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1 Atypical neurogenesis in induced pluripotent stem cell (iPSC) 2 from autistic individuals

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- Autism, neural precursors, neural progenitor cells, cortical differentiation, midbrain
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- 35

37 Abstract

Background: Autism is a heterogenous collection of disorders with a complex molecular underpinning. Evidence from *post-mortem brain* studies using adult brains have indicated that early prenatal development may be altered in autism. Induced pluripotent stem cells (iPSCs) generated from autistic individuals with macrocephaly also indicate prenatal development as a critical period for this condition. But little is known about early altered cellular events during prenatal stages in autism.

44 **Methods:** IPSCs were generated from 9 unrelated autistic individuals without macrocephaly 45 and with heterogeneous genetic backgrounds, and 6 typically developing, control, 46 individuals. IPSCs were differentiated towards either cortical or midbrain fates. Gene 47 expression and high throughput cellular phenotyping was used to characterise iPSCs at 48 different stage of differentiation.

49 Results: A subset of autism-iPSC cortical neurons were RNA-sequenced to reveal autism-50 specific signatures similar to *post-mortem brain* studies, indicating a potential common 51 biological mechanism. Autism-iPSCs differentiated towards a cortical fate displayed 52 impairments in the ability to self-form into neural rosettes. In addition, autism-iPSCs 53 demonstrated significant differences in rate of cell type assignment of cortical precursors, and 54 dorsal and ventral forebrain precursors. These cellular phenotypes occurred in the absence of 55 alterations in cell proliferation during cortical differentiation, differing from previous studies. 56 Acquisition of cell fate during midbrain differentiation was not different between control- and 57 autism-iPSCs.

58 **Conclusions:** Taken together, our data indicate that autism-iPSCs diverge from control-59 iPSCs at a cellular level during early stage of neurodevelopment. This suggests that unique 60 developmental differences associated with autism may be established at early prenatal stages.

61 Introduction

62 Autism spectrum conditions (henceforth autism) are a genetically heterogeneous spectrum of neurodevelopmental conditions¹⁻³. Autism is characterised by impairments in social-63 64 communicative behaviours as well as repetitive behaviours. Symptoms of autism cannot be detected until twelve to eighteen months of age⁴. However, there is debate surrounding the 65 66 origins of autistic symptoms. It is now well recognised that genetic factors play a key role in the emergence of autism^{1, 2}. Increasing evidence indicate that perturbation during critical 67 periods of development maybe key for the emergence of autism⁵. Moreover, autism *post*-68 69 *mortem brain* studies have identified dysregulation of putative prenatal gene expression 70 pathways⁶. This suggests that early prenatal development may be a critical period for the 71 emergence of cellular pathophysiology associated with autism⁶.

72 The use of induced pluripotent stem cell (iPSC) differentiated into neurons of distinct lineages⁷⁻¹¹, has made it possible to study prenatal cellular behaviour in autism in detail. As 73 74 iPSC-neurons contain the same genetic information as the individuals from whom they were 75 derived, their cellular behaviours are influenced by their genetic background. Using these 76 methods, studies have shown significant anomalies in cellular/molecular behaviour during 77 prenatal-equivalent periods of development in autistic individuals with a co-diagnosis of macrocephaly¹²⁻¹⁴. These studies have demonstrated: (1) atypical neural differentiation of 78 79 iPSCs fated towards a cortical lineage, and (2) an imbalance in excitatory (glutamateproducing) and inhibitory (GABA-producing) receptor activity^{12, 13}. More recently, using the 80 81 same collection of iPSCs, an acceleration in neuronal maturation was found to be dependent 82 on early cortical neural precursor (NPC) development, as circumventing this stage of cortical 83 development by direct conversion of iPSCs into mature neurons did not recapitulate these 84 effects¹⁴. These phenotypes were paralleled by alterations in gene expression network

dynamics during early stages of development in these iPSCs¹⁴. These studies highlight that 85 86 the cellular and molecular phenotypes associated with autism may start before birth, and possibly at a very early stage of brain development¹⁴. A critical aspect of previous studies 87 88 was that atypical neural differentiation observed in the autism-iPSCs was associated with higher cell proliferation¹²⁻¹⁴. As the autistic participants in these studies also had 89 90 macrocephaly it is yet to be determined whether the observed abnormal development was due 91 to this comorbidity. Moreover, as macrocephaly is present only in a subset of autistic 92 individuals and it is not known if abnormal development can be generalised to autistic 93 individuals without macrocephaly. In such individuals, it is unknown whether the acquisition 94 of cortical fate is also accompanied by a difference in precursor population. Finally, as the 95 majority of studies have predominantly focused on the development of forebrain/cortical 96 neurons, it is yet to be tested whether abnormal development can also be observed in neural 97 precursors fated towards a different lineage.

98 In this study, we have generated iPSCs from autistic individuals without macrocephaly and 99 with heterogeneous genetic backgrounds to represent the wider autistic population. Initial 100 RNA-sequencing studies using a subset of iPSC lines was used to confirm whether the 101 transcriptomic signature of iPSC-derived neurons correlated to autistic post-mortem gene 102 expression patterns. To further investigate the source of atypical gene expression, we 103 recruited individuals from 3 independent patient cohorts to capture a wider population of 104 autistic individuals, and undertook extensive cellular phenotyping experiments. The goal of 105 this study was to understand if there was a fundamental difference between typical and 106 autistic prenatal neurodevelopment, focussing primarily on early neuroectodermal structures 107 and cell types that constitute the developing cerebral cortex.

109 Materials and Methods

110 Induced pluripotent stem cells

111 Participants were recruited and methods carried out in accordance to the 'Patient iPSCs for 112 Neurodevelopmental Disorders (PiNDs) study' (REC No 13/LO/1218). Informed consent 113 was obtained from all subjects for participation in the PiNDs study. Ethical approval for the 114 PiNDs study was provided by the NHS Research Ethics Committee at the South London and 115 Maudsley (SLaM) NHS R&D Office. Autistic participants were selected based on ADOS, 116 ADI-R scores, while typical controls were selected from the population if they did not have a 117 diagnosis of any psychiatric condition¹⁵. IPSC lines from autism: 9, control: 6 participants were generated from hair keratinocytes as previously described^{16, 17}. Details on all 118 119 participants can be found in **Supplementary Tables S1, S2, S3**). Two clones per iPSCs were 120 used in all experiments; pluripotency of all iPSCs was determined by immunocytochemistry 121 (Supplementary Table S4 and Supplementary Figure 1).

122 Neuronal differentiation

IPSC lines were differentiated cortical neurons using a dual SMAD inhibition protocol which
recapitulates of key hallmarks of corticogenesis^{10, 17}. IPSCs were differentiated to midbrain
floorplate precursors using established protocols^{7, 8}. Further information can be found in
Supplemental Information.

127 RNA-sequencing

128 RNA-sequencing was performed from a subset of our cohort, on 2 clones from each 129 participant (ASDM1, 004ASM, 010ASM, CTRM1, CTRM2, CTRM3), and each clone had 2 130 technical replicates. Starting with 500ng of total RNA, poly(A) containing mRNA was 131 purified and libraries were prepared using TruSeq Stranded mRNA kit (Illumina). Unstranded libraries with a mean fragment size of 150bp (range 100-300bp) were constructed, and
underwent 50bp single ended sequencing on an Illumina HiSeq 2500 machine.
Bioinformatics analysis was performed using C++ and R based programs (see Supplemental
Information).

136 Immunocytochemistry

137 Differentiated iPSCs were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde at indicated ages and processed as previously described¹⁷. Briefly, fixed cells were permeabilized in 0.1% Triton-X-100/PBS, 138 139 and blocked in 4% normal goat serum in PBS. Primary antibodies (Supplementary Table 140 **S5**) were incubated overnight at 4° C. Nuclei were identified by staining with DAPI. High 141 content screening (HCS) was performed using an Opera Phenix High-Content Screening 142 System (Perkin Elmer). Cell type analysis was performed using the Harmony Software¹⁷. For 143 Rate of Cell Type Assignment (deltaCTA), the percent positively stained cells appearing per 144 day was estimated, which was then adjusted to the total number of positive cells appearing per day in one well of a 96-well plate, assuming each well had an average of 10^5 cells. 145

146 Statistics

147 Quantification of cell types was performed using the Harmony High Content Imaging and 148 Analysis Software (Perkin Elmer). Percentage of cells positive for desired marker versus 149 total number of live cells was calculated. To take into consideration variability associated 150 with iPSC differentiation, 8 independent experimental replicates of 2 clones per individual 151 was used at every stage. Immunofluorescence was measured only from known intracellular 152 location of markers (e.g. nucleus or cytoplasm). Independent 2-group t-test was used to check 153 significant difference between autism and control using p-value ≤ 0.05 . One way ANOVA 154 was performed to investigate in-group variance. All statistical analysis was performed on R 155 statistical software.

156

157 **Results**

158 *Participant overview*

Participants were recruited from the Longitudinal European Autism Project (LEAP)¹⁸, Brain 159 and Body Genetic Recourse Exchange (BBGRE) studies¹⁹, or the Social Communication 160 161 Disorders Clinic at Great Ormond Street Institute of Child Health (GOS-ICH). Of the autistic 162 participants, eight were male and one was female (Supplementary Table S1). The four 163 participants from the LEAP cohort were diagnosed with non-syndromic, while participants 164 from BBRGE and GOS-ICH cohorts were diagnosed with syndromic autism 165 (Supplementary Table S2). Syndromic participants from GOS-ICI had deletions type CNVs 166 in the 1p21.3 and 8q21.12 regions, with DYPD and PTBP2 and the AXL genes of note in each 167 region respectively. Of the syndromic participants from BBGRE, two syndromic participants 168 had deletion type CNVs in the 2p16.3 region (NRXN1), while the third carried a duplication 169 in the 3p chromosomal region²⁰ (Supplementary Table S3).

170

171 Neurodevelopmental gene expression signatures in autism-iPSC-derived neurons

Studies using iPSCs from autistic individuals with macrocephaly have suggested an association between atypical cortical differentiation with altered cell proliferation^{12, 13, 21}. We were also interested in examining cortical differentiation in iPSCs derived from individuals diagnosed with autism but without macrocephaly. Thus, we differentiated iPSCs towards a cortical fate and focused on three distinct developmental stages (**Figure 1A**): (1) Day 9: early neural precursor stage, when stem cells form new precursor cells which self-organise into neural tube-like structures known as neural rosettes with a directional apical-basal arrangement; (2) Day 21: late neural precursor stage, a period during which neural progenitor cells begin forming layers from the apical surface and are primed for differentiation into neurons as they move outwards; and (3) Day 35: immature cortical neurons, a stage at which precursors become post-mitotic and adopt a deep layer neuronal identity (**Figure 1B**).

183 As *post-mortem* studies of adult brains have identified prenatal gene expression pathways as being altered in autism^{6, 22, 23}, we were interested in determining if we could observe similar 184 185 altered gene expression networks in our cohort of iPSCs. Thus, we generated day 35 neurons 186 from three control and three non-syndromic autism-iPSCs. We chose participants with no 187 familial history of autism or known deletions in autism-associated genes to reduce genetic 188 bias that could drive atypical gene expression. We used an adapted bioinformatics pipeline described in^{6, 23} to analyse gene expression pathways and assess its relatedness to autism 189 190 (Supplementary Figure S2). First, we undertook differential gene expression (DEG) and 191 hierarchical clustering of samples based on their DEG pattern. Principle component analysis 192 revealed significant differences between the control- and autism-iPSC neurons (Figure 1C), 193 and hierarchical clustering grouped control- and autism-iPSC neurons on different branches 194 (Figure 1D). Weighted gene co-expression analysis (WGCNA) revealed 11 gene modules 195 significantly altered in autism-iPSC neurons (Figure 1E). The three most upregulated and 196 three most downregulated gene modules were strongly enriched in upregulated and 197 downregulated autism *post mortem* gene modules respectively (Figure 1F). These gene 198 modules showed little to no enrichment in schizophrenia or cancer gene modules (Figure 199 **1G**) indicating that the gene expression patterns in our samples were autism-specific. From 200 this we concluded that altered gene expression in adult autism brains was also found in 201 prenatal neurons generated from iPSCs, and that gene expression patterns were specific to 202 autism. This suggested difference between autism and typical individuals started to appear at 203 an early stage of development.

204

205 Marked alteration in rosette structures in autism without proliferative differences in 206 precursor pools

207 Differentiation of iPSCs towards a neuronal fate first results in the generation of 208 neuroepithelium cells. These early neuroepithelium cells become elongated and stratified and self-organise into clusters around a circular lumen known as 'neural rosettes'¹⁰. These 209 structures display apical-basal polarity similar to neural tubes^{10, 24}. Critically, rosette 210 211 formation and structure is thought to be key in determining cortical neurogenesis and thus generation of distinct neuronal lineages^{10, 24, 25}. As our RNASeq data indicated that early 212 213 neurodevelopment maybe affected in autism, we reasoned that this may be reflected by an 214 alteration in neural rosette formation. To this end, we examined rosette formation at day 9 in 215 control- and autism-iPSCs. As expected, all control-iPSCs robustly formed structures 216 identifiable as neural rosettes, with an inner lumens identified by ZO-1 staining. Neural 217 progenitor cells were observed to self-organise radially surrounding the inner lumen, typical 218 of cells adopting an apical-basal polarity organisation (Figure 2A). Conversely, autism-219 iPSCs showed significant anomalies in lumen formation and establishment of apical-basal 220 polarity of cells around the lumen (Figure 2A). We used a high content screening (HCS) 221 approach to analyse the structure of rosettes in each line as a way to determine if there was a 222 consistent alteration in rosette morphology between iPSC lines. All six control-iPSC line 223 formed rosettes similar in structure with average diameters ranging between 0.066mm and 224 0.091mm (Figure 2B, Supplementary Table S6). Conversely, of the 9 autism-iPSCs, 6 225 formed rosettes with a smaller diameter (0.05-0.06mm); 2 did not form any rosette structures 226 at all (026ASM and 004ASM); while 010ASM formed rosettes with diameters similar to 227 controls (0.07mm) (Figure 2B, Supplementary Table S6). Autism-iPSC lines also formed 228 more rosettes per 100 cells counted (Figure 2C, Supplementary Table S6). Anomalous 229 formation of rosettes was recapitulated in 3D cortical spheroids at day 30 of differentiation 230 (Supplementary Figure S3A), with fewer complete rosettes in autism-iPSC spheroids than 231 control-iPSC spheroids (Supplementary Figure S3B). One explanation for these observed 232 morphological differences could be that autism-iPSCs have altered levels of cell proliferation. 233 Therefore, we assessed cell proliferation in day 0, 9, 21, 35 differentiated control- or autism-234 iPSCs. All control- and autism-iPSCs had similar rates of cell proliferation at each 235 developmental stage examined (Figure 2D). Together, these data show that autism-iPSCs 236 form anomalous rosettes independent of alterations in cell proliferation.

237

Divergence from typical development in autism occurs at a precursor cell stages during
 cortical differentiation

240 Abnormal rosette proliferation observed in autism-iPSCs could indicate premature or atypical 241 neuronal differentiation in autism-iPSCs. To investigate this possibility, we assayed cortically 242 differentiating iPSCs at critical stages of cortical differentiation (day 9, 21 and 35; Figure 243 1A, B) and examined the expression of fundamental cortical cell types and rate of cell type 244 assignment at these stages using a HCS based approach. First, we asked whether control- or 245 autism-iPSCs expressed the neuronal differentiation markers Pax6 and Tuj1 differently at 246 early and late neural precursor cell stages (Figure 3A). Pax6 is a robust marker for neural 247 precursors of cortical lineage²⁶, while Tuj1 is a robust pan-neuronal and neural precursor 248 marker²⁷. Eight independent experimental replicates using 2 clones per line were assayed at 249 every stage (Figure 3B). At day 9, Pax6 and Tuj1 was expressed in majority of control-iPSC 250 cells (Figure 3B, Table 1). On day 21, both markers remained highly expressed (Figure 3B, 251 **Table 1**). We also measure the Rate of Cell Type Assignment (dCTA) as an independent way 252 to compare how quickly cell identity was being acquired or lost between developmental 253 stages. In control-iPSCs, Pax6 dCTA was 13 cells/day between day 9 and day 21, while for 254 Tuj1, dCTA=159 cells/day (Figure 3C). In contrast in the autism group, Pax6 and Tuj1 day 9 255 expression was lower than in controls (Figure 3B, Table 1). Assessment of cell identity 256 acquisition in autism-iPSCs showed that Pax6 dCTA was 317 cells/day and Tuj1 dCTA=368 257 cells/day. These values were higher than those observed following the differentiation of 258 control-iPSCs. However, despite this increased rate of cell identity acquisition, Pax6 and 259 Tuj1 expression was still significantly lower in autism-iPSCs at day 21 compared to control-260 iPSCs (Figure 3C, Table 1). As expected, variability was observed throughout the 261 differentiation protocol between experimental replicates. However, this variability was more 262 pronounced in the autism-iPSCs. ANOVA revealed greater overall spread of data points and 263 higher F-values in the majority of parameters assessed during differentiation of autism-iPSCs 264 (Supplementary Figure S4A, S4C), while both non-syndromic and syndromic samples 265 appeared to behave similarly (Supplementary Figure S5A, C, D). These data showed that 266 control iPSC-derived precursors expressed Pax6 and Tuj1 early during differentiation, while 267 autism-iPSCs display lower Pax6 and Tuj1 expression at the equivalent stage. Beyond this 268 stage the rate of acquisition of Pax6 and Tuj1 was higher in autism-iPSCs, and the difference 269 between control and autism was substantially reduced at day 21.

270

Altered development of forebrain precursor lineages in autism-iPSCs independent of cell
proliferation

Previous iPSC studies have linked an imbalance in GABA-glutamatergic progenitor cells and
neuronal function with a macrocephaly associated cell proliferation phenotype^{13, 21}.
Conversely, no differences in the rate of cell proliferation throughout differentiation were

276 observed between control- and autism-iPSCs in these studies. Thus, we were interested in 277 establishing whether a similar imbalance in the presence of GABA-glutamatergic progenitor 278 cells could be observed in our autism-iPSCs. To this end we investigated the development of 279 precursors expressing Emx1, known to be expressed in dorsal forebrain (glutamatergic) neurons and precursors²⁸⁻³⁰, and Gad67, the rate limiting enzyme in the GABA synthesis 280 pathway and known to be expressed in GABAergic cells^{31, 32} (Figure 4A). At day 9, EMX1 281 282 expression was significantly higher in control compared to autism neural precursors (Figure 283 **4B**, **C**, **Table 1**). At day 21, EMX1 expression in both groups appeared to remain stable, with 284 only minor reduction in control precursors (dCTA = -41 cells/day), as opposed to a minor 285 increase dCTA = +10 cells/day in the autism group (Figure 4C). At this stage, control neural 286 progenitors expressed EMX1 significantly higher than autism neural progenitors (Figure 4B, 287 **C**, **Table 1**). In day 35 immature neurons, EMX1 expression in both control and autism 288 neurons was reduced compared to day 9 and day 21 precursors; however the reduction was 289 significantly more acute in the autism group (dCTA = -148 cells/day in control-iPSCs vs 290 dCTA = -254 cells/day in autism-iPSCs) (Figure 4C). Gad67 expression in autism- and control-iPSCs followed an opposing trajectory. At day 9, Gad67 expression was significantly 291 292 higher in the control precursors, while autism precursors displayed negligible expression 293 (Figure 4B, C, Table 1). At day 21, Gad67 expression was reduced in the control progenitors 294 (dCTA = -68 cells/day), but significantly increased in autism neural progenitors (dCTA =295 +185 cells/day) (Figure 4C). Both control and autism progenitors had similar Gad67 296 expression at this stage (Figure 4B, C). However by day 35, Gad67 expression in autism 297 neurons was higher than that in control neuron (control dCTA = -76 cells/day, autism dCTA 298 = +176 cells/day) (Figure 4C, D). Similar to what we observed with Pax6 and Tuj1 299 expressing cells, Emx1 and Gad67 expression also showed conspicuous variability. Again, 300 ANOVA revealed greater variability in majority of the parameters in autism lines 301 (Supplementary Figure S4B, S4C), while non-syndromic and syndromic samples were 302 similar (Supplementary Figure S4B-D). Lastly, we examined the expression of TBR1, a transcription factor expressed in early born excitatory neurons^{10, 33}, in day 35 neurons. This 303 304 revealed that differentiated control-iPSCs had higher levels of TBR1 positive cells than 305 differentiated autism-iPSCs (Figure 4E). Taken together, these data showed significant 306 differences in the determination of neuronal subtype identity of cortical lineage, in control-307 and autism-iPSCs. It was evident that the control- and autism-iPSCs were generating EMX1 308 and Gad67 expressing cells at different rates, and that there was loss of EMX1 expressing 309 cells over time in both groups. However, at day 35 the autism-iPSCs appeared to generate 310 greater numbers of Gad67 expressing cells over time, while in differentiated control-iPSCs, 311 levels of both EMX1 and TBR1 remained higher than autism lines.

312

Generation of midbrain floorplate progenitors reveal negligible differences between controland autism-iPSCs

315 The differences in cell fate acquisition observed between control- and autism-iPSCs 316 could be due to several different factors. It could be due to genetic differences between 317 control and autism iPSCs. Another source of variability could be attributed to stochastic 318 fluctuations in activation of key transcription factors during differentiation, which has been reported as iPSC cells differentiate towards a cortical fate³⁴. However, these differences could 319 320 also be due to an inherent abnormality in the ability of our autism-iPSCs to undergo neural 321 differentiation. Therefore, we sought to determine whether both control- and autism-iPSCs 322 differentiated efficiently into neural progenitor cells specific for another neuronal linage; 323 specifically mesencephalic dopamine (mDA) neurons. We chose this fate as mDAs are 324 generated from midbrain floor plate progenitors (mFPPs) that arise from cells located on the 325 ventral midline of the neural tube floor plate. The generation of mFPPs would, therefore, 326 require a distinct set of factors compare to those needed for the generation of cortical 327 precursor cells. In addition, while dysfunction in mDAs have been linked with Parkinson's 328 disease as well as schizophrenia, there are fewer reports of dysfunction in this population of 329 cells in autism. Therefore, we reasoned that there would be few differences between control-330 and autism-iPSCs differentiating into mFPPs. This would allowing us to examine the 331 differentiation capacity of these iPSCs. We utilized a differentiation protocol that allows for 332 the rapid generation of a homogeneous population of mFPPs^{7, 8}. After 10 days of 333 differentiation, nearly 100% of mFPPs from both control- and autism-iPSCs were positive for LMX1A an essential transcription factor required for defining a midbrain identity³⁵ (Figure 334 335 5A, B). No difference was observed between control- and autism-iPSCs. Similarly, 336 expression of the transcription factor FOXA2, which positively regulates neurogenic factors 337 in dopaminergic precursor cells³⁶, did not differ between control and autism mFPPs (Figure 338 5A, B). Variability was also reduced in all the iPSC lines during midbrain differentiation 339 (Figure 5B). Taken together, these data showed considerably reduced differences in midbrain 340 lineage differentiation between control- and autism-iPSCs.

341

342 Hierarchical clustering reveals sub-grouping of study participants based on cellular
343 phenotypes alone

The findings in this study indicates that there may be a link between an autism diagnosis with atypical neurogenesis during early cortical differentiation. We have collected several cellular readouts at a number of developmental time points for each iPSC line. We reasoned that if there was a relationship between atypical cortical neurogenesis and diagnosis, that aggregating cellular phenotypes from each sample would generate a high level grouping that 349 would distinguish between control and autistic individuals. To test this we used hierarchical 350 clustering. This approach merges similar patterns between samples to form cluster sets, then forms bigger groups from the smaller cluster sets³⁷. Being an unbiased method it can predict 351 352 relatedness of samples. Data points from each participant was amalgamated into a heatmap 353 (Figure 6A), and participants were ordered on the heatmap based on a mean linkage method. 354 We then visualised the clustering in the form of an unrooted dendogram (Figure 6B), as participant in this study were unrelated³⁸. We discovered notable relationships between 355 356 samples. First, the control and autism participants grouped separately. Within the autism 357 cluster, the participants with NRXN1 deletions (109NXM and 092NXF) grouped on the same 358 branch. Three syndromic autism participants (109NXM, 092NXM, 245ASM) did not group 359 together with the non-syndromic participants. Lastly, the two autism samples 004ASM and 360 010ASM seemed to group on the same branch based on not only the cellular data points but 361 also gene expression patterns as shown in **Figure 1D**. The individual patterns that emerged 362 out of this unbiased analysis suggests that there is a potential that cellular phenotypes could 363 reflect nature of autism diagnosis. Further studies using larger collections of deeply 364 phenotype iPSCs as well as more detailed cellular readouts are needed in order to further 365 understand whether such an association is robust over independent cohorts.

366

367 Discussion

In this study, we have investigated whether iPSCs generated from autistic individuals displayed differences during the earliest stages of cortical development. Previous studies have indicated that early development is a critical period for the emergence of phenotypes associated with autism¹²⁻¹⁴. However, these studies have utilized iPSCs generated from autistic individuals comorbid with macrocephaly, making it unclear whether the observed 373 cellular effects were associated with autism or altered brain size. In this study, we have 374 studied a collection of iPSCs generated from a heterogeneous group of autistic individuals 375 without macrocephaly, recruited from three independent cohorts. Thus, we were able to test 376 whether altered cellular identities occurred during differentiation of autism-iPSCs towards at 377 cortical fate, and if this was detectable from an early developmental stage. This collection 378 included 4 autistic individuals with uncharacterised genetic background and 5 autistic 379 individuals with known CNVs in high risk autism loci.

380 First we found that autism-iPSCs generated abnormal neural rosettes, indicating an 381 alteration in neural differentiation. Consistent with this, autism-iPSCs showed significant 382 differences in development of early neural progenitor cells. This effect persisted at a late 383 precursor cell stage although to a lesser degree. No differences in proliferative capacities was 384 observed between control- and autism-iPSCs indicating this this was not the cause of altered 385 neurogenesis in autism-iPSCs. Examination of cortical neuron subtypes revealed a 386 divergence in the development of dorsal forebrain or excitatory precursors and ventral 387 forebrain or inhibitory precursors from an early stage of development. Conversely, control-388 and autism-iPSCs demonstrated the same ability to into mFFP cells. This indicates that 389 atypical neurogenesis predominately impacts the development of cortical linages in autism-390 iPSCs. Finally, based on all the temporal cortical data points acquired in this study, the 391 participants grouped separately into controls and autism, with further unbiased branching 392 within the autism cohort. Together, these data suggests that unique developmental differences 393 associated with autism may be established at early prenatal stages.

We were particularly interested in modelling divergent patterns of development in the autistic cortex. We used a cortical differentiation protocol that recapitulates cortical precursor development from iPSCs, and yielded primarily excitatory cortical neurons¹⁰. This enabled us

397 to study early stages of neural development, when neural rosette begin forming (day 9), equivalent to neural tube closure (approximately 4 weeks of gestation)³⁹. We found marked 398 399 anomalies in rosette morphology in 3 out of 9 autism-iPSCs (004ASM, 026ASM, 245ASM) 400 resulting in either malformation or negligible neural rosette formation. In 010ASM, neural 401 precursors were visibly dissociated from the rosette-structure, while in 092NXF, 109NXM, 402 ASDM1, 132ASM and 289ASM cells appeared elongated and lumen formation was also 403 affected. Further studies are required to elucidate the mechanisms responsible for the altered 404 rosette structures and formation observed. Disruption of neural rosettes has been found to promote premature neurogenesis^{40, 41}. This may explain the high rate of Pax6+ and Tuj1+ 405 406 precursor generation between day 9 and day 21 in autism-iPSCs. It could also explain 407 divergent precursor subtype assignment during early development, which we observed 408 through opposing trajectory of Gad67 expressing cells in control- and autism-iPSCs. We 409 noted that the appearance of Gad67+ cells in our cultures was surprising as SMAD inhibition 410 is known to drive stem cells towards a dorsal forebrain lineage, while GABAergic neurons are known to be generated from a ventral forebrain lineage⁴². However, low numbers of 411 GABAergic cells are known to be generated using the SMAD inhibition protocol^{43, 44}, and 412 413 appearance of Gad67+ cells and their dysregulation in our study may be a result of 414 dysregulated molecular mechanisms associated with atypical precursor subtype assignment.

It is of note that in the current study the phenotypic changes occurred without the presence of proliferative differences between control- and autism-iPSCs. This suggested that cell type and structural anomalies previously reported using autism iPSCs^{12, 13} may be independent of macrocephaly associated cell proliferation alterations. Alterations in rosette formation may also contribute to the switching of precursor identity seen during development in autism-iPSCs. Further investigation into temporal precursor cell type specification will be needed to understand the mechanisms and types of cells involved. Notably, iPSC studies of 422 non-syndromic autism remain underpowered. Nevertheless, the reports of neurodevelopmental differences between autism- and control-iPSCs are robust^{13, 14, 45}. 423 424 Although our cohort size would be considered inadequate for a study into non-syndromic autism, it is comparable to recent iPSC-based psychiatric studies^{12-14, 46}. To achieve effect 425 426 size in our study, we have used multiple clones for each iPSC-line. In addition, we utilized a HCS screening of 'cellomic' cell-based phenotyping approach^{16, 17, 47}, recording thousands of 427 428 data points from each iPSC-line.

429 Another consideration we faced during cellular phenotyping of iPSCs being 430 differentiated towards a cortical fate was the high degree of variability between experimental 431 replicates. This variability is due in part to stochastic fluctuations in transcription factor activation during cortical differentation^{34, 48}. We observed that out of the 10 temporal data 432 433 points recorded, 7 showed a greater degree of variability in autism-iPSCs. To rule out 434 whether this variability was due to an iPSC-related abnormal artefact, we differentiated both 435 control- and autism-iPSCs towards a mesencephalic fate. Following this protocol iPSCs from 436 either control of autistic individuals behaved similarly and demonstrated reduced variability. 437 This suggests that the variability observed in this study is specific to the cortical 438 differentiation rather than an iPSC-related artefact. Moreover, these data indicate that 439 alteration during early stage of development associated with autism may occur in a region 440 specific manner.

In this study, we have used iPSCs generated from independent cohorts and from individuals with autism but without macrocephaly. Using unbiased methods, we identify that differentiation of autism-iPSCs towards a cortical but not a mesencephalic fate, results in abnormal neurogenesis characterised by premature maturation and abnormal specification of neural progenitor cells. These effects occur in the absence of altered proliferative activity

between control- and autism-iPSCs. Identification of these cellular/molecular phenotypes enabled us to find common cellular pathways in a cohort having heterogeneous genetic background. In future, similarly designed studies will help identify which cellular pathways underlie these phenotypes, and may help to improve diagnosis and develop a greater understanding of the origins of autism.

451

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480

481 Ethics, consent and permissions

482 Informed consent from participants have been taken before recruitment: Patient iPSCs for
483 Neurodevelopmental Disorders (PiNDs) study' (REC No 13/LO/1218).

484

485 **Consent to publish**

486 We have obtained consent to publish from the participant to report individual patient data.

487

488 Availability of data and materials

489 Sequence data have been uploaded on synapse.org. Synapse ID: syn8118403, DOI:
490 doi:10.7303/syn8118403

491

492 Authors' contribution

493 DA, JP, JC, DPS, SBC conceived the study and wrote the first draft. VS, DHG conceived and 494 developed bioinformatics analysis framework and analysis. DA, PN, CS, KJ responsible for 495 sample preparation. GM was responsible for ethics application. GM, MAZ, JH, IL, DS and 496 DM responsible for recruiting and collecting hair samples from individuals with autism and 497 controls. All co-authors contributed to study concept, design, and writing of the manuscript. 498 All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

499

500 Figure Legends

501 Figure 1: Differentiation of iPSCs into cortical lineage reveals gene expression 502 differences between control and autism. (A) Study design and differentiation time points 503 used in this study. (B) Differentiation of control and autism iPSCs generate precursor markers 504 Ki67, Nestin and Pax6 and neuronal markers TBR1 and MAP2. (C) Principle component 505 analysis based on gene expression counts from individual experimental replicates. (D) 506 Differential gene expression and hierarchical clustering reveals significant differences 507 between control and autism samples (biological replicates for each sample labelled 1 and 2). 508 (E) WGCNA reveals 11 gene modules significantly correlated to autism (top 3 positively 509 correlated and top 3 negatively correlated modules enrichment shown; greyed module 510 enrichment not shown). (F) Gene module enrichment reveals positively correlated (red) 511 modules are enriched in corresponding positively correlated post mortem gene modules, 512 while negatively correlated (blue) modules are enriched in negatively correlated post mortem gene modules. (G) Gene modules do not show sufficient enrichment in post mortem genemodules from schizophrenia studies or cancer gene sets.

515

Figure 2: Autism iPSCs show anomalous rosette formation at day 9. (A) Day 9 neural rosette morphology from all participants in this study. (B) Rosette diameter violin plot (horizontal lines show mean rosette diameter, blue: control, red-dashed: autism). (C) Number of rosettes per 100 cells (horizontal lines show mean rosette number, blue: control, reddashed: autism). (D) Proliferation during cortical differentiation at day 0, day 9, day 21, day 35 (dashed lines are control samples, colour key on top right corner).

522

523 Figure 3: Atypical cortical differentiation of autism iPSCs. (A) At day 9 and day 21 524 precursor cell stages, both control and autism iPSCs expressed Pax6 and Tuj1. (B) 525 Quantification of Pax6+ and Tuj1+ cells of individual participants (% cells positive per 526 experimental replicate) showed significant differences between autism and control. (C) Mean 527 values of % positive cells over time show significant difference between control and autism 528 at both day 9 and day 21, as well as significant difference in rate of appearance of markers. 529 Histogram shows normal distribution of experimental data points, and demonstrates 530 variability between control and autism. (LV: Lentivirus reprogramming method used for 531 generating these iPSCs; s: Participants with syndromic autism)

532

Figure 4: Atypical differentiation into dorsal and ventral forebrain precursors in autism. (A) EMX1 was expressed at day 9, day 21 and day 35 in both control and autism groups. Gad67 expression in both groups was time dependant, it decreased over time in in

536 controls, while increased over time in autism. (B) Quantification of EMX1+ and Gad67+ 537 cells (% cells positive per experimental replicate) showed significant differences between 538 autism and control. (C) Mean values of % positive cells over time show significant difference 539 between control and autism at every time point, except for Gad67 at day 21 precursor stage. 540 (D) Histogram shows normal distribution of experimental data points and clear difference in 541 distribution of data points between groups. (E) Control and autism iPSCs also expressed 542 TBR1 at day 35 of cortical differentiation, and TBR1 expression was marginally higher in 543 control vs autism. (LV: Lentivirus reprogramming method used for generating these iPSCs; s: 544 Participants with syndromic autism)

545

546 Figure 5: Efficient differentiation of control and autism iPSCs towards a midbrain fate.

(A) Both control and autism iPSCs expressed LMX1A and FOXA2 when differentiated into a
midbrain floor plate precursor (mFPP) cells. (B) Differences between control and autism
iPSCs expressing LMX1A or FOXA2 was near negligible.

550

551 Figure 6: Hierarchical clustering of cellular data using mean linkage method. (A) All 552 controls and autism iPSC lines were grouped based on % positive values for Pax6, Tuj1, 553 EMX1, Gad67 at day 9, 21, 35 cortical differentiation, and LMX1A and FOXA2 at day 11 of 554 midbrain differentiation. Controls and autism participants were grouped separately using this 555 unsupervised learning method. (B) Unrooted phylogenetic tree showing relatedness of 556 individual participants based on cellular phenotypes. Syndromic samples branched separately 557 to non-syndromic samples*. NRXN1 deletion samples grouped together on the same 558 branch*†. 004ASM and 010ASM which grouped on the same branch (shown with dashed 559 lines) also grouped similarly based on gene expression data shown in Fig 1C.

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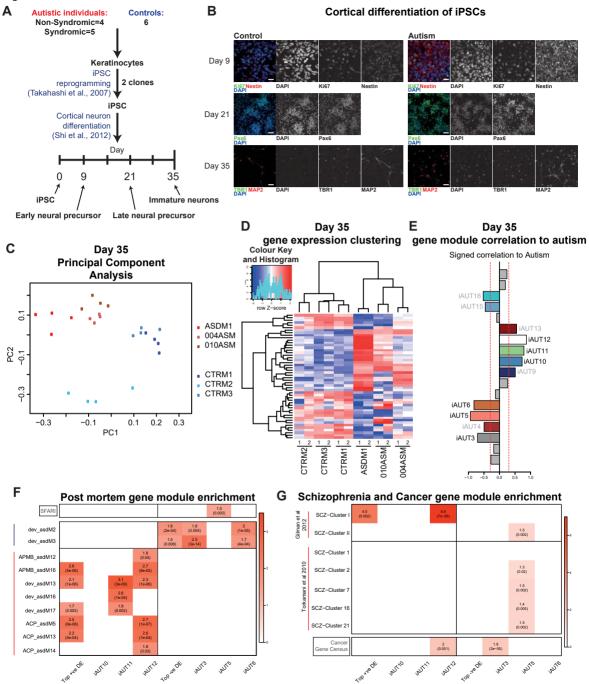
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Figure 1



Lower gene expression in autism neural cells

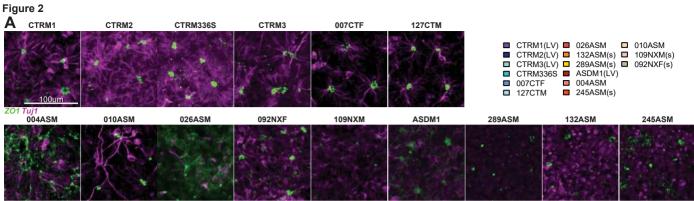
Higher gene expression

in autism neural cells

Lower gene expression in autism neural cells

Higher gene expression

in autism neural cells





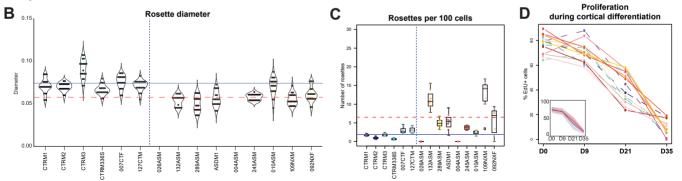
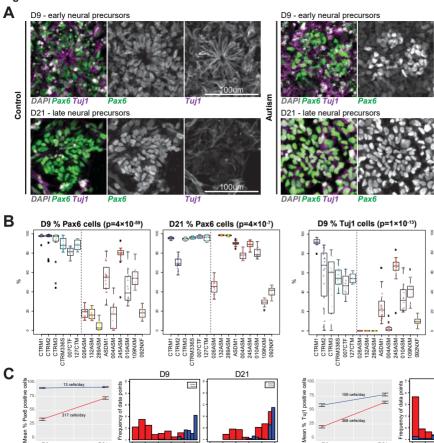


Figure 3



% positive cells

D21

% positive cells



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MXN60 92NXF

D21

% positive cells

100um

D21 % Tuj1 cells (p=0.3)

132ASM-289ASM-004ASM-245ASM-010ASM-

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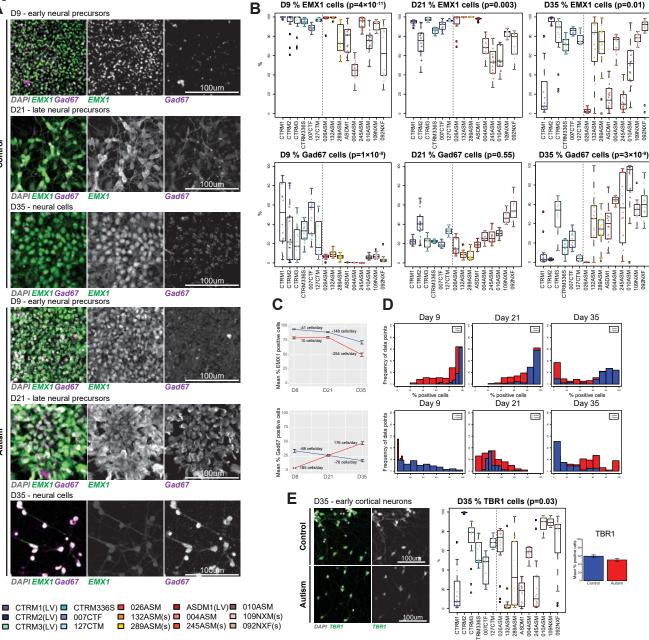
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% positive cells

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Control



