An *in vitro* neurogenetics platform for precision disease modeling in the mouse

Short title: Diversity Genetics in Disease Modeling

Daniel E. Cortes, Mélanie Escudero, , Austin C. Korgan, Alyssa Edwards, Selcan C. Aydin, Steven C. Munger, Kevin Charland, Zhong-Wei Zhang, Kristen M.S. O'Connell, Laura G. Reinholdt, and Martin F. Pera[*]

The Jackson Laboratory Bar Harbor ME 04660 USA

*Author for correspondence martin.pera@jax.org

Abstract

The power and scope of disease modeling can be markedly enhanced through the incorporation of broad genetic diversity. In the the mouse, the introduction of pathogenic mutations into a single inbred strain sometimes fails to mimic human disease. We describe a cross-species precision disease modeling platform that exploits mouse genetic diversity to bridge cell-based modeling with whole organism analysis. We developed a universal protocol that permitted robust and reproducible neural differentiation of genetically diverse human and mouse pluripotent stem cell lines, then carried out a proof of concept study of the neurodevelopmental gene *DYRK1A*. The results *in vitro* reliably predicted the effects of genetic background on *DYRK1A* loss of function phenotypes and identified optimal mouse strains for *in vivo* disease modeling. Transcriptomic comparison of responsive and unresponsive strains identified novel molecular pathways conferring sensitivity or resilience to *DYRK1A* loss, and highlighted differential mRNA isoform usage as an important genetic determinant of response. This cross-species strategy will be an powerful tool in the functional analysis of candidate disease variants identified through human genetic studies.

Teaser: Genetically diverse mouse embryonic stem cells provide a rapid approach to precision modeling of human disease.

Introduction

There is an increasing awareness of the importance of genetic diversity in cellular disease modeling, both for scientific reasons, and in relation to the issue of equitable access to biomedical innovations arising from *in vitro* discovery platforms[1]. The scientific benefits of genetic diversity in disease modeling extend to studies *in vivo*. Most mouse models for heritable human disorders have been created in a few commonly used inbred strains. However, genetic background can have profound effects on the phenotype of a particular mouse model. Thus, creating a gene knockout or mutation model on a single genetic background may or may not yield a phenotype relevant to human disease. This impediment to disease modeling has long been apparent from studies of mouse knockouts on different genetic backgrounds[2,3], and can generally be related to the effects of modifier genes[4].

To a considerable degree, incorporating greater genetic diversity into disease modeling in the mouse can provide a more reliable reflection of human disease pathogenesis than studies with a few inbred strains. A number of recent reports have shown clearly how the use of genetically diverse strain backgrounds can enhance our ability to model human sensitivity and resilience to disease, as exemplified in studies of Alzheimer's Disease, Type 2 diabetes, autism and gastric cancer[5-12]. However, the establishment, maintenance and use of mouse diversity panels requires significant infrastructure, animal husbandry, and genetics resources, limiting their implementation for many investigators.

In recent years, mouse embryonic stem cell (mESC) lines from genetically diverse mouse strains have become available, and they have been used *in vitro* to study the genetic basis of the permissiveness of strains for mESC establishment, the regulation of the pluripotent state and early lineage specification, and the stability of genomic imprinting *in vitro*[10-17]. To apply these approaches in disease modeling, it is important that differentiation protocols provide for similar high yields of relatively pure cell populations across genetically diverse cell lines. Here we report a novel paradigm for the application of genetically diverse mESC lines to *in vitro* disease modeling in the central nervous system (CNS), a precision neurogenetics approach that has the potential to make mouse genetic diversity more accessible to the research community, and to provide for facile selection of appropriate mouse genetic backgrounds for human disease modeling.

Experimental platforms based on human pluripotent stem cells (hPSC), including two-dimensional cultures and three-dimensional organoid models of specific brain regions, are playing an increasing role in the study of the development of the central nervous system, and in unraveling the genetics of brain disorders[18]. However, most neurologic or psychiatric disorders are highly complex, involving the interaction of multiple systems inside and outside of the CNS and behavioral phenotypes that cannot be observed *in vitro*. We aimed to provide a facile link between human disease models and mouse diversity genetics, to enable precision disease modeling. We first established a set of robust universal neural differentiation protocols that enable production of key CNS cells of interest from genetically diverse mouse inbred strains and hPSC. These protocols are applicable across mESC and hPSC representative of wide genetic diversity, encompass

multiple stages of neural development, and provide for functional readouts. Using high
content screening, RNA-seq, electrophysiology, axonal regeneration paradigms, and
knockout models, we provide a proof-of-concept study in the form of a chemogenomic
and genetic analysis of the effects of loss of the neurodevelopmental gene, dual-
specificity tyrosine phosphorylation-regulated kinase 1A (*Dyrk1a),* at multiple stages of
neurogenesis and axonal repair. *Dyrk1a* was first discovered in Drosophila and the gene
named "minibrain" because mutations in the gene causes size reduction of the optic lobes
and central brain hemispheres[19]. *Dyrk1a* gene dosage affects many stages of neural
development.   In human, *DYRK1A* is located on Chromosome 21 and it has been
associated with a range of conditions including Alzheimer's Disease, Down syndrome,
microcephaly, autism, and intellectual disability[20-25]. Patients harboring the same point
mutation in the *DYRK1A* gene display different phenotypes ranging from severe autism
to relatively minor neurological impairment[24], strongly suggesting that the genetic
background modifies the penetrance of the mutation.
97
Using genetically diverse mESC, we demonstrate the impact of genetic background on
the outcome of DYRK1A inhibition or loss across multiple stages of neural development.
With this approach, matching *in vitro* phenotypes in hPSC-based disease models with
mESC models exhibiting similar sensitivity to pathogenic mutations enables rapid
selection of mouse genetic backgrounds for *in vivo* modeling studies, and will provide a
platform for prospective analysis of the power of *in vitro* mutant phenotyping to predict
disease phenotype *in vivo,* a critical component of functional genomics analysis going
forward.
106
107
108

109   Results
110
To achieve our objectives in precision disease modeling, we had to develop and validate
in vitro methodology for the assessment of the effects of genetic variants on neural
development and disease across eight highly genetically diverse mESC representing the
founders of the Collaborative Cross (CC founders, A/J (AJ), C57BL/6J (B6), 129S1/SvlmJ
(129), NOD/LtJ (NOD), NZOHiLtJ (NZO), CAST/EiJ (CAST), PWD/PhJ (PWD, in place of
the closely related PWK/PhJ), WSB/EiJ (WSB)), and to carry out cross-species
comparisons with hPSC. First, we developed universal differentiation protocols that
functioned efficiently, then we tested the validity of our in vitro platform for its ability to
predict how individual genotypes would respond to disease mutations.
120
Initially we trialed widely-cited differentiation protocols used to generate neurons from
mESC[26-31] across a genetically diverse stem cell panel. These protocols failed when
applied to strains other than 129. Therefore we developed the protocol shown in Fig S1a.
With mESC from the B6 strain, by day 8 abundant neurites and neural rosettes are visible
(Fig. S1b), and cells were passaged for expansion using EGF and FGF2 for three days.
Decay in pluripotency markers and increase in neural markers were revealed by qPCR
(Supplementary Figure 1c). At the end of this period, cells could be frozen, or passaged
for further maturation by the withdrawal of mitogens and the addition of growth factors.
129
After the withdrawal of mitogens, NPCs exited the cell cycle and started to generate more
elongated processes (Figure 1a). The timing of differentiation was similar across all
strains (Fig. S2). After 7 days of differentiation, neurons represented around 90% of the
overall cell population among all strains studied (Figure 1b,c). Among these neurons,
glutamatergic cells represented around 75% of the neuronal population (Figure 1,d,e).
Practically all neurons expressed the forebrain marker FoxG1 and cells expressing all
individual six cortical layer markers were observed, across all strains analyzed strains at
similar frequencies (Figure1b,e). We also analyzed the electrophysiological activity using
whole cell patch clamp. Evoked action potentials were elicited as well as spontaneous
activity, both appearing in cultures of all strains after 2 weeks of differentiation (Figure 1f)
and coinciding with the presence of pre and post synaptic proteins (Figure 1d). Using
multielectrode arrays (MEA) we found spontaneous field potentials (Figure 1g, upper
panel) and network activity in all strains (Figure 1g, lower panel). We could also produce
cortical organoids that displayed spontaneous calcium signaling (Figure 1h, i).
144
Modifications to the protocol, using morphogens to achieve patterning, enabled us to
generate motor neurons, GABAergic neurons, and dopaminergic neurons from all strains
tested at similar efficiencies (Figure 2). We reasoned that by adjusting the developmental
timing between mouse and human cultures (Figure 3a), our protocol could be adapted to
differentiate neurons from hPSC of diverse genetic backgrounds. We tested 10
genetically diverse hPSC from the iPSC Consortium for Omics Research (iPSCORE)
representing equally both sexes and diverse ancestries. Once again, we were able to
obtain neural progenitors and cortical neurons, and we found that all cell lines
differentiated with similar efficiencies regardless of their genetic background (Figure
3b,c); we observed spontaneous synchronous electrical activity in these cultures (Figure

3d). With appropriate patterning (Figure 3e) we obtained motor neurons that also showed
network activity (Figure 3f,g), as well as cortical and midbrain dopaminergic organoids
that displayed spontaneous calcium signaling (Fig. S3,4 and Movie S1).

Having developed this differentiation platform, we proceeded to conduct a proof-of-
concept study to examining how genetic background impacts on the effect of DYRK1A
inhibition during neuronal development at different stages. *Dyrk1a* also regulates axonal
growth and guidance, so we decided to assess an experimental model of axon regrowth
as well. In most studies, we used the well-characterized DYRK1A inhibitor ID-8; this
inhibitor is highly selective against DYRK1A compared to other kinases. ID-8 IC_{50} values
for DYRK1A, GSK3b, and CLK1 are 78, 450, and 4200 nM respectively, and DYRK2,
DYRK3, and DYRK4 are not affected at all[32-35].

To ascertain that differences in phenotypes observed in response to DYRK1a inhibition
or haploinsufficiency were not merely a consequence of differences in gene coding
sequences (and by extension protein structure) or expression levels across the strains,
we examined both (Fig. S5). Despite some divergence in the gene sequences, notably
for CAST and PWD (Fig. S5a), the SNV do not affect the protein sequence and all variants
are synonymous (Supplementary Table 1). Examination of expression quantitative trait
loci (eQTL), in mESC[14,36] revealed a local eQTL in CAST and PWD/K (Fig. S5b).
Nevertheless, we could not find any protein QTL among all the strains in mESC, and
direct measurement of protein levels in mESC revealed that although there is a slight
decrease of DYRK1A protein in CAST, NOD, and PWD, these differences were not
statistically significant (Fig. S5c,d,e and for neural progenitors, Figure 6 below).

Effects of DYRK1A inhibition on mESC maintenance and lineage specification vary
across genetically diverse mouse strains.

It was previously shown that DYRK1A inhibition by ID-8 in mESC and hPSC helps to
maintain the pluripotent state, and that either chemical inhibition or knockdown hampers
specification from the pluripotent state to the neural lineage in hPSC[32,35]. In order to study
pluripotency maintenance and lineage biases across mESC from different strains to
compare with previous work on 129 mESC and hPSC, we cultured the eight mESC lines
in media supplemented with four combinations of factors: LIF+2i (LIF plus PD0325901
and CHIR99021,optimal maintenance of naïve state mESC,[37]), LIF+ID-8, LIF, and ID-8.
These cell lines were previously shown to vary in their response to LIF and in the stability
of the undifferentiated state[14,38]; some lines remain in the undifferentiated state and
others switch on lineage markers as soon as LIF+2i optimal conditions are abandoned,
especially those mESC lines from strains regarded to be recalcitrant to stem cell
derivation[13].

Using high content screening (HCS), we analyzed the expression of ten different
pluripotency and lineage specific markers during four days of culture in the above
conditions (Figure 4a,b).   Only LIF+2i was able to maintain the expression of the
pluripotency associated factors POU5F1, NANOG, and SOX2 in all cell lines;
nonetheless, PWD and NZO expressed these markers at low levels under all conditions.

ID-8 was originally found to substitute for LIF in mESC maintenance on the 129
background [32]. Comparing cultures grown in LIF+2i with ID-8, we note that 129, AJ, and
B6 show the best maintenance of NANOG expression in ID8 alone (Figure 4b, bottom
panel). We also examined the proportion of cells expressing markers of the three
embryonic germ layers (Figure 4b, top two panels). Those cell lines that showed
consistent expression of pluripotency markers in ID-8 also showed low expression of most
germ layer lineage markers. Colony morphometry using HCS provides another indicator
of cellular response to the culture environment. Loss of stem cell marker expression
generally correlated with changes in colony morphology, as morphometry showed that
cell colonies became less compact and circular in ID-8 alone, and LIF+ID-8 enhanced
roundness in 129 only (Figure 4c). Comparing LIF vs. ID-8 alone, the two conditions
maintain pluripotency associated markers to a similar degree, but in 129, B6 and CAST,
mesodermal markers are expressed at higher levels (Figure 4b,d). In summary these
results confirm previous studies in 129 mESC and hPSC indicating that DYRK1A
inhibition can help maintain the undifferentiated state. AJ and B6 derived mESC respond
to ID-8 similarly to 129, but strains that are poorly maintained in LIF+2i are not rescued
by DYRK1A inhibition.
218
219 *DYRK1A inhibition differentially blocks neural progenitor proliferation in a strain-*
220 *dependent fashion*
221
Next, we used our differentiation system to study multiple stages in neural development,
from neural lineage specification through to neurogenesis, neuronal differentiation, and
maturation. For this, we differentiated the eight mESC lines into NPCs using our newly
developed protocol in the absence or presence of ID-8, and analyzed the cultures at the
beginning and on days two, five, and eight via immunostaining and HCS (Figure 5a,b).
Following induction of neural specification in the presence of ID-8, B6 cultures contained
lower percentages of OTX2 and TUBB3 positive cells, and displayed a marked reduction
in the proportion of KI67 positive cells compared to control. Inhibition of the proliferation
of neural progenitor cells during development is a hallmark of *Dyrk1a* haploinsufficiency.
Further examination of the proliferation of neural progenitors from additional mESC
clones of B6, AJ, 129 and WSB using KI67 and MCM2 immunostaining confirmed that
the proliferation of B6 cells was strongly inhibited by ID8, whereas the latter three strains
were unaffected (Figure 5c,d).
235
We previously observed an inhibition of neural specification in hPSC similar to that noted
here[35]. We therefore examined the effect of heterozygous loss of *DYRK1A* on neural
progenitor proliferation in the human induced pluripotent stem cell (hiPSC) line KOLF2.1J
[39]. The susceptibility of B6 neural progenitor cells to inhibition of proliferation by ID-8 was
mirrored in the reduced growth of *DYRK1A*+/- human iPSC neural progenitors relative to
controls (Figure 5e). Thus, in terms of effects of DYRK1A inhibition on the maintenance
of the undifferentiated state, interference with neural specification, and reduction of neural
progenitor proliferation, the B6 mESC display the best face validity for modeling the
response of human pluripotent stem cells to DYRK1A inhibition or haploinsufficiency.
245

To corroborate that the observed neural differentiation impairment is caused by ID-8-
induced DYRK1A inhibition; we generated *Dyrk1a* knock-out mESC lines, specifically on
B6, 129 and WSB backgrounds. We conducted NPC differentiation on these cell lines
and analyzed the phenotype. Similar to results with chemical knockdown of DYRK1A, we
observed that the only strain severely affected by *Dyrk1a* deletion was B6, whilst neural
progenitor specification, proliferation and differentiation in WSB and 129 cell lines were
indistinguishable from parental controls (Figure 6a,b). During B6 knockout cell line
differentiation, we observed a decreased expression of proliferation and neural markers,
and a decreased number of cells (Figure 6a,b). The proportion of cells expressing
DYRK1A, and the intensity of staining, was similar in wild-type cells of all three strains
(Figure 6b).

Although all strains had different degrees of response to ID-8 during neural progenitor
specification and expansion, WSB was the most unresponsive while B6 was the most
affected. Bulk RNA-seq was performed on these two cell lines at day eight of
differentiation to identify the differences in gene expression associated with the extreme
phenotypic differences found between WSB and B6. This difference in response to the
inhibitor is evident from the numbers of differentially expressed genes (DEG); there were
more than 700 DEG between B6 control and ID-8 treated cultures, but only 13 for control
versus treated WSB (Figure 7a).

Regulatory transcriptional network analysis (RTNA) revealed *Foxb1*, *Hoxa4*, and *Hoxd3*
as the top regulons associated with the differences found between WSB and B6 in
response to ID-8 treatment (Figure 7b). *Foxb1* is a regulator of neural progenitor
differentiation [40], and is rapidly and transiently induced during cortical specification of
hPSC [41]. The two Hox genes are associated with hindbrain patterning in the CNS [42].
These pathways, not previously associated with *Dyrk1a* loss, are consistent with
interference in neurogenesis and specific perturbations in hindbrain development
(reported below) associated with *Dyrk1a* haploinsufficiency.

Gene ontology (GO) analysis indicated that either under control conditions or in the
presence of ID-8, DEG associated with the response to LIF were highly overrepresented
in B6 vs. WSB (Figure 7c, left panel). The LIF signaling pathway is responsible not only
for maintenance of mESC but also for maintenance of mouse neural stem cells *in vitro*
and i*n vivo* [43]. In the presence of ID-8, DEG associated with the GO term synaptic
membrane were overrepresented in WSB relative to B6 (Figure 7c, right panel),
consistent with progression of neural differentiation in the former but not the latter.

Using the RNA-seq data, we also analyzed gene isoform changes due to treatment and
between B6 and WSB strains. Isoform usage can change considerably even when there
is no overall change in gene expression, with functional consequences[44], and *Dyrk1a* is
known to regulate the activity of a number of RNA splicing proteins[45-48]. Global analysis
showed that adding ID-8 induced a loss of exons in B6 strain but not in WSB (Figure 7d).
We found 200 unique genes with alternative isoform usage when control B6 cells were
compared to WSB cells; an increase of variant isoforms between the two strains was
observed in the presence of ID-8. (Figure 7e). Of particular interest was the finding that

Ntrk2 underwent a change in isoform expression in B6 NPC when treated with ID-8,
whereas in WSB these isoforms remained unchanged (Figure 7f). *Ntrk2* codes for a
neurotrophic receptor that binds BDNF. We found that ID-8 treatment induces a switch
from the canonical isoform to an isoform lacking the kinase domain. This isoform is
unable to transduce signaling via tyrosine phosphorylation, and it is notable that BDNF
signaling was implicated in the response to *Dyrk1a* haploinsufficiency in a recent
proteomics study in B6 mice[49]. That study did not investigate alternative splicing but the
results are compatible with our findings.
300
These results suggest that, in the B6 strain in which neurogenesis is affected, DYRK1A
inhibition interferes with multiple pathways involved in neural specification, patterning,
and differentiation. RNA-seq confirmed the resilience of WSB against, and susceptibility
of B6 to, DYRK1A inhibition at the neural induction stage. Subsequent analysis
highlighted key pathways in neurogenesis downstream of DYRK1A inhibition, and
identified a profound effect of DYRK1A inhibition on mRNA isoform usage. In the case
of BDNF signaling, our results implicated alteration of isoform usage as an important
genetic determinant of the response of neural progenitors to chemical knockdown.
309
310   *DYRK1A inhibition delays functional maturation of neurons and modulates gene*
311   *expression of maturation-related genes in a strain-dependent fashion*
312
To understand how DYRK1A inhibition modulates physiological maturation of neurons,
we used MEA plates capable of recording 16 field potentials per well on a 48-well plate
to assess electrophysiological activity. We seeded young neurons and let them mature
for six weeks while analyzing electrical activity at different time points (Figure 8a,b).
Addition of ID-8 began two days after the NPCs were seeded and continued throughout.
All cell lines were capable of generating action potentials and bursts of spikes, and
creating networks, but not all cell lines matured at the same rate. CAST, B6, and 129
were the cell lines that matured the fastest, measured by Hz, bursting activity, and
synchrony, while PWD took the longest (Figure 8a,b). We found that in most of the
strains, addition of ID-8 inhibited the development of electrical activity; neurons fired less
and bursts of activity were less frequent. Complementarily, interburst intervals, the
relative silent time between two trains of activity, were longer for most cell lines when ID-
8 was added. Quantitative analysis of a range of parameters at the peak point of control
electrical activity (Figure 8b) confirmed inhibition of maturation across most strains by
measurement of mean firing rate, number of bursts, prolongation of interburst intervals,
and a reduction in spikes per burst. Two overall patterns were observed. In B6, CAST,
A/J, and NOD, maturation was delayed and suppressed throughout the time course,
whilst in PWD, 129, NZO, and WSB, maturation was delayed but activity recovered at the
later time point (Figure 8b,c). Taken together, once again the functional maturation of
neurons from B6 mESC was sensitive to ID-8, that of WSB mESC-derived cells were
partially resistant to ID-8, and NZO derived neurons were the most resilient among all the
strains. A decreased rate of functional network maturation is consistent with known
effects of ID-8 on axonal growth and dendrite arborization.
336

We next performed RNA-seq on WSB and B6 neurons. Analysis at this stage showed a
similar pattern to the NPC stage on the MDS plot which separates the neurons by strain
and treatment; it also showed more distance between B6 subgroups than the WSB
counterpart indicating B6 was more affected by DYRK1A inhibition (Fig. S6a). After ID-8
treatment, there were 220 DEG between WSB and B6 (Fig. S6b). GO analysis of DEG
differentially affected by ID-8 in the two strains identified biological adhesion and
transmembrane receptor signaling, with WSB showing a greater enrichment following ID-
8 treatment (Fig. S6c). Cellular adhesion molecules are important for neural development
and axonal growth [50]. *Rxrg*, *Dmrtb1*, and *Irf7* were the top regulons associated with the
differences in response to DYRK1A inhibition between WSB and B6 neurons (Fig. S6d).
Rxrg has been associated with neurodegeneration [51] and *Irf7* is a key mediator of the
innate and adaptive immune responses [52] and positively regulates microglia polarization
to the M2 state.
350
351   As we observed during neurogenesis, we also found more alternative splicing events in
352   B6 compared to WSB neurons when treated with ID-8 (Fig. S6e). An example of this is
353   *Slit2*, which exhibited isoform switches in B6 neurons when treated with ID-8 (Fig. S6f).
354   *Slit2* is associated with axonal guidance and cell migration, and arborization[53]. All these
355   developmental processes are affected by Dyrk1a mutations[54,55].
356
357   *mESC strain differences in recovery from axonal injury in vitro reflect genetics of recovery*
358   *from brain injury in vivo*
359
There are marked strain differences in the ability of different mouse strains to respond to
injury to the CNS [56]. Abundant evidence confirms that *Dyrk1a* plays a role during neurite
sprouting in normal development, and that gene dosage alteration affects axonal growth
and dendrite arborization[23], but it is not known whether these developmental roles of
Dyrk1a might be recapitulated during axonal regeneration. As a further test of the
predictive power of our *in vitro* system, we performed axotomy to analyze differences in
axonal regrowth in neurons derived from mESC from CC founder strains.
367
We differentiated the mESC into neurons and cultured them into microfluidic chambers.
(Figure 9a). On these devices, neurons were seeded on one chamber; axons could
traverse microgrooves reaching into a second chamber whereas somas could not.   After
four days, axons grew through to the second chamber (Figure 9b). However, the number
of axons growing through to the second chamber, and their length and density, indicated
by the total area occupied by axons, varied amongst mESC strains (Figure 9c). At this
point, axons were cut off and left to recover for four more days while treated or untreated
with ID-8. In all cases, under control conditions, more axons grew across the device and
had longer processes than before injury, except for B6 neurons (Figure 9b-d). CAST,
NOD, and NZO grew significantly more following injury compared to all other strains.
When ID-8 was added, most of the lines showed less growth than controls. WSB, AJ, and
PWD axons occupied the same area after regrowth in the presence of ID8 as the control
did (Figure 9d). WSB axons experienced the longest growth pre- and post-injury (both
control and ID-8 treated). Notably, the extent of axon growth prior to injury was not

predictive of the extent of regrowth post injury (e.g. 129 versus NZO versus B6, Figure
9c).
384
Because of this divergent response to injury between B6 and WSB, we again undertook
bulk RNA-seq analysis on these two cell lines to identify the underlying transcriptional
differences. Interestingly, MDS analysis demonstrated vastly different responses
between the two strains in the response to axotomy in the presence or absence of ID-8.
As we saw from experiments in the maturation stage, ID-8 affected the transcriptome in
both strains in control or axotomized cultures. However, when axons are severed, the B6
transcriptome showed limited change, irrespective of ID-8 treatment, whereas WSB
transcriptome shifts markedly in response to axotomy in control and ID-8 treated cultures.
The combination of ID-8 and axotomy displays an additive effect on the transcriptome in
WSB, whereas in B6 this response is not observed, as axonal cut with or without ID-8
("no drug") elicits the same effect (Figure 9e).
396
When axons were cut, the two cell lines (B6 and WSB) expressed a core set of genes.
These genes were *Map11*, *Ntsr1*, *Ccn5*, *Slc16a3* and, *Smtnl2* reflecting GO associated
with GO terms cellular response to hypoxia and neuron projection, both being part of a
successful neuronal reaction to injury (Figure 9f). Top regulons for the differences found
between the cell lines when injured were *Ascl1*, Creb5, and *Olig2* (Figure 9g). These
transcription factors are important for neuronal differentiation and myelination. *Ascl1* has
been associated with a superior regenerative capacity in dorsal root ganglion neurons in
CAST versus B6 *in vivo* [57]. This differential expression pattern only emerged between the
two strains after axonal injury.
406
After axons were cut and treated with ID-8, more genes were differentially expressed in
WSB than in B6 (two-fold). Top common DEG genes in both cell lines were *Padi2*, *Calcr*,
Itgb4, *Ifitm1*, *Npy*, *Tnfrsf11b*, *C1ra* and *Pcolce*; all of them are associated with axonal
growth and guidance. In WSB-derived ID-8 treated neurons, gene sets associated with
cell adhesion and central nervous system myelination were upregulated compared to the
B6 counterpart (Figure 9h) and were confirmed by the number of hits per GO. This profile
can explain a more robust axonal growth after axonal damage in WSB neurons. Finally,
RTNA showed that two of the top three regulons associated with the differences in
recovery after axonal growth, *Olig2* and *Ascl1,* were similar to those identified in the
axonal damage response in the absence of ID-8. These results suggest that *Olig2*, *Creb5*,
and *Ascl1* are part of the core regulatory network for a fast axonal growth after axonal
damage when B6 and WSB are compared. Isoform switched analysis unveiled that
Ncoa4 was not only downregulated but also switched in isoforms was found after axotomy
(Figure 9i). *Ncoa4* was recently associated with ferritinophagy and neurodegeneration [58].
421
422   A comparison of axonal regrowth of primary cortical neurons from P5 newborn B6 or WSB
423   mice confirmed that the differences in growth post-injury seen in mESC derived neurons
424   reflected the regrowth capacity of neurons isolated directly from the postnatal brain
425   (Figure 9j).
426

Using all of the RNA-seq data, we analyzed the effect of ID-8 treatment independently of
the cell strain, and also compared across the two strains independently of the treatment,
throughout all stages analyzed. Analyzing effects of ID-8 in a strain independent fashion,
we found only 15 DEG genes, but the cross-strain comparison independent of treatment
found 261 DEG (Fig. S7a). Similar to the gene expression differences, differential use of
transcript variants were found between strains, and our data indicated that in general, the
consequences of isoform switches in B6 resulted in shorter transcripts (Fig. S7b). It is
worth pointing out that *Gapdh,* a housekeeping gene commonly used to normalize
expression data, was differentially expressed between WSB and B6 regardless of
treatment (Fig. S7c). This disparity could be associated with differences in metabolic
demands and energetic substrates. The latter correlates with differences we observed in
other ontologies like mitochondrial respiratory chain complex II assembly and
monocarboxylic acid metabolic process (data not shown). A gene set more enriched in
B6 independently of treatment was the regulation of apoptotic process involved in
development, whereas that a cerebral cortex development gene set was differentially
affected by ID-8, B6 being more severely affected (Fig. S7d). Gene sets enriched in WSB
relative to B6 in the presence of ID-8 included genes involved in cortex development,
forebrain development, and cell proliferation in forebrain, all in accordance with differential
effects on NPC proliferation in the two strains.
446
447   *Heterozygous loss of Dyrk1a is lethal on the B6 background but not on 129 or A/J*
448
Finally, we sought to establish the relationship between the *in vitro* susceptibility of B6 to
DYRK1A inhibition and the *in vivo* effects of *Dyrk1a* heterozygosity. We generated a null
allele of *Dyrk1a* by crossing female mice carrying the germline CMV-Cre to male *Dyrk1a*
mice carrying the conditional allele of *Dyrk1a* (floxed *Dyrk1a*) (Figure 10).   When both
strains were on the B6 background, we did not recover any live pups heterozygous for
Dyrk1a deletion (*Dyrk1a*+/-) from this cross (0/93). We were able to obtain several mosaic
offspring for the floxed and deleted alleles, but crossing male mosaic mice to wild-type
B6 mice did not produce any live *Dyrk1a*+/- pups (0/46). Given that the prototype mouse
model of *Dyrk1a* haploinsufficiency was maintained on a mixed B6/129 background [59],
and our finding that B6 neural progenitors were uniquely sensitive to DYRK1A inhibition,
we reasoned that mice carrying the deleted allele may survive on a different background.
To test this idea, we crossed male mosaic mice to 129S1 female mice and obtained live
Dyrk1a+/- mice on a mixed 129/B6 background. We then backcrossed *Dyrk1a*+/- mice to
129S1 for six generations and found that heterozygote animals were born at Mendelian
ratios. We also mated B6 *Dyrk1* mosaic to AJ females, and live *Dyrk1a* heterozygous
pups were born. These results indicate that heterozygous deletion of *Dyrk1a* causes early
lethality on the B6 background but does not affect survival on the 129S1 or AJ
background.
467
We further examined the phenotype of *Dyrk1a*$^{+/-}$ mice on the 129B6F1 background.
Western blot analyses showed that the level of DYRK1A protein was reduced by half in
Dyrk1a$^{+/-}$ mice (Figure 10b). Mutant mice appeared smaller and weighed 25% less than
WT littermates during postnatal development and as young adults (Figure 10c,d).
Likewise, the brains of *Dyrk1a*$^{+/-}$ mice appeared smaller and weighed 30% less than those

of control littermates (Figure 10e,f), although the brain to body ratio was not significantly
changed. Brain histology indicated that the reduction in brain size was not uniform across
the brain, with the mid and hindbrain regions showing larger reductions than the cerebral
cortex (Figure 10g). These results corroborate previous findings that heterozygous
deletion of *Dyrk1a* in the mouse causes growth retardation and microcephaly, two key
clinical features associated with *DYRK1A* mutations in humans. *Dyrk1a*$^{+/-}$ mice on the
129B6F1 background also showed abnormal behaviors. In the open field apparatus,
Dyrk1a$^{+/-}$ mice were hypoactive compared with WT littermates (Figure 10h); they also
spent less time in the center of the arena than WT littermates (Figure 10i), suggesting
higher levels of anxiety in the mutant mice. Together, these findings confirm that
heterozygous deletion of *Dyrk1a* on an appropriate genetic background recapitulates key
features of human disease phenotypes, and that the B6 genetic background confers
extreme sensitivity to the haploinsufficiency syndrome in the mouse.

Discussion

To facilitate genetic analysis *in vitro* of neural development across a diverse range of mouse genetic backgrounds, we developed a new protocol to differentiate pluripotent stem cells into neurons from genetically diverse mESC and hPSC. We demonstrated the applicability of this model in analyzing the effects of chemical knockdown or genetic ablation of the activity of a key neurodevelopmental gene throughout neurogenesis and neural maturation and repair, and we were able to demonstrate how the knockdown phenotype varies dramatically depending on the genetic background.

The studies described here address three key questions in precision disease modeling. The first has to do with bridging the gap between *in vitro* studies and disease models in whole organisms, and asks, can disease modeling in genetically diverse mouse embryonic stem cells tell us what mouse strains are most representative of human phenotypes, and thus guide the choice of strain for whole organism studies? The second, a more general question of widespread significance, asks can any stem cell-based platform yield reliable information about the sensitivity or resilience of a particular individual genotype to pathogenic mutations? And the last question asks, does comparisons of *in vitro* phenotypes from stem cell models in sensitive and resilient strains yield reliable information about molecular pathways that might be critical to response to disease mutations in vivo?

Our studies have revealed that at most stages of this study, from embryonic stem cell renewal to neural specification, neurogenesis, and neural maturation and repair, B6-derived cultures were responsive to DYRK1A inhibition or loss while most other strains proved less sensitive. It is notable that C57BL/6J mice or hybrids thereof have been used successfully in a number of studies to model the effects of DYRK1A haploinsufficiency in human. Thus, on a C57BL/6J, 129S2/SvHsD mixed background, *Dyrk1a^{-/-}* mice show developmental delay and reduced brain size with greatly reduced neuronal content and die at mid-gestation[59]. Heterozygotes on this background have fewer intermediate neural progenitors in the subventricular zone at E11.5-13.5 owing to proliferative defects[60]. In the adult animal, cortical pyramidal neurons are smaller, and show less branching and fewer spines[61], and neural progenitor maintenance in the subventricular zone is impaired[60]. These same animals show decreased cognitive abilities[62]. *Dyrk1a^{-/+}* mice on a pure C57BL/6J background also show reduced brain size and cognitive defects[63]. Conditional knockout of *Dyrk1a* in the cortex of C57BL/6J mice was lethal in homozygotes; homozygotes and heterozygotes showed microcephaly related to reduced proliferation of neural progenitors in the immediate postnatal period, and a decreased complexity and reduced branching of cortical neurons[49]. We could not generate any heterozygous mouse on a pure C57BL/6J background, and only when it was crossed with less susceptible strains could we obtain heterozygous mice that showed similar effects to those described by other authors. Levy et al.[49] used a cortex-specific KO approach which spared the remaining brain and body of the deleterious effects of the KO, making this intervention potentially less lethal. Raveau et al.[63] used a strategy that was not tissue-specific, but the target region for the frameshift was upstream of the NLS and in exon 3, whereas in our case it was downstream of the NLS and the kinase domain was targeted.

It is possible that in our model, the remnant N-terminal peptide can cause a dominant-
negative effect generating a more severe phenotype, or that, in the study of Raveau et
al., exon skipping resulted in a protein with partial activity[63]. Interestingly, the observation
that $Dyrk1a^{-/+}$ had smaller midbrain and hindbrain in our *in vivo* study correlates with
aspects of our findings *in vitro*. We found that B6-derived NPCs treated with ID-8 had a
decreased expression of *Hoxa4* and *Hoxd3*, homeotic genes associated with hindbrain
development. Altogether, our results indicate an impaired development of the hindbrain
at an early stage of neural differentiation unveiled by our *in vitro* analysis that otherwise
would have been difficult to pinpoint.
541
Our previous work showed that neural specification of human pluripotent stem cells was
blocked in *DYRK1A* knockdown or in ID-8 treated cells[35]. Here, we showed that the
proliferative capacity of neural progenitors derived from *DYRK1A* +/- hPSC was reduced
relative to controls. We observed both phenotypes in mESC or mESC-derived neural
progenitors from B6 mice. These findings as well as the data discussed above show that
our *in vitro* results correctly identify the B6 mouse as a sensitive model for the effects of
DYRK1A haploinsufficiency in the human. By contrast, other strains were unresponsive
to the developmental effects of DYRK1A inhibition. We also corroborated the effects of
chemical DYRK1A inhibition by conducting knockout experiments demonstrating that the
deleterious effect of DYRK1A inhibition is strain dependent. Although *DYRK1A* is subject
to strong constraint in the human, and most heterozygotes show impairment of neural
development, the severity of clinical phenotypes in individuals hemizygous for loss of the
gene varies quite considerably[24,64]. Further *in vitro* analysis of mESC derived from
recombinant inbred strains representing sensitive and resistant genetic backgrounds (B6
and 129 respectively) could identify key modifier genes, and potentially target pathways
for therapeutic intervention during the early life of affected individuals. One such target
is the BDNF signaling pathway, which we and others identify as a critical downstream
modulator of *Dyrk1a* haploinsufficiency.
560
We also examined the effects of DYRK1A inhibition on axonal regrowth across the eight
strains in our study. While repair and plasticity in the adult CNS often encompass some
features of neurodevelopmental pathways, development and repair in the CNS are not
driven by identical processes[65]. Our observations showed that the extent of axonal
regrowth after injury in neurons derived from mESC does not directly relate to the extent
of growth before injury across the mESC lines examined, suggesting that indeed axon
growth during development and repair are different even in relatively immature neurons.
There were large differences in the ability of axons derived from mESC of different strains
to regrow in this assay.   Importantly, the robust regrowth of neurons derived from the
CAST strain contrasts strikingly with the poor regrowth of neurons derived from B6 mESC.
Our observation of poor axonal regrowth in primary cultures of cortical neurons from P5
B6 or WSB mice confirmed the results obtained on neurons derived from mESC. In a
number of studies *in vivo*, B6 mice have been shown to display deficient axonal
regeneration relative to 129 or CAST [66-71], deficiencies that have been attributed either to
variation in the inherent capacity for axonal repair or differences in the extent and nature
of inflammatory responses in the various strains.
577

Comparison of gene expression in B6 and WSB strains that were sensitive or relatively
resistant to effects of DYRK1A inhibition across different developmental stages revealed
the power of the mESC model to identify novel critical molecular pathways and networks
that are altered by genetic deletion of *Dyrk1A in vivo*. At the stage of neurogenesis,
analysis of DEG highlighted the LIF pathway, which is a major regulator of neural
progenitor proliferation *in vivo* not previously associated with Dyrk1a haploinsufficiency.
RTNA found that networks related to *Foxb1*, a gene critical in the regulation of neural
progenitor proliferation, were differentially active in the two strains. RTNA also identified
two HOX genes involved in hindbrain development as targets of DYRK1A loss of activity
in the B6 sensitive strain, consistent with phenotype data from B6/129 hybrid animals.
Analysis of the expression of splice isoforms showed global changes in the presence of
ID-8, in line with the known interactions of DYRK1A with splicing factors, and highlight
alterations in splicing as an important determinant of susceptibility to *Dyrk1a*
haploinsufficiency. The shift in isoform usage of the BDNF receptor *Ntrk2* to a form
encoding a protein lacking the kinase domain in the presence of ID-8 in B6 neural
progenitors could explain the downregulation of the BDNF pathway activity observed in a
proteomics and phosphoproteomics study of conditional knockout of *Dyrk1a* in the cortical
neurons of C57BL/6J mice[49]. Our studies of axonal repair identified the *Ascl1* regulon as
a major differential response to injury in both strains either with or without DYRK1A
inhibition. In a model of peripheral neuron (dorsal root ganglion) repair, Lisi et al. [57] noted
a differential upregulation of *Ascl1* in CAST (identified by these authors and by our study
as a good regenerator compared to B6) relative to B6. These authors also used
overexpression and knockdown studies to confirm a role for *Ascl1* in axon regrowth. In
summary, our *in vitro* studies comparing gene expression in strains sensitive and resistant
to DYRK1A inhibition corroborate *in vivo* data on key molecular pathways involved in
neuronal development and repair and their perturbations in *Dyrk1a*-deficient animals.
604
In our comparison of gene expression in both strains across all stages, the finding that
Gapdh was the highest DEG was surprising, because it has been widely used as a
reference housekeeping gene, with some studies supporting such use[72] and others
reaching the opposite conclusion[73]. GAPDH induces apoptosis when translocated into
the nuclei of both neural and non-neural cells, and it shows dynamic changes in
neurodegenerative diseases, cancer, and hypoxia[74,75]. GAPDH acts a sensor of NO
stress[76], and participates in dendrite development[74,75,77]. The strain differences we
observed in *Gapdh* expression could have broader implications for disease modeling in
B6 mice.
614
615
The approach we describe here could be generalized to address a range of issues in
modeling the genetics of disease. Screening approaches using shRNAi or sgRNA
CRISPR methodologies are also applicable in this system. We readily applied high
content screening and medium throughput microelectrode array methodologies in our
work. The small panel of mESC used in this study incorporates wide genetic diversity,
but we are also developing mESC or iPSC panels from Diversity Outbred mice and from
recombinant inbred strains. These mESC genetic diversity panels have been used for
quantitative trait loci analysis, and could be used for rapid mapping of modifiers that

influence phenotypes of genetic variants implicated in neurodevelopmental disorders.
Identification of modifier genes could yield new leads for drug discovery and early
intervention in patients. We focused here on neural development, but this same approach
could be applied to any lineage or tissue that can be generated from pluripotent stem
cells. Facile comparison between phenotypes of human and mouse pluripotent stem cell
models *in vitro* will aid in the identification of those mouse genotypes that confer sensitivity
or resilience to disease variants, providing for more precise disease modeling *in vivo* and
reducing the experimental use of animals.
632
Finally, most disease modeling studies using hPSC have been retrospective, replicating
the known effects of disease mutations to varying degrees in a culture dish. The use of
hPSC and mESC in parallel followed by *in vivo* studies in the mouse provides a means
for prospective testing of the ability of *in vitro* screens to predict the effects of genetic
variants *in vivo*. This will be an important adjunct to hPSC studies aimed at validating
novel candidate disease variants emerging from genetic studies in humans. Such a
strategy will add considerable power to functional genomics analysis of variants of
unknown significance, or variants for which the role in pathogenesis of disease is
undefined. For such variants, establishing a link between observations in cell culture
models and precision modeling *in vivo* will be essential.
643
Limitations and future directions: We acknowledge that we did not investigate the gender
effect in our study and all stem cells are male-derived. Although ASD has a higher rate of
affected males, and *DYRK1A*mutation is one of the causes of ASD[78] ; *DYRK1A*
haploinsufficiency syndrome does not seem to have a gender bias[79]. Evaluations of sex-
dependent effects can be performed using female-derived stem cells, which are availabel
from our laboratory; nonetheless, this is out of the scope of this paper. Also, we found
that although our protocol can efficiently differentiate genetically diverse stem cells ot
mature neurons, electrical maturation is achieved at different time rates as proven by our
MEA recordings. Recently Hergenreder et al. https://doi.org/10.1101/2022.06.02.494616
reported that a small molecule cocktail can accelerate neuronal maturation. Addition of
these molecules might synchronize the maturation rate of NPCs from genetically diverse
stem cells.
656

Materials and Methods

RESOURCE AVAILABILITY

LEAD CONTACT

Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will be fulfilled by the lead contact, Martin Pera (martin.pera@jax.org).

MATERIALS AVAILABILITY

Dyrk1a$^{-/-}$ mESC strains are available from our laboratory.

DATA AND CODE AVAILABILITY

- Bulk RNA-seq data have been deposited at GEO and are publicly available as of the date of publication. Accession numbers are listed in the key resources table.
- This paper does not report original code.
- Any additional information required to reanalyze the data reported in this paper is available from the lead contact upon request

EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND SUBJECT DETAILS

ANIMALS

Experiments were conducted in accordance with the guidelines of the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC) of the Jackson Laboratory. For axonal injury/recovery experiments in postnatal neurons, postnatal mice (p3-p5) from C57BL/6J and WSB/EiJ strains were sacrificed by decapitation and cells prepared according to the method below (Preparation of p5 NPC for axonal damage experiments).

CELL LINES

mESC from the CC founders[80] were used; however, PWD/PhJ was substituted for PWK/PhJ. All mESCs were kept and used under ten passages to avoid chromosomal rearrangements. All mESCs are male, germ competent, negative for mycoplasma, and retain a normal karyotype. mESC media comprised Knockout DMEM, 15% Fetal calf serum, 2 mM Glutamax, non-essential amino-acids, 50 units/ml Penicillin, 50 μg/ml Streptomycin, 55 μM beta-mercaptoethanol, and 1000 IU of Leukemia inhibitory factor. Cells were grown on gamma-irradiated mouse embryonic fibroblast feeder cells at 37°C and 5% CO2. mESCs were passed using Trypsin 0.25%

KOLF2.1J hiPSC was used for neural differentiation studies comparing WT and heterozygous knock-out cells. CRISPR-Cas9 was used to produce frameshift mutants in Exon 2 on one allele of the *DYRK1A* gene, generating Dyrk1a +/- mutants, as previously described[81]. Cells were maintained on vitronectin-coated dishes in Stemflex media (Stem Cell Technologies) and passed using ReLSR (Stem Cell Technologies). hPSCs were kept and used under ten passages to avoid chromosomal rearrangements. hPSCs used in this study were karyotyped for chromosomal abnormalities and mycoplasma tested.

METHOD DETAILS

Cortical neuron differentiation of mESC

mESC were cultured as described above. Upon reaching 80% confluency (day 0), cells were trypsinized and seeded on a culture dish for an hour to let feeders attach to the dish. Unattached

mESC were recovered and counted. EB were formed by seeding 3E5cells on a well of a 6-well
plate (ultra-low attachment) in mESC media (described above in "CELL LINES") plus 10 μM
SB431542 and 1 μM Dorsomorphin. The next day (day 1), the EB-containing media was
transferred to adherence; previously, a well of a 6-well plate was coated with 100 μg/mL Poly-
Lysine (PLL) for 2 hours and then treated with, 1 μg/mL laminin (Lm), 5 μg/mL fibronectin (Fn) for
at least two more hours. After 24h (day 2) of seeding the EB on adherance, media was removed
and switched to NMM (Gaspard et al., 2009) (Neurobasal and DMEM/F12 1:1 vol/vol) plus
SB431542, Dorsomorphin, 2 μM I-BET151, and 5 μM retinoic acid. 24h later (day 3), media was
removed, and fresh NMM plus SB431542 and Dorsomorphin were added. The next day (day 4)
SB431542 and Dorsomorphin were withdrawn for B6 and WSB, while the other strains were
maintained on SB431542 and Dorsomorphin for two more days (until day 6) after which the
inhibitors were withdrawn. Thereafter, all cells were kept on basal media (NMM) with daily media
changes until day eight, when cells were passed to the NPC expansion stage (day 8 to 11).
Dissociation of cells into small clumps was done using Tryple Express and expanded at a 1:2 split
ratio on PLL/Fn/Lm-coated dishes in NMM plus 20 ng/mL FGF2, 20 ng/mL EGF, and RevitaCell
(Gibco). After 24 hours (day 9), Revitacell is removed but mitogens are daily added for two more
days. At day 11, cells were dissociated with Tryple Express to yield a pure population of NPC.
NPCs were frozen using Knockout Serum Replacement and 10% DMSO, or passed onto a newly
coated plate for neuronal maturation using adult NMM media (formulated with Neurobasal A in
place of Neurobasal medium), plus Revitacell, 10 ng/mL GDNF, 10 ng/mL BDNF, and 10 μM
Forskolin. Next day (day 12) Revitacell was removed. Three days later (day 15), Forskolin was
removed and 5 μM 5-fluorodeoxyuridine was added for one week (until day 22). After that, adult-
NMM + GDNF and BDNF was changed twice per week.
725
726 GABAergic differentiation of mESC
727
728 The first four days of differentiation were carried out as described in the cortical differentiation
729 protocol above. On day five, SB431542 and Dorsomorphin were removed, and fresh media was
730 added. On day six, a sonic hedgehog agonist (SAG, 10 μM) was added with every media change
731 and withdrawn after three days of neuronal differentiation. The rest of the protocol was exactly
732 the same as the cortical differentiation.
733
734 Dopaminergic differentiation of mESC
735
This procedure was the same as described for GABAergic neurons until day six. On this day,
SAG and FGF8 (100 ng/ml) were added for two days, at which point conversion to NPC had
occurred. Cells were passed as previously described, with the addition of Revitacell, FGF2, non-
essential amino acids, FGF8, SAG1, IWP2 (1 μM) and LY364947 (3 μM) during the expansion
stage. After plating cells for maturation, Revitacell, 10 μM Forskolin, BDNF, GDNF, 50 μg/ml
ascorbic acid, CHIR99021 (3μM) and LY364947 were added. Media was changed on the third
day with the continued addition of BDNF and GDNF. The cortical neural protocol was followed
after day four of neuronal differentiation.
744
745 MN differentiation of mESC
746
Differentiation was as described for cortical neurons until day seven. On day four, SAG and
retinoic acid were added with every change media. On day seven, neurons emerged and cells
were ready to be seeded as young MN. When passing the cells, Revitacell, Forskolin, BDNF,
GDNF, SAG1 and RA were added. After three days, all the small molecules were withdrawn and

BDNF and GDNF were retained. After this point, half of the media volume was changed two to
three times per week

Cerebral organoid differentiation of mESC

The protocol for organoid formation was based on the cortical differentiation protocol above.
Briefly, 2000 cells were seeded per well of a round bottom, ultra-low attachment, 96-well plate in
mESC basal media with LIF, SB431542, and Dorsomorphin. Forty-eight hours later, the spent
media was removed and replaced with NMM+ SB431542, Dorsomorphin, I-BET151 and retinoic
acid. The next day, this medium was removed and NMM with SB431542 and Dorsomorphin was
added. Forty-eight hours later, half the volume of the culture medium was replaced. At day six
and eight, half of the media was replaced with basal media (NMM). On day ten, organoids were
split evenly and 24 organoids were placed into 6 cm ultra-low attachment dishes. On day 16,
organoids are embedded in undiluted Matrigel (Corning, 356234) in the same medium and kept
on a shaker at 16 rpm for at least 21 days.

hPSC-derived NPC

The protocol was the same as the one used for mESC with a few modifications . IBet151 and RA
were added at day one instead of day two (still 24h treatment). SB431542, and Dorsomorphin
were added until day eight. From day eight to eleven, cells were kept in basal NMM media. At day
11, the differentiated NPCs were passed and expanded using bFGF and EGF for three days.
Afterwards, cells were frozen or used for further experiments.

hPSC Neurosphere assay

Human NPC were seeded on a 96-well ultra-low attachment plate at various concentrations (2,
8, 16 and 32 thousand cells) for 15 passages in NMM + FGF2 and EGF. Media changes were
performed every other day. Spheroids were imaged with a Leica Dmi1 microscope and their size
calculated using ImageJ software. Spheroids were passed every 4 days using Accutase for 30min
at 37°C.

EdU labelling of NPC

Cells were incubated for 2 hours with 5μM EdU. After 48 hours, cells were harvested and fixed
with 4% paraformaldehyde at room temperature for 15 minutes. EdU incorporation was detected
according to the Clik-iT EdU Alexa Fluor 594 flow cytometry assay kit protocol. Cells not labelled
with EdU were used as negative control.

hiPSC-derived cortical neurons

The protocol was similar as the one used for mESC but with slight modifications. Cells were
dissociated with Accutase. 5E5 cells were seeded on a well of a low-attachment 6-well plate in
the presence of SB431542, Dorsomorphin, Ibet151, RA, and Y-27632. 24 hours later, EB were
sedimented under unit gravity, the media was removed, and 4 ml mTeSR plus media
supplemented with SD434512 and Dorsomorphin was added. EB were seeded in a PLL/Fn/Lm

coated well of the same size and incubated for 24 hours, after which the medium was replaced
with NMM + SB and Dorsomorphin. This medium was changed every day until day 11, at which
point small molecules were withdrawn incubation with basal media continued for 3 more days.
Cells were dissociated into clumps of cells and reseeded at a 1:2 split ratio on PLL/Fn/Lm coated
dishes in the presence of bFGF and EGF for two or three days for NPC expansion with the
addition of Rock inhibitor during the first day. NPC can be frozen as with the mESC, or cells plated
for neuronal differentiation, but 5FDU is added for seven days.
808
809
810 Differentiation of hPSC into motor neurons
811
Cell were differentiated according to the hPSC to cortical neuron protocol with minor
modifications. On day eight, retinoic acid and SAG were added, and cells were maintained in this
medium until day 23. Every time cells were passed, 5 μg/ml each of Fibronectin and Laminin were
supplemented in the media in addition to their usage in the plate coating; these were
supplemented again twice per week to avoid cell detachment and until 10 days after withdrawal
of mitogens.
818
819 Differentiation of hPSC into Cerebral organoids
820
Initial differentiation was similar to 2D cortical cultures, but adapted for organoids by culturing in
suspension, embedding in Matrigel and growth under agitation. Four thousand iPSCs were
seeded in 100 μl of media per well of a 96 well plate with all aforementioned molecules.The
following day, cultures were switched to mTeSR plus with SB and Dorsomorphin. Next day this
medium was replaced with IDM (DMEM-F12 glutamax and Neurobasal 1:1 vol/vol ratio, N2
supplement, 5μg/ml insulin, non-essential amino acids, Penicillin-streptomycin and B27
supplement without Vit A) with SB and Dorsomorphin. This medium was changed every other day
until day 11. At this point the organoids were embedded in Matrigel. The cultures were incubated
in 6 ml of media overnight, and on the following day, transferred to to an orbital shaker with an
orbit of 1.9 cm (0.75 inch) at 69 rpm. On day 18, half the media volume was replaced with fresh
media. On day 20, Matrigel was removed and the medium switched to NMM. From then on, the
media was changed two to three times a week. On day 30 cultures were switched to A-NMM adult
with media changes two to three times per week.
834
835
836 Differentiation of hPSC into Dopaminergic organoids
837
838 Adaptation of the cortical organoid differentiation protocol was done as follow. SAG was added
839 from day 4 until day 11 when it was withdrawn. FGF8 was added from day 6 until day 11 when it
840 was withdrawn. LY36947 and IWP2 were added at day eight until day 11 and 15
841 respectively.CHIR99021 and Ascorbic Acid were added on day 11 until day 15 and day 30
842 respectively.
843
844
845 Calcium spike assay
846
Organoids were assayed using the FLIPR Calcium 6 assay kit (Molecular Devices). Briefly,
organoids were incubated for two hours in half FLIPR Calcium 6 reconstituted reagent and half
NMM media. Afterwards, this medium was removed and fresh media was added. Organoids were
immediately transferred to Opera plus microscope (Perkin Elmer) under controlled environmental
conditions (37C and 5% CO_2 in a humidified chamber). Images were taken every 0.7 seconds up

to 400 frames. Calcium spikes were analyzed using the integrated Harmony software by
recognizing individual cells and tracking fluorophore intensity over time.

Electrophysiological Recordings

NPC were seeded on a previously coated MEA plate and left to mature as described above.
However, for the MEA plates, a 10 μl droplet containing 50,000 mouse NPC or 20,000 human
NPCs was seeded at the center of each well of a 48-well plate (CitoView MEA 48, Axion
biosystems). After cells have attached ($\approx$7h), more media was added to properly cover the well.
Recordings were obtained on day 7, 14, 21, 28, 35, and 42. Spontaneous activity was recorded
on an Axion Maestro Pro at 37°C for 10 minutes using the AxiS navigator software. Recordings
were analyzed using the built-in spike detector at 6 x STD.

Axonal Damage using mESC-derived neurons

NPC of each cell line were seeded on one of the two chambers of a microfluidic device (ENUVIO).
Devices were pre-coated with PLL/Fn/Lm. Cells were left to mature for four days. Afterwards, in
the contralateral chamber, axons were cut off by scratching the chamber and pipetting the media
up and down several times. The axonal chamber was rinsed to removed debris and replenished
with fresh media and Fn/Lm to enhance axonal attachment. Four days later, the axonal side was
treated with Calcein AM, and images of the entire device were taken. The area covered by axons
was analyzed using ImageJ.

Preparation of p5 NPC for axonal damage experiments

C57BL/6J (B6) and WSB/EiJ (WSB) postnatal day five animals were euthanized as described
above. The hippocampus/dentate gyrus was dissected, mechanically dissociated, and seeded on
PLL/Fn/Lm-coated dishes in NMM media plus EGF and FGF (20 μg/ml each) and expanded
through one passage. At this point, expanded NPC were used for axonal damage experiments in
the same fashion as mESC-derived NPCs described above.

Immunostaining

Cultures were washed with PBS and fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde 4% for 15 min and finally
washed again with PBS three more times. Blocking and permeabilization were carried out using
5% BSA and 0.3% Triton-X for an hour at room temperature. Primary antibodies used were OTX2,
Millipore AB9566-1 (1:1000); TUBB3, Biolegend 801202 (1:1000); Ki67, Santa Cruz SC-23900
(1:50); PAX6, Biolegend 862001 (1:1000); Brachyury, R &D systems AF2085 (1:200); Vglut,
Abcam ab104898 (1:200); CHAT, Merck Millipore AB144P (1:200); Hb9, Thermo PA5-67195
(1:200); MCM2, Abcam ab95361 (1:500); DYRK1A, cell, signaling, (1:1000); ISL1, DSHB 40.3A4-
S and 40.2D6-S both undiluted 1:1; SOX2, Millipore AB5603 (1:500); Eomes, Abcam ab23345
(1:1000); POU5F1, BD 611202 (1:500); GATA4, Santa Cruz SC-25310 (1:2000); NANOG,
PeproTech 500-P236-50UG (1:500); SOX1, R & D AF3369-SP (1:500); AFP, Dako A0008
(1:500); GFAP, Dako Z0334 (1:1000); NeuroD1, Abcam ab60704 (1:2000); TH, Pel-Freez
P41301 (1:1000); GAD 65/67, Millipore ABN904 (1:250); vgat, Synaptic systems 131011 (1:200);
Reelin, Abcam ab78540 (1:200). Primary antibodies were incubated overnight, washed three
times with PBS and secondary ALEXA antibodies (1:1000) against primary antibodies were
incubated for two hours. DAPI was used for nuclear counterstaining. Cerebral organoids were

cleared and stained using fructose-glycerol clearing method (Dekkers et al., 2019) and antibodies
were used at twice the concentrations described above.
903
904 High content microscopy
905
906 Perkin Elmer cell carrier ultra 96-well plates were used for high content microscopy. Imaging was
907 carried out on the Operetta CSL (Perkin Elmer) microscope, and image analysis was done using
908 Harmony software.
909
910 RT-PCR
911
912 Samples were collected and RNA was prepared using Qiagen RNAeasy plus mini kit (Qiagen).
913 Reverse transcription was carried out using High-Capacity RNA-to-cDNA™ Kit (ThermoFisher).
914 Real-time PCR was conducted using Quantstudio 7 Flex on a 2-step cycle run using Taqman
915 Probes (Oct4, # 4331182; Nanog, #4331182; Otx2, #4331182; Pax6, #4331182; Tubb3,
916 #4351372; Scl17a7, # 4331182; Gapdh, # 4453320).
917
918
919 Bulk RNA-seq
920
921 Samples were collected and RNA was prepared using Qiagen RNA column system. mRNA
922 libraries were made at 150 x2 with at least 30 000 reads per sample.
923
924 Transcriptomic analysis
925
Low-quality bases (Q < 30) from the 3' end of reads were removed and reads with more than 30%
low-quality bases (Q < 30) overall were filtered out. Trimmed reads were aligned to the reference
genome using bowtie2 [82], generating a bam file which was used by rsem for quantification
providing expression counts for genes and isoforms separately. Quality metrics were obtained at
the fastq and bam level. This includes metrics such as total number of reads, total number of high-
quality reads and alignment rate. The RNA-seq data was filtered and normalized. MDS plots
were made using EdgeR [83]. Venn diagrams were made using systemPipeR [84] and the Limma [85]
package was used for barcode plots and testing for multiple gene sets. Gene ontology analysis
and plotting was completed using TopGO [86] and GO.db [87]. Transcriptional network analysis was
done using RTN [88]. Circos plots were made using circlize [89]. Isoform switching was analyzed
using IsoformSwitchAnalyzeR package [90] and other tools to import data, conduct normalization,
isoform switch testing, prediction of open reading frames, premature termination decay, coding,
domaings signal peptides, protein disorder and consequences [90-96]
939
940
941 Statistical analysis
942
943 Statistical details can be found within the figure legends. Computation and plots were done using
944 Rstudio and GraphPad Prism.
945
946

SNP and transcript variant analysis

Dyrk1a sequences were pulled from the mouse genome project (https://www.mousegenomes.org/) and compared for number of SNPs and transcript variants per strains. Sequence variants were aligned using Clustal O multiple sequence alignment. Sequences downloaded from https://www.informatics.jax.org/mgv/

QTL analysis

Diversity outbred (DO) mouse embryonic stem cell (mESC) expression quantitative trait loci (eQTL) and protein QTL analysis are previously published (Skelly et al,. 2020 and Aydin et al., 2023)andavailableat (https://churchilllab.jax.org/qtlviewer/DO_mESC and https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.220128 50). Data for Dyrk1a was accessed through publicly available data sources. QTL mapping was performed using a linear-mixed model implemented in the 'scan1' function in R/qtl2 package with rank normal scores, sex of the cell lines as an additive covariate and the leave one chromosome out option for kinship correction (citations for R/qtl2 and DOQTL).

Western blot

Cells were lysed with NP40 cell lysis buffer supplemented with Protease Inhibitor Cocktail-P2714, Sigma. Cells were centrifuged for 15 min at 12,000g at 4°C. Supernatant was saved and kept frozen until further use. DC protein assay (Bio-Rad) was used to quantify protein. The cell lysate was placed in SDS sample buffer and run in a pre-casted gel at 100V. Proteins were transferred into nitrocellulose using the trans-Blot turbo (BIO-RAD). Primary antibodies are described above. Secondary antibodies were goat anti-Rb HRP (Abcam ab6721, 1:10,000) and horse anti-moouse (Vector Labs PI-2000-1). Detection was performed using SuperSignal Atto (Thermo) using a G box documentation system (Syngene).

Generation of *Dyrk1a* null allele

Mice carrying *Dyrk1a* null allele were generated by mating male mice homozygous of conditional *Dyrk1a* floxed allele (JAX Strain #027801) with female mice hemizygous of the germline CMV-Cre (JAX Strain #006054). Both strains were on a B6 background. Genotyping was performed by PCR on tail DNA. The PCR primers for Dyrk1a alleles are: forward 5'-CCT GGA GAA GAG GGC AAG-3' (common), reverse 5'-GGC ATA ACTTGC ATA CAG TGG-3' (wild type and floxed allele), and reverse 5'-ACT GTG TGA GGA GTC TTG ACA-3' (null allele), which give products of 132, 232 and 295 bp for wild type, floxed, and null allele, respectively. The PCR primers for CMV-Cre are: forward 5'-GCA TTA CCG GTC GAT GCA ACG AGT GAT GAG-3', reverse 5'-GAG TGA ACG AAC CTG GTC GAA ATC AGT GCG-3', which gives a product of 410 bp for the transgene.

The cross between floxed *Dyrk1a* and CMV-Cre on B6 background did not produce any pups heterozygous of Dyrk1a null allele (0/93 pups), but a few live pups were mosaic for floxed and null allele. Crossing male mosaic mice to wild type B6 females did not produce any pups (0/46 pups). In contrast, crossing the same male mosaic mice to wild type 129S1 females produced live pups heterozygous of *Dyrk1a* null allele (*Dyrk1a+/-,* 15/81 pups). Further backcrossing to 129S1 produced *Dyrk1a*+/- mice at Mendelian ratios.

998   Phenotyping of *Dyrk1a* +/- mice
999

1000   Mice on 129B6 F1 background were used for phenotyping. Western blots were performed with
1001   cortical tissues obtained from *Dyrk1a*+/- and wild type mice at 13 weeks of age, using standard
1002   procedures and antibodies against DYRK1A (Cell Signaling #8756, 1:1000) and α-tubulin
1003   (ThermoFisher #A11126, 1:5000, loading control). Protein levels were quantified using ImageJ.
1004   For each sample, DYRK1A protein level was normalized to that of α-tubulin.
1005

1006   Activity of mice was analyzed at 10 to 12 weeks of age with an open field apparatus where a
1007   single mouse was allowed to explore freely for 30 min and recorded by video. Activity was
1008   analyzed using idTracker (Perez-Escudero et al., Nature Methods, 2014). Distance travelled per
1009   5 min and time spent in the center square were quantified.
1010

1011   For brain weight and morphology, mice were euthanized at 12 weeks of age and perfused with
1012   4% paraformaldehyde. Whole brains were dissected and weighted. Brain sections were cut at 70
1013   μm thickness and stained with H&E method.
1014

1015   *Dyrk1a* knockout mESC
1016

C57Bl6/J mESC (line #49) were grown on irradiated mouse embryo fibroblasts in 2i/FCS/LIF
media (Czechanski et al. 2014). Exon 3 of *Dyrk1a* (Dyrk1a-202, ENMUST00000119878) was
deleted in ESC using CRISPR/Cas9. Briefly, oligos encoding guide RNAs targeting intron 2 and
intron 3 of murine *Dyrk1a* were cloned into plasmid pX459 v2.0 (Addgene plasmid # 62988) and
sequence verified. Plasmids encoding *Dyrk1a* sgRNAs were transfected into mouse ESC using
Lipofectamine 3000 (Life/Thermo) at a ratio of 1 ug total plasmid per 200,000 cells. After 24 hours,
cells were transferred to irradiated DR4 puromycin-resistant mouse embryo fibroblasts and
transfected cells were selected for 40 hours with 1 ug/ml puromycin. Cells were then removed
from puromycin selection and cultured for 1 week, then individual colonies were picked into 96
well plates. Clones were genotyped by PCR with primers Dyrk1a_For (5'-
CATTCCATGCTGCTGGCCTTC-3') and Dyrk1a_Rev: 5'-GCCAGCAGCATGGAATGAGAAC-3')
and analyzed by gel electrophoresis. Clones completely missing a wildtype band (1712 bp) were
further expanded and re-genotyped for confirmation of loss of exon 3.

References

Ghosh, S., Nehme, R. & Barrett, L. E. Greater genetic diversity is needed in human pluripotent stem cell models. *Nat Commun* **13**, 7301, doi:10.1038/s41467-022-34940-z (2022).

Chandler, C. H., Chari, S. & Dworkin, I. Does your gene need a background check? How genetic background impacts the analysis of mutations, genes, and evolution. *Trends Genet* **29**, 358-366, doi:10.1016/j.tig.2013.01.009 (2013).

Erickson, R. P. Mouse models of human genetic disease: which mouse is more like a man? *Bioessays* **18**, 993-998, doi:10.1002/bies.950181209 (1996).

Riordan, J. D. & Nadeau, J. H. From Peas to Disease: Modifier Genes, Network Resilience, and the Genetics of Health. *Am J Hum Genet* **101**, 177-191, doi:10.1016/j.ajhg.2017.06.004 (2017).

Keller, M. P. *et al.* Genetic Drivers of Pancreatic Islet Function. *Genetics* **209**, 335-356, doi:10.1534/genetics.118.300864 (2018).

Molenhuis, R. T. *et al.* Modeling the quantitative nature of neurodevelopmental disorders using Collaborative Cross mice. *Mol Autism* **9**, 63, doi:10.1186/s13229-018-0252-2 (2018).

Neuner, S. M., Heuer, S. E., Huentelman, M. J., O'Connell, K. M. S. & Kaczorowski, C. C. Harnessing Genetic Complexity to Enhance Translatability of Alzheimer's Disease Mouse Models: A Path toward Precision Medicine. *Neuron* **101**, 399-411 e395, doi:10.1016/j.neuron.2018.11.040 (2019).

Li, H. & Auwerx, J. Mouse Systems Genetics as a Prelude to Precision Medicine. *Trends Genet* **36**, 259-272, doi:10.1016/j.tig.2020.01.004 (2020).

Moore, S. J., Murphy, G. G. & Cazares, V. A. Turning strains into strengths for understanding psychiatric disorders. *Mol Psychiatry* **25**, 3164-3177, doi:10.1038/s41380-020-0772-y (2020).

Onos, K. D. *et al.* Enhancing face validity of mouse models of Alzheimer's disease with natural genetic variation. *PLoS Genet* **15**, e1008155, doi:10.1371/journal.pgen.1008155 (2019).

Sittig, L. J. *et al.* Genetic Background Limits Generalizability of Genotype-Phenotype Relationships. *Neuron* **91**, 1253-1259, doi:10.1016/j.neuron.2016.08.013 (2016).

Swanzey, E., O'Connor, C. & Reinholdt, L. G. Mouse Genetic Reference Populations: Cellular Platforms for Integrative Systems Genetics. *Trends Genet* **37**, 251-265, doi:10.1016/j.tig.2020.09.007 (2021).

Czechanski, A. *et al.* Derivation and characterization of mouse embryonic stem cells from permissive and nonpermissive strains. *Nat Protoc* **9**, 559-574, doi:10.1038/nprot.2014.030 (2014).

Skelly, D. A. *et al.* Mapping the Effects of Genetic Variation on Chromatin State and Gene Expression Reveals Loci That Control Ground State Pluripotency. *Cell Stem Cell* **27**, 459-469 e458, doi:10.1016/j.stem.2020.07.005 (2020).

Garbutt, T. A. *et al.* Permissiveness to form pluripotent stem cells may be an evolutionarily derived characteristic in Mus musculus. *Sci Rep* **8**, 14706, doi:10.1038/s41598-018-32116-8 (2018).

Swanzey, E., McNamara, T. F., Apostolou, E., Tahiliani, M. & Stadtfeld, M. A Susceptibility Locus on Chromosome 13 Profoundly Impacts the Stability of Genomic Imprinting in Mouse Pluripotent Stem Cells. *Cell Rep* **30**, 3597-3604 e3593, doi:10.1016/j.celrep.2020.02.073 (2020).

1090   17   Ortmann, D. *et al.* Naive Pluripotent Stem Cells Exhibit Phenotypic Variability that Is
1091   Driven by Genetic Variation. *Cell Stem Cell* **27**, 470-481 e476,
1092   doi:10.1016/j.stem.2020.07.019 (2020).
1093   18   Fernando, M. B., Ahfeldt, T. & Brennand, K. J. Modeling the complex genetic architectures
1094   of brain disease. *Nat Genet* **52**, 363-369, doi:10.1038/s41588-020-0596-3 (2020).
1095   19   Tejedor, F. *et al.* minibrain: a new protein kinase family involved in postembryonic
1096   neurogenesis in Drosophila. *Neuron* **14**, 287-301, doi:10.1016/0896-6273(95)90286-4
1097   (1995).
1098   20   Branca, C. *et al.* Dyrk1 inhibition improves Alzheimer's disease-like pathology. *Aging Cell*
1099   **16**, 1146-1154, doi:10.1111/acel.12648 (2017).
1100   21   Feki, A. & Hibaoui, Y. DYRK1A Protein, A Promising Therapeutic Target to Improve
1101   Cognitive Deficits in Down Syndrome. *Brain Sci* **8**, doi:10.3390/brainsci8100187 (2018).
1102   22   Fernandez-Martinez, P., Zahonero, C. & Sanchez-Gomez, P. DYRK1A: the double-edged
1103   kinase as a protagonist in cell growth and tumorigenesis. *Mol Cell Oncol* **2**, e970048,
1104   doi:10.4161/23723548.2014.970048 (2015).
1105   23   Dang, T. *et al.* Autism-associated Dyrk1a truncation mutants impair neuronal dendritic and
1106   spine growth and interfere with postnatal cortical development. *Mol Psychiatry* **23**, 747-
1107   758, doi:10.1038/mp.2016.253 (2018).
1108   24   Earl, R. K. *et al.* Clinical phenotype of ASD-associated DYRK1A haploinsufficiency. *Mol*
1109   *Autism* **8**, 54, doi:10.1186/s13229-017-0173-5 (2017).
1110   25   Arbones, M. L., Thomazeau, A., Nakano-Kobayashi, A., Hagiwara, M. & Delabar, J. M.
1111   DYRK1A and cognition: A lifelong relationship. *Pharmacol Ther* **194**, 199-221,
1112   doi:10.1016/j.pharmthera.2018.09.010 (2019).
1113   26   Gaspard, N. *et al.* Generation of cortical neurons from mouse embryonic stem cells. *Nat*
1114   *Protoc* **4**, 1454-1463, doi:10.1038/nprot.2009.157 (2009).
1115   27   Bibel, M. *et al.* Differentiation of mouse embryonic stem cells into a defined neuronal
1116   lineage. *Nat Neurosci* **7**, 1003-1009, doi:10.1038/nn1301 (2004).
1117   28   Bian, J., Zheng, J., Li, S., Luo, L. & Ding, F. Sequential Differentiation of Embryonic Stem
1118   Cells into Neural Epithelial-Like Stem Cells and Oligodendrocyte Progenitor Cells. *PLoS*
1119   *One* **11**, e0155227, doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0155227 (2016).
1120   29   Pollard, S. M., Wallbank, R., Tomlinson, S., Grotewold, L. & Smith, A. Fibroblast growth
1121   factor induces a neural stem cell phenotype in foetal forebrain progenitors and during
1122   embryonic stem cell differentiation. *Mol Cell Neurosci* **38**, 393-403,
1123   doi:10.1016/j.mcn.2008.03.012 (2008).
1124   30   Ying, Q. L. & Smith, A. G. Defined conditions for neural commitment and differentiation.
1125   *Methods Enzymol* **365**, 327-341, doi:10.1016/s0076-6879(03)65023-8 (2003).
1126   31   Shi, Y., Kirwan, P. & Livesey, F. J. Directed differentiation of human pluripotent stem cells
1127   to cerebral cortex neurons and neural networks. *Nat Protoc* **7**, 1836-1846,
1128   doi:10.1038/nprot.2012.116 (2012).
1129   32   Miyabayashi, T., Yamamoto, M., Sato, A., Sakano, S. & Takahashi, Y. Indole derivatives
1130   sustain embryonic stem cell self-renewal in long-term culture. *Biosci Biotechnol Biochem*
1131   **72**, 1242-1248, doi:10.1271/bbb.70717 (2008).
1132   33   Hasegawa, K. *et al.* Wnt signaling orchestration with a small molecule DYRK inhibitor
1133   provides long-term xeno-free human pluripotent cell expansion. *Stem Cells Transl Med* **1**,
1134   18-28, doi:10.5966/sctm.2011-0033 (2012).
1135   34   Monteiro, M. B. *et al.* A High-Throughput Screen Identifies DYRK1A Inhibitor ID-8 that
1136   Stimulates Human Kidney Tubular Epithelial Cell Proliferation. *J Am Soc Nephrol* **29**,
1137   2820-2833, doi:10.1681/ASN.2018040392 (2018).
1138   35   Bellmaine, S. F. *et al.* Inhibition of DYRK1A disrupts neural lineage specificationin human
1139   pluripotent stem cells. *Elife* **6**, doi:10.7554/eLife.24502 (2017).

36 Aydin, S. *et al.* Genetic dissection of the pluripotent proteome through multi-omics data
integration. *Cell Genom* **3**, 100283, doi:10.1016/j.xgen.2023.100283 (2023).
37 Ying, Q. L. *et al.* The ground state of embryonic stem cell self-renewal. *Nature* **453**, 519-
523, doi:10.1038/nature06968 (2008).
38 Nichols, J., Silva, J., Roode, M. & Smith, A. Suppression of Erk signalling promotes ground
state pluripotency in the mouse embryo. *Development* **136**, 3215-3222,
doi:10.1242/dev.038893 (2009).
39 Pantazis, C. B. *et al.* A reference human induced pluripotent stem cell line for large-scale
collaborative studies. *Cell Stem Cell* **29**, 1685-1702 e1622,
doi:10.1016/j.stem.2022.11.004 (2022).
40 Zhang, Y., Hoxha, E., Zhao, T., Zhou, X. & Alvarez-Bolado, G. Foxb1 Regulates
Negatively the Proliferation of Oligodendrocyte Progenitors. *Front Neuroanat* **11**, 53,
doi:10.3389/fnana.2017.00053 (2017).
41 van de Leemput, J. *et al.* CORTECON: a temporal transcriptome analysis of in vitro human
cerebral cortex development from human embryonic stem cells. *Neuron* **83**, 51-68,
doi:10.1016/j.neuron.2014.05.013 (2014).
42 Alexander, T., Nolte, C. & Krumlauf, R. Hox genes and segmentation of the hindbrain and
axial skeleton. *Annu Rev Cell Dev Biol* **25**, 431-456,
doi:10.1146/annurev.cellbio.042308.113423 (2009).
43 Shimazaki, T., Shingo, T. & Weiss, S. The ciliary neurotrophic factor/leukemia inhibitory
factor/gp130 receptor complex operates in the maintenance of mammalian forebrain
neural stem cells. *J Neurosci* **21**, 7642-7653 (2001).
44 Desai, S. *et al.* Tissue-specific isoform switch and DNA hypomethylation of the pyruvate
kinase PKM gene in human cancers. *Oncotarget* **5**, 8202-8210,
doi:10.18632/oncotarget.1159 (2014).
45 Toiber, D. *et al.* Engineering DYRK1A overdosage yields Down syndrome-characteristic
cortical splicing aberrations. *Neurobiol Dis* **40**, 348-359, doi:10.1016/j.nbd.2010.06.011
(2010).
46 Shi, J. *et al.* Increased dosage of Dyrk1A alters alternative splicing factor (ASF)-regulated
alternative splicing of tau in Down syndrome. *J Biol Chem* **283**, 28660-28669,
doi:10.1074/jbc.M802645200 (2008).
47 Alvarez, M., Estivill, X. & de la Luna, S. DYRK1A accumulates in splicing speckles through
a novel targeting signal and induces speckle disassembly. *J Cell Sci* **116**, 3099-3107,
doi:10.1242/jcs.00618 (2003).
48 Ding, S. *et al.* Regulation of alternative splicing of tau exon 10 by 9G8 and Dyrk1A.
Neurobiol Aging **33**, 1389-1399, doi:10.1016/j.neurobiolaging.2010.11.021 (2012).
49 Levy, J. A., LaFlamme, C. W., Tsaprailis, G., Crynen, G. & Page, D. T. Dyrk1a Mutations
Cause Undergrowth of Cortical Pyramidal Neurons via Dysregulated Growth Factor
Signaling. *Biol Psychiatry* **90**, 295-306, doi:10.1016/j.biopsych.2021.01.012 (2021).
50 Togashi, H., Sakisaka, T. & Takai, Y. Cell adhesion molecules in the central nervous
system. *Cell Adh Migr* **3**, 29-35, doi:10.4161/cam.3.1.6773 (2009).
51 Majer, A. *et al.* The cell type resolved mouse transcriptome in neuron-enriched brain
tissues from the hippocampus and cerebellum during prion disease. *Sci Rep* **9**, 1099,
doi:10.1038/s41598-018-37715-z (2019).
52 Ning, S., Pagano, J. S. & Barber, G. N. IRF7: activation, regulation, modification and
function. *Genes Immun* **12**, 399-414, doi:10.1038/gene.2011.21 (2011).
53 Ozdinler, P. H. & Erzurumlu, R. S. Slit2, a branching-arborization factor for sensory axons
in the Mammalian CNS. *J Neurosci* **22**, 4540-4549, doi:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.22-11-
04540.2002 (2002).

54 Ori-McKenney, K. M. *et al.* Phosphorylation of beta-Tubulin by the Down Syndrome
Kinase, Minibrain/DYRK1a, Regulates Microtubule Dynamics and Dendrite
Morphogenesis. *Neuron* **90**, 551-563, doi:10.1016/j.neuron.2016.03.027 (2016).
55 Martinez de Lagran, M. *et al.* Dyrk1A influences neuronal morphogenesis through
regulation of cytoskeletal dynamics in mammalian cortical neurons. *Cereb Cortex* **22**,
2867-2877, doi:10.1093/cercor/bhr362 (2012).
56 Cortes, D. & Pera, M. F. The genetic basis of inter-individual variation in recovery from
traumatic brain injury. *NPJ Regen Med* **6**, 5, doi:10.1038/s41536-020-00114-y (2021).
57 Lisi, V. *et al.* Enhanced Neuronal Regeneration in the CAST/Ei Mouse Strain Is Linked to
Expression of Differentiation Markers after Injury. *Cell Rep* **20**, 1136-1147,
doi:10.1016/j.celrep.2017.07.010 (2017).
58 Quiles Del Rey, M. & Mancias, J. D. NCOA4-Mediated Ferritinophagy: A Potential Link to
Neurodegeneration. *Front Neurosci* **13**, 238, doi:10.3389/fnins.2019.00238 (2019).
59 Fotaki, V. *et al.* Dyrk1A haploinsufficiency affects viability and causes developmental delay
and abnormal brain morphology in mice. *Mol Cell Biol* **22**, 6636-6647,
doi:10.1128/mcb.22.18.6636-6647.2002 (2002).
60 Ferron, S. R. *et al.* Regulated segregation of kinase Dyrk1A during asymmetric neural
stem cell division is critical for EGFR-mediated biased signaling. *Cell Stem Cell* **7**, 367-
379, doi:10.1016/j.stem.2010.06.021 (2010).
61 Benavides-Piccione, R. *et al.* Alterations in the phenotype of neocortical pyramidal cells in
the Dyrk1A+/- mouse. *Neurobiol Dis* **20**, 115-122, doi:10.1016/j.nbd.2005.02.004 (2005).
62 Arque, G. *et al.* Impaired spatial learning strategies and novel object recognition in mice
haploinsufficient for the dual specificity tyrosine-regulated kinase-1A (Dyrk1A). *PLoS One*
3, e2575, doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0002575 (2008).
63 Raveau, M., Shimohata, A., Amano, K., Miyamoto, H. & Yamakawa, K. DYRK1A-
haploinsufficiency in mice causes autistic-like features and febrile seizures. *Neurobiol Dis*
110, 180-191, doi:10.1016/j.nbd.2017.12.003 (2018).
64 Murray, C. R. *et al.* Novel Causative Variants in DYRK1A, KARS, and KAT6A Associated
with Intellectual Disability and Additional Phenotypic Features. *J Pediatr Genet* **6**, 77-83,
doi:10.1055/s-0037-1598639 (2017).
65 Li, S. *et al.* An age-related sprouting transcriptome provides molecular control of axonal
sprouting after stroke. *Nat Neurosci* **13**, 1496-1504, doi:10.1038/nn.2674 (2010).
66 Omura, T. *et al.* Robust Axonal Regeneration Occurs in the Injured CAST/Ei Mouse CNS.
Neuron **86**, 1215-1227, doi:10.1016/j.neuron.2015.05.005 (2015).
67 Dimou, L. *et al.* Nogo-A-deficient mice reveal strain-dependent differences in axonal
regeneration. *J Neurosci* **26**, 5591-5603, doi:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.1103-06.2006 (2006).
68 Tedeschi, A., Omura, T. & Costigan, M. CNS repair and axon regeneration: Using genetic
variation to determine mechanisms. *Exp Neurol* **287**, 409-422,
doi:10.1016/j.expneurol.2016.05.004 (2017).
69 Basso, D. M. *et al.* Basso Mouse Scale for locomotion detects differences in recovery after
spinal cord injury in five common mouse strains. *J Neurotrauma* **23**, 635-659,
doi:10.1089/neu.2006.23.635 (2006).
70 Ma, M., Wei, P., Wei, T., Ransohoff, R. M. & Jakeman, L. B. Enhanced axonal growth into
a spinal cord contusion injury site in a strain of mouse (129X1/SvJ) with a diminished
inflammatory response. *J Comp Neurol* **474**, 469-486, doi:10.1002/cne.20149 (2004).
71 Kigerl, K. A., McGaughy, V. M. & Popovich, P. G. Comparative analysis of lesion
development and intraspinal inflammation in four strains of mice following spinal contusion
injury. *J Comp Neurol* **494**, 578-594, doi:10.1002/cne.20827 (2006).
72 Panina, Y., Germond, A., Masui, S. & Watanabe, T. M. Validation of Common
Housekeeping Genes as Reference for qPCR Gene Expression Analysis During iPS
Reprogramming Process. *Sci Rep* **8**, 8716, doi:10.1038/s41598-018-26707-8 (2018).

73 Roy, J. G., McElhaney, J. E. & Verschoor, C. P. Reliable reference genes for the
quantification of mRNA in human T-cells and PBMCs stimulated with live influenza virus.
BMC Immunol **21**, 4, doi:10.1186/s12865-020-0334-8 (2020).
74 Sawa, A., Khan, A. A., Hester, L. D. & Snyder, S. H. Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate
dehydrogenase: nuclear translocation participates in neuronal and nonneuronal cell
death. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **94**, 11669-11674, doi:10.1073/pnas.94.21.11669 (1997).
75 Tanaka, R. *et al.* Induction of glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH)
expression in rat brain after focal ischemia/reperfusion. *J Cereb Blood Flow Metab* **22**,
280-288, doi:10.1097/00004647-200203000-00005 (2002).
76 Hara, M. R., Cascio, M. B. & Sawa, A. GAPDH as a sensor of NO stress. *Biochim Biophys*
Acta **1762**, 502-509, doi:10.1016/j.bbadis.2006.01.012 (2006).
77 Lee, F. H. *et al.* Disrupting GluA2-GAPDH Interaction Affects Axon and Dendrite
Development. *Sci Rep* **6**, 30458, doi:10.1038/srep30458 (2016).
78 Halladay, A. K. *et al.* Sex and gender differences in autism spectrum disorder:
summarizing evidence gaps and identifying emerging areas of priority. *Mol Autism* **6**, 36,
doi:10.1186/s13229-015-0019-y (2015).
79 Meissner, L. E. *et al.* DYRK1A pathogenic variants in two patients with syndromic
intellectual disability and a review of the literature. *Mol Genet Genomic Med* **8**, e1544,
doi:10.1002/mgg3.1544 (2020).
80 Chesler, E. J. *et al.* The Collaborative Cross at Oak Ridge National Laboratory: developing
a powerful resource for systems genetics. *Mamm Genome* **19**, 382-389,
doi:10.1007/s00335-008-9135-8 (2008).
81 Andersson-Rolf, A. *et al.* One-step generation of conditional and reversible gene
knockouts. *Nat Methods* **14**, 287-289, doi:10.1038/nmeth.4156 (2017).
82 Wei, Z., Zhang, W., Fang, H., Li, Y. & Wang, X. esATAC: an easy-to-use systematic
pipeline for ATAC-seq data analysis. *Bioinformatics* **34**, 2664-2665,
doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/bty141 (2018).
83 Robinson, M. D., McCarthy, D. J. & Smyth, G. K. edgeR: a Bioconductor package for
differential expression analysis of digital gene expression data. *Bioinformatics* **26**, 139-
140, doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/btp616 (2010).
84 TW, H. B. & Girke, T. systemPipeR: NGS workflow and report generation environment.
BMC Bioinformatics **17**, 388, doi:10.1186/s12859-016-1241-0 (2016).
85 Ritchie, M. E. *et al.* limma powers differential expression analyses for RNA-sequencing
and microarray studies. *Nucleic Acids Res* **43**, e47, doi:10.1093/nar/gkv007 (2015).
86 topGO: Enrichment Analysis for Gene Ontology. R package version 2.42.0. v. version
2.42.0. (2020).
87 GO.db: A set of annotation maps describing the entire Gene Ontology v. R package
version 3.8.2. (2019).
88 Fletcher, M. N. *et al.* Master regulators of FGFR2 signalling and breast cancer risk. *Nat*
Commun **4**, 2464, doi:10.1038/ncomms3464 (2013).
89 Gu, Z., Gu, L., Eils, R., Schlesner, M. & Brors, B. circlize Implements and enhances
circular visualization in R. *Bioinformatics* **30**, 2811-2812,
doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/btu393 (2014).
90 Vitting-Seerup, K., Porse, B. T., Sandelin, A. & Waage, J. spliceR: an R package for
classification of alternative splicing and prediction of coding potential from RNA-seq data.
BMC Bioinformatics **15**, 81, doi:10.1186/1471-2105-15-81 (2014).
91 Almagro Armenteros, J. J. *et al.* SignalP 5.0 improves signal peptide predictions using
deep neural networks. *Nat Biotechnol* **37**, 420-423, doi:10.1038/s41587-019-0036-z
(2019).
92 Finn, R. D. *et al.* The Pfam protein families database. *Nucleic Acids Res* **38**, D211-222,
doi:10.1093/nar/gkp985 (2010).

93   Huber, W. *et al.* Orchestrating high-throughput genomic analysis with Bioconductor. *Nat*
Methods **12**, 115-121, doi:10.1038/nmeth.3252 (2015).
94   Meszaros, B., Erdos, G. & Dosztanyi, Z. IUPred2A: context-dependent prediction of
protein disorder as a function of redox state and protein binding. *Nucleic Acids Res* **46**,
W329-W337, doi:10.1093/nar/gky384 (2018).
95   Vitting-Seerup, K. & Sandelin, A. IsoformSwitchAnalyzeR: analysis of changes in genome-
wide patterns of alternative splicing and its functional consequences. *Bioinformatics* **35**,
4469-4471, doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/btz247 (2019).
96   Wang, L. *et al.* CPAT: Coding-Potential Assessment Tool using an alignment-free logistic
regression model. *Nucleic Acids Res* **41**, e74, doi:10.1093/nar/gkt006 (2013).

1301
1302

Acknowledgments

This work was supported by the Jackson Laboratory. DEC was the recipient of a JAX Scholar Award. AE was a participant in the JAX Summer Student Program. A National Institutes of Health grant to LGR (U42 OD010921) supported mESC derivation and expansion. We thank Dr. Catherine Kaczorowski for providing access to MEA equipment and for review of the manuscript, and Ms. Anne Czechanski for her advice on mESC culture. Ann Wells, Harshpreet Chandock, and Annat Haber (The Jackson Laboratory) advised on computational analyses. We thank Hong Liu for designing genotyping protocols and genotyping.

Author Contributions

DEC: Conceptualization, Methodology, Validation, Formal Analysis, Investigation, Data Curation, Writing, Visualization, Supervision
ME: Investigation
ACK: Investigation
AE: Investigation
SCM: Formal Analysis, Visualization
SCA: Formal Analysis, Visualization
KC: Investigation
KMSO: Resources
LGR: Resources, Writing
MFP: Conceptualization, Methodology, Resources, Writing, Supervision. Project Administration, Funding Acquisition

Competing Interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Figure Legends

Figure 1. *mESC-derived NPC follow the default differentiation pathway into cortical neurons and cortical cerebral organoids*. a) Neurons start to develop processes one day after seeding and they become more convoluted after 7 days. b) Immunostaining for different cortical layer markers. c) Violin plot showing the percentage of mESC-derived neurons for each of the eight different mESC strains studied. d) Immunostaining for neurotransmitters and synaptic markers. e) Plot showing glutamatergic, forebrain and cortical layer markers from all the strains of mESC-derived neurons. Data are represented as mean ± SEM. f) Representative images of whole cell patch clamp neuron recordings, spontaneous activity on the left and evoked potentials on the right. g) representative recordings of mESC-derived neurons on MEA plates. Top left is a raster plot. Top right is a representative image of synchrony within the well. Bottom left, column plot showing spike activity (Hz) among the neurons derived from all strains. Bottom right shows the synchrony index among the neurons derived from all strains. Data are represented as mean ± SEM. h) Representative images of mESC-derived organoids showing different cortical markers. i) Top panel, calcium imaging of mESC cerebral organoids. Circles show two examples of cells with changes in calcium activity. Bottom panel, plot showing the activity of the two cells in the upper panel followed through time.

Figure 2. *Generation of specific neuronal subtypes by molecular patterning.* a) Scheme of the differentiation protocol to generate mESC-derived MN. b) Immunostaining for MN markers. c) Plot showing the differentiation efficiency among the eight mESC strains. Data are represented as mean ± SEM. d) Whole cell patch clamp recording performed at day 8 (left) and 11 (right) of the MN differentiation. e) Representative EPSC and IPSC recordings on mESC-derived MN. f) Scheme of the differentiation protocol to generate mESC-derived GABAergic neurons (left) with a representative image of GABAergic neurons (center) and quantification of the differentiation efficiency among all mESC tested (right). g) Scheme of the differentiation protocol to generate mESC-derived dopaminergic neurons (left) with an image of dopaminergic neurons (center) and quantification of the differentiation efficiency among all mESCs tested (right).

Figure 3. *Genetically diverse hPSC can be differentiated into cortical and MN.* a) Scheme of the differentiation protocol to generate hPSC-derived cortical neurons. b) Immunostaining of hPSC-derived NPC and quantification of NPC markers (bottom). Data are represented as mean ± SEM. c) Cortical layer markers after 3 weeks of maturation and quantification (right). Data are represented as mean ± SEM. d) Representative raster plot of hPSC-derived cortical neurons obtained using an MEA plate after 3 weeks of maturation (left). Quantification of frequency among the 10 genetically diverse iPSCs (right). e) Scheme of the differentiation protocol to generate HPSC-derived MN. f) Representative images of hPSC-differentiated MN showing phenotype-related markers (top) and quantification efficiency among the 10 genetically diverse iPSCs (bottom). g) Representative raster plot of hPSC-derived MNs obtained using an MEA plate after 3 weeks of maturation (left) and quantification of frequency among the 10 genetically diverse iPSCs (right).

Figure 4. *Effects of DYRK1A inhibition on mESC maintenance and lineage specification*
vary across genetically diverse mouse strains. a) Immunofluorescence images showing
immunostaining for pluripotency markers in the eight different CC founder mESC cultured
in four different culture conditions for four days. b) Heatmaps showing the percentage of
cells expressing the markers in the mESC as measured by HCS. c) Morphometry analysis
of the mESC colonies. d) Heatmap comparing the effects of LIF vs ID-8 treatment on the
overall proportion of cells expressing the analyzed markers in the eight different mESCs,
determined by HCS. Red indicates decreased percentage of cells expressing the
associated marker in ID-8 compared to LIF, green means higher expression. Cell lines
and markers are arranged according to the overall degree of change (arrows). *,
represents statistically significant differences against the control condition (LIF+2i) within
the same cell line. #, represents statistically significant differences among cell lines
treated with 2i+LIF and compared to the standard cell line 129. $, represents statistically
significant differences among cell lines treated with 2i+ID8 and compared to the standard
cell line 129. &, represents statistically significant differences among cell lines treated with
LIF and compared to the standard cell line 129. %, represents statistically significant
differences among cell lines treated with ID-8 and compared to the standard cell line 129
where a significant difference is indicated when p< 0.05. Means +/- SEM are shown.
Kruskal-Wallis and Dunn's test were conducted. n = 4 biological replicates.
1398
Figure 5. *DYRK1A inhibition differentially blocks neural progenitor proliferation in a strain-*
dependent fashion. a) Representative images of the B6 and WSB mESC lines
differentiated into NPC in the presence of the DYRK1A inhibitor ID-8 and analyzed at day
2, 5 and 8. b) Comparison between the proportion of cells expressing the indicated
markers as measured by HCS in control and ID-8 treated cells after eight days of
differentiation. Red indicates decreased percentage of cells expressing the associated
marker in ID-8-treated cells compared to control whereas green means an increase. Cell
lines and markers are arranged according to the overall degree of change (arrows) and
n = 4 biological replicates. c and d) Images and plots representing the cell count of
proliferating NPCs derived from six independent cell lines different from those used in b.
NPCs were cultured with or without ID-8 for 5 passages. B6 showed a decreased number
of cells and proliferative markers (Ki67 and MCM2) compared to its control whereas 129,
AJ and, WSB were not affected. n = 4. * Statistically different from its control, p < 0.05.
Kruskal-Wallis and Dunn's test were conducted e) Long-term proliferation assay in hPSC-
derived NPC. Left, experimental design (cells were kept in proliferative conditions as
neurospheres for 15 passages (2 months total); middle, cell numbers over time; right.
percentage of cells in each cycle phase measured by EdU staining in WT and DYRK1A+/-
. Experiment shows DYRK1A +/- NPC undergo quiescence faster than control. Two-tailed
T test, n = 4, * = p < 0.05.
1418
Figure 6. *Neural differentiation of WT and Dyrk1a-knockout mESC.* a) Representative
images at day eight of NPC differentiation showing robust differentiation in 129 and WSB
but B6 *Dyrk1a*-knockout. b) Quantitation of proportion of cells expressing DYRK1A (and
average intensity of DYRK1A staining) and markers of neural differentiation, pluripotency,
and proliferation, measured by immunostaining and high content screening in the three

strains. Kruskal-Wallis and Dunn's test were conducted. * = p < 0.05 compared to its own
control n = 3 biological replicates.
1426
Figure 7. *RNA-seq analysis reveals the genes associated with the impairment in neural*
induction in B6-derived NPCs. a) Venn diagram of DEG for each set of comparisons.
Number in red represents downregulated genes, black indicates upregulated gene. b)
RTNA for the top regulons associated with differences in ID- 8 treated WSB- and B6-
derived NPCs. c) Barcode plots showing two exemplary GOs differentially affected in
WSB and B6 when treated with ID-8. Genes are ranked from left to right by increasing
log-fold change represented by the vertical bars. The curve shows the relative local
enrichment of the bars in each part of the plot. d) Consequences of isoform switch
showing a lost of exons in ID-8 treated B6 neurons. e) Venn diagram showing the global
isoform switch differences in B6 vs WSB neurons when treated with ID-8. f) Switch in the
Ntrk2 isoform usage when B6 is treated with ID8, upper plot shows the color-coded
domains present on each exon (bars). Bar plots indicating total gene expression, isoform
expression and relative isoform usage proportional to the total gene expression.
1440
Figure 8. *Effect of DYRK1A inhibition on delays in functional maturation of neurons by*
mESC strain. a) Examples of 30 second recordings of all differentiated neurons (21 and
42 days *in vitro*) in the presence or absence of ID-8. b) Plots for firing rate, number of
bursts, interburst interval, synchrony, and spikes per burst. Because the neurons from
different strains do not mature and survive equally, data form comparisons among the
cell lines were taken at the timepoint where the highest frequency of firing (Hz) was
recorded for each cell strain. Means +/- SEM are shown. Kruskal-Wallis and Dunn's test
were conducted. * = p < 0.05 compared to its own control n = 3 biological replicates. c)
Circular plot showing different electrophysiological properties during 42 DIV in the
presence of ID-8.
1451
Figure 9. *mESC derived neuronal strain differences in recovery from axon injury in vitro*.
a) Illustration of the microfluidic chamber used to isolate axons from somas. Image taken
from chamber manufacturer webpage. b) Representative images of B6, WSB and NZO
neurons in microfluidic chambers prior to injury, post-injury in the absence of ID-8, and
post-injury in the presence of ID-8. c) Heatmap for the area occupied by axons in the
chamber two (axonal side) before and after injury. d) Ratio of axonal growth compared to
pre-injury in both control and treated neurons. Dunnet's test was used for statistical
analysis on three biological replicates. e) MDS plot showing the differences between cell
lines over all three conditions. f) Barcode plots showing GO analysis of differential
response to axonal injury between WSB and B6 in the absence or presence of ID-8. g)
RTNA showing the top three regulons associated with the differences between WSB and
B6 when axons are injured. h) Enrichment analysis and comparison of isoform switches
between the differences in axonal recovery between B6 and WSB treated or not treated
with ID8; i) The isoform switch in the *Ncoa4* gene. j) Axonal recovery experiment
conducted on isolated primary cortical neurons from B6 and WSB postnatal day five mice.
t-test for statistical analysis on three biological replicates.
1468

Figure 10. *Heterozygous deletion of Dyrk1in mice confirms straind dependent sensitivity*
observed in vitro. a) Generation of the null allele of *Dyrk1a* using a conditional *Dyrk1a*
allele and constitutively expressed *Cre*. Exons 5 and 6 of Dyrk1a, which encode part of
the kinase domain, are flanked by loxP sites. The germline CMV Cre driver removes
exons 5 and 6 and the Pgk-Neo selection cassette and causes a frameshift. b-i)
Phenotype of *Dyrk1a* heterozygotes in B6/129 background. b) Western blot of cortical
tissues from WT and Dyrk1a$^{+/-}$ mice. α-Tub, α-tubulin. c) A Dyrk1a$^{+/-}$ mouse and a WT
littermate at 12 weeks of age. d) Body weight of male mutant and control mice at 3 and
12 weeks of age. e) Brains of a control and mutant at 12 weeks of age. f) Brain weights
of mutant and control mice at 12 weeks of age. g) Sagittal brain sections from a WT and
Dyrk1a$^{+/-}$ mouse at 3 months of age. Scale bar, 2 mm. h) Distance travelled by *Dyrk1a*$^{+/-}$
(n = 7) and WT (n = 7) mice per five minutes in an open field apparatus. i) Percentage of
time spent at the center of the arena. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$.
1482

Supplementary Figure Legends

Fig. S1. Generation of a protocol to differentiate genetically diverse mESC into neural precursors. a) Diagram of the differentiation protocol to generate and expand NPC from mESC. b) Bright field images (left) and immunofluorescent images (right) of representative mESC differentiated into neural precursors in 8 days. NPC markers go up (Nestin), as well as forebrain markers (Pax6), pluripotency associated marker (Oct3/4) decreases completely while Sox2 remains expressed. c) Quantitative PCR for different pluripotency- and neuronal-associated markers at day 0, 2, 5 and 8 of differentiation of B6 strain mESC. Kruskal-Wallis and Dunn's test were conducted. n = 5 in triplicate. * < p 0.5, ** < 0.1, *** < 0.001 compared to day zero. Data are represented as mean ± SEM.

Fig. S2. Heatmap of the percentage of cells positive for the analyzed markers throughout eight days of differentiation in the presence of ID-8.

Fig. S3. Genetically diverse hPSC differentiated into CO. a) Scheme of the differentiation protocol to generate hPSC-derived CO. b) Top panel, calcium imaging of hPSC cerebral organoids. Circles show two examples of cells with changes in calcium activity. Bottom panel, plot showing the activity of the two cell in the upper panel followed through time. c) Representative images of 33_ 1 hPSC-derived COs at 146 days old. D Quantification of the cortical layer markers found in the hPSC-derived COs. n = 4 biological replicates.

Fig. S4. Differentiation of hPSC into dopaminergic neurons. a) Scheme for differentiation of hPSC-derived dopaminergic organoids. b) Dopaminergic (TH) and midbrain (FOXA2) markers. .

Fig. S5. Genotypic and phenotypic analysis of Dyrk1a among the eight CC founder mESC lines. a) plots depicting the number of SNPs and transcriptional variants among CC founder mESC compared to the reference genome B6. b) eQTL for both mESC and differentiated NPC show a peak in the Dyrk1a locus representing a local eQTL that can drive differences in expression specially in PWK and CAST. c) pQTL shows no differences in protein expression among all strains analyzed. d, e) Western blot shows protein abundance among mESC strains but no statistical differences.

Fig. S6. a) MDS plot comparing B6- and WSB-derived neurons treated or not with ID-8. It shows the distance between the groups and similarities in gene expression from RNA-seq samples. b) Venn diagram of DE genes for each set of comparisons. Number in red represents downregulated genes, black indicates upregulated genes in B6 compared to WSB. c) Exemplary barcode plots for differentially regulated gene sets. Conditions compared are indicated on both sides of the barcodes. d) RTNA for the top TFs associated with differences in ID-8 treated WSB- and B6-derived neurons. e) Alternative splicing analysis showing the change in alternative transcript start site (ATSS), alternative transcript termination site (ATTS), and alternative donor and acceptor sites (A5, A3) when B6 and WSB neurons are treated with ID8. f) Isoform switch for Slit2 in B6-derived neurons when treated with ID-8.

Fig. S7. Comparative transcriptomic analysis across all datasets. a) Venn diagram
showing the numbers of differentially expressed genes, strain-wise and treatment-wise;
b) Consequences of switch analysis between the B6 and WSB strains; c) Relative
expression of *Gapdh* in both strains. Two-tailed T test, n = 38, *** = $p < 0.001$; D) Bar
code plots showing overall differences between the two strains in control and when
treated with ID-8.
1534
1535

FIGURE 7