1 Functional Predictors of Causative Cis-Regulatory Mutations in

2 Mendelian Disease

_	411 0.011 411 411
3	Hemant Bengani ^{1#} , Detelina Grozeva ^{2,3#} , Lambert Moyon ^{4#} , Shipra Bhatia ^{1#} , Susana R
4	Louros ^{5,7} , Jilly Hope ⁶ , Adam Jackson ⁵ , James G Prendergast ⁸ , Liusaidh J. Owen ¹ , Magali
5	Naville ⁴ , Jacqueline Rainger ¹ , Graeme Grimes ⁶ , Mihail Halachev ⁶ , Laura C Murphy ⁶ , Olivera
6	Spasic-Boskovic ⁹ , Veronica van Heyningen ¹ , Peter Kind ^{5,7} , Catherine M Abbott ^{6,7} , Emily
7	Osterweil ^{5,7} , F Lucy Raymond ^{2§} , Hugues Roest Crollius ^{4§} , David R FitzPatrick ^{1,7§}
8	
9	1. MRC Human Genetics Unit, IGMM, University of Edinburgh (UoE) EH4 2XU UK
10	2. Cambridge Institute for Medical Research, University of Cambridge CB2 OXY UK
11	3. Institute of Psychological Medicine & Clinical Neurosciences, Cardiff University CF24 4HQ
12	UK
13	4 Ecole Normale Supérieure, Institut de Biologie de l'ENS, IBENS, 46 rue d'Ulm, Paris, F-
14	75005, France
15	5 Centre for Discovery Brain Sciences, Patrick Wild Centre, University of Edinburgh EH8 9XD
16	UK
17	6. Institute of Genomic and Molecular Medicine, University of Edinburgh EH4 2XU UK
18	7. Simons Initiative for the Developing Brain, University of Edinburgh EH8 9XD UK
19	8. Roslin Institute, University of Edinburgh, EH25 9RG UK
20	9. East Midlands and East of England NHS Genomic Laboratory Hub, Molecular Genetics,
21	Adden brooke's Hospital, Cambridge University Hospitals NHS Foundation Trust CB2 0QQ
22	UK
23	# Joint first authors
24	§ Joint senior authors
25	
26	Key words: Cis-regulatory elements; Enhancer; Repressor; Intellectual Disability; Causative
27	Mutation; X chromosome; FMR1; Zebrafish; Fluorescent transgenic reporters; Genome

28 editing; Mouse embryo; Hindbrain; Hippocampus; Cerebellum; Olfaction; Audiogenic seizures

bioRxiv preprint doi: https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.08.03.232926; this version posted August 3, 2020. The copyright holder for this preprint (which was not certified by peer review) is the author/funder. All rights reserved. No reuse allowed without permission.

30 Abstract

31

32 Undiagnosed neurodevelopmental disease is significantly associated with rare 33 variants in *cis*-regulatory elements (CRE) but demonstrating causality is challenging 34 as target gene consequences may differ from a causative variant affecting the coding 35 region. Here, we address this challenge by applying a procedure to discriminate likely 36 diagnostic regulatory variants from those of neutral/low-penetrant effect. We identified 37 six rare CRE variants using targeted and whole genome sequencing in 48 unrelated 38 males with apparent X-linked intellectual disability (XLID) but without detectable 39 coding region variants. These variants segregated appropriately in families and altered 40 conserved bases in predicted CRE targeting known XLID genes. Three were unique 41 and three were rare but too common to be plausibly causative for XLID. We compared 42 the *cis*-regulatory activity of wild-type and mutant alleles in zebrafish embryos using 43 dual-color fluorescent reporters. Two variants showed striking changes; one plausibly causative (FMR1^{CRE}) and the other likely neutral/low-penetrant (TENM1^{CRE}).These 44 45 variants were "knocked-in" to mice and both altered embryonic neural expression of their target gene. Only *Fmr1*^{CRE} mice showed disease-relevant behavioral defects. 46 47 FMR1^{CRE} is plausibly disease-associated resulting in complex misregulation of 48 Fmr1/FMRP rather than loss-of-function. This is consistent both with absence of 49 Fragile X syndrome in the probands and the observed electrophysiological anomalies in the FMR1^{CRE} mouse brain. Although disruption of in vivo patterns of endogenous 50 51 gene expression in disease-relevant tissues by CRE variants cannot be used as strong 52 evidence for Mendelian disease association, in conjunction with extreme rarity in 53 human populations and with relevant knock-in mouse phenotypes, such variants can 54 become likely pathogenic.

55 Introduction

56 Cis-regulatory elements (CRE; encompassing enhancers and repressors) are genomic 57 sequences that control transcriptional activity of one or more genes on the same 58 chromosome via sequence specific interaction with proteins and/or RNA.CRE can be 59 predicted using comparative genomics,¹ transcriptional characteristics,² patterns of histone modifications and protein association,³ patterns of accessible chromatin,⁴ and direct 60 61 interactions with promoters⁵. Estimates of the number and nature of CRE in the human 62 genome vary with precise definitions but functional ENCODE data has been interpreted as 63 identifying at least 400,000 putative human enhancers⁶. The role of disrupted CRE function in 64 highly penetrant genetic disease was first recognized in association with structural 65 chromosome anomalies which result in loss or gain of regulatory function through deletion or 66 translocation^{7, 8, 9, 10}. However the identification of disease associated variants within individual 67 CRE has been complicated by several factors. CRE can function over large genomic intervals 68 and the targeted gene may not be the closest gene. Once a target gene assignment is made 69 the existence of shadow CRE (multiple CRE driving similar expression patterns of the same 70 gene), ¹¹ can create redundancy and thus tolerance to mutation of individual CRE. A more 71 practical problem is that most CRE exist in the non-coding parts of the human genome where 72 our current understanding of mutation consequence is very incomplete compared to the 73 coding region.

74 Human developmental disorders provide a powerful system for studying the mechanisms 75 underlying genetic disease in general and regulatory mutations in particular. This diverse 76 group of severe and extreme phenotypes have their onset in embryogenesis or early brain 77 development. Developmental disorders are primarily genetically determined with a high 78 proportion of causative variants arising as de novo mutations¹². Haploinsufficiency is a 79 common mechanism, which affects many different dosage sensitive genes that show complex 80 patterns of expression during development. The genomic intervals encompassing known 81 developmental disorder genes are commonly enriched in highly conserved CRE¹³. There is 82 evidence of enrichment for de novo variants in evolutionarily conserved brain active CRE in severe neurodevelopmental disease at a cohort level,¹⁴ but the confident assignment of 83 84 variants as causative in affected individuals is difficult¹⁵.

85	Here we have attempted to identify all CRE on the X chromosome and then sequence these
86	in 48 individuals with intellectual disability (ID) and a family history that suggests the disease
87	may be X-linked ID (XLID). All affected individuals were recurrently screened negative for
88	likely causative coding mutations on the X chromosome. Using a rational approach to filtering
89	we identified variants in predicted CRE that are associated with known XLID genes and used
90	a range of in vivo assays to find features that discriminate likely neutral from likely causative
91	variants.
92	

95 Results

96 Selection of study cohort. In a previous study we have shown that a significant number of 97 individuals with XLID have no likely disease-associated variants in the coding sequence on 98 the X chromosome,¹⁶ and subsequent clinical and research analyses. From this group of 99 undiagnosed individuals we identified 48 unrelated males from families with 3 or more 100 affected members with an inheritance pattern strongly suggestive of XLID (Supplementary 101 Fig. 1). We reasoned that this cohort should be enriched for regulatory mutations. These 102 families also increase the prior probability that any causative CRE variants would be on the X 103 chromosome thus significantly reducing the genomic search space for interrogation.

104

105 Identification of cis-regulatory enhancers on the X chromosome (chr X).We have 106 previously identified >100,000 putative CRE covering 4.4% of the human X chromosome and 107 assigned the likely target gene using evolutionary conservation of linkage between CRE and 108 genes located within 1.5 Mb of each other¹⁷. Approximately a third of CRE could be assigned 109 to a single gene with the remainder having more than one equally plausible target. 389/812 110 protein coding genes on the X chromosome could be assigned to at least one CRE. 111 Chromatin immunoprecipitation for H3K4me1 in human developing brain showed 10-fold 112 enrichment of these putative CRE. Fluorescent reporter transgenic zebrafish showed >60% of 113 the ~1000 analyzed CRE drive expression in a pattern that overlaps that of endogenous gene 114 activation during development¹⁷.

115

116 Targeted sequencing and variant filtering of chrx coding regions and enhancers. In the 117 present study we used a targeted sequencing approach to identify variants within all coding 118 regions and CRE on the X chromosome that may be causing XLID in the 48 families using a 119 custom 15.9 Mb oligonucleotide pull-down consisting of 227323 baits. A total of 40,699 120 variant calls passed basic quality controls in these individuals (Fig. 1a). As expected, no 121 clearly disease-associated variants were identified in the coding exons in any of the 122 probands. 628 rare/ultrarare hemizygous variants were identified in high confidence putative 123 CRE of which 31 altered highly conserved bases in enhancers that were predicted to control 124 known XLID genes. 30/31 were confirmed by Sanger sequence analysis in the probands but

only 6 of these 30 were shown to segregate appropriately in the XLID families using samples
from additional affected, unaffected males and obligate females (Fig.1b). Details of
segregation in pedigrees are shown in (Supplementary Fig. 1 & Supplementary Table 4).
4/48 probands carried one of these six variants and 1/48 carried two.

129

130 Allele frequencies to assess the plausibility of each rare variant being causative. The 131 position and gnomAD variant allele frequencies (AF) of these six variants are shown in 132 (Supplementary **Table 5).** We used the approach of Whiffin et al.¹⁸ to calculate the maximum 133 plausible allele frequency for a causal variant in any of the CRE. We chose very conservative 134 parameters: 0.01 for genetic heterogeneity (i.e. 1% of all undiagnosed XLID is caused by a 135 variant in one CRE), 0.2 for allelic heterogeneity (i.e. only 5 different causative variants can 136 exist per CRE) and 0.5 for penetrance (complicated by X-linked inheritance but likely to be ~1 137 in males and >=0.1 in females). These parameters gave maximum permitted 95% confidence 138 AF = 4e06. Three of the five individuals (S3, S19 and S43) with CRE variants that survived 139 initial filtering do carry variants that may be plausibly disease associated on the basis of the 140 gnomAD AF. The single variant in S31 and both variants in S24 were confirmed to be rare but 141 have gnomAD AF that are too common to be likely disease associated.

142

143 Reporter transgenic analysis of rare filtered variants segregating with the disorder. The 144 reference and alternative base versions of all six rare or ultrarare CRE variants were then 145 tested for CRE function using dual-color fluorescent transgenic assay in zebrafish¹⁹. In these 146 experiments the mutant CRE drives expression of one fluorescent protein and the wild-type 147 CRE controls a different fluorescent protein in the same fish. Multiple stable lines are 148 created, expression domains are scored and only consistent differences between the 149 reference and alternative alleles are taken as evidence of a functional effect of the mutation. 150 Only two variants in the CRE controlling the XLID genes (in two different probands), TENM1^{CRE} and FMR1^{CRE}, demonstrated a consistent restriction of expression of reporter 151 152 gene in brain as a result of the variants (Fig. 2c, d, 3c, d). The domain of expression of the reporter gene driven by TENM1^{CRE} and FMR1^{CRE} overlap with the expression domain of the 153 154 target gene in zebrafish respectively (Fig. 2a, 3a).

155

156 TENM1^{CRE} creates a de novo and functionally repressive binding site for six3.We had noted that the TENM1^{CRE} variant created a predicted binding site for the homeodomain-157 158 containing DNA binding proteins SIX3 or SIX6 in the human element (Fig. 2b). We chose 159 SIX3 for further study as it is essential for early brain development and with pathway-specific 160 activator and repressor activity²⁰. To determine if SIX3-mediated repression may be 161 responsible for the altered enhancer activity in the variant TENM1^{CRE} we titrated morpholinos against zebrafish six3 into the embryos from a TENM1^{CRE} dual color fluorescent transgenic 162 163 line to the point where there was no morphological anomaly. This resulted in an alteration in the expression of the TENM1^{CRE} transgene to match the wildtype in the morphant embryos 164 165 (Fig. 2e, f), supporting acquisition of SIX3 repression as the mechanism for the transcriptional 166 effect in zebrafish embryos.

167

168 *Fmr1* expression and behavioral phenotypes in *Fmr1*^{CRE} and *Tenm1*^{CRE} mouse models. 169 CRISPR/Cas9 genome editing was used to knock the exact mutation into mouse embryos via 170 homologous recombination for both variants that showed a consistent functional 171 consequence in the zebrafish lines: *FMR1*^{CRE} and *TENM1*^{CRE}. We established multiple 172 independent mouse lines for each CRE variant on a C57BL/6 background (Fig. 2b, 3b). All 173 lines resulted in hemizygous mutant animals, at the expected ratio that were healthy and 174 fertile with no obvious morphological abnormalities. We first looked for alteration in the expression of the predicted target gene during development. Tenm1^{CRE} resulted in loss of 175 176 expression in the hindbrain of the mutant embryos using whole-mount in situ hybridization 177 (WISH) for the endogenous gene (Fig. 2g, 2h). Fmr1^{CRE} caused a significant reduction in the 178 developmental expression of *Fmr1* in the olfactory placodes and the forebrain (Fig. 3e). Both 179 variants have an effect on endogenous gene expression i.e. neither is behaving as a shadow 180 CRE.

To look for functional phenotypic effects segregating with either CRE variant we first tested olfaction. This sense was selected for two reasons. First, the complete loss of *Fmr1* expression in the olfactory placode in *Fmr1*^{CRE} embryos. Secondly, *TENM1/Tenm1* mutations have recently been identified in humans and mice associated with congenital generalized anosmia²¹.Using a buried chocolate button test hemizygous *Fmr1*^{CRE} mice showed a
 significant increase in time to discovery compared to wild-type male littermates (Fig. 4g).
 Tenm1^{CRE} hemizygotes had olfactory function similar to wild-type male littermates (Fig. 4h).

188

189 Abnormal hippocampal protein synthesis and electrophysiology in *Fmr1*^{CRE} mice

190 FMR1/Fmr1 encodes 516-622 amino acid RNA-binding and polyribosome associated protein 191 isoforms (FMRP) that are essential for the normal development and function of neurons in the 192 brain. Loss of FMRP function is responsible for Fragile X syndrome, the most common form 193 of XLID. A well-characterised biochemical effect of loss of FMRP in the brain of the mouse 194 model of Fragile X syndrome is the mGluR5- or ERK1/2-dependent elevation of basal protein 195 synthesis²².We found a significant increase in bulk protein translation levels in tissue slices of 196 dorsal hippocampus of *Fmr1*^{CRE} mutant male mice compared to wild-type male littermates 197 (Fig. 4b). This would be consistent with the reduction of *Fmr1* expression we observed in 198 mutant embryos (Fig. 3e). Importantly we did not find significant difference in the expression 199 of *Fmr1 transcript* in *Fmr1*^{CRE} mutant male mice compared to wild-type male littermates at 200 developmental stage P-7 (by qPCR), P-14 (by qPCR) (Supplementary Fig. 2) or P-25 (by 201 RNAScope) (Fig. 4c,d,e) and (by RNA Sequencing) (Supplementary Fig. 3).

202 Given the gene expression results, it was surprising to find an increase in FMRP protein 203 abundance in the hippocampus of *Fmr1*^{CRE} mutant male mice as compared to wild-type litter 204 mates using western Blotting (Fig.4a, b; Supplementary Fig. 4). The increase in FMRP 205 protein levels is consistent with our finding that mGluR-dependent long-term depression 206 (LTD) in the CA3-CA1 regions of the mouse hippocampus is significantly decreased in 207 Fmr1^{CRE} hemizygous mutant male mice as compared to wild-type litter mates (Fig. 4f) as this is exaggerated in *Fmr1*-null animals²³.*Fmr1*^{CRE} hemizygous mutant mice were also found to 208 209 have no increase in audiogenic seizure predisposition, a phenotype that typifies Fmr1 null mice (Fig. 4i). These latter three key features strongly suggest that Fmr1^{CRE} does not 210 211 represent a simple loss of FMRP function.

212

213 Clinical re-evaluation and whole genome sequencing of individuals carrying 214 *FMR1^{CRE}*.Re-evaluation of affected individuals within the family in which *FMR1^{CRE}* is segregating (Fig. 4j) revealed no features suggestive of a Fragile X (FRAX) syndrome diagnosis (OMIM #300624]; FMRP deficiency) other than macrocephaly and intellectual disability. Importantly none of the individuals carrying *FMR1*^{CRE} showed clinical features of FRAX Tremor and Ataxia Syndrome (FRAXTAS [OMIM #300623]; FMRP over-production)²⁴.Whole genome sequencing of individual S3 (*FMR1*^{CRE} proband) did not identify any other plausible cause of his intellectual disability.

222 Discussion

223

224 The motivation for initiating this study was the difficulty in assigning pathogenic or likely 225 pathogenic status to a *de novo* or segregating variant in a regulatory sequence. Currently 226 almost all such ultra-rare variants would be considered of uncertain significance using current 227 best practice guidelines^{25, 26}. However it has been shown that using "well-established" 228 functional assays demonstrating a variant has abnormal gene function (coded as assigning 229 PS3 in the guidelines) has the potential to change many variants of uncertain significance 230 (VUS) to likely pathogenic status²⁷. The question then becomes: how should we use data from 231 functional assays in clinical interpretation of regulatory variants. Given the rapid switch from 232 targeted whole exome sequencing to whole genome sequencing it is likely that there will be 233 an increasing need to develop a rational approach to the interpretation of ultra-rare regulatory 234 variants.

235 Here we attempted to perform an integrated clinical, genetic, developmental, behavioural and 236 neurophysiological approach to the analyses of CRE variants identified in a cohort of affected 237 individuals with a Mendelian phenotype that should be enriched for causative cis-regulatory 238 mutations. XLID accounts for ~16% of ID in males²⁸. Mutations in the coding region of at least 239 81 different genes,^{16, 29} have been identified as causing XLID. Given the significant 240 contribution of XLID to ID and the observed regulatory variant enrichment in a large cohort of 241 individuals with neurodevelopmental disorders.¹⁴ we reasoned that we could increase the 242 prior probability of identifying likely causative mutations by restricting the genomic search 243 space to the X chromosome and by limiting our investigations to variants in enhancers that 244 targeted known XLID genes. This strategy was implemented as most known disease-245 associated regulatory mutations were identified because they partially,³⁰ or fully,³¹ phenocopy 246 loss-of-function mutations in the target gene. If true for our cohort, then matching the pattern 247 of clinical features of individuals carrying a specific regulatory mutation to those of the 248 syndrome associated with intragenic mutations would have diagnostic value.

One important feature of our study was that we could compare the functional impact of variants which were plausibly responsible for a significant Mendelian disorder and those that were too common to be disease associated using established statistical approach¹⁸. The *in vivo* analysis of the *TENM1* enhancer was particularly interesting in this regard. Both the 253 transgenic zebrafish embryos and knock-in mouse lines showed clear evidence of 254 abnormality in developmental gene expression. Indeed, we were able to identify the 255 transcription factor mediating the repressive effect of the rare CRE variant in zebrafish. This 256 could be taken as strong evidence of disease association if the significance of the allele 257 frequency was not appreciated. It seems likely that simpler and more commonly used in vitro 258 assays of enhancer activity,³² will be more prone to "over-reporting". It is also clear that most 259 unique variants will also be neutral or of low-penetrant effect so the allele frequency on its 260 own is not sufficient for discrimination in clinical analysis.

261 The unique CRE variant *FMR1*^{CRE} is the most plausible disease associated allele of those 262 identified in this study. This variant produced abnormal embryonic expression of endogenous 263 Fmr1 in the mouse model (Fig. 3e). The reporter transgenic analysis in zebrafish also 264 showed an expression pattern that would be consistent with tissue specific loss of function 265 during early brain development. In contrast, we were unable to show evidence of significant 266 transcriptional misregulation in the *Fmr1*^{CRE} post-natal brain using gRT-PCR (Supplementary 267 Fig. 2), RNA-Seq (Supplementary Fig. 3) or RNAscope in situ hybridization (Fig. 4d, e). This 268 was particularly interesting in the context of the other analyses that we performed in P25 269 Fmr1^{CRE} mice. First the pattern of bulk protein synthesis was similar to that seen in Fmr1 KO 270 mice. However, the direction of electrophysiological change of LTD was opposite from Fmr1 271 KO mice and increased levels of FMRP protein were observed (Fig. 4a, b; Supplementary 272 Fig. 4). These apparently paradoxical results may be the consequence of developmental 273 mis-programming of the cells in the hippocampus. In the future we intend to employ single 274 cell transcriptomics and ATAC-Seq to test this hypothesis.

275 We chose the buried food behavioural assay to assess olfaction because this would be plausibly disrupted in both Tenm1^{CRE,21} and Fmr1^{CRE 33,34}.Like all mouse behavioural assays 276 277 this is very likely to be influenced by other neurodevelopmental and environmental factors. That said, the fact that it was normal in *Tenm1*^{CRE} and impaired in *Fmr1*^{CRE} is probably 278 significant given the striking loss of Fmr1 expression in the olfactory placodes in Fmr1^{CRE} 279 280 embryonic mice. Surprisingly, given the human phenotype, it has been difficult to identify any 281 behavioural assay that provides consistent evidence of cognitive impairment in Fmr1 KO 282 mice³⁵.

283 For the reasons outlined in the two paragraphs above we do not consider it to be surprising 284 that the proband S3 and his affected male relatives carrying *FMR1*^{CRE} do not show a clinical 285 pattern typical of either Fragile X syndrome [OMIM 300624] or FRAXTAS [OMIM 300623].The 286 family presented with a non-specific intellectual disability associated with mild macrocephaly. 287 We consider it likely that many disease associated CRE variants will result in clinical features 288 that significantly differ from those seen associated with intragenic mutations of target gene. If 289 this heterogeneity in clinical features is indeed true, the clinical genetics field will have 290 relatively limited ability to predict the phenotypes associated with regulatory mutations even 291 when the clinical impact of intragenic mutations of target gene are well characterised.

292 We can conclude that although it remains challenging to recognise highly penetrant CRE 293 causative variants, the population allele frequency estimates from gnomAD 2.1.1 has power 294 to identify those of neutral or low penetrant effect. These data allowed us to class TENM1^{CRE} 295 as implausible as an XLID causative variant despite it being in an evolutionarily conserved, 296 non-redundant CRE with a strong repressive effect on Tenm1 expression during mouse 297 hindbrain development. The discriminative power of the extreme rarity of individual alleles 298 may prove particularly useful for the identification of causative variants in CRE which are 299 poorly conserved across species but under high levels of selective constraint within human 300 populations³⁶. For the time being we suggest that causative variants are restricted to those 301 with strong human genetic evidence, supported by modelling of the precise variant in vivo and 302 resulting in both transcriptional misregulation and phenotypic effect.

303

305

304 Materials and methods

306 Cohort Selection. Genomic DNA samples from 48 individuals (probands) with moderate-to-307 severe intellectual disability (ID) were used in this study. The appropriate research ethical 308 approval was obtained (IRAS 03/0/014), and parents or guardians provided informed written 309 consent. Each individual is assumed to have X-linked recessive form of ID on the basis of 310 positive family history: three or more cases of ID in males only, predominant sparing of carrier 311 females and no evidence of male-to-male transmission of the disease (Supplementary Fig. 1). 312 A clinical geneticist had assessed the individuals and the cause of the ID was unknown. The 313 severity of the disease was categorized using DSM-IV or ICD-10 classifications (profound

314 mental retardation was classified as severe). The patients had previously been tested 315 negative by routine diagnostic approaches (i.e., CGH microarray analysis at 500 kb 316 resolution, fragile X [MIM #300624], methylation status of Prader Willi [MIM 317 #176270]/Angelman syndrome [MIM #105830]). In addition, coding variants on the X 318 chromosome likely to lead to disease have not been found within a previous study¹⁶.

319

320 Targeted Capture Design and Sequencing. A comprehensive list of coordinates of all the 321 exonic and conserved regulatory elements from human X chromosome was used to design a 322 customized capture library from Roche, NimbleGen (Supplementary Table 1).Library 323 preparation, pre and post capture multiplexing were performed using the SeqCap EZ Choice 324 XL kit (Roche NimbleGen) and TruSeq index barcodes (Illumina) were used according to the 325 manufacturer's instructions. 4 different DNA samples were pooled for pre capture multiplexing 326 and 4 post captured libraries were combined and paired-end sequenced performed on a 327 single lane of a HiSeq-2000 instrument (Illumina). In total 16 different DNA samples were 328 sequenced in a single lane of a HiSeq-2000 and 4 lanes were used to sequence all the 48 329 DNA samples.

330

331 Read Mapping, Variant Analysis and Enhancer Selection. Following quality control with 332 FastQC, reads were mapped to the GRCh37 version of the human reference genome using 333 BWA³⁷. Variants were called using GATK,³⁸ according to its recommended best practice 334 pipeline. 40,699 variants remained after filtering out variants that failed GATK's variant quality 335 score recalibration. These variants were subsequently compared to dbSNP v137 to filter out 336 common variants. Any variant with one of the following handles in dbSNP (1000GENOMES, 337 CSHL-HAPMAP, EGP_SNPS, NHLBI-ESP, PGA-UW-FHCRC) were excluded where the 338 variant's reported minor allele frequency was greater than 0.01 and the minor allele was 339 reported to be observed in at least two samples. The remaining 9,577 X chromosome 340 variants were then annotated with SnpEff,³⁹ to determine their predicted effects on genes. 341 gnomAD 2.1 allele frequencies were documented for the surviving variants. To determine the 342 best candidates for experimental validations, the variants were ranked based on extreme 343 evolutionary conservation. Using Multiple Sequence Alignments from 45 vertebrate species 344 against the Human genome (UCSC genome browser), mutations were retained if the 345 reference human allele was conserved in at least 90% of the species, and then sorted by 346 decreasing conservation depth. Top variants were then manually evaluated using biochemical 347 signals from the ENCODE project (H3K4me1, H3K4me3, H3K27ac, DNase1 sensitivity), and 348 based on the association to target genes known to be responsible for XLID or functionally 349 related to brain development, leading to a final selection of 31 candidate variants 350 (Supplementary Table 4). Target genes for each of the CRE harbouring the variants were 351 assigned as described previously¹⁷. Motif search on CRE element was performed on a 40bp 352 window around the mutated base for both human and mouse sequences using the FIMO 353 software from the MEME suite⁴⁰. The motif databases used for the search were Jaspar Core 354 2018 for vertebrates and Uniprobe mouse motifs as downloaded from the MEME website. 355 Motifs with a p-value of 0.001 or lower that were present uniquely in either the WT or the 356 mutant sequences are reported.

357

358 Transgenic Zebrafish, In Situ Hybridization (ISH) and Morphant Generation. All mouse 359 and zebrafish experiments were approved by The University of Edinburgh ethical committee 360 and performed under UK Home Office license number PIL 60/12763, 70/25905, I655D57B6, 361 PA3527EC3 and 1724D1B2C; PPL 60/4418, 60/4424, IFC719EAD and 60/4290.The wild 362 type and mutant versions of the *FMR1*^{CRE} and *TENM1*^{CRE} were analyzed for their regulatory 363 activities in dual color enhancer-reporter transgenic assays in zebrafish embryos¹⁹. The 364 sequences of the primers used in generating the constructs utilized in the assay are listed in 365 (Supplementary Table 2). A summary of the number of independent lines analyzed for each 366 enhancer and their expression sites is included in (Supplementary Table 3). The transgenic 367 F1 embryos were processed for imaging as described¹⁹. The images were taken on a Nikon 368 A1R confocal microscope and processed using A1R analysis software. A zebrafish six3 369 antisense morpholino oligonucleotide (Six3AMO) was obtained from Gene Tools, LLC, with 370 the following sequence: 5' GCTCTAAAGGAGACCTGAAAACCAT 3'. This morpholino has 371 sequence complementary to the highly conserved sequences around the translation initiation 372 codon of both six3a and six3b, and hence inhibits the function of both zebrafish six3 373 genes⁴¹.As control we used the Gene Tools LLC standard negative control morpholino: 5'

374 CCTCTTACCTCAGTTACAATTTATA 3'. The morpholinos were injected into 1 to 2-cell stage
 375 of at least 100 embryos to deliver an approximate amount of 2.5 ng per embryo. RNA in situ
 376 hybridization on fish embryos was performed as previously⁴². The sequences of primers used
 377 for synthesis of specific probes are listed in (Supplementary Table 2).

378

379 Generation of Transgenic Mice and Embryo ISH.CRISPR/Cas9 gene targeting technology 380 was used to generate mouse lines with orthologous mutations; Fmr1^{CRE} and Tenm1^{CRE}. 381 Double stranded DNA oligomer that provides a template for the guide RNA sequence was 382 cloned into px461. The details of guide RNA and repair template sequence are in 383 Supplementary note. The full gRNA template sequence is amplified from the resulting px461 384 clone using universal reverse primer and T7 tagged forward primers. The guide RNA PCR 385 template is used for in vitro RNA synthesis using T7 RNA polymerase (Neb), and purified 386 using RNeasy mini kit (Qiagen) purification columns. The zygotic injection mix contains Cas9 387 mRNA (Tebu Bioscience @ 50ng/µl), guide RNA (25ng/µl) and repair template single 388 stranded DNA (IDT 150ng/µl). Injected embryos were transferred into the oviducts of pseudo-389 pregnant females to litter down. Genotyping of the resulting mice was performed by Sanger 390 sequencing using tail tip DNAs. F0 mice with desired variant were crossed with C57BL/6 to 391 generate a stable mice line. In situ hybridization on mouse embryos was performed with DIG-392 labelled gene-specific antisense probes as previously described⁴³. The sequences of primers 393 used for synthesis of specific probes are listed in (Supplementary Table 2).

394

Behavioral Testing of Fmr1^{CRE} and Tenm1^{CRE} Mouse Lines. Male WT (wild type) and 395 396 mutant (*Fmr1*^{CRE} and *Tenm1*^{CRE} knock-in) littermates were used for the test at P25-32 using 397 the buried food test assay. For three consecutive days before the test, ¼ Cadbury's chocolate 398 button was placed in the home cage for 15 minutes to habituate the mice to the food reward. 399 12 hours before the test, all food was removed from the home cage to motivate the mouse to 400 find the food reward during the test. After 12 hours, the mouse was placed in a clean cage 401 with fresh bedding in which ¼ chocolate button had been buried 1cm beneath the bedding. 402 The time taken for the mouse to find the buried food was scored and the test was stopped if 403 the mouse did not find the food after 15 minutes. The bedding was replaced and the cage

404 cleaned with 1% Conficlean between mice. All mice were scored blind to the genotype.

405 Unpaired t-tests were used to determine statistical significance.

406

407 Seizure Propensity Testing of Fmr1^{CRE}.Male WT and *Fmr1^{CRE}* knock-in mutant littermates 408 (P25-32) were tested for audiogenic seizures as described previously ⁴⁴. Briefly, animals were 409 transferred to a transparent plastic test chamber and, after 1 minute of habituation, exposed 410 to a 2 min sampling of a modified personal alarm held at > 130dB. Seizures were scored for 411 incidence (seizure/no seizure) and severity, with an increasing scale of 1=wild running, 412 2=clonic seizure, and 3=tonic seizure. All mice were tested and scored blind to genotype. 413 Statistical significance for incidence was determined using two-tailed Fisher's exact test.

414

Basal Protein Synthesis and FMRP Western Blotting.Protein synthesis levels were
measured following the protocol outlined by Osterweil²².The detailed protocol is described in
the Supplementary note.

For western blots, forebrain, midbrain and hindbrain from (P-14) and hippocampal slice from P-25 male WT and *Fmr1*^{CRE} knock-in mutant littermates were dissected and homogenized in lysis buffer (20 mM HEPES pH 7.4, 0.5% Triton X-100, 150 mM NaCl, 10% glycerol, 5 mM EDTA with protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche), incubated at 4 °C for 30 min followed by centrifugation at 14000 rpm for 30 min to collect the supernatant. These samples were directly used for SDS-PAGE and transferred onto nitrocellulose membranes for immunoblot analysis with FMR1 (MAB2160, Milipore) and Actin antibodies (13E5, CST).

425

426 Hippocampal Slice Electrophysiology. Electrophysiology experiments were performed as
 427 outlined by Stephanes⁴⁵. The detailed protocol is described in the Supplementary note.

428

429 RNAscope Assay and Imaging. In situ RNA hybridization was performed using the 430 RNAscope assay (Advanced Cell Diagnostics, ACD, Hayward, CA, USA) according to the 431 manufacturer's recommendations. The detailed protocol is described in the Supplementary 432 note. The images of sections were processed using the multimodal Imaging Platform 433 Dragonfly (Andor Technologies, Belfast, UK) using air 40x Plan Fluor 0.75 DIC N2. Data were bioRxiv preprint doi: https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.08.03.232926; this version posted August 3, 2020. The copyright holder for this preprint (which was not certified by peer review) is the author/funder. All rights reserved. No reuse allowed without permission.

- 434 collected in Spinning Disk 25 µm pinhole mode on the high sensitivity iXon888 EMCCD
- 435 camera. According to Advanced Cell Diagnostics, each mRNA molecule hybridized to a probe
- 436 appears as separate small puncta. Data visualization and spot counting was done using
- 437 IMARIS 8.4 (Bitplane).

438 Acknowledgements

439 DRF and VvH were supported by MRC University Unit grant to the MRC Human Genetics 440 Unit at the University of Edinburgh. HB & MN and project costs were supported and funded 441 by the 7th framework programme of the European Union [NeuroXsys Project HEALTH- F4-442 2009-223262]. HB was subsequently funded by a grant from NewLife (Grant Ref: 14-15/07). 443 National Institute of Health Research Bioresource for Rare Diseases (grant number 444 RG65966) for whole genome sequence data from 12,596 X chromosome alleles as controls. 445 JH is funded by a BBSRC studentship. FLR and DG are funded by NIHR Cambridge 446 Biomedical Research Centre grant. HRC received support from the French Government from 447 programs implemented by ANR with the references ANR-10-LABX-54 MEMOLIFE and 448 ANR-10-IDEX-0001-02 PSL* Research University. DRF,PK and EO receive grant funding 449 from the Simons Initiative for the Developing Brain.

450

451 Author Contributions

DRF, HRC, FLR and VvH conceived the project and with CA and EO designed the
experimental approaches. HB, DG, OSB, SB, SRdL, JH and SB performed the experiments
and interpreted the results. LM, MN and HRC performed the computational genomic analysis.
DRF, HRC and FLR wrote the manuscript with contributions from HB, SB, EO and VvH.

457 Figure Legends

458 **Fig. 1**:

Identification and filtering of XLID-associated regulatory variants and their predicted target genes. a. Workflow of the sequencing and curation pipeline leading to the identification of six XLID-associated CRE variants in five probands. b. Schematic showing the genomic region of the six genomic variants in the five probands (S19, S24, S3, S43. S31) indicating the location of the XLID-associated CRE variants along with the gnomAD frequencies and their predicted target genes (indicated in red, genomic coordinates form h19/GRCh37 genome build).

466

467 **Fig. 2**:

468 TENM1 associated regulatory variant alters the expression of Tenm1 in mouse 469 embryonic development. a. mRNA in situ hybridization showing expression of tenm1 in 470 midbrain, hindbrain and neural tube during embryonic development in wild type zebrafish. b. 471 Human and mouse (TENM1^{CRE}/Tenm1^{CRE}) sequences are shown with the variant base 472 marked in blue, resulting in gain of SIX3/SIX6 and HDX binding sites in TENM1^{CRE} and 473 Six6 and Hdx binding sites in Tenm1^{CRE}.c-d. Dual color fluorescent transgenic assay in 474 zebrafish with wild-type (Wt) and mutant TENM1^{CRE} driving eGFP and mCherry expression 475 respectively. Loss of enhancer activity is observed in midbrain and hindbrain with the mutant 476 TENM1^{CRE} allele. e-f. six3 knockdown rescues the effect of the mutant variant on the activity of TENM1^{CRE}. Control morpholino injected embryos show loss of reporter activity in midbrain 477 478 and hindbrain by mutant allele, where the mutation creates a Six3 binding site (e). 479 Knockdown of Six3 rescues the activity of mutant allele in the midbrain and hindbrain (f). g-h. 480 Whole-mount in situ hybridization for Tenm1 shows loss of expression of Tenm1 in the hindbrain and midbrain of *Tenm1*^{CRE} mutant embryos as compared to wild-type embryos. 481 482 MB: Midbrain; HB: Hindbrain; NT: Neural tube; hpf: hours post fertilization

483

484

485

486 **Fig. 3**:

487 *FMR1* associated regulatory variant alters the expression of *Fmr1* in mouse embryonic 488 development. a. mRNA in situ hybridization showing expression of fmr1 in forebrain and 489 midbrain during embryonic development in wild-type zebrafish. b. Human and mouse 490 (FMR1^{CRE}/Fmr1^{CRE}) sequences are shown with the variant base marked in blue, 491 resulting in loss of RFX2/Rfx2 binding site in FMR1^{CRE}/Fmr1^{CRE}. c-d. Dual color 492 fluorescent transgenic assay in zebrafish with wild-type (Wt) and mutant (Mut) FMR1CRE 493 driving eGFP and mCherry expression respectively. Loss of enhancer activity is observed in 494 forebrain with the mutant FMR1^{CRE} allele. e. Whole-mount in situ hybridization for Fmr1 shows loss of expression of *Fmr1* in the nasal placode and midbrain *Fmr1*^{CRE} mutant embryos as 495 496 compared to wild-type embryos.

497 FB: Forebrain; MB: Midbrain; TG: Trigeminal ganglia; NP: Nasal placode; hpf: hours post498 fertilization

499

500 **Fig. 4**:

501 Functional phenotypic effects observed in mice bearing *FMR1* associated regulatory 502 variant. a) Levels of FMRP protein observed in the forebrain, midbrain and hindbrain of 503 Fmr1^{CRE} knock-in mutant mice as compared to wild-type litter mates at P-14. b) Significant 504 increase in bulk protein synthesis levels in slices from dorsal hippocampus of Fmr1^{CRE} knock-505 in mutant male mice as compared to wild-type male littermates. c) H&E stained brain sagittal 506 section with marked hippocampus regions is shown as reference image on which RNAscope analysis was done *Fmr1*^{CRE} mutant male mice compared to wild-type male littermates. 507 508 Images of RNAscope processed CA3-CA1 components of the hippocampus brain section 509 were taken as shown by numbers (1-8) starting from dentate gyrus (DG). d) Reference image 510 of RNAscope processed section with Fmr1 transcript (Red), Pax6 transcript (Green) and 511 nucleus (Blue/DAPI). Each transcripts are represented by spots. e) Graphical representation 512 of Fmr1 transcripts normalised to Pax6 transcripts (used as control) is shown across the 513 whole CA3-CA1 components of the hippocampus brain section between *Fmr1*^{CRE}mutant 514 male(purple) mice compared to wild-type littermates(orange) .No significant difference was 515 overserved in the Fmr1 transcripts level across the whole region used for analysis. f). mGluR-516 dependent LTD is significantly decreased in CA3-CA1 components of the hippocampus of

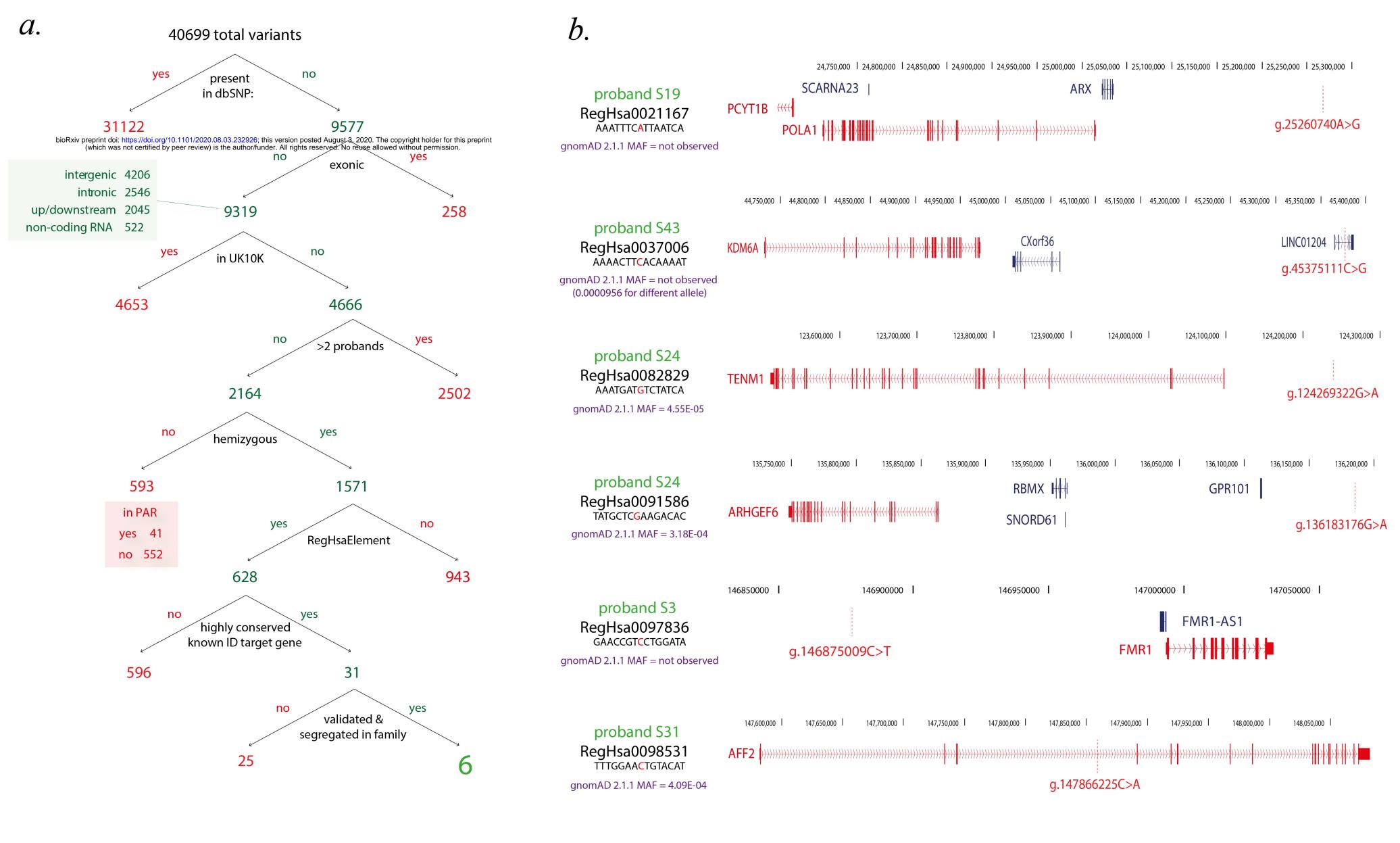
517	Fmr1 ^{CRE} mutant mice as compare to wild type litter mate (g-h) Olfactory function. The mice
518	hemizygous for the variant in Fmr1 ^{CRE} showed a significant increase in time to discovery
519	compared to wildtype male controls in a buried food test. No significant difference in the
520	levels of latency to find food was observed in mice hemizygous for the variant in Tenm1 ^{CRE}
521	compared to wild type litter mates. i) Audiogenic seizures. No significant difference was
522	observed in audiogenic seizure incidence in the hemizygous mice with the variant Fmr1 ^{CRE}
523	compared to wild-type littermates. j) Pedigree of Family 347 of which individual S3 is a
524	member showing segregation of the mutation affecting FMR1 expression.
525	

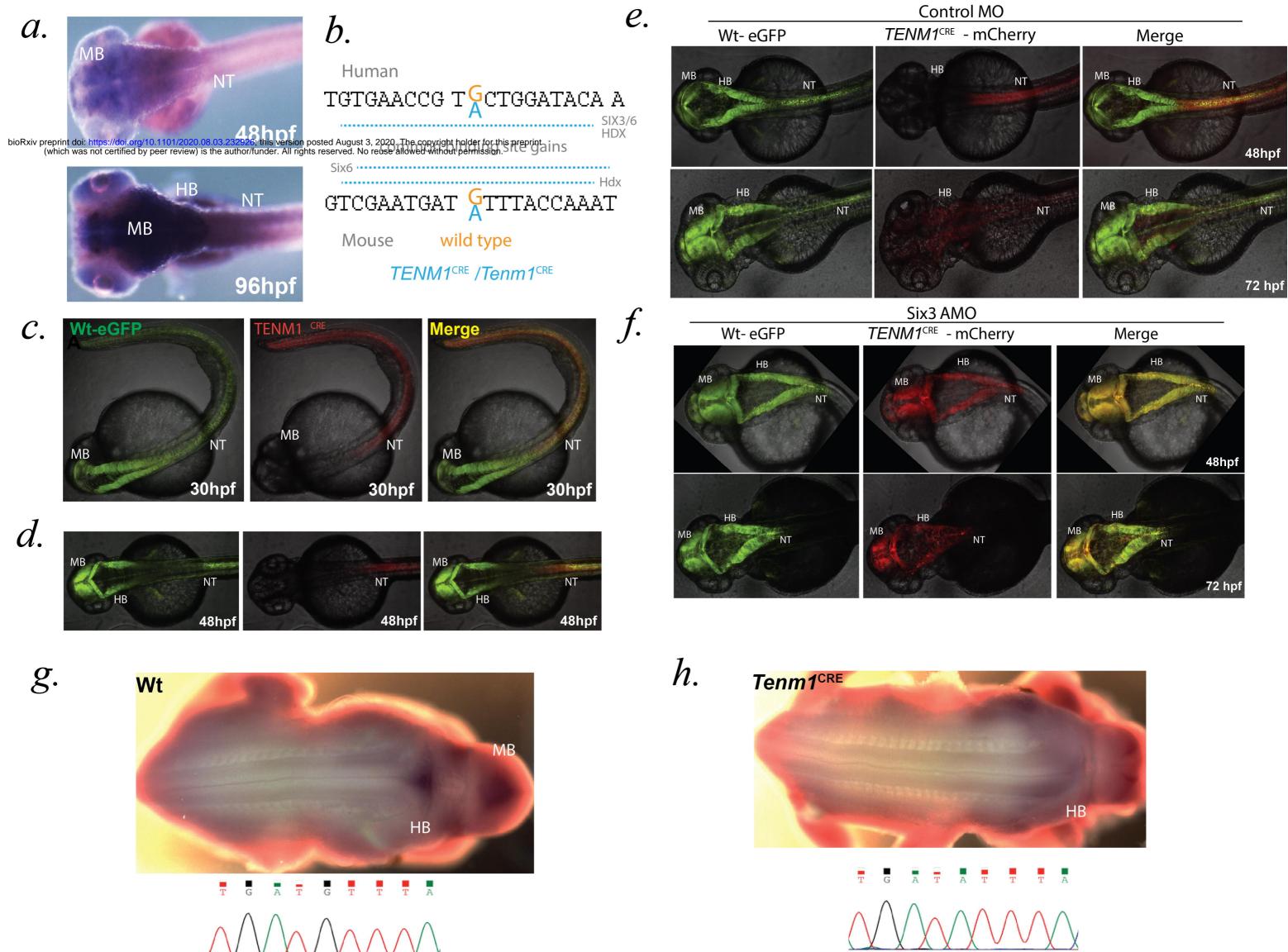
References

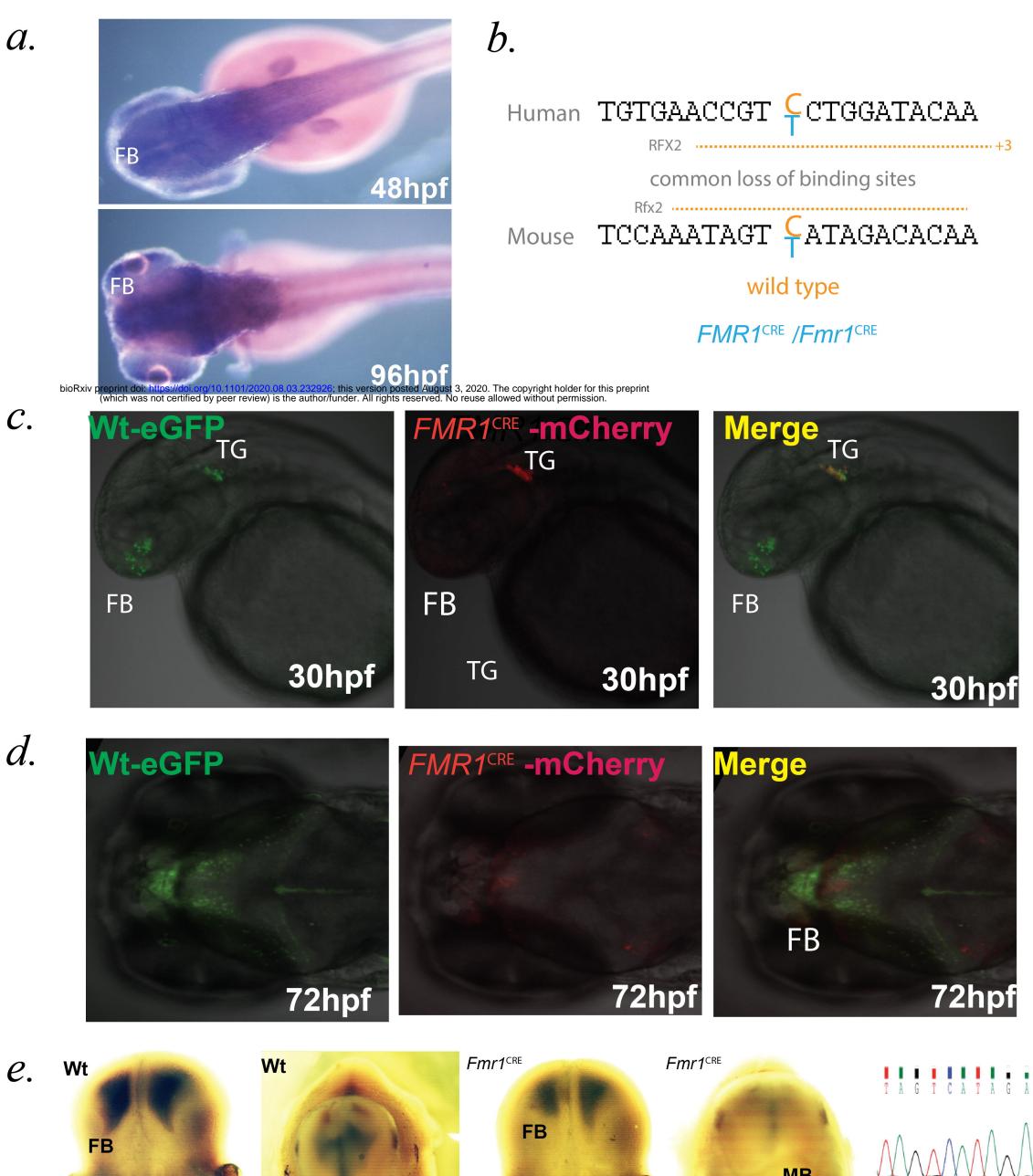
- 1. Thomas JW, *et al.* Comparative analyses of multi-species sequences from targeted genomic regions. *Nature* **424**, 788-793 (2003).
- 2. Kim TK, et al. Widespread transcription at neuronal activity-regulated enhancers. *Nature* **465**, 182-187 (2010).
- 3. Pradeepa MM, *et al.* Histone H3 globular domain acetylation identifies a new class of enhancers. *Nat Genet* **48**, 681-686 (2016).
- 4. Boyle AP, *et al.* High-resolution mapping and characterization of open chromatin across the genome. *Cell* **132**, 311-322 (2008).
- 5. Mifsud B, *et al.* Mapping long-range promoter contacts in human cells with high-resolution capture Hi-C. *Nat Genet* **47**, 598-606 (2015).
- 6. Calo E, Wysocka J. Modification of enhancer chromatin: what, how, and why? *Mol Cell* **49**, 825-837 (2013).
- 7. Kleinjan DA, van Heyningen V. Long-range control of gene expression: emerging mechanisms and disruption in disease. *Am J Hum Genet* **76**, 8-32 (2005).
- 8. Lettice LA, *et al.* Enhancer-adoption as a mechanism of human developmental disease. *Hum Mutat* **32**, 1492-1499 (2011).
- 9. Spielmann M, Lupianez DG, Mundlos S. Structural variation in the 3D genome. *Nat Rev Genet* **19**, 453-467 (2018).
- 10. Melo US, et al. Hi-C Identifies Complex Genomic Rearrangements and TAD-Shuffling in Developmental Diseases. *Am J Hum Genet*, (2020).
- 11. Hong JW, Hendrix DA, Levine MS. Shadow enhancers as a source of evolutionary novelty. *Science* **321**, 1314 (2008).
- 12. Deciphering Developmental Disorders S. Prevalence and architecture of de novo mutations in developmental disorders. *Nature* **542**, 433-438 (2017).
- 13. McEwen GK, Goode DK, Parker HJ, Woolfe A, Callaway H, Elgar G. Early evolution of conserved regulatory sequences associated with development in vertebrates. *PLoS Genet* **5**, e1000762 (2009).
- 14. Short PJ, *et al.* De novo mutations in regulatory elements in neurodevelopmental disorders. *Nature* **555**, 611-616 (2018).
- 15. MacArthur DG, *et al.* Guidelines for investigating causality of sequence variants in human disease. *Nature* **508**, 469-476 (2014).
- 16. Tarpey PS, *et al.* A systematic, large-scale resequencing screen of X-chromosome coding exons in mental retardation. *Nat Genet* **41**, 535-543 (2009).
- 17. Naville M, et al. Long-range evolutionary constraints reveal cis-regulatory interactions on the human X chromosome. *Nat Commun* **6**, 6904 (2015).
- 18. Whiffin N, *et al.* Using high-resolution variant frequencies to empower clinical genome interpretation. *Genet Med* **19**, 1151-1158 (2017).

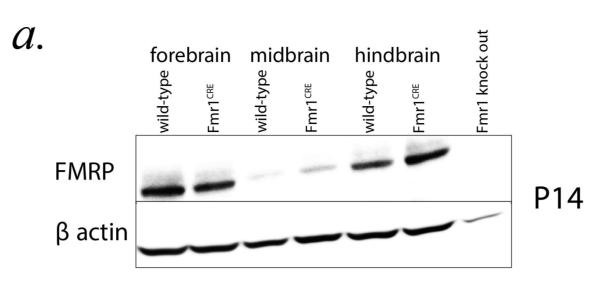
- 19. Bhatia S, *et al.* Functional assessment of disease-associated regulatory variants in vivo using a versatile dual colour transgenesis strategy in zebrafish. *PLoS Genet* **11**, e1005193 (2015).
- 20. Inbal A, Kim SH, Shin J, Solnica-Krezel L. Six3 represses nodal activity to establish early brain asymmetry in zebrafish. *Neuron* **55**, 407-415 (2007).
- 21. Alkelai A, et al. A role for TENM1 mutations in congenital general anosmia. Clin Genet **90**, 211-219 (2016).
- 22. Osterweil EK, Krueger DD, Reinhold K, Bear MF. Hypersensitivity to mGluR5 and ERK1/2 leads to excessive protein synthesis in the hippocampus of a mouse model of fragile X syndrome. *J Neurosci* **30**, 15616-15627 (2010).
- Hou L, Antion MD, Hu D, Spencer CM, Paylor R, Klann E. Dynamic translational and proteasomal regulation of fragile X mental retardation protein controls mGluRdependent long-term depression. *Neuron* 51, 441-454 (2006).
- 24. Amiri K, Hagerman RJ, Hagerman PJ. Fragile X-associated tremor/ataxia syndrome: an aging face of the fragile X gene. *Arch Neurol* **65**, 19-25 (2008).
- 25. Richards S, *et al.* Standards and guidelines for the interpretation of sequence variants: a joint consensus recommendation of the American College of Medical Genetics and Genomics and the Association for Molecular Pathology. *Genet Med* **17**, 405-424 (2015).
- 26. Tavtigian SV, *et al.* Modeling the ACMG/AMP variant classification guidelines as a Bayesian classification framework. *Genet Med* **20**, 1054-1060 (2018).
- 27. Brnich SE, et al. Recommendations for application of the functional evidence PS3/BS3 criterion using the ACMG/AMP sequence variant interpretation framework. *Genome Med* **12**, 3 (2019).
- 28. Stevenson RE, Schwartz CE. X-linked intellectual disability: unique vulnerability of the male genome. *Dev Disabil Res Rev* **15**, 361-368 (2009).
- 29. Piton A, Redin C, Mandel JL. XLID-causing mutations and associated genes challenged in light of data from large-scale human exome sequencing. *Am J Hum Genet* **93**, 368-383 (2013).
- 30. Benko S, *et al.* Highly conserved non-coding elements on either side of SOX9 associated with Pierre Robin sequence. *Nat Genet* **41**, 359-364 (2009).
- 31. Bhatia S, *et al.* Disruption of autoregulatory feedback by a mutation in a remote, ultraconserved PAX6 enhancer causes aniridia. *Am J Hum Genet* **93**, 1126-1134 (2013).
- 32. Nordeen SK. Luciferase reporter gene vectors for analysis of promoters and enhancers. *Biotechniques* **6**, 454-458 (1988).
- Bodaleo F, Tapia-Monsalves C, Cea-Del Rio C, Gonzalez-Billault C, Nunez-Parra A. Structural and Functional Abnormalities in the Olfactory System of Fragile X Syndrome Models. *Front Mol Neurosci* 12, 135 (2019).
- 34. Juncos JL, *et al.* Olfactory dysfunction in fragile X tremor ataxia syndrome. *Mov Disord* **27**, 1556-1559 (2012).
- 35. Dahlhaus R. Of Men and Mice: Modeling the Fragile X Syndrome. *Front Mol Neurosci* **11**, 41 (2018).

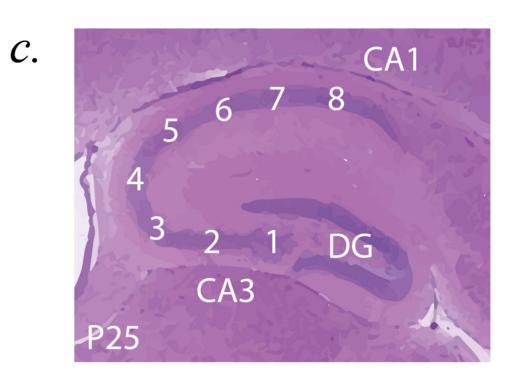
- 36. Prabhakar S, *et al.* Human-specific gain of function in a developmental enhancer. *Science* **321**, 1346-1350 (2008).
- 37. Li H, Durbin R. Fast and accurate long-read alignment with Burrows-Wheeler transform. *Bioinformatics* **26**, 589-595 (2010).
- 38. DePristo MA, *et al.* A framework for variation discovery and genotyping using nextgeneration DNA sequencing data. *Nat Genet* **43**, 491-498 (2011).
- 39. Cingolani P, et al. A program for annotating and predicting the effects of single nucleotide polymorphisms, SnpEff: SNPs in the genome of Drosophila melanogaster strain w1118; iso-2; iso-3. *Fly (Austin)* **6**, 80-92 (2012).
- 40. Grant CE, Bailey TL, Noble WS. FIMO: scanning for occurrences of a given motif. *Bioinformatics* **27**, 1017-1018 (2011).
- 41. Carlin D, Sepich D, Grover VK, Cooper MK, Solnica-Krezel L, Inbal A. Six3 cooperates with Hedgehog signaling to specify ventral telencephalon by promoting early expression of Foxg1a and repressing Wnt signaling. *Development* **139**, 2614-2624 (2012).
- 42. Thisse C, Thisse B. High-resolution in situ hybridization to whole-mount zebrafish embryos. *Nat Protoc* **3**, 59-69 (2008).
- 43. Hecksher-Sorensen J, Hill RE, Lettice L. Double labeling for whole-mount in situ hybridization in mouse. *Biotechniques* **24**, 914-916, 918 (1998).
- 44. Thomson SR, *et al.* Cell-Type-Specific Translation Profiling Reveals a Novel Strategy for Treating Fragile X Syndrome. *Neuron* **95**, 550-563 e555 (2017).
- 45. Barnes SA, *et al.* Convergence of Hippocampal Pathophysiology in Syngap+/- and Fmr1-/y Mice. *J Neurosci* **35**, 15073-15081 (2015).

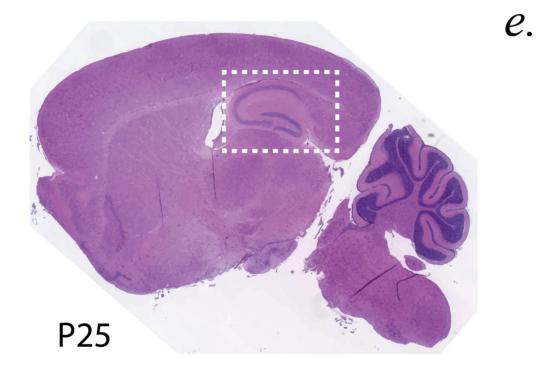






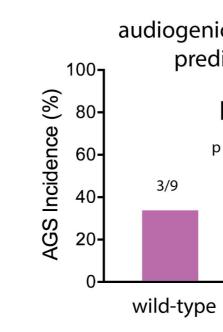




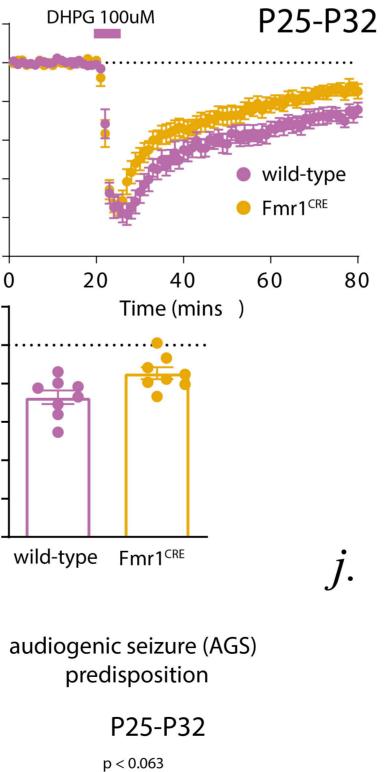


f.

i.

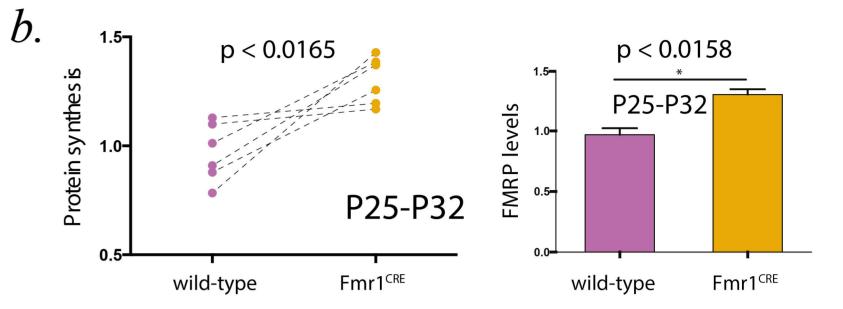


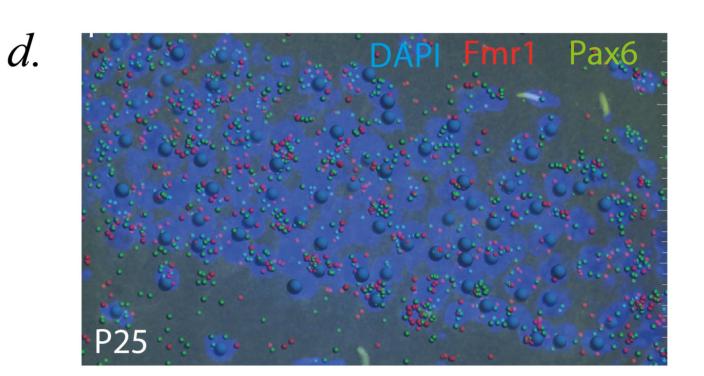
bioRxiv preprint doi: https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.08.03.232926; this version posted August 3, 2020. The copyright holder for this preprint (which was not certified by peer review) is the author/funder. All rights reserved. No reuse allowed without permission.

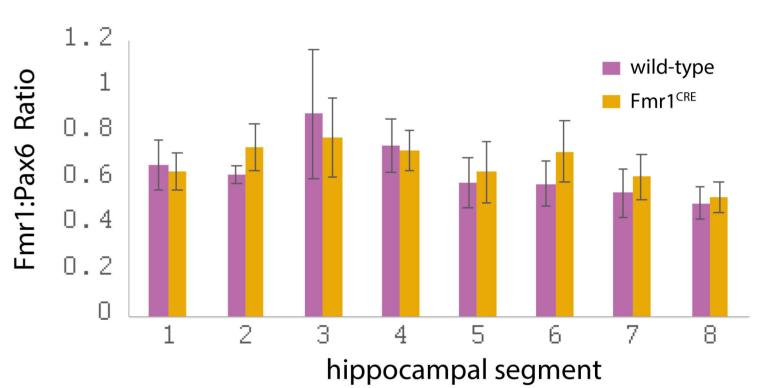


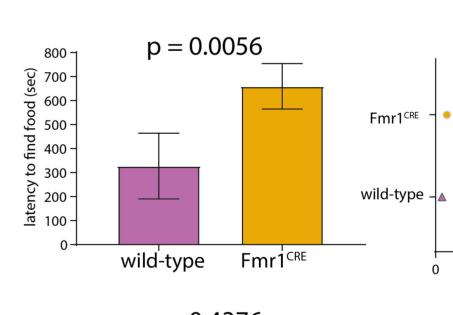
1/21

Fmr1^{CRE}









g.

h.

350 -

. 005 (Sec)

og 250

puj 200 -

을 150-

A 100 -

50-

 $\langle 2 \rangle$

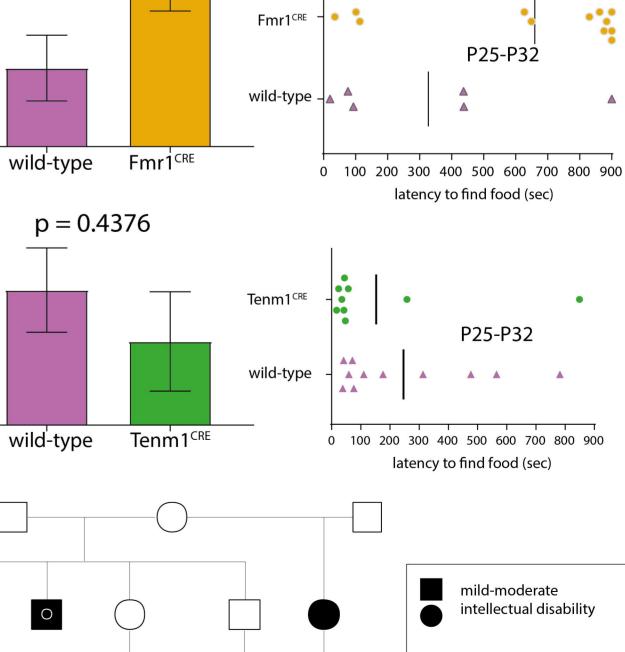
lat

Family 347

 (\bullet)

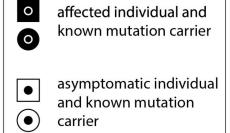
0

0



3

 $\langle 2 \rangle$



carrier

•