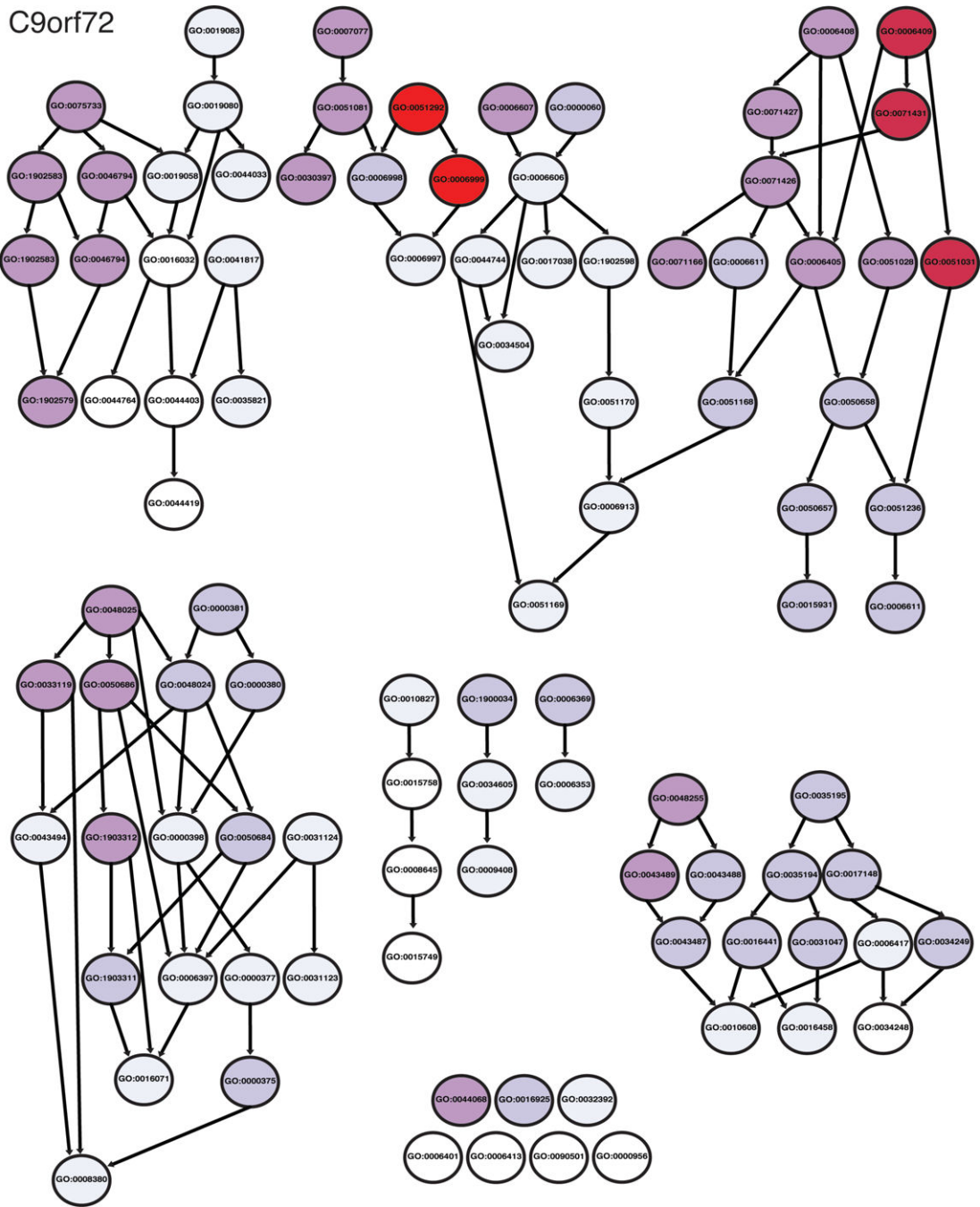
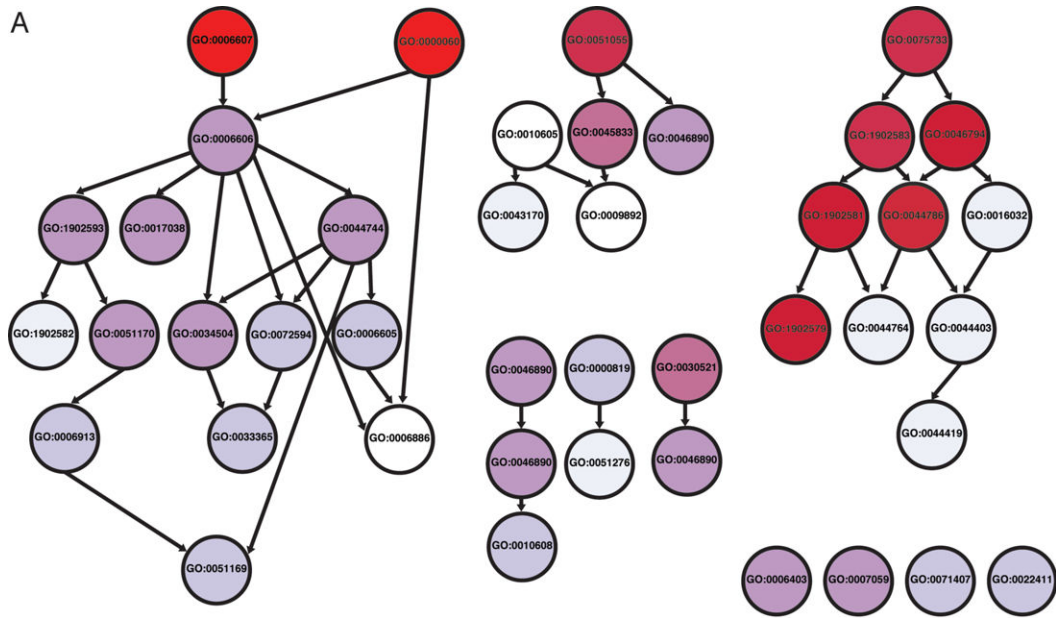


Fig. 3. Diagram of GO terms enriched for C9orf72. Illustration of the relationship between GO terms enriched in gene ontology analysis of C9orf72 genetic modifiers. Arrows indicate related terms that are “nested” inside a broader category. Darker red hues are GO terms that were more enriched in the modifier list.

C9orf72

GOBPID	Term
GO:0051292	nuclear pore complex assembly
GO:0006999	nuclear pore organization
GO:0006409	tRNA export from nucleus
GO:0071431	tRNA-containing ribonucleoprotein complex export from nucleus
GO:0051031	tRNA transport
GO:0046931	pore complex assembly
GO:0006607	NLS-bearing protein import into nucleus
GO:0075733	intracellular transport of virus
GO:1902581	multi-organism cellular localization
GO:1902583	multi-organism intracellular transport
GO:0048025	negative regulation of mRNA splicing, via spliceosome
GO:0046794	transport of virus
GO:0007077	mitotic nuclear envelope disassembly
GO:0044766	multi-organism transport
GO:1902579	multi-organism localization
GO:0030397	membrane disassembly
GO:0051081	nuclear envelope disassembly
GO:0048255	mRNA stabilization
GO:0033119	negative regulation of RNA splicing
GO:0050686	negative regulation of mRNA processing
GO:0043489	RNA stabilization
GO:0006406	mRNA export from nucleus
GO:0071427	mRNA-containing ribonucleoprotein complex export from nucleus
GO:0071426	ribonucleoprotein complex export from nucleus
GO:0044068	modulation by symbiont of host cellular process
GO:0006405	RNA export from nucleus
GO:0071166	ribonucleoprotein complex localization
GO:0051028	mRNA transport
GO:1903312	negative regulation of mRNA metabolic process
GO:0050657	nucleic acid transport
GO:0050658	RNA transport
GO:0051236	establishment of RNA localization
GO:0000381	regulation of alternative mRNA splicing, via spliceosome
GO:0006403	RNA localization
GO:0006611	protein export from nucleus
GO:0048024	regulation of mRNA splicing, via spliceosome
GO:0000060	protein import into nucleus, translocation
GO:0116925	protein sumoylation
GO:0051168	nuclear export
GO:1900034	regulation of cellular response to heat
GO:0050684	regulation of mRNA processing
GO:0000380	alternative mRNA splicing, via spliceosome
GO:0015931	nucleobase-containing compound transport
GO:0006998	nuclear envelope organization
GO:0031047	gene silencing by RNA
GO:0017148	negative regulation of translation
GO:0043488	regulation of mRNA stability
GO:1903311	regulation of mRNA metabolic process
GO:0035195	gene silencing by miRNA
GO:0043487	regulation of RNA stability
GO:0034249	negative regulation of cellular amide metabolic process
GO:0006369	termination of RNA polymerase II transcription
GO:0010827	regulation of glucose transport
GO:0006913	nucleocytoplasmic transport
GO:0051169	nuclear transport
GO:0043484	regulation of RNA splicing
GO:0035194	posttranscriptional gene silencing by RNA
GO:0031124	mRNA 3'-end processing
GO:0019080	viral gene expression
GO:0016441	posttranscriptional gene silencing
GO:0034605	cellular response to heat
GO:0000377	RNA splicing, via transesterification reactions with bulged adenosine as nucleophile
GO:0000398	mRNA splicing, via spliceosome
GO:0044033	multi-organism metabolic process
GO:0000375	RNA splicing, via transesterification reactions
GO:0031123	RNA 3'-end processing
GO:0019083	viral transcription
GO:0006997	nucleus organization
GO:0016458	gene silencing
GO:0051817	modification of morphology or physiology of other organism involved in symbiotic interaction
GO:0032392	DNA genomic change
GO:0051170	nuclear import
GO:0006606	protein import into nucleus
GO:0044744	protein targeting to nucleus
GO:0010608	posttranscriptional regulation of gene expression
GO:0019058	viral life cycle
GO:1902593	single-organism nuclear import
GO:0006380	RNA splicing
GO:0006417	regulation of translation
GO:0006397	mRNA processing
GO:0035821	modification of morphology or physiology of other organism
GO:0016071	mRNA metabolic process
GO:0009408	response to heat
GO:0034248	regulation of cellular amide metabolic process
GO:0006353	DNA-templated transcription, termination
GO:0034504	protein localization to nucleus
GO:0017038	protein import
GO:0090501	RNA phosphodiester bond hydrolysis
GO:0006413	translational initiation
GO:0044403	symbiosis, encompassing mutualism through parasitism
GO:0000956	nuclear-transcribed mRNA catabolic process
GO:0015758	glucose transport
GO:0044419	interspecies interaction between organisms
GO:0008645	hexose transport
GO:0015749	monosaccharide transport
GO:0016032	viral process
GO:0044764	multi-organism cellular process
GO:0006401	RNA catabolic process

Fig. 4. List of GO terms enriched for C9orf72. GO terms with odd ratios of 5 or more are listed; the most highly enriched genes are at the top of the list.



B

GOBPID	GO Terms	GOBPID	GO Terms
GO:0000060	protein import into nucleus, translocation	GO:0000819	sister chromatid segregation
GO:0006607	NLS-bearing protein import into nucleus	GO:0006403	RNA localization
GO:0051055	negative regulation of lipid biosynthetic process	GO:0006913	nucleocytoplasmic transport
GO:0075733	intracellular transport of virus	GO:0072594	establishment of protein localization to organelle
GO:1902581	multi-organism cellular localization	GO:0051169	nuclear transport
GO:1902583	multi-organism intracellular transport	GO:0007059	chromosome segregation
GO:0046794	transport of virus	GO:0010608	posttranscriptional regulation of gene expression
GO:0044766	multi-organism transport	GO:0033365	protein localization to organelle
GO:1902579	multi-organism localization	GO:0006605	protein targeting
GO:0030521	androgen receptor signaling pathway	GO:0071407	cellular response to organic cyclic compound
GO:0045833	negative regulation of lipid metabolic process	GO:0022411	cellular component disassembly
GO:0030518	intracellular steroid hormone receptor signaling pathway	GO:1902582	single-organism intracellular transport
GO:0006606	protein import into nucleus	GO:0016032	viral process
GO:0044744	protein targeting to nucleus	GO:0044764	multi-organism cellular process
GO:1902593	single-organism nuclear import	GO:0044403	symbiosis, encompassing mutualism through parasitism
GO:0046890	regulation of lipid biosynthetic process	GO:0044419	interspecies interaction between organisms
GO:0034504	protein localization to nucleus	GO:0043170	macromolecule metabolic process
GO:0043488	regulation of mRNA stability	GO:0051276	chromosome organization
GO:0051170	nuclear import	GO:0006886	intracellular protein transport
GO:0043487	regulation of RNA stability	GO:0010605	negative regulation of macromolecule metabolic process
GO:0017038	protein import	GO:0009892	negative regulation of metabolic process

Fig. 5. GO terms enriched for genes reported to be modifiers of multiple ALS genes. Diagram (top) shows relationship between GO terms enriched in gene ontology analysis. Arrows indicate related terms that are “nested” inside a broader category. Darker red hues are GO terms that were more enriched in the modifier list. GO terms above odd ratios of 5 or greater are listed (below); the most highly enriched genes are at the top of the list.

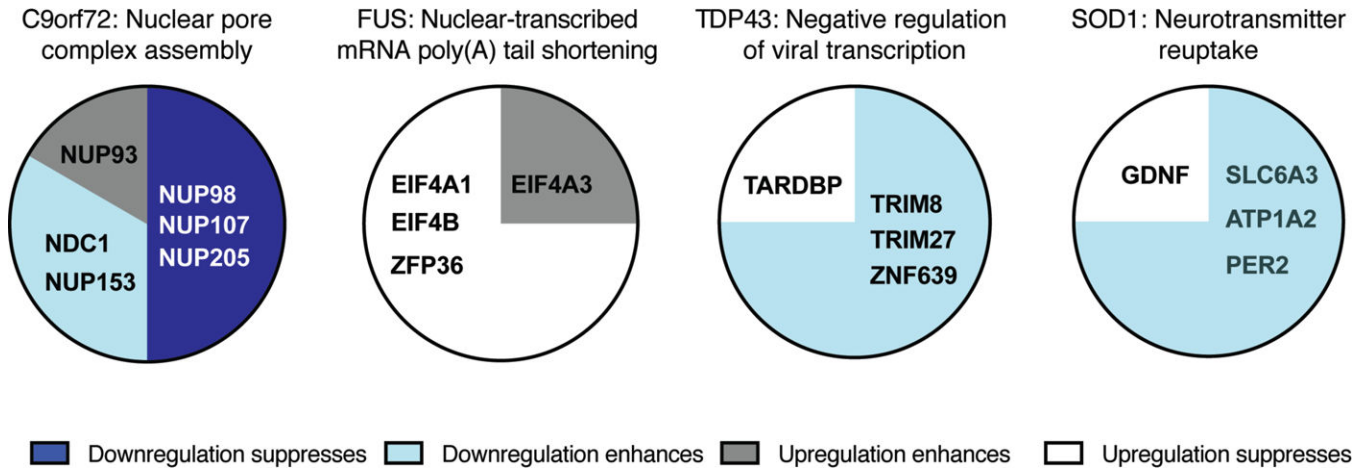


Fig. 6. Modifier genes in the most enriched GO term for ALS genes. The most enriched GO term for each ALS gene is listed. Each pie chart contains the names of all human genes (or orthologs) that were associated with the top GO term. Genes are grouped and color coded based on originally reported perturbation of the modifier gene and their impact on ALS-associated defects. For example, knockdown of the NUP98 *D. melanogaster* ortholog ameliorated ALS-associated defects in a *D. melanogaster* C9orf72; this gene was classified as “downregulation suppressed”.

Table 1.

Genetic modifiers that may modify multiple ALS genes. This list includes the human orthologs that were identified as modifiers of more than one ALS-causal genes (*e.g.* SRRT orthologs were reported as modifiers in both SOD1 and TDP43 models). Additionally, human genes reported as modifiers through GWAS or linkage analysis studies are also included in this list.

Human Gene	Organism	Modifier for	Reference
<i>ATXN2</i>	Yeast, Human	TDP43, Human	(Elden et al., 2010; Figley and Gitler, 2013; Lee T. et al., 2011)
<i>BMP2</i>	Nematode, Fly	SOD1, C9orf72	(Wang J. et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2015)
<i>CCNB1</i>	Yeast, Fly	FUS, VAPB	(Sanhueza et al., 2015; Sun Z. et al., 2011)
<i>CCT4</i>	Nematode, Fly	SOD1, C9orf72	(Lee K. H. et al., 2016; Wang J. et al., 2009)
<i>CDC6</i>	Yeast, Fly	C9orf72, VAPB	(Deivasigamani et al., 2014; Jovicic et al., 2015)
<i>CHGB</i>	Mouse, Human	SOD1, Human	(Gros-Louis et al., 2009; Ohta et al., 2016)
<i>COA4</i>	Nematode, Yeast	SOD1, FUS	(Sun Z. et al., 2011; Wang J. et al., 2009)
<i>DAZAPI</i>	Fly	C9orf72, VCP	(Ritson et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2015)
<i>DBR1</i>	Yeast	TDP43, FUS	(Armakola et al., 2012; Figley and Gitler, 2013)
<i>DNAJA1</i>	Yeast, Fly	SOD1, C9orf72	(Lee K. H. et al., 2016; Strain et al., 1998)
<i>FBXW7</i>	Nematode, Yeast	SOD1, FUS	(Sun Z. et al., 2011; Wang J. et al., 2009)
<i>GNAQ</i>	Fly	C9orf72, VAPB	(Deivasigamani et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2015)
<i>HNRNPC</i>	Yeast, Fly	C9orf72, FUS	(Lee K. H. et al., 2016; Sun Z. et al., 2011)
<i>IMPA1</i>	Yeast, Fly	FUS, VAPB	(Deivasigamani et al., 2014; Sun Z. et al., 2011)
<i>IPO5</i>	Fly	C9orf72, VAPB	(Deivasigamani et al., 2014; Lee K. H. et al., 2016)
<i>KPNB1</i>	HeLa cells, Fly	TDP43, C9orf72, VAPB	(Boeynaems et al., 2016; Kim S. H. et al., 2012; Sanhueza et al., 2015)
<i>MMP9</i>	Mouse, Human	SOD1, Human	(Kaplan et al., 2014; Lorenzl et al., 2006)
<i>MRPL33</i>	Yeast	TDP43, FUS	(Armakola et al., 2012; Sun Z. et al., 2011)
<i>NAA20</i>	Fly	C9orf72, VAPB	(Deivasigamani et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2015)
<i>NCL</i>	Yeast, Fly	C9orf72, FUS	(Lee K. H. et al., 2016; Sun Z. et al., 2011)
<i>NOB1</i>	Nematode, Yeast	SOD1, C9orf72	(Jovicic et al., 2015; Wang J. et al., 2009)
<i>NUP50</i>	Fly	TDP43, C9orf72	(Boeynaems et al., 2016; Freibaum et al., 2015; Zhan et al., 2013)
<i>NUP107</i>	Fly	FUS, C9orf72	(Boeynaems et al., 2016; Sun Z. et al., 2011)
<i>PDE6D</i>	Nematode, Fly	SOD1, VAPB	(Deivasigamani et al., 2014; Silva et al., 2011)
<i>PELO</i>	Yeast, Fly	TDP43, C9orf72	(Armakola et al., 2012; Jovicic et al., 2015)
<i>PGM1</i>	Yeast, Fly	TDP43, C9orf72	(Kim H. J. et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2015)
<i>PIAS1</i>	Nematode, Fly	SOD1, VAPB	(Sanhueza et al., 2015; Wang J. et al., 2009)
<i>POLD3</i>	Yeast, Fly	C9orf72, VAPB	(Deivasigamani et al., 2014; Jovicic et al., 2015)
<i>PPP1R3C</i>	Fly, Yeast	C9orf72, FUS	(Sun Z. et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2015)
<i>RAN</i>	Human cells, Fly	TDP43, C9orf72	(Freibaum et al., 2015; Kim S. H. et al., 2012)
<i>RBM10</i>	Fly	C9orf72, VAPB	(Lee K. H. et al., 2016; Sanhueza et al., 2015)
<i>SAMD4A</i>	Yeast	TDP43, C9orf72	(Jovicic et al., 2015; Kim H. J. et al., 2014)
<i>SCARB1</i>	Fly	C9orf72, VAPB	(Sanhueza et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2015)
<i>SIRT1</i>	Fly	C9orf72, VAPB	(Sanhueza et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2015)
<i>SLC17A5</i>	Nematode, Fly	SOD1, C9orf72	(Wang J. et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2015)
<i>SOD1</i>	Fly	SOD1, VAPB	(Deivasigamani et al., 2014; Kumimoto et al., 2013)

Human Gene	Organism	Modifier for	Reference
<i>SRRT</i>	Fly	C9orf72, VAPB	(Deivasigamani et al., 2014; Freibaum et al., 2015)
<i>TARDBP</i>	Fly	TDP43, C9orf72, VAPB, VCP	(Deivasigamani et al., 2014; Lee K. H. et al., 2016; Ritson et al., 2010; Sreedharan et al., 2015; Wang J. W. et al., 2011)
<i>TNPO1</i>	Fly	C9orf72, VAPB	(Boeynaems et al., 2016; Deivasigamani et al., 2014)
<i>TOP1</i>	Nematode, Fly	SOD1, C9orf72	(Lee K. H. et al., 2016; Wang J. et al., 2009)
<i>UBR5</i>	Yeast, Fly	TDP43, C9orf72	(Kim H. J. et al., 2014; Lee K. H. et al., 2016)
<i>UQCRC2</i>	Nematode, Fly	SOD1, VAPB	(Deivasigamani et al., 2014; Silva et al., 2011)
<i>XPO1</i>	Nematode, Fly	SOD1, C9orf72	(Silva et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2015)

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