Loss of PAX6 alters the excitatory/inhibitory neuronal ratio in human cerebral organoids.

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Summary Statement (30 words)

To identify likely roles of PAX6 during human embryonic development, we generated and

analysed human PAX6 mutant cerebral organoids, revealing strong similarities and some

differences to Pax6's well-known roles in rodents.

Abstract (180 words)

The transcription factor PAX6 is a crucial regulator of multiple aspects of embryonic forebrain

development. Its well-known roles in mice include regulating differentiation of excitatory and

inhibitory neurons in the embryonic cortex. PAX6's roles during human forebrain development

are less well understood. Using human cerebral organoids, we investigated PAX6's roles in

human neurodevelopment. Homozygous PAX6 mutant ($PAX6^{-/-}$) organoids were larger than

controls and contained inhibitory cell types not found in $PAX6^{+/+}$ controls. These inhibitory

cells exhibited clear transcriptomic similarities and comparable distribution to analogous

inhibitory cells previously described in $Pax6^{-/-}$ mice. Differentiation trajectory inferencing

showed that the inhibitory cells were generated from both radial glia and neuroectodermal

progenitor populations. Inferring cell-cell communication using CellChat showed that loss of

PAX6 in cerebral organoids increased the probability of cells engaging with inappropriate

signalling pathways. Our findings indicate that while PAX6's role in controlling excitatory

versus inhibitory neural differentiation is conserved, there are alterations in the activities of

intercellular signalling pathways in human $PAX6^{-/-}$ cortical progenitors that have not been

described in mice, indicating potential species-specific mechanistic differences.

Introduction

Neurons in the cerebral cortex fall into two major classes - excitatory and inhibitory (Cadwell et al., 2019). Imbalances between these two cell types are thought to underlie a variety of neurodevelopmental disorders (Bruining et al., 2020). The transcription factor PAX6 is a key regulator of embryonic forebrain development (Manuel et al., 2015; Ochi et al., 2022; Walcher et al., 2013). In mice, Pax6 is selectively expressed within the ventricular zone (VZ) of the dorsal telencephalon (Walther and Gruss, 1991), restricting GABAergic differentiation to the ganglionic eminences (Scardigli et al., 2003; Toresson et al., 2000). Accordingly, the pallium of $Pax6^{-/-}$ mice is significantly ventralised, with cortical progenitors generating ectopic inhibitory interneurons at the expense of glutamatergic differentiation (Holm et al., 2007; Kroll and O'Leary, 2005; Manuel et al., 2015). Our present understanding of human PAX6 is limited. PAX6 is expressed in VZ of the human telencephalon and diencephalon (Terzić and Saraga-Babić, 1999) and is expressed during neural induction in human cells *in vitro* (Zhang et al., 2010). Homozygous PAX6 mutations are either lethal or result in major brain defects including corpus callosum agenesis, cortical thinning, microcephaly, large midline cavities and hypoplastic brainstem (Glaser et al., 1994; Schmidt-Sidor et al., 2009; Solomon et al., 2009). Heterozygous PAX6 mutations show milder phenotypes including anterior commissure defects and regionalised cortical thinning (Bamiou et al., 2007; Sisodiya et al., 2001; Thompson et al., 2004; Yogarajah et al., 2016).

Given the challenges of studying human neurodevelopment directly, we turned to cerebral organoids, a human model system amenable to experimentation (Lancaster et al., 2013) to investigate the role of PAX6. We generated $PAX6^{-/-}$ induced pluripotent stem cells (iPSCs), differentiated them into cerebral organoids and found that PAX6 loss resulted in larger organoids containing novel cell types, primarily inhibitory neurons and progenitors. These findings align with previous observations in mice, indicating conservation across species in terms of PAX6's effect on excitatory neuronal development. We also found evidence that some signalling pathways not previously found to be affected in Pax6 mutant mice are altered in PAX6 mutant human cortical organoids. Our study provides new insights into PAX6's functions in human neurodevelopment and highlights the potential of cerebral organoids as tools to investigate gene function in human forebrain development.

76 **Results and discussion**

77

78 *Generation of PAX6^{-/-} iPSCs and organoids*

79 We derived $PAX6^{-/-}$ mutant iPSC lines from the parental line NAS2 (Devine et al., 2011) using

80 CRISPR-Cas9 to insert a T residue into the paired box region of PAX6 (Fig 1A), causing a

81 frameshift mutation and resulting in premature termination of PAX6 protein at amino acid

82 residue 31, 20 residues downstream of the mutation. Paired box mutations have been

83 implicated in the brain malformations described in human patients (Tzoulaki et al., 2005) and

84 the paired domain alone is necessary and sufficient to regulate telencephalic development in

85 mice (Haubst et al., 2004). Two independent $PAX6^{-/-}$ clones (A10 and B2) homozygous for this

86 mutation and two isogenic control clones were selected for further analysis. In both mutant

87 clones, no CRISPR off-target effects were detected via whole genome sequencing analysis of

88 the five predicted most likely sites. All lines expressed pluripotency markers NANOG, OCT3/4

89 and TRA-1-60 (Supp Fig 1A)(Devine et al., 2011). Organoids were grown from $PAX6^{+/+}$ (control)

90 and mutant cell lines using a version of the Lancaster protocol (Lancaster et al., 2013) modified

91 by the inclusion of dual SMAD inhibition (Chambers et al., 2009) and growth factors BDNF &

92 NT3 (Birey et al., 2017)(Supp Fig 1B). Immunostaining for PAX6 confirmed absence of

93 functional PAX6 protein in mutant organoids (Fig 1C).

94

95 *iPSC lines produce highly consistent organoids*

96 To assess the consistency of our differentiation protocol, day 60 organoids grown from both

97 $PAX6^{-/-}$ mutant and two isogenic control lines were cryosectioned and stained for SOX2 (to

98 mark progenitors) and N-CAD (to identify neuroepithelium) (Fig 1D,E). Staining patterns were

99 highly consistent between organoids of the same genotype, but $PAX6^{-/-}$ organoids appeared

100 larger than controls and contained fewer rosettes (radial arrangement of columnar epithelial

101 cells with a central lumen resembling a cross-section of the developing neural tube). Organoid

102 size was approximated by measuring the area of the widest cross-section of each organoid.

103 The cross-sectional area of $PAX6^{-/-}$ organoids was 18.09 ± 1.80 mm^2 compared to 11.55 ± 2.40

104 mm^2 in controls (Fig 1D-F). The proportion of organoid tissue containing neural rosettes

105 (demarcated by SOX2 and N-CAD staining (Gomes et al., 2020)) was $1.4\% \pm 0.29\%$ in $PAX6^{-/-}$

106 organoids and $12.68\% \pm 1.57\%$ in controls (Fig 1G). This decrease was due to a dramatically

107 lower density of rosettes in $PAX6^{-/-}$ organoids (Fig 1H). While $PAX6^{-/-}$ organoids contained fewer

neural rosettes overall, the size of individual rosettes did not differ significantly between $PAX6^{-/-}$

organoids and controls (Fig 1I-J).

Altered cell composition in PAX6$^{-/-}$ cerebral organoids.

To determine the effects of PAX6 loss on organoid cell type composition, we performed single

cell RNA sequencing (scRNAseq) on four batches of organoids grown from each of the four

iPSC lines (two mutant and two control). Ambient RNA, dead cells and doublets were removed

and cells were clustered independently using the Leiden algorithm (Traag et al., 2019) and

visualised using uniform manifold approximation and projection (UMAP). Initial clustering

analysis to compare UMAPs of individual organoids revealed clear consistency between

batches and identified a small number of samples containing primarily non-neuronal cell types

which were omitted from further study (Supp Fig 2A, asterisks). 77,846 cells were retained for

downstream analysis. Following reclustering, identities were assigned to clusters using cell

type specific marker genes described in previous studies (Bhaduri et al., 2020; Shi et al., 2021;

Uzquiano et al., 2022; Yu et al., 2021) (Fig 2A,B). Both genotypes contained radial glial

progenitors (RGP1 & 2), neuroectoderm progenitors (NEP), intermediate progenitors (IP),

immature neurons, projection neurons (PN), deep layer neurons (DLN), Cajal-Retzius cells (CR),

medial-like cells (MLC), inhibitory hindbrain neurons (IN hindbrain), cortical hem, and

mesenchyme. Additional cell types found only in $PAX6^{-/-}$ organoids include inhibitory neurons

(IN1 & 2), inhibitory neuron progenitors (IN progenitors), superficial layer neurons (SLN),

excitatory neurons (EN) which clustered separately from DLN or SLN and an additional cluster

of radial glial progenitors (RGP3) (Fig 2C,D).

Comparing the relative proportions of progenitor subtypes between $PAX6^{-/-}$ and control

organoids revealed a significant depletion of RGP1, RGP2 and IP in mutants (8-fold, almost 2-

fold and 8-fold decreases, respectively) and the presence of additional cell types RGP3 and IN

progenitors (Fig 2D). RGP1 and RGP2 expressed typical radial glial markers including *VIM*,

FABP7 and *CLU*. RGP2 expressed active cell division markers including *TOP2A* and *MKI67*. RGP3,

in addition to *VIM*, *FABP7* and *CLU,* expressed genes not typically associated with RGPs

including *NPY* which is expressed by mature inhibitory neurons and *RORB* which is expressed

by layer 4 excitatory neurons, suggesting that this is an atypical RGP population caused by the

loss of PAX6 (Fig 2E).

There were also significant differences between the neuronal composition of *PAX6*^{-/-} and

control organoids. Two clusters of inhibitory neuron types (IN1 and 2) were present in mutants,

but not controls (Fig 2C,D). These expressed genes associated with ventral telencephalic

identity, including *DLX2/5/6*, and *GAD1/2* and lacked expression of dorsal telencephalic

marker EMX1 (Fig 2B) (Supp table). Integration with published scRNAseq data from fetal

human ventral telencephalon (Yu et al., 2021) showed that IN1 and 2 cells are most similar to

interneuron precursors in the lateral and medial ganglionic eminences (LGE and MGE

respectively) (Supp Fig 2B,C).

PAX6^{-/-} organoids also contained two excitatory neuron types (SLN and EN) not seen in controls

(Fig 2C,F) and contained fewer DLN and PN cells than controls (6:1 ratio compared to 3:1) (Fig

2F). This indicates PAX6 regulates DLN and PN production. SLN cells are relatively mature

neurons which express superficial layer markers including *SATB2* and *CUX2*, suggesting that

loss of PAX6 in human promotes accelerated differentiation of excitatory lineages, in contrast

to the delayed differentiation of cortical neurons seen in Pax6 mutant mice (Quintana-

Urzainqui et al., 2018). EN cells expressed genes associated with excitatory cortical neuronal

identity including *BCL11B* (*CTIP2*), *SCL17A6*, and *NEUROD6*. However, they also expressed

genes expressed medially such as CRABP1, and non-telencephalic genes including *PRDM13*

(spinal cord) (Supp table) – these cells are discussed further below.

Inhibitory cell types in PAX6*^{-/-} *organoids arise through two distinct differentiation routes.

To explore how the fate changes in *PAX6*^{-/-} organoids arise, we used RNA Velocity analysis (La

Manno et al., 2018) to infer differentiation trajectories. This revealed that control organoids

generate excitatory neurons through two distinct routes, one from RGPs into IPs, then to

excitatory neurons and the other from NEPs directly into neurons (Fig. 2G), analogous to

known differentiation routes in both mouse (Götz and Huttner, 2005) and human (Eze et al.,

2021). RGP and NEP progenitors in *PAX6*^{-/-} organoids both gave rise to excitatory and inhibitory

neurons. RGP3 proceed through IN progenitors ultimately giving rise to inhibitory neurons

while NEPs directly gave rise to inhibitory neurons (Fig 2H). Thus, in the absence of PAX6, both

NEP and RGP progenitors give rise to ectopic populations of inhibitory neurons.

Inhibitory and excitatory cell types in PAX6$^{-/-}$ organoids are physically segregated.

Acute deletion of *Pax6* in mouse cortical progenitors causes a subset of these cells to adopt a

Gad1-positive inhibitory identity and segregate from excitatory-lineage cells in the cortical

plate, forming an ectopic mass (Manuel et al., 2022). To examine the distribution of ectopic

inhibitory cells in *PAX6$^{-/-}$* organoids, we immunostained cryosections of day 60 organoids for

TBR2 (EOMES) to label cortical IP cells ('dorsal' identity) and DLX2 to identify inhibitory cell

precursors ('ventral' identity) (Fig 3A). Sections throughout each individual organoid were

sampled and reconstructed to form 3D models (Fig 3A). Voxels in each reconstructed organoid

were assigned a value corresponding to their relative level of expression of TBR2 or DLX2,

giving a readout of dorsal versus ventral identity for cell clusters (Fig 3B, Supp. Fig 3). This

clearly identified distinct, separate dorsal (excitatory) and ventral (inhibitory) territories in

each *PAX6$^{-/-}$* organoid, analogous to those observed in mouse (Manuel et al., 2022).

Comparing transcriptomes of PAX6$^{-/-}$ organoid and Pax6$^{-/-}$cKO mice*.

To compare effects of PAX6 loss between human and mouse, we integrated the day 60 human

organoid scRNAseq dataset with our previous E14.5 cortex-specific *Pax6$^{-/-}$* mouse dataset

(Manuel et al., 2022) (Fig 3C,D). Co-clustering analysis showed that the ectopic cell types RGP3,

IN progenitors and IN1/2 found in *PAX6$^{-/-}$* organoids are transcriptionally similar to mouse

atypical progenitors (aP), ectopic GABAergic cell-progenitor (eGC-P) and ectopic GABAergic

cell-neuron (eGC-N) respectively (Fig. 3C black arrows, D). Thus, the extra inhibitory cell types

found in the organoid model resemble those described in the mouse model transcriptionally

as well as in their physical distribution.

EN cells, the additional group of excitatory cells found in human *PAX6$^{-/-}$* organoids, expressed

genes also found in DML-SLN cells in *Pax6$^{-/-}$* mice (Manuel et al., 2022) including *CRABP1*, *LHX9*

and *PRDM13* (Supp Table) suggesting that EN cells could be the human equivalent of mouse

DML-SLN cells. However, EN cells did not co-segregate with DML-SLN when integrated (Fig 3C

red arrows, D). To explore the basis of this divergence, we performed differential gene

expression (DGE) analysis between EN (organoid) and DML-SLN (mouse) cells, followed by GO

enrichment analysis. We found differences between EN and DML-SLN in GO terms pertaining

to intercellular signalling pathways, with protein kinases A & C, Notch and growth factor

signalling upregulated in EN cells compared to DML-SLN while Mapk and Wnt signalling were

upregulated in DML-SLN compared to EN cells (Fig 4A). Further, terms associated with
GABAergic neuron differentiation were also found, indicating that DML-SLN cells express more
ventral/GABAergic genes than EN do. Protein kinases A&C, Notch and growth factor signalling
pathways all influence cell growth and proliferation (Callender and Newton, 2017; Dagda and
Banerjee, 2015; Guo and Wang, 2009), while Wnt signalling is implicated in dorso-ventral
patterning of the forebrain in mice (Harrison-Uy and Pleasure, 2012). This could potentially
explain the higher expression of ventral telencephalic genes in DML-SLN compared to EN and
suggests that PAX6 may selectively influence distinct intercellular signalling pathways during
excitatory neuronal differentiation in mouse and human.

Multiple intercellular signalling pathways are dysregulated in PAX6$^{-/-}$ cerebral organoids.
To investigate whether dysregulated intercellular signalling could underlie the diversification
from excitatory to inhibitory cell fate in *PAX6$^{-/-}$* organoids, we used the R package CellChat (Jin
et al., 2021) to quantitatively infer and analyse intercellular communication networks based
on the scRNAseq expression data. Significant interactions are identified based on expression
of ligands, receptors and cofactors using a permutation-based statistical test. The number of
predicted intercellular signalling interactions was considerably higher in *PAX6$^{-/-}$* organoids
than controls (Fig 4B), suggesting that, in the absence of PAX6, cells are more likely to engage
with signalling pathways that they do not normally interact with.

CellChat also calculates interaction strength (Fig 4C), a measure of the probability that
intercellular interactions are active, inferred using the law of mass action and integrating
scRNAseq data with CellChat's signalling molecule interaction database (Jin et al., 2021).
CellChat estimated a lower probability of communication between cells in mutant organoids
than controls (Fig 4C), suggesting that while *PAX6$^{-/-}$* cells are promiscuous in their ligand-
receptor interactions, these interactions may not necessarily result in functional output.
Nevertheless, our results align with our hypothesis that Pax6 acts to protect cells in developing
cortex against extraneous signalling, thereby maintaining the correct differentiation trajectory
(Manuel et al., 2022). CellChat analysis indicated that the Pleiotrophin (PTN) and Midkine (MK)
signalling pathways were dysregulated in *PAX6$^{-/-}$* organoids (Fig 4D). This is interesting as
neither of these pathways has previously been implicated in cortical development in mice.
Investigation of their roles could be a fruitful area for future research.

Analysis of DGE between control and *PAX6^-/-* RGP1 and RGP2 cells revealed increased
expression of subpallial genes including *DLX1/2/5/6*, *GSX2*, *GAD1/2* indicating that RGP1 and
RGP2 in mutant organoids have mixed excitatory/inhibitory identity. Expression of *PTCH1* and
JAG1, components of the SHH and NOTCH signalling pathways respectively, were also
increased in *PAX6^-/-* RGP1 (Fig 4E). Additionally, we found significant increase in the NOTCH
signalling ligands *DLL1* and *DLK1*, in *PAX6^-/-* RGP2 (Fig 4F). SHH promotes ventral identity and
NOTCH signalling affects the balance between cell proliferation and differentiation (Nian and
Hou, 2022; Xu et al., 2010) while GSX2 and the DLXs encode transcription factors involved in
inhibitory cell fate acquisition (Kessaris et al., 2014). This indicates that changes in signalling
and transcription factor expression due to PAX6 loss in the progenitor populations may
together underlie the diversion of excitatory cell fate to an inhibitory one. Previously, we
found no evidence that the Shh or Notch pathways were disrupted in mouse *Pax6^-/-* cortex
(Manuel et al., 2022), suggesting that loss of PAX6 may affect signalling pathways differently
in mouse and human cortical progenitors populations. However, it is possible that subtle
changes in expression of signalling pathway components in the *Pax6^-/-* mouse cortex may have
fallen below the level of detection, due to a lower sequencing depth compared to the current
study (Manuel et al., 2022).

Overall, we have shown that PAX6 loss leads to a subset of developing human cortical
progenitors deviating from excitatory to inhibitory fate. These ectopic cells in *PAX6^-/-* organoids
strongly resembled equivalent cells described in *Pax6* mutant mice both transcriptomically
and in their distribution (Manuel et al., 2022). We found evidence of dysregulated signalling
pathways in progenitors that could underlie the observed fate change which were not
previously reported in mice. Thus, while the major role of PAX6 in preserving cortical
progenitors on the excitatory differentiation path remains conserved, our study suggests the
presence of mechanistic species-specific differences that warrant further exploration.

Figure legends

Fig 1 (A) Diagram showing part of the human *PAX6* locus indicating the location and nature of

the mutation introduced to the *PAX6$^{-/-}$* iPSC lines. Homozygous insertion of a single T residue

in exon 4 caused a frameshift mutation leading to a premature stop codon within exon 4.

Exons 1-3 are non-coding. PD – paired domain; LNK – linker; HD – homeodomain; TAD –

transactivation domain. (B) Sanger sequencing of *PAX6$^{-/-}$* iPSC genomic DNA showing the T

insertion mutation. (C) PAX6 PD immunostaining of day 60 control and *PAX6$^{-/-}$* organoids,

confirming PAX6 protein absence in mutants. (D,E) SOX2 and N-CAD Immunostaining of

representative sections of individual day 60 control and *PAX6$^{-/}$*organoids. Scale bar = 1mm. (F)

Quantification of cross-sectional area of day 60 control and *PAX6$^{-/-}$* organoids. (G–J)

Quantification of organoid size and rosette characteristics. Each symbol represents an

individual organoid while triangles, dots and square symbols indicate separate organoid

batches.

Fig 2 (A) UMAP plot showing combined scRNAseq data from day 60 *PAX6$^{-/-}$* and control

organoids. RGP – Radial glia progenitor; IP – Intermediate progenitor; IN Progenitor –

Inhibitory progenitor; IN – Inhibitory neuron; CR – Cajal-Retzius cells; IN Hindbrain – Inhibitory

hindbrain; MLC – Medial-like cells; PN – Projection neurons; NEP – Neuroectodermal

progenitors; EN – excitatory neuron; DLN – Deep layer neuron; SLN – Superficial layer neuron

(B) Violin plots showing selected marker gene expression in specific cell types in day 60

organoids. (C) Separate UMAP plots of scRNAseq data from control (left) and *PAX6$^{-/-}$* (right)

organoids. (D-F) Comparison of cell type composition between control and *PAX6$^{-/-}$* day 60

organoids showing all cell types (D), progenitors only (E) and neuronal cell types only (F). (G,H)

RNA Velocity analysis of day 60 *PAX6$^{-/-}$* and control organoids, abbreviations as in (A).

Fig 3 (A) Schema outlining method for production and quantitation of 3D models of organoids.

Sections were immunostained for TBR2 and DLX2 and processed as shown. (B) Equation by

which dorsal/ventral identities were conferred upon specific territories in organoids and graph

summarising the segregation of these territories in individual organoids. (C,D) Integration of

current day 60 human organoid scRNAseq data with E14.5 mouse scRNAseq data from Manuel

et al., 2022. Cell clusters identified in mice are labelled in red and human clusters in black.

Black arrows indicate cell types that are similar between human and mouse while red arrows

show cell types that are transcriptomically distant. (D) Cells from human organoids are shown

in red and mouse cells in blue.

Fig 4 (A) GO enrichment analysis of genes differentially expressed between the extra

excitatory cell types found in human *PAX6$^{-/-}$* organoids (EN) and E14.5 mouse (DML-SLN)

samples. (B,C) CellChat analysis comparing number and strength of inferred intercellular

signalling interactions in day 60 *PAX6$^{-/-}$* and control organoids. (D) Graph depicting the relative

interaction strength of specific signalling pathways between control and *PAX6$^{-/}$* organoids. (E,F)

Volcano plots showing genes differentially expressed in RGP1 and RGP2 populations.

Supp Fig 1. (A) Immunostaining of Crispr edited iPSC cell lines used in this study showing

expression of pluripotency markers NANOG, OCT3/4 and TRA-1-60. HeLa cells were used as a

negative control. (B) Timeline illustrating organoid differentiation protocol.

Supp Fig 2. (A) UMAP plots for each organoid sample submitted for scRNAseq. In this initial

analysis, distinct clusters are colour-coded but specific cell type identities were not assigned.

Asterisks indicate outlier samples which were removed prior to downstream analysis. (B)

Integration of day 60 human *PAX6$^{-/-}$* and control organoid scRNAseq dataset with published

fetal human ventral telencephalon scRNAseq data (Yu et al., 2021) to assign identities to

specific clusters (C) Human organoid clusters labelled in black text and human fetal clusters in

red.

Supp Fig 3. 3D models of all individual organoids of both *PAX6$^{-/-}$* clones (A10 and B2) that were

quantified.

Supp Table. Marker genes of each cluster listed in individual cluster tabs. DGE and GO

enrichment analysis results are available as individual tabs.

Material & Methods

Cell culture and organoid generation

iPSCs were maintained at 37°C with 5% CO_2 in StemMACS iPS-Brew XF (Miltenyi) on Laminin

521 (Biolamina) coated plates and passaged with 0.5 mM EDTA (Life Technologies). Organoids

were differentiated using a modified Lancaster protocol (Lancaster et al., 2013) which included

addition of 10µM SB431542 (Tocris) and 100nM LDN-193189 (APExBIO) for neural induction

and addition of 20ng/ml BDNF and NT3 (Peprotech) to the medium at D30 for two weeks to

aid neuronal maturation. Organoids were maintained in 37°C with 5% CO_2 incubators on

shakers for 60 days and all media change were done every other day.

CRISPR/Cas9 mutagenesis

iPSCs were transfected with sgRNA 3' UCCCUUUCCUCAGGUCACAG 5' (Synthego) via

nucleofection using program CA137 on a 4D Nucleofactor X (Lonza) as per manufacturer's

instructions. Clones were obtained by single cell dissociation of the transfected pool followed

by screening for PAX6 mutation by Sanger sequencing of the *PAX6* locus. Successfully edited

clones were re-sequenced and pluripotency test were performed using STEMlight

Pluripotency kit (Invitrogen) (Supp Fig 1). Likely sites for off-target effects were identified using

Cas-OFFinder (http://www.rgenome.net/cas-offinder/) and annotated in whole genome

sequencing (WGS) data of all the iPSC lines. WGS data of all cell lines are deposited in ENA

(accession: PRJEB63603).

Immunohistochemistry

12µm thick cryosections of organoids were permeabilized in 0.1% Triton/PBS before

incubation with primary antibodies at 1/200 dilution using appropriate serum as blocking

buffer without antigen retrieval step: SOX2 (rabbit, ab92494 Abcam), TBR2 (sheep, AF6166

Bio-Techne), DLX2 (mouse, sc-393879 Santa Cruz); with antigen retrieval step: PAX6 (mouse,

AD2.38, described in Engelkamp et al., (1999)), NCAD (mouse, 610920 BD Biosciences). All

primary antibodies (except PAX6) were detected using AlexaFluor secondary antibodies

(Invitrogen) at 1/200 dilution. PAX6 was detected using Vectastain ABC kit (Vector Labs).

StemLight Pluripotency Antibody Kit (Stem Cell Technologies) was used for pluripotency

testing. All immunohistochemistry was performed on ≥ 3 sections of individual control and
PAX6$^{-/-}$ organoids.

3D modelling

Every 16th section of individual organoids labelled with TBR2 and DLX2 was sampled using
Zeiss Axio Scan Z1 slide scanner. A 200 x 200 µm grid was superimposed on each section and
fluorescent intensities corresponding to both DLX2 and TBR2 expression were measured for
each square. Expression data was then voxelised by assigning three-dimensional coordinates
to each grid square. Voxels were processed using the 3D modelling package Plotly (Sievert,
2020) to produce 3D heatmaps of TBR2 and DLX2 expression in each organoid. To determine
whether excitatory and inhibitory cells were mixed or segregated, voxels of TBR2 and DLX2
expression were used to calculate a DV value, given by the formula: log TBR2/DLX2 intensities
(Fig. 3B). This gave a value range to allow plotting 'dorsal' areas, which contain excitatory
neurons and 'ventral' areas where inhibitory neurons are enriched.

Organoid dissociation and single cell RNA sequencing

Four organoids of each genotype from four separate differentiation batches were submitted
for scRNAseq. Briefly, organoids were cut into smaller pieces with a scalpel and incubated at
37°C in papain solution (Worthington) for 30 minutes (Velasco et al., 2019) before single cell
resuspension for downstream processing using 10X Genomics Chromium Next GEM Single Cell
3' Reagent Kits v3.1 as per manufacturer's instruction. Sequencing was performed using
Ilumina NovaSeq.

Raw sequences were processed using the CellRanger pipeline 6.1.1 and ambient RNA reads
were removed using SoupX (Young and Behjati, 2020). Cells expressing <500 or >8000 genes
and/or 25% mitochondrial genes were excluded. Standard downstream processing of
scRNAseq datasets was performed using Seurat v.4.0 (Hao et al., 2021). Integration of datasets
with publicly available dataset was achieved using FindIntegrationAnchors() and
IntegrateData() commands from Seurat. Mouse gene names were converted to human
equivalents using orthogene (Schilder, 2023) before integration. Pseudobulking for DESeq2
(Love et al., 2014) differential gene analysis was achieved using the AggregateBioVar package
(Thurman et al., 2021). RNA velocity was estimated using scVelo (Bergen et al., 2020; La

Manno et al., 2018) and cell-cell signalling interaction inferencing was performed using

CellChat (Jin et al., 2021). Raw sequences deposited in ENA (PRJEB63603).

Statistical analysis

For each between-organoid comparison (Control vs *PAX6^{-/-}*), an ANOVA with nested mixed

effects was performed, accounting for the random effect of batches and clones on variance in

a hierarchical manner. Specifically, p-values and confidence intervals were calculated using a

Type III Analysis of Variance with Satterthwaite's method.

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551

A

PAX6$^{+/+}$

Dorsal

TBR2
DLX2
DAPI

500 µm
200 µm

PAX6$^{-/-}$

Ventral

500 µm
200 µm

Dorsal

200 µm

TBR2
DLX2
DAPI

2D mapping and intensity measurement → Data clearing → Overlay and stacking → Voxelisation → 3D modelling

B

$$DV = \log \frac{TBR2_q}{DLX2_q}$$

Ventral ← DV → Dorsal

Dorsal/ventral clusters in *PAX6$^{-/-}$* mutants

Batch
Clone
Organoids

A10   B2

C

IN Hindbrain

MLC   CRC   EN

IN1

eGC-N

IN2

PN   Immature Neurons   NEP   Cortical Hem

eGC-P

Mesenchyme

aP   IN progenitor

EN

RGP3

SLN

DLN

RGP

IP

RGP2

SLN-L2/3   DML-IP

DLN-L6   SLN-L4   DML-SLN

DLN-L5

RGP1

UMAP 2

UMAP 1

Human	Mouse
IN1	aP
IN2	RGP
IP	CRC
Mesenchyme	SLN-L2/3
MLC	SLN-L4
NEP	DLN-L5
PN	DLN-L6
RGP1	DML-IP
RGP2	DML-SLN
RGP3	eGC-N
SLN	eGC-P
DLN	
EN	
Immature Neurons	
IN Hindbrain	
IN progenitor	
Cortical Hem	
CR	

D

Human

Mouse

UMAP 2

UMAP 1

Human
Mouse