A genetic link between risk for Alzheimer’s disease and severe COVID-19 outcomes via the OAS1 gene

Naciye Magusali,1,† Andrew C. Graham,1,† Thomas M. Piers,2 Pantila Panichnantakul,1 Umran Yaman,1 Maryam Shoai,1,3 Regina H. Reynolds,3,4,5 Juan A. Botia,3,6 Keeley J. Brookes,7 Tamar Guetta-Baranes,8 Eftychia Bellou,9 Sevinc Bayram,10 Dimitra Sokolova,1 Mina Ryten,3,4,5 Carlo Sala Frigerio,1 Valentina Escott-Price,9 Kevin Morgan,8 Jennifer M. Pocock,2 John Hardy1,3 and Dervis A. Salih1

†These authors contributed equally to this work.

Recently, we reported oligoadenylate synthetase 1 (OAS1) contributed to the risk of Alzheimer’s disease, by its enrichment in transcriptional networks expressed by microglia. However, the function of OAS1 within microglia was not known. Using genotyping from 1313 individuals with sporadic Alzheimer’s disease and 1234 control individuals, we confirm the OAS1 variant, rs1131454, is associated with increased risk for Alzheimer’s disease. The same OAS1 locus has been recently associated with severe coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) outcomes, linking risk for both diseases. The single nucleotide polymorphisms rs1131454(A) and rs4766676(T) are associated with Alzheimer’s disease, and rs10735079(A) and rs6489867(T) are associated with severe COVID-19, where the risk alleles are linked with decreased OAS1 expression. Analysing single-cell RNA-sequencing data of myeloid cells from Alzheimer’s disease and COVID-19 patients, we identify co-expression networks containing interferon (IFN)-responsive genes, including OAS1, which are significantly upregulated with age and both diseases. In human induced pluripotent stem cell-derived microglia with lowered OAS1 expression, we show exaggerated production of TNF-α with IFN-γ stimulation, indicating OAS1 is required to limit the pro-inflammatory response of myeloid cells.

Collectively, our data support a link between genetic risk for Alzheimer’s disease and susceptibility to critical illness with COVID-19 centred on OAS1, a finding with potential implications for future treatments of Alzheimer’s disease and COVID-19, and development of biomarkers to track disease progression.

1 UK Dementia Research Institute at UCL, Gower Street, London WC1E 6BT, UK
2 Department of Neuroinflammation, Queen Square Institute of Neurology, UCL, London WC1N 1PJ, UK
3 Department of Neurodegenerative Diseases, Queen Square Institute of Neurology, UCL, London WC1N 1PJ, UK
4 NIHR Great Ormond Street Hospital Biomedical Research Centre, UCL, London WC1N 1EH, UK
5 Great Ormond Street Institute of Child Health, Genetics and Genomic Medicine, UCL, London WC1N 1EH, UK
6 Department of Information and Communications Engineering, Universidad de Murcia, 30100 Murcia, Spain
7 Biosciences, School of Science and Technology, Nottingham Trent University, Nottingham NG8 11NS, UK
8 Genetics, School of Life Sciences, Life Sciences Building, University Park, University of Nottingham, Nottingham NG7 2RD, UK
9 Dementia Research Institute, MRC Centre for Neuropsychiatric Genetics and Genomics, Cardiff University, Cardiff CF24 4HQ, UK
10 Hitachi Rail Europe Ltd, New Ludgate, London EC4M 7HX, UK

Received April 22, 2021. Revised July 19, 2021. Accepted August 02, 2021. Advance access publication October 7, 2021
© The Author(s) (2021). Published by Oxford University Press on behalf of the Guarantors of Brain.
This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial License (https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0/), which permits non-commercial re-use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited. For commercial re-use, please contact journals.permissions@oup.com
Introduction

Alzheimer’s disease is not only characterized by extracellular amyloid-β deposits, tau tangles and neuronal death, but also extensive neuroinflammatory changes, which may push amyloid pathology to form tau tangles. Genetic studies have revealed the importance of gene variants that alter risk for Alzheimer’s disease and are expressed by the innate immune system, including APOE, TREM2, CD33 and PLCG2.19–21 Integrating genetic variants with RNA-sequencing (RNA-seq) and single-cell RNA-sequencing (scRNA-seq) approaches has begun to provide important new insights into the heterogeneous microglial activity changes in Alzheimer’s disease progression, particularly in the identification of disease-associated microglia (DAM) or amyloid-responsive microglia (ARM).1,2 This work generally postulates that many Alzheimer’s disease risk genes, including APOE, TREM2, CD33 and PLCG2, serve in a related pathway to allow microglia to respond to amyloid-β deposition, altered synaptic activity or damaged phospholipid membranes to activate phagocytosis via the complement system.1,2,8,10,13 However, RNA-seq has also identified a parallel trajectory for activated microglia, distinct from DAM/ARM, the so-called ‘interferon-response microglia’ (IRM).1,10–13 The number of IRM increases during normal ageing, and increases even further in response to amyloid pathology.1,12 However, the mechanisms of action of IRM in both settings are not well understood.

Interferons (IFN) are cytokines that trigger a key response to mainly viral pathogens, and consist of three classes: type I (including IFN-α and IFN-β), type II (IFN-γ), and type III (IFN-λ). Interferon signalling is upregulated by an amplification loop in the presence of viruses such as influenza, hepatitis and severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2), leading to the restriction of viral spread, by eliciting a number of molecular effectors to inhibit transcription of viral nucleic acids, digest viral RNA, block translation and modify protein function.15 The microglial interferon response has recently been implicated in neuroinflammation and synapse loss in Alzheimer’s disease; however, it is unclear how interferon signalling and antiviral immune response pathways in microglia contribute to Alzheimer’s disease pathogenesis.1,9,16–20 It has been proposed that nucleic acid-containing amyloid fibrils induce the expression of interferon-stimulated genes in Alzheimer’s disease-associated mouse models, promoting the upregulation of pro-inflammatory markers and complement cascade-dependent synaptic elimination.16,21 Another potential contributor to interferon signalling is the DNA-sensing receptor cyclic GMP-AMP synthase (cGAS) and its downstream mediator STimulator of Interferon Genes (STING; cGAS-STING pathway), which respond to not only pathogen-derived nucleic acids, but also mitochondrial and genomic nucleic acids derived from stressed, senescent or dying cells in the CNS.22,23 While type I interferon signalling was reported to be associated with microglial activation patterns and Alzheimer’s disease, there are implications that type II interferon signalling also contributes to neuroinflammation and Alzheimer’s disease pathogenesis.24–26

The molecular machinery that drives antiviral responses includes interferon receptors (IFNAR and IFNGR), tyrosine kinase 2 (TYK2), IFN-stimulated protein of 15 kDa (ISG15, involved in an ubiquitin-like pathway), Mx GTPases (myxovirus resistance), protein kinase R (PKR; also known as eukaryotic translation initiation factor 2-alpha kinase 2, EIF2ak2), and the 2,5'-oligoadenylate synthetase (OAS)-regulated ribonucleic acid. Stimulation of interferon receptors leads to JAK-STAT signalling and induction of expression of interferon-stimulated genes, including OAS1 from IFN-stimulated response elements (ISREs) in their promoters, resulting in the activation of RNase L, which in turn degrades cellular and viral RNA.27,28 It has recently become apparent that the OAS proteins may also have additional functions that are independent of RNase L activity.27,28 It has also been shown that OAS1 is involved in the regulation of cytokine expression.31 We recently identified OAS1 as a putative new risk gene for Alzheimer’s disease, by integrating DNA sequence variation at the gene-level from human genome-wide association studies (GWAS) associated with Alzheimer’s disease, and a high-resolution RNA-seq transcriptome network expressed by mouse ARM.32 The ARM transcriptome contains several genes involved in interferon signalling, including other mouse OAS genes, the interferon receptor Ifnar2 and the coiled-coil alpha-helical rod protein 1, Cchcr1. In parallel work, recent GWAS have shown that several genes including OAS1, IFNAR2 and CCHCR1 involved in interferon signalling also contribute to the genetic risk associated with critical outcomes of coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) and requirement for intensive care.33,34 Deleterious gene variants have also been described in a number of genes involved in interferon signalling, including IFNAR1, IFNAR2 and IRF7 in patients with life-threatening COVID-19 pneumonia in an independent study.35 Indeed, neutralizing autoantibodies against interferons have been identified in individuals with life-threatening COVID-19, where these antibodies dampen the interferon response.35 These findings implicate the significance of interferon signalling pathways that could exacerbate the progression of Alzheimer’s disease and the severity of COVID-19.

Similar to neurological manifestations caused by other respiratory viruses, including influenza virus and human respiratory syncytial virus, the latest reports state that as many as 36–78% of individuals hospitalized with COVID-19 display neurological symptoms including encephalopathy, acute ischaemic cerebrovascular syndrome and neuropsychiatric manifestations.37–40 Although it is controversial whether SARS-CoV-2 is detectable in the CSF, the virus uses angiotensin converting enzyme 2 (ACE2) as a key receptor for entry; ACE2 is expressed by the endothelium of...
the blood–brain barrier, epithelial cells of the choroid plexus, and at a lower level by astrocytes, oligodendrocytes and nerve terminals (such as those of the olfactory system, which may allow retrograde spread).41-45 There is accumulating evidence that these brain structures and cells are infected with SARS-CoV-2 and are altering the cytokine profile of the brain.46,47 Elevated levels of pro-inflammatory cytokines including tumour necrosis factor-α (TNF-α), interleukin (IL)-1 and IL-6 in patients with severe COVID-19,48-56 trigger an inflammatory cascade leading to cell death. Consequently, a blunted response by the interferon signalling pathway against pathogens implicates a higher risk for developing Alzheimer’s disease and severe COVID-19. The ACE/ACE2 balance is disrupted in Alzheimer’s disease, and it is common for individuals with hypertension and neurodegeneration to receive long-term treatment with ACE inhibitors and angiotensin II receptor blockers, which may ultimately increase ACE2 expression and so increase risk of infection with SARS-CoV-2 and disease severity.57,58 Thus, the links between neurodegeneration, COVID-19, and neurological problems associated with COVID-19 are complex and likely involve multiple pathways. It is clear that investigating interferon pathways involved in antiviral responses will: (i) benefit our understanding of pathways involved in the progression of Alzheimer’s disease and infectious diseases like COVID-19; and (ii) provide new information for therapeutic approaches and identification of biomarkers to follow disease progression.

In this study, our genotyping analysis confirms that the single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) rs1131454 within OAS1 is significantly associated with Alzheimer’s disease. We found that SNPs within OAS1 associated with Alzheimer’s disease also show linkage disequilibrium (LD) with SNP variants associated with critical illness in COVID-19. SNPs rs1131454 (risk allele A) and rs4766676 (risk allele T) are associated with Alzheimer’s disease, and rs10735079 (risk allele A) and rs6489867 (risk allele T) are associated with critical illness with COVID-19, where these risk alleles show decreased expression of OAS1. Additionally, by investigating the transcriptome expressed by microglia and macrophages, we found genetic co-expression networks consisting of genes in interferon response pathways including OAS1, and the mouse orthologue Oas1a. In mouse microglia, the expression of this network was elevated with age and amyloid-β pathology. The equivalent co-expression network was also expressed in microglia from humans with Alzheimer’s disease and mild cognitive impairment, and in bronchoalveolar lavage fluid (BALF) macrophages, where the expression of this network is elevated with severe COVID-19. Finally, we found that reducing the expression of OAS1 using small interfering (si)RNA in human induced pluripotent stem cells (iPSCs) differentiated to microglia, results in an exaggerated pro-inflammatory response when stimulated with IFN-γ. Understanding the mechanisms by which OAS1 pathways bridge interferon and pro-inflammatory signalling in innate immune cells will be important to gain new insights into the progression of Alzheimer’s disease and severe/critical outcomes associated with COVID-19, and how to treat and track these diseases.

Materials and methods

Genotyping

DNA samples (n = 2547) were kindly obtained from six research institutes in the UK that are part of the Alzheimer’s Research UK (ARUK) Network. The ARUK series of samples included here are from Bristol, Leeds, Manchester, Nottingham, Oxford and Southampton (further details are given in Appendix 1 and the Supplementary material). This ARUK series has not been included in the IGAP consortium study and consisted of confirmed or probable Alzheimer’s disease diagnosis (n = 1313) and controls (n = 1234). Demographics for these samples are in Table 1. Since all demographic variables were found to be significantly different between the cases and controls (P < 0.0001), they were included as covariates in the subsequent analyses. The effects of covariates between cases and controls were tested for age (using a Student’s t-test), and APOE status and sex (using chi-squared tests). Samples were genotyped in-house using a TaqMan® genotyping assay for rs1131454 following standard protocols (Applied Biosystems); the genotyping rate for the samples was 69.7%. Association of the SNP with Alzheimer’s disease was conducted using logistic regression correcting for the covariates with the statistical analysis program PLINK.59

SNPs in the locus containing OAS1 associated with Alzheimer’s disease,60 and COVID-19,52 were illustrated with LocusZoom.61 Allele frequencies and LD between these SNPs were investigated using the 1000Genomes Phase 3 data (European populations, CEU and GBR),62 and LDLink,63,64 where the LD between SNPs was calculated with the LDpair tool (available at https://ldlink.ncl.nih.gov/?tab=ldpair using data from European populations, CEU, TSI and GBR). Allele-dependent expression of OAS1 at the four SNPs of interest (rs1131454 and rs4766676 associated with Alzheimer’s disease; rs10735079 and rs6489867 associated with critical illness with COVID-19), were investigated by mining data for whole blood, frontal cortex (BA9), and lung from the Genotype-Tissue Expression (GTEX) Project via the GTEX Portal on 17 June 2021.65

RNA-sequencing data preprocessing

The scRNA-seq datasets were generated from: (i) microglia isolated from the hippocampi of 3, 6, 12, and 21-month-old APPβE-C3 and wild-type mice (Sala Frigerio et al.,67 denoted SF data; downloaded from GSE127893; non-hippocampal samples were removed); (ii) microglia isolated from the dorsolateral prefrontal cortex of human individuals with Alzheimer’s disease or mild cognitive impairment (downloaded from Olah et al.,68 denoted OL data; epilepsy samples and clusters of cells identified by the authors to express high levels of non-microglial or dissociation-induced genes were removed); and (iii) macrophages isolated from BALF of three patients with moderate COVID-19, six patients with severe/critical COVID-19, and three healthy controls (Liao et al.,66 denoted LI data; downloaded from GSE145926). Datasets were filtered to remove cells that appeared either unhealthy (>5% ratio of mitochondrial to total counts for all datasets; <30 000 counts or <1000 genes detected for SF data; <1000 counts or <700 genes detected for OL data; <1000 counts or <200 genes for LI data), or potential doubltes (>1 000 000 counts for SF data; >100 000 counts for OL data; >15 000 counts for LI data) using Seurat’s subset function.67 Counts were normalized using Seurat’s SCTransform function with the method set to glmGamPoi, returning corrected Pearson’s residuals.67 The SF and OL data batch effects (sequencing plates for SF, patients for OL), were regressed out with glmGamPoi, returning corrected Pearson’s residuals. The SF and OL data batch effects (sequencing plates for SF, patients for OL), were regressed out with glmGamPoi, returning corrected Pearson’s residuals.
Table 1 SNP rs1131454 within OAS1 is associated with Alzheimer’s disease

|                | Mean AAD (SD) | % Female | % APOE* | G-allele frequency OR G-allele | P-value** |
|----------------|---------------|----------|---------|------------------------------|-----------|
| Alzheimer’s disease (n = 1313) | 76.7 (20.3) | 60.9     | 59.9    | 0.407                        | 0.0082    |
| Control (n = 1234)                  | 72.6 (11.4) | 53.0     | 26.3    | 0.448                        |           |

Sample demographic and association result for the genotyping carried out on SNP rs1131454 within the OAS1 gene using the IGAP independent samples from the ARUK DNA bank.

* Covariates for Alzheimer’s disease including age at death (AAD), sex and presence of APOE ε4 alleles were found to be significantly different between cases and controls (P < 0.001).
** The association of the G allele for a protective effect was significant after controlling for covariates.

were then reclustered as above. Raw counts and corrected Pearson’s residuals were extracted from SF/OL data’s Seurat objects, and raw counts and corrected and integrated Pearson’s residuals were extracted from LI data’s Seurat object. Genes not reliably detected (zero raw counts in >95% of cells in every cluster of cells, assigned by the original authors for SF/OL, or identified as above for LI data), were removed from all datasets. Finally, genes showing low variation in expression between cells (coefficient of variation for Pearson’s residuals <15%) were removed, as they are not informative for co-expression analysis.

Bulk RNA-seq datasets generated from microglia isolated from the hippocampi of aged (22 months of age) and adult (2 months of age) wild-type mice,69 the cortices of wild-type and PSEN2/APP mice at 14–15 months of age (PS2APP line),13 or the parietal cortices of humans of different ages70 were downloaded from GSE123847, GSE89482, and GSE99074, respectively. Data were normalized using DeSeq2’s estimateSizeFactors function and transformed by log2(normalized counts + 1).71 Genes with an average detection level <1.5 normalized counts were removed. Expression associated with sequencing batch in the O’Neil et al.69 dataset was removed using Limma’s removeBatchEffect function, preserving the effect of age using the mod argument.72 Batch information was not available for data from Friedman et al.,13 or Galatro et al.73

Co-expression network analysis

Co-expression network analysis was performed on preprocessed Pearson’s residuals derived from scRNA-seq datasets using CoExpNets’ getDownstreamNetwork function. CoExpNets is an optimization of the popular weighted gene co-expression network analysis (WGCNA) package,73 which uses an additional k-means clustering step to reassign genes to more appropriate modules, producing more biologically relevant and reproducible modules.74 The expression of the mouse interferon-response module was represented by the mean log2 normalized expression of the 60 most central module genes in microglia isolated from aged versus young adult wild-type mice, and PSEN2/APP versus wild-type mice, and by applying Student’s t-test (the 60 most central module genes were ranked by module membership scores calculated by CoExpNets’ getMM function) per sample in processed O’Neil et al.69 and Friedman et al.13 datasets, respectively. Linear regression was used to assess the association between the mean log2(normalized expression + 1) of the 60 most central module genes (as a proxy of module expression) and age in the human cortical microglia dataset,70 accounting for the covariates of gender, site of origin, and post-mortem delay, using the R lm function. Two samples for which post-mortem delay was not provided, were not included in the regression. The assumptions of normality of residuals, homoscedasticity, and linearity were met, and the results were robust to removal of potential outliers. To assess the expression of the OAS1-containing module identified in LI data, we calculated the mean module eigengene score (first principal component of module expression, giving a reliable indicator of relative module expression in each cell) for macrophages from each patient. We assessed whether the mean module eigengene value was significantly influenced by COVID-19 status (healthy control, severe, and modest) using a Kruskal-Wallis test. Following a significant Kruskal-Wallis result (P < 0.05), group comparisons between control and modest disease, and control and severe disease were made with Dunn’s multiple comparisons tests. Gene set enrichment analysis of genes present in both human OAS1-containing modules was conducted with the gprofiler2 R package,75 using all the genes present in the co-expression analysis as a custom background, multiple test comparisons were accounted for by calculating an FDR using the Benjamini-Hochberg procedure.

Pseudotime analysis

To infer pseudotime trajectories of microglial activation, we followed the standard workflow of the Monocle 2 R package,66,76 to calculate single-cell trajectories by ordering cells by their expression of the 1000 genes most significantly differentially expressed between cell clusters (ranked by qvalue), previously identified by Sala Frigerio et al.8

Cell culture

Human iPSC-derived microglia cells were generated from the BIONi010-C human iPSC line (EBiSC, originating from a non-demented, normal male (15–19 years old). Differentiation to human iPSC-derived microglia was essentially as described by Xiang et al.78 Briefly, the protocol was as follows: embryoid body differentiation media for 2 days (consisted of Essential 8™, 50 ng/ml BMP4, 50 ng/ml VEGF, 20 ng/ml SCF, and 10 μM Y-27632), then myeloid differentiation media for 30 days (consisted of X-VIVO™ 15 medium (Lonza), GlutaMAX™ (Life Technologies), 100 U/ml penicillin/streptomycin (Life Technologies), 50 μM β-mercaptoethanol (Life Technologies), 100 ng/ml M-CSF (Peprotech), and 25 ng/ml IL-3 (Cell Guidance Systems)]. These myeloid cells were seeded at a density of 5 x 10^4 cells/well in six-well plates, followed by microglial differentiation media for 13 days (consisted of: DMEM/F12 HEPES no phenol red, 2% ITS-G (Life Technologies), 1% N2 supplement (Life Technologies), 200 μM monothioglycerol (Sigma), GlutaMAX™ NEAA (Life Technologies), 5 μg/ml insulin (Sigma), 100 ng/ml IL-34 (Peprotech), 25 ng/ml M-CSF and 5 ng/ml TGFβ-1 (Peprotech) and finally, microglia maturation media for 4 days (consisted of: microglial differentiation media plus 100 ng/ml CD200 (Generon), and 100 ng/ml CX3CL1 (Peprotech)).

Small interfering RNA transfection

Human iPSC-derived microglia in six-well plates were treated with 125 μl Opti-MEM® containing 3.75 μl Lipofectamine® RNAiMAX (#13778150, Thermo Fisher Scientific), according to the
CtA 3

0

RNA were treated with DNase I amplification grade (#18068015, Thermo Scientific) to reduce contaminating genomic DNA, equal amounts of universaL qPCR master mix (#M3003L, NEB), and 3 μM of lo nuclease-free water, the reactions of each sample across the different conditions were confirmed by the melting curve analysis, where samples gave only a single peak and RT-negative control samples gave no signal. For normalization of gene expression levels, the corresponding author, upon reasonable request.

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author, upon reasonable request.

Results

SNPs associated with OAS1 are linked to risk for Alzheimer’s disease and critical illness with COVID-19

Our recent work overlapping the mouse amyloid-associated transcriptome network (bulk RNA-seq) with human gene-level-aggregated Alzheimer’s disease risk variants, identified a microglial co-expression network, whose eigengene strongly correlated with the level of amyloid-β pathology and contained the mouse orthologues of many known human GWAS loci (including TREM2 and APOE). This work also predicted the importance of several previously unidentified risk genes, including OAS1, and demonstrated a co-localization between Alzheimer’s disease risk loci and expression quantitative trait loci (eQTLs) regulating expression of the mean of Ct values of RPS18, GAPDH, and HPRT1. Gene expression analyses were performed by following the GeNorm method. ELISA of TNF-α secreted by human induced pluripotent stem cell-derived microglia

For ELISA analyses, supernatants from human iPS-derived microglia cultures were collected, centrifuged to remove cell debris and stored at –20°C. TNF-α levels were quantified using the Quantikine human TNF-α ELISA kit (DTA00D, R&D Systems), following the manufacturer’s instructions. In general, equal volumes of cell supernatants, together with the provided buffer, were loaded in duplicates to the ELISA microplate and incubated for 2 h. Following four washes, they were then incubated with horseradish peroxidase-conjugated horseradish peroxidase-conjugated human TNF-α antibody for another 2 h. The microplate was washed again and incubated with a substrate solution prepared with chromogen (TMB) and hydrogen peroxide for 30 min before addition of a stop solution with sulphuric acid. Then the colour intensity was measured at 450 nm, and 540 nm to assess the background signal, using a FLUOstar Omega microplate reader and the TNF-α concentrations in human iPS-derived microglia supernatants were calculated from the standard curve.

Interferon-γ treatment

Human iPS-derived microglia were treated with 33 ng/ml human interferon-γ (#AF-300-02, PeproTech), at 4 h following siRNA transfection.

RNA extraction and cDNA synthesis

Prior to lysis, human iPS-derived microglia cells were washed with Dulbecco’s phosphate-buffered saline (DPBS). Total RNA was extracted using the Monarch Total RNA Miniprep Kit (#T2010S, NEB), following the manufacturer’s guidelines. The total RNA quantity and purity (A260/A280 ratio) were assessed with a NanoDrop spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific). For further reduction of contaminating genomic DNA, equal amounts of RNA were treated with DNase I amplification grade (#18068015, Thermo Fisher Scientific) and RNaseOUT recombiant ribonuclease inhibitor (#10770719, Thermo Fisher Scientific). All RNA samples were reverse transcribed using the LunaScript™ RT supermix kit (#E3010L, NEB), according to the manufacturer’s protocol. In parallel, negative controls were generated with the same procedure except the reverse transcriptase was omitted from the master mix (RT-negative control).

Real-time quantitative PCR

Primers for genes of interest were designed using Primer-BLAST (NCBI) to test their specificity against the whole human transcriptome. Primers were tested in two steps. The first step was to resolve the products of a standard PCR on a 3% agarose Tris-acetate-EDTA gel, stained with SYBR® Safe (Thermo Fisher Scientific) to assess the correct product size and presence of only one product. The second step was to test the primers with RT-qPCR using SYBR® Green to check the linearity range of a dilution series of cDNA template, to test primer efficiency (90–105%), and to confirm primer specificity using a melt curve. Primers with good efficiency were selected (Supplementary Table 1).

Each real-time quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR) reaction comprised 1.5 μL of cDNA, 0.25 μM forward and reverse primers, 5 μL of Luna® Universal qPCR Master Mix (#M3003L, NEB), and 3 μL of nucleo-

Free water. The reactions of each sample across the different conditions were loaded in triplicate with a RT-negative control sample. The reactions were run in 384-well plates on a LightCycler®480 real-time PCR system (Roche) with cycling conditions of 95°C for 5 min (preincubation), 45 cycles of 95°C for 10 s, 60°C for 30 s (amplification), 95°C for 5 s, 65°C for 1 min, raised to 97°C (ramp rate 0.11°C/s) (melting curve). The product specificity of all reactions was confirmed by the melting curve analysis, where samples gave only a single peak and RT-negative control samples gave no signal. For normalization of gene expression levels, the stability of internal control reference genes was tested to ensure the reference genes used were stable across siRNA and IFN-γ treatment. The highest stability was seen with the geometric mean of Ct values of RPS18, GAPDH, and HPRT1. Gene expression analyses were performed by following the GeNorm method. ELISA of TNF-α secreted by human induced pluripotent stem cell-derived microglia

For ELISA analyses, supernatants from human iPS-derived microglia cultures were collected, centrifuged to remove cell debris and stored at –20°C. TNF-α levels were quantified using the Quantikine human TNF-α ELISA kit (DTA00D, R&D Systems), following the manufacturer’s instructions. In general, equal volumes of cell supernatants, together with the provided buffer, were loaded in duplicates to the ELISA microplate and incubated for 2 h. Following four washes, they were then incubated with horseradish peroxidase-conjugated human TNF-α antibody for another 2 h. The microplate was washed again and incubated with a substrate solution prepared with chromogen (TMB) and hydrogen peroxide for 30 min before addition of a stop solution with sulphuric acid. Then the colour intensity was measured at 450 nm, and 540 nm to assess the background signal, using a FLUOstar Omega microplate reader and the TNF-α concentrations in human iPS-derived microglia supernatants were calculated from the standard curve.

Statistical analyses for cell culture experiments

All statistical analyses were conducted on GraphPad Prism 9. For experiments with human iPS-derived microglia under basal conditions, comparisons between multiple groups were analysed by using repeated-measures one-way ANOVA (repeated for wells treated with different siRNA in the same plate) followed by Dunnett’s multiple comparisons tests comparing every test group with the negative control group. For experiments with human iPS-derived microglia in response to IFN-γ treatment and siRNA treatments, comparisons between factors were tested with two-way ANOVA followed with Tukey’s multiple comparisons tests to compare all possible permutations of sample groups. Significant differences are indicated as follows: *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001, ****P < 0.0001. Data are shown as mean ± standard error of the mean (SEM), where the sample size (n) represents individuals in cell preparations.

Data availability

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author, upon reasonable request.

Results

SNPs associated with OAS1 are linked to risk for Alzheimer’s disease and critical illness with COVID-19

Our recent work overlapping the mouse amyloid-associated transcriptome network (bulk RNA-seq) with human gene-level-aggregated Alzheimer’s disease risk variants, identified a microglial co-expression network, whose eigengene strongly correlated with the level of amyloid-β pathology and contained the mouse orthologues of many known human GWAS loci (including TREM2 and APOE). This work also predicted the importance of several previously unidentified risk genes, including OAS1, and demonstrated a co-localization between Alzheimer’s disease risk loci and expression quantitative trait loci (eQTLs) regulating OAS1 expression in: (i) human iPS-derived macrophages stimulated with a combination of IFN-γ and salmonella; and (ii) human monocytes stimulated with lipopolysaccharide or 5'-triphosphate dsRNA.
To evaluate Alzheimer’s disease-associated genetic variation in OAS1, we genotyped the top SNP, rs1131454, identified by our gene-level analysis of the Lambert et al. GWAS. SNP rs1131454 was genotyped in 1313 individuals with sporadic Alzheimer’s disease and 1234 control individuals that were not included in the original cohort from Lambert et al. We found a significant association of rs1131454 with Alzheimer’s disease in this independent cohort of Alzheimer’s disease and control individuals (Table 1).

To determine whether Alzheimer’s disease-associated SNPs in close proximity to OAS1 were in LD with recently identified SNPs related to critical outcomes with COVID-19, we used the 1000Genomes Phase 3 database (CEU and GBR populations) to identify two top SNPs adjacent to OAS1, rs1131454 (identified using data from Lambert et al.) and rs4766676 (identified using data from Kunkle et al.), and two SNPs associated with severe COVID-19 responses, rs6489867 and rs10735079 using LDpair. This suggests that four risk alleles adjacent to the OAS1 and OAS3 genes may form part of a haplotype that contributes to both risk for Alzheimer’s disease and a severe response with COVID-19 (Table 2). The risk alleles at each of the four SNPs we highlighted were associated with decreased expression of OAS1 by mining the data from the GTEx Project (Supplementary Fig. 1 and Supplementary Table 2). Significant effects were seen for all four SNPs associated with OAS1 expression in whole blood, while not significant for some SNPs, the same pattern was seen for frontal cortex and lung (where the contribution of myeloid cells to the signal is diluted by other cell types). In parallel, mining our transcriptome-wide association study (TWAS) analysis of Alzheimer’s disease, provided further evidence that genetic variants associated with decreased expression of OAS1 are significantly more prevalent in patients with Alzheimer’s disease (Supplementary Table 3). Together with results from our previous Alzheimer’s disease-associated co-localization analyses, the SNP-associated expression data in healthy individuals and patients with Alzheimer’s disease presented here, suggests that there may be multiple complex or pleiotropic variant(s) within the OAS gene cluster that modulate risk for both Alzheimer’s disease and severe COVID-19, via regulation of OAS1 expression.

Genetic networks involving OAS1 are upregulated with ageing, amyloid plaques and severe COVID-19

To understand the microglial function of OAS1, we initially assessed the mouse orthologue, Oas1a, within co-expression networks generated from microglia isolated from A珏NL-G-F knock-in and wild-type C57BL/6J mice at 3 to 21 months of age, profiled by scRNA-seq. We identified a co-expression transcriptomic network containing Oas1a by utilizing a modified version of WGCNA, which produces more biologically relevant co-expression networks (Fig. 2A). The module containing Oas1a contained many interferon-responsive genes (Ifit1, Ifit2, Iif3, Ifim3, Stat1, Stat2, Usp18 and Mx1), as expected, and pro-inflammatory cytokines (Tnf) (Supplementary Table 4). We then used semi-supervised pseudo-time analysis to visualize how the expression of this gene module changes as microglia transition from a homeostatic state to two different activation states ARM and IRM (Fig. 2B). This revealed that Oas1a and the interferon-response module were upregulated in microglia that transition along one branch of this trajectory towards the IRM state (Fig. 2C). This module showed increased expression in microglia isolated and pooled (bulk RNA-seq) from aged wild-type mice compared with young mice (Fig. 2D). Moreover, this interferon module showed increased expression in microglial isolated and pooled from PSEN2/APP mice, which exhibit amyloid-β pathology characteristic of Alzheimer’s disease, relative to wild-type mice (Fig. 2E). Importantly, performing similar analyses in microglia isolated from human brains with Alzheimer’s disease, we identified a related interferon-response network containing OAS1 and other interferon-responsive genes (overlap with mouse IRM network P = 3.7 × 10⁻13, Fisher’s exact test) (Fig. 3A and Supplementary Table 5). This human interferon-response module showed a significant positive association with age.

Figure 1 The genomic position of four SNPs on 12q24: rs1131454 and rs4766676 (associated with Alzheimer’s disease) and rs6489867 (associated with critical illness with COVID-19) relative to OAS1. We have confirmed rs1131454 is associated with Alzheimer’s disease (Table 1) following our analysis of Alzheimer’s disease GWAS data (our data is given in Salih et al. which was derived from further analysis of the GWAS data in Lambert et al.). We identified the association of rs4766676 with Alzheimer’s disease (our data is given in Salih et al. which was derived from further analysis of the GWAS data in Kunkle et al.). SNPs rs10735079 and rs6489867 are associated with severe illness with COVID-19. The R² scale indicates LD between rs1131454 (the reference SNP, purple), compared with the other three SNPs. Drawn with LocusZoom.
Table 2 The frequencies of SNPs associated with Alzheimer’s disease and COVID-19

| RS number | Position (GRCh37) | Allele frequencies | Haplotypes |
|-----------|-------------------|--------------------|------------|
| rs1131454 | chr12:113348870    | A = 0.582, G = 0.418 | A G G A    |
| rs6489867 | chr12:113363550    | T = 0.624, C = 0.376  | T C T C    |
| rs4766676 | chr12:113365581    | T = 0.626, C = 0.374  | T C T C    |
| rs10735079| chr12:113380008    | A = 0.632, G = 0.368  | A G A G    |

Haplotype count

| Haplotype count | 213 | 132 | 23  | 7   |
|-----------------|-----|-----|-----|-----|

Haplotype frequency

| Haplotype frequency | 0.5605 | 0.3474 | 0.0605 | 0.0184 |

Strong correlation between the SNPs associated with Alzheimer’s disease and COVID-19 suggesting they might form part of a haplotype group. Allele frequency at these SNPs was investigated using the 1000Genomes Phase 3 data (CEU and GBR populations),62 and LDlink.63,64

Figure 2 An interferon response-associated gene module is present along a distinct microglial activation trajectory upregulated in aged mice and mice with amyloid pathology. (A) The genetic network containing Oas1a from microglial cells isolated from wild-type and APP<sup>NL-G-F</sup> knock-in mice at 3, 6, 12 and 21 months of age analysed by scRNA-seq.9 The 50 genes showing the highest connectivity are plotted, and Oas1a is highlighted with a black oval. Green nodes represent genes, edge lines represent co-expression connections, and the central large red nodes are the hub genes (the full network given in Supplementary Table 4). (B) Semi-supervised pseudotime ordering of microglial cells isolated from wild-type and APP<sup>NL-G-F</sup> knock-in mice based on expression,7 with Monocle 2, shows homeostatic cells as the root state, and ARM and IRM as the end points of distinct activation trajectories. (C) The gene module containing Oas1a is upregulated (yellow data-points) along the IRM-associated activation trajectory. The expression of this module is relatively absent from both the root homeostatic state and the ARM trajectory (purple data-points). (D) Mean normalized expression of the 60 most central genes in the interferon-response module is greater in microglia isolated from aged wild-type relative to young adult (6–8 weeks versus 16–18 months of age; n = 6 mice per group). Data are shown as mean SEM. Student’s t-test; **P < 0.01. Further analysis of data from O’Neil et al.69 (E) Mean normalized expression of the 60 most central genes in the interferon-response module is greater in microglia isolated from PSEN2/APP relative to wild-type mice at 14–15 months of age (n = 6–9 mice per group). Data are shown as mean SEM. Student’s t-test; ****P < 0.0001. Further analysis of data from Friedman et al.13
An interferon-response-associated gene module in the microglia of humans with Alzheimer’s disease shows significant overlap with an interferon-response gene module in lung macrophages of patients with severe COVID-19. (A) Genetic network plot of an interferon-response associated module detected in microglial cells isolated from human Alzheimer’s disease patients and individuals with MCI analysed by scRNA-seq. This module shows a significant overlap with the interferon-response module detected in mice (Fig. 2A) (the full network is given in Supplementary Table 5). A hub gene of this module is CD163, and a number of other macrophage marker genes are prominent within this module (TGFBI, F13A1, LY6E and LYZ), indicating that expression of OAS1 and other interferon-response genes in the human Alzheimer’s disease patient brains are either associated

(Continued)
in microglia isolated and pooled from the parietal cortices of humans, ranging from 34 to 102 years of age,\textsuperscript{70} even when factoring in the potential covariates of gender, site of origin, and post-mortem delay ($P=0.0168$, coefficient $=0.016$, linear regression) (Fig. 3B). These findings suggest that a discrete population of interferon-responsive microglia, defined by co-expression of OAS1, interferon-responsive genes, and pro-inflammatory cytokines, may play a role in amyloidosis, as well as ageing, the major risk factor for Alzheimer’s disease and COVID-19.\textsuperscript{80,87}

To investigate how the interferon-response microglial network containing OAS1 from Alzheimer’s disease brains was related to myeloid cell activation during COVID-19, we performed a similar analysis in BALF macrophages from COVID-19 patients with modest or severe disease, and healthy controls. We identified a co-expression module again containing OAS1 and many interferon-responsive genes in BALF macrophages (Fig. 3C and Supplementary Table 6). This module partially overlapped with the microglial OAS1-containing module (64 genes common to both networks, $P=7 \times 10^{-21}$, Fisher’s exact test). Genes overlapping in the Alzheimer’s disease microglial and COVID-19 macrophage networks showed significant enrichment for the ‘type-I interferon response’ GO term (FDR = 6.5 $\times 10^{-15}$). The average expression of this module was elevated in macrophages from severe but not modest COVID-19 patients, relative to healthy controls ($P<0.003$ for significant effect of disease state, Kruskal-Wallis test; mean module eigengene value in severe versus control $P=0.031$, Dunn’s multiple comparisons test) (Fig. 3D). These findings indicate that OAS1 is expressed alongside interferon-responsive genes in alveolar macrophages, as well as microglia, and so may participate in the interferon-response in both myeloid subtypes. Furthermore, this response appears to be upregulated during severe COVID-19, ageing and amyloid-$\beta$ pathology.

**OAS1 coordinates the pro-inflammatory response of human induced pluripotent stem cell-derived microglia**

To study the function of OAS1 in human microglia, we used siRNA to knockdown expression of OAS1 in human iPSC-derived microglia. We obtained knockdown of OAS1 expression to around 30–40% of endogenous levels under non-stimulated conditions (Supplementary Fig. 2). Under these basal conditions, the expression profiles of commonly used markers covering various microglial functions including homeostasis, phagocytosis, pro- and anti-inflammatory signalling, and genes from the interferon-responsiveness networks, generally remained unchanged by OAS1 knockdown in human iPSC-derived microglia. In response to IFN-$\gamma$ treatment, OAS1 expression increased by around 3.5-fold, and OAS1 knockdown with siRNA was still effective in the presence of IFN-$\gamma$ (Fig. 4A). Treatment with IFN-$\gamma$ also induced the expression of pro-inflammatory marker TNF by around 30-fold in human iPSC-derived microglia, but with OAS1 knockdown the induction of TNF was further significantly increased to around 45-fold compared with control cells treated with non-targeting siRNA (Fig. 4B). We confirmed the increased secretion of TNF-$\gamma$ into the human iPSC-derived microglia culture media in samples with OAS1 knockdown in the presence of IFN-$\gamma$ compared with cells treated with non-targeting siRNA and IFN-$\gamma$ (Fig. 4C). At the same time, C1QA expression showed a significant but modest increase with OAS1 knockdown (Fig. 4D). Treatment with IFN-$\gamma$ resulted in increased expression of TGF$\beta$1, CD68, P2RY12, IFITM3 and STAT1, decreased expression of TREM2, and had no effect on IL1B, ITGAM and CD163 expression, with OAS1 knockdown not altering the expression of these genes (Supplementary Fig. 3). Therefore, OAS1 appeared to dampen the pro-inflammatory response involving TNF-$\gamma$ following IFN-$\gamma$ stimulation, with a modest effect on dampening the expression of C1QA complement.

**Discussion**

GWAS studies have revealed the importance of innate immune cells in moderating the risk of Alzheimer’s disease, with the discovery of variants in genes such as TREM2, CD33 and PLCG2. A number of studies have shown that several of these genes are likely involved in the same signalling pathway or functioning in the same subpopulation of microglia to control their activation to a so-called DAM or ARM state.\textsuperscript{8,9,37,38,89} These DAM or ARM cells are thought to regulate complement-dependent phagocytosis of synapses, which may be dependent on phospholipid signals presented on damaged cell membranes.\textsuperscript{109,100,91} Emerging data also indicate that other subpopulations of microglia play a significant role in Alzheimer’s disease and ageing, particularly the IRM cells, and may also express genes that confer risk for Alzheimer’s disease.\textsuperscript{9,12,53,88,89} We recently identified the interferon-responsive gene OAS1 as a putative risk gene for Alzheimer’s disease by combining transcriptional changes in the presence of amyloid plaques and gene-level variation from GWAS data.\textsuperscript{70} Here, we confirm that rs1131454 within OAS1 is associated with Alzheimer’s disease when we genotype an independent cohort of 1313 individuals with Alzheimer’s disease and 1234 control individuals. Additionally, we show that rs1131454 is in LD with newly identified SNPs associated with critical illness due to COVID-19, suggesting that the same locus regulates the risk for both Alzheimer’s disease and severe outcomes with COVID-19. Furthermore, by building genetic transcriptome networks using scRNA-seq of isolated mouse microglia, we show that an interferon-response pathway containing the mouse orthologue Oas1a exhibits increased expression during ageing in microglia. This indicates that the expression of the
Tukey’s multiple comparisons tests were then performed to test for interaction was seen between IFN-γ and TNF-α. Two-way ANOVA; significant main effects of IFN-γ response to IFN-γ application, and accentuated expression with OAS1 knockdown. Two-way ANOVA with significant main effects of IFN-γ treatment (P < 0.001), and siRNA treatment (P = 0.015) indicated as horizontal and vertical red lines, respectively, with a significant interaction (P < 0.001). (B) TNF expression, as a marker of the pro-inflammatory response, showed significant upregulation in response to IFN-γ application, and accentuated expression with OAS1 knockdown. Two-way ANOVA with significant main effects of IFN-γ treatment (P < 0.001), and siRNA treatment (P = 0.015) indicated as horizontal and vertical red lines, respectively, with a significant interaction (P = 0.023). (C) ELISA of TNF-α levels in the conditioned human iPSC-derived microglia media. TNF-α levels were normalized to the geometric mean of GAPDH, HPRT1 and RPS18 assessed by RT-qPCR. Note that TNF-α protein was not detectable in the media of human iPSC-derived microglia not treated with IFN-γ. n = 5 independent plates. Data are shown as mean SEM. Paired Student’s t-test (paired for wells on same plate); *P < 0.05. (D) C1QA expression was increased with OAS1 knockdown. Two-way ANOVA with significant main effect of only siRNA treatment (P = 0.029), not IFN-γ treatment (P > 0.05), indicated as a vertical red line, with no significant interaction (P > 0.05). Gene expression levels were normalized to the geometric mean of GAPDH, HPRT1 and RPS18, then calculated as fold change relative to the non-targeting siRNA control (vehicle control) without IFN-γ treatment in each individual culture preparation. n = 5 independent plates. Data are shown as mean SEM. Two-way ANOVA; significant main effects of IFN-γ treatment and OAS1 knockdown indicated by red lines. When a significant interaction was seen between IFN-γ treatment and siRNA treatment, Tukey’s multiple comparisons tests were then performed to test for pairwise significance of all groups; *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001, ****P < 0.0001.

interferon pathway occurs within a specific subpopulation of innate immune cells and contributes to age-dependent changes that may predispose or protect some people in the population against these age-related diseases. We identify a related network of interferon-responsive genes containing OAS1 in human microglia isolated post-mortem from patients with Alzheimer’s disease, which also shows increased expression with age in microglia isolated from healthy individuals. Furthermore, macrophages from patients with severe COVID-19 upregulate an interferon-response-associated gene network containing OAS1 that significantly overlaps with the Alzheimer’s disease-associated microglial network. Finally, with functional experiments using human iPSC-derived microglia, we show that OAS1 levels moderate the pro-inflammatory response of myeloid cells in response to elevated interferon levels. Thus, individuals with lower levels of OAS1 due to eQTL variants may show a strong pro-inflammatory response to Alzheimer’s disease-associated pathology and COVID-19, potentially triggering damage and cell death in neighbouring cells such as neurons and alveolar cells, by initiating a ‘cytokine storm’.

The data presented here provide support for OAS1 linking Alzheimer’s disease and critical illness with COVID-19 by controlling the pro-inflammatory output of myeloid cells. OAS1 is an oligoadenylate synthetase enzyme that binds dsRNA and changes conformation to generate oligoadenylates and activate RNase L to digest RNA. It has also been proposed that OAS1 may have RNase-independent roles. OAS1 is expressed by multiple cell types in the myeloid lineage including monocytes, macrophages, and microglia, as well as natural killer cell lymphocytes. Here, we show that rs1131454 within OAS1 is associated with Alzheimer’s disease, and previously we showed that this locus acts as an eQTL regulating the expression of OAS1 in monocytes and iPSC macrophages stimulated with 5’-triphosphate dsRNA and a combination of IFN-γ and salmonella, respectively. Also in the same locus is OAS2, which was independently shown to be associated with Alzheimer’s disease. Recent work has identified other SNPs close to this locus associated with severe responses to COVID-19 that also act as eQTLs and regulate the expression of OAS1, OAS3 and other distal genes such as DTX1 and DTX3. Indeed, a series of different variants have been identified within OAS1 that modify susceptibility to infection with SARS-CoV-2, other viruses such as hepatitis C, developing type 1 diabetes, and multiple sclerosis; these variants have been proposed to cause amino acid changes, altered splicing (spliceQTLs) and altered expression (eQTLs). A recent study has identified a haplotype of ∼75 kb centred around the OAS locus inherited from Neanderthals that is protective against COVID-19, suggesting that there has been genetic selection at this locus during European history. Given the variety of SNPs associated with OAS1 and their influence on diseases related to innate immune function, this suggests that these SNPs tag a complex and/or pleiotropic genetic variant that alters the expression of OAS1, as opposed to a variant that alters OAS1 enzyme activity. The different SNPs tagging the OAS1 variant may be in different chromosomal positions in different people, with different effect sizes. It is also possible that varying LD in individuals within different studies and populations results in the true causal variant being tagged by different SNPs in different people and studies. Several studies described here show altered expression of OAS1 associated with these SNPs. Another possibility that has been proposed is that different SNPs within this locus differentially regulate the expression of genes within this cluster in different immune cells based on chromatin conformation, although further work needs to be done to test the effects of different variants in other immune cell types including microglia and other tissue-specific macrophages, such as alveolar macrophages.

Lowering the expression of OAS1 using siRNA to mimic the effects of an eQTL demonstrated that OAS1 is required to dampen the expression and release of pro-inflammatory marker TNF-α when the levels of IFN-γ increase. Thus, individuals with eQTL variants that result in lower levels of OAS1 expression may show more severe disease phenotypes associated with both Alzheimer’s disease and critical illness with COVID-19.
disease and COVID-19, as a result of increased TNF-α and other pro-inflammatory cytokines. TNF-α and IFN-γ have been shown to have a synergistic effect on cell death,54 and so could damage nearby neurons and alveolar cells. TNF-α with C1Q complement (which also shows elevated expression in our human iPSC-derived microglia system in response to OAS1 knockdown), has been shown to induce the activation of reactive astrocytes, which contribute to synaptic damage, phagocytosis, and death of neurons and oligodendrocytes.105 Previously, we and others have shown that pro-inflammatory signals also suppress the expression of Trem2 via TLR4 receptors.106–109 Our data are consistent with the suppression of TREM2 expression as a response to IFN-γ and TNF-α in human iPSC-derived microglia. Given that TREM2 is likely to have a protective role in Alzheimer’s disease and slow disease progression, elevated pro-inflammatory signals could increase the risk and progression of Alzheimer’s disease by suppressing this protective signal. TNF-α also activates PKR/EIF2a/S, which is downstream of interferon signalling via TLR4, and consequently the protein activator of the IFN-inducible protein kinase (PRKRA) leading to apoptosis.15,110 Altogether, chronic elevation of interferon signalling and subsequent TNF-α release could contribute to the development of dementia.

Pseudotime and network analysis of microglia isolated from APP695–693 and wild-type C57BL/6J mice across a variety of ages identified that Oas1a was upregulated alongside a co-expression network associated with interferon and pro-inflammatory responses expressed by a distinct sub-population of microglia transitioning to the IRM state. This network contained Oas1a (the mouse orthologue of OAS1 with 68% identity at the protein level), other Oas family members, Mx1, Stat1/2, and Ifit3, Ifitm3 and Usp18 as hub genes. The expression of this network of genes was increased with age in wild-type mice, and the equivalent human network was increased with age in microglia isolated from healthy humans. This finding suggests that the upregulation of interferon-responsive genes with age might mitigate the age-related damage by limiting pro-inflammatory signalling. Any dysfunction due to genetic variants in interferon signalling could result in persistent pro-inflammatory signalling and/or suppression of protective genes such as TREM2, which could lead to dementia or severe COVID-19. Age is one of the strongest risk factors for severe COVID-19 responses and Alzheimer’s disease.66,67 and so understanding the function of this genetic network will be important to attenuate the age-dependent contribution to these diseases.

The interferon-responsive genes seen in aged mice, and mice with amyloid plaques, were also expressed in a specific sub-population of microglia that are present in brains from people with Alzheimer’s disease.19 The genetic network we identified in human brains with Alzheimer’s disease containing OAS1 and other interferon-responsive genes, identified Ifitm3, C16D3 and Isg15 as hub genes. CD163 is a marker of a subset of border-associated macrophages (BAMs) that are present at the borders of the brain, including the meninges and choroid plexus, and is thought to represent an anti-inflammatory state in these cells, indicating the resolution of inflammation.111–114 Indeed, emerging evidence suggests that SARS-CoV-2 is able to infect the brain vasculature, meninges and choroid plexus, which would result in activation of BAMs and alter the cytokine environment around the brain leading to blood–brain barrier breakdown, infiltration of immune cells into the brain, activation of astrocytes and phagocytosis of neurons. Coupling these findings with the high incidence of neurological problems in people showing a severe COVID-19 response,62,63 emphasizes the urgency with which we need to understand the mechanisms underlying the changes to cytokine signalling regulated by interferon signalling, particularly to anticipate the long-term neurological consequences of COVID-19.115 In addition to COVID-19, a SNP within OAS1 was also associated with type 1 diabetes and so OAS1 may integrate multiple risk factors that contribute to critical outcomes with COVID-19.95

Surveying the genetic network we have identified containing OAS1, there are a number of secreted factors that may be useful as a readout of the state of these specialized innate immune cells in blood or CSF. The secreted genes include: F13A1, Isg15 and TNFSF13B. The identification of OAS1 and OAS3 as genes that coordinate the response to amyloid-β plaques and COVID-19 infection poses the use of phosphodiesterase 12 (PDE12) inhibitors to increase the activity of OAS enzymes for these diseases, since PDE12 degrades the oligoadenylate activator of the OAS/RNase L system.116 PDE12 inhibitor compounds or PDE12 knockout increase the anti-viral activity of cells. Furthermore, administration of interferons with correct timing may also help to dampen the pro-inflammatory response of innate immune cells, as in the treatment of multiple sclerosis.52,117–119

In conclusion, our data show that OAS1 is required to limit the pro-inflammatory response of myeloid cells when stimulated with IFN-γ. We also identify a SNP within OAS1 associated with Alzheimer’s disease in the same locus that predisposes to critical illness with COVID-19. This SNP acts as an eQTL, and is common in the population, and so may contribute to the high incidence of Alzheimer’s disease or critical illness with COVID-19 in the population. Further investigation of the function of OAS1 in innate immune cells and the genetic network engaged by OAS1 will provide better molecular targets to track disease progression and treat Alzheimer’s disease, as well as COVID-19 and potentially its long-term sequelae.

Funding
N.M. was supported by Alzheimer Nederland, the Erasmus + Traineeship programme, and then a PhD studentship funded by Eli Lilly and Co. T.M.P. was supported by funding to J.M.P. and J.H. from the Innovative Medicines Initiative 2 Joint Undertaking under grant agreement 115976. This Joint Undertaking receives support from the European Union’s Horizon 2020 research and innovation programme and the European Federation of Pharmaceutical Industries and Associations (EFPIA). R.H.R. was supported through the award of a Leonard Wolfson Doctoral Training Fellowship in Neurodegeneration, J.A.B. is supported through the Science and Technology Agency, Séneca Foundation, CARM, Spain (research project 00007/COVI/20). The University of Nottingham Group is funded by ARUK and hosts the ARUK Consortium DNA Bank, with the members given in the Appendix below. J.H. is supported by the Dolby Foundation, and by the National Institute for Health Research University College London Hospitals Biomedical Research Centre. D.A.S. also received funding from the Alzheimer’s Research UK (ARUK) pump priming scheme via the UCL network. This work was funded by the UK DRI, which receives its funding from the DRI Ltd, funded by the UK Medical Research Council, Alzheimer’s Society and ARUK.

Competing interests
The authors report no competing interests.

Supplementary material
Supplementary material is available at Brain online.
Appendix I

Full details are provided in the Supplemental material.

The University of Nottingham Group is funded by ARUK and hosts the ARUK Consortium DNA Bank, with the members: Tulsi Patel, David M. Mann, Peter Passmore, David Craig, Janet Johnston, Bernadette McGuinness, Stephen Todd, Reinhard Heun, Heike Kölsch, Patrick G. Kehoe, Emma R. L. C. Vardy, Nigel M. Hooper, Stuart Pickering-Brown, Julie Snowden, Anna Richardson, Matt Jones, David Neary, Jenny Harris, A. David Smith, Gordon Wilcock, Donald Warden and Clive Holmes.

References

1. Edwards FA. A unifying hypothesis for Alzheimer’s disease: From plaques to neurodegeneration. Trends Neurosci. 2019; 42(5):310–322.
2. Leyns CEG, Gratuze M, Narasimhan S, et al. TREM2 function impedes tau seeding in neurotic plaques. Nat Neurosci. 2019; 22(8):1217–1222.
3. Yuan P, Condello C, Keene CD, et al. TREM2 haploinsufficiency in mice and humans impairs the microglia barrier function leading to decreased amyloid compaction and severe axonal dystrophy. Neuron. 2016;90(4):724–739.
4. Tsing C, Venegas C, Zhang S, et al. NLRP3 inflammasome activation drives tau pathology. Nature. 2019;575(7784):669–673.
5. Efthymiou AG, Goate AM. Late onset Alzheimer’s disease genetics implicates microglial pathways in disease risk. Mol Neurodegener. 2017;12(1):43.
6. Hardy J, Escott-Price V. Genes, pathways and risk prediction in Alzheimer’s disease. Cell Rep. 2019;28(2):R235–240.
7. Sims R, van der Lee SJ, Naj AC, et al.; ARUK Consortium. Rare coding variants in PLCG2, ABI3, and TREM2 implicate microglial pathways in disease risk. Mol Neurodegener. 2017;12(1):43.
8. Di Domizio J, Zhang R, Stagg LJ, et al. Binding with nucleic acids or glycosaminoglycans converts soluble protein oligomers to amyloid. J Biol Chem. 2012;287(1):736–747.
9. Deceukelaere A, Baruch K, Schwartz M. Type I/II interferon balance in the regulation of brain physiology and pathology. Trends Neurosci. 2021;44(2):83–96.
10. Motwani M, Perisidis S, Fitzgerald KA. DNA sensing by the cGAS-STING pathway in health and disease. Nat Rev Genet. 2019;20(11):657–674.
11. Paul BD, Snyder SH, Bohr VA. Signaling by cGAS-STING in neurodegeneration, neuroinflammation, and aging. Trends Neurosci. 2021;44(2):83–96.
12. Majojaros A, Platanitis E, Kembauer-Hölzl E, Rosebrock F, Müller M, Decker T. Canonical and non-canonical aspects of JAK-STAT signaling: Lessons from interferons for cytokine responses. Front Immunol. 2017;8:29.
13. Taylor JM, Moore Z, Minter MR, Crack PJ. Type-I interferon pathway in neuroinflammation and neurodegeneration: Focus on Alzheimer’s disease. J Neural Transm. 2018;125(5):797–807.
14. Silverman BH. Viral encounters with 2′,5′-oligoadenylate synthetase and RNase L during the interferon antiviral response. J Virol. 2007;81(23):12720–12729.
15. Donovan J, Dufner M, Korennykh A. Structural basis for cytosolic double-stranded RNA surveillance by human oligoadenylate synthetase 1. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2013;110(5):1652–1657.
16. Kristiansen H, Scherer CA, McVean M, et al. Extracellular 2′-5′-oligoadenylate synthetase stimulates RNase L-independent antiviral activity: A novel mechanism of virus-induced innate immunity. J Virol. 2010;84(22):11898–11904.
17. Lee W-B, Choi WY, Lee D-H, Shim H, Kim-Ha J, Kim Y-J. OAS1 and OAS3 negatively regulate the expression of chemokines and interferon-responsive genes in human macrophages. BBM Rep. 2019;52(2):133–138.
18. Pairo-Castineira E, Clohisey S, Klaric L, et al.; Gen-COVID Investigators. Genetic mechanisms of critical illness in Covid-19. Nature. 2021;591(7848):92–98.
19. Schmiedel BJ, Chandra V, Rocha J, et al. COVID-19 genetic risk variants are associated with expression of multiple genes in diverse immune cell types. bioRxiv. [Preprint] doi:10.1101/2020.12.01.407429
20. Zhang Q, Bastard P, Liu Z, et al.; NIAID-USUHS/TAGC COVID Immunity Group. Inborn errors of type I IFN immunity in patients with life-threatening COVID-19. Science. 2020;370(6515):eabd4570.
21. Bastard P, Rosen LB, Zhang Q, et al.; COVID Human Genetic Effort. Autoantibodies against type I IFNs in patients with life-threatening COVID-19. Science. 2020;370(6515):eabd4585.
114. Dvir-Szternfeld R, Castellani G, Arad M, et al. TREM2-independent neuroprotection is mediated by monocyte-derived macrophages in a mouse model of Alzheimer’s disease. Nat Res. 2021.

115. Wang F, Kream RM, Stefano GB. Long-term respiratory and neurological sequelae of COVID-19. Med Sci Monit. 2020;26:e928996.

116. Wood ER, Bledsoe R, Chai J, et al. The role of phosphodiesterase 12 (PDE12) as a negative regulator of the innate immune response and the discovery of antiviral inhibitors. J Biol Chem. 2015;290(32):19681–19696.

117. Kingwell E, Leray E, Zhu F, et al. Multiple sclerosis: Effect of beta interferon treatment on survival. Brain. 2019;142(5):1324–1333.

118. Wang N, Zhan Y, Zhu L, et al. Retrospective multicenter cohort study shows early interferon therapy is associated with favorable clinical responses in COVID-19 patients. Cell Host Microbe. 2020;28(3):455–464.e2.

119. Davoudi-Monfared E, Rahmani H, Khalili H, et al. A randomized clinical trial of the efficacy and safety of interferon β-1a in treatment of severe COVID-19. Antimicrob Agents Chemother. 2020;64(9):e01061–20.