Dynamic convergence of neurodevelopmental disorder risk genes across neurodevelopment

AUTHORS

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ABSTRACT

Over three hundred and seventy-three risk genes, broadly enriched for roles in neuronal communication and gene expression regulation, underlie risk for autism spectrum disorder (ASD) and developmental delay (DD). Functional genomic studies of subsets of these genes consistently indicate a convergent role in neurogenesis, but how these diverse risk genes converge on a smaller number of biological pathways in mature neurons is unclear. To uncover shared downstream impacts between neurodevelopmental disorder (NDD) risk genes, here we apply a pooled CRISPR approach to contrast the transcriptomic impacts of targeting 29 NDD loss-of-function genes across human induced pluripotent stem cell (hiPSC)-derived neural progenitor cells, glutamatergic neurons, and GABAergic neurons. Points of convergence vary between the cell types of the brain and are greatest in mature glutamatergic neurons, where they broadly target not just synaptic and epigenetic, but unexpectedly, mitochondrial biology. The strongest convergent networks occur between NDD genes with common clinical associations, biological annotations, and co-expression patterns in the post-mortem brain, suggesting that convergence may one-day inform patient stratification. Altogether, robust convergence in post-mitotic neurons represents a clinically actionable therapeutic window.

INTRODUCTION

Autism spectrum disorder (ASD) and related developmental delay (DD) are highly heritable[1]. The aggregate impact of common variants of small effect reflects most genetic risk[2], but in as many as a quarter of cases, potentially damaging rare inherited and *de novo* mutations in risk genes are detected[3]. There is significant overlap between those genes affecting ASD[4] and those more broadly affecting developmental[5,6] and psychiatric[7,8] disorders. Altogether, neurodevelopmental disorder (NDD) risk genes are typically expressed during cortical development[9], particularly the excitatory and inhibitory lineages[4], and broadly split between two functional classes: neuronal communication (e.g., synaptic function) and gene expression regulation (e.g., chromatin regulators and transcription factors)[4,10-15]. Over half of NDD genes have roles in gene expression regulation[4], sharing substantial overlap in genomic binding sites in the brain[16], and with targets enriched for NDD risk genes[17-20]. Yet, evidence to support the parsimonious explanation, that regulatory NDD genes preferentially target synaptic NDD genes, is lacking[4]. It remains unclear how disrupting NDD genes with distinct functions yields similar outcomes.

Many NDD genes seem to have broad roles outside their annotated function; for example, some chromatin regulators (e.g., *CHD8, CHD2,* and *POGZ*) localize to microtubules in the centrosome[21], mitotic spindle[22], and cilia[23,24], suggesting the possibility that they function directly in neurogenesis and/or synaptic biology. Indeed, both regulatory and synaptic genes impact proliferation and patterning of progenitors (e.g., *ARID1B*[25,26], *CHD8*[27,28], *NRXN1*[29,30], *SYNGAP1*[31]), excitatory transmission by glutamatergic neurons (e.g., *CHD8*[32,33], *NRXN1*[34], *SHANK3*[35], *SYNGAP1*[36]), and inhibitory transmission by GABAergic neurons (e.g., *ARID1B*[37], *CHD8*[32], *NRXN1*[38], *SHANK3*[39]). Do overlapping downstream impacts explain how heterogeneous gene mutations result in similar neuronal phenotypes and clinical outcomes[40]?

Many have proposed that diverse ASD genes are convergent[41-43]. Indeed, NDD genes are co-expressed in the brain[44-46], suggesting that they are regulated together and involved in related biological processes, and result in highly interconnected protein-protein interactomes[47-50], indicating functional relationships between NDD proteins. Even as the number of NDD genes grows, risk genes continue to converge on a finite number of biological pathways, developmental stages, brain regions and cell types[41]. Disentangling these complex etiologies remains an outstanding challenge.

Excitatory-inhibitory (E:I) imbalance is widely believed to underlie NDD[51-53], whether arising from altered proportions of neuronal lineage cell types in the developing brain or synaptic deficits in glutamatergic or GABAergic neurons. Indeed, knockdown of subsets of NDD genes in human neural progenitor cells (NPCs)[22,54,55], cerebral organoids[27,56,57], and developing mouse[58], tadpole[59] and zebrafish[60] brains reveal overlapping impacts on neurogenesis. Despite synaptic dysfunction being a hallmark of NDD, the extent to which downstream impacts of NDD genes also converge in mature neurons is largely unknown.

Given emerging evidence that epigenetic NDD genes have diverse and interconnected roles[21-24], we tested the hypothesis that the nature of convergence is dynamic, influenced by developmental and cell types contexts. We report a pooled CRISPR-knockout (KO) strategy targeting loss-of-function (LoF) mutations to 29 NDD genes, most with roles in

chromatin biology (*ANK3, ARID1B, ASH1L, ASXL3, BCL11A, CHD2, CHD8, CREBBP,*
DPYSL2, FOXP2, KMT5B (SUV420H1), KDM5B, KDM6B, KMT2C, MBD5, MED13L,
NRXN1, PHF12, PHF21A, POGZ, PPP2R5D, SCN2A, SETD5, SHANK3, SIN3A, SKI,
SLC6A1, SMARCC2, WAC) in induced NPCs, glutamatergic neurons, and GABAergic
neurons *in vitro*. We describe convergent networks that are unique between cell types,
and in neurons, enriched not just for synaptic biology, but also epigenetic regulation and
mitochondrial function. A novel application of machine learning allowed us to extend our
analyses in silico across all known NDD genes, resolving how the degree of convergence
between risk genes was influenced by clinical associations, biological function, and co-
expression patterns in the post-mortem brain. This work informs molecular stratification
of patients in the future and suggests that it may be possible to resolve genes and cell
types that contribute more strongly to specific clinical outcomes. Novel points of
convergence in post-mitotic neurons represent exciting new therapeutic targets within a
clinically actionable therapeutic window.

RESULTS

A systematic comparison of ASD gene effects across neuronal cell types

From the 102 highly penetrant loss-of-function (LoF) gene mutations associated with NDD
(including 58 gene expression regulation and 24 neuronal communication genes)[4], we
used gene ontology and primary literature to identify 21 epigenetic modifiers specifically
involved in chromatin organization, rearrangement, and modification (*ASH1L, ARID1B,*
ASXL3, BCL11A, CHD2, CHD8, CREBBP, PPP2R5D, KDM5B, KDM6B, KMT2C, KMT5B
(SUV420H1), MBD5, MED13L, PHF12, PHF21A, SETD5, SIN3A, SKI, SMARCC2,
WAC), as well as two transcription factors with putative roles as chromatin regulators
(*FOXP2, POGZ*). Three extensively studied synaptic genes (*NRXN1, SCN2A, SHANK3*)
and three under-explored neuronal communication genes (*ANK3, DPYSL2, SLC6A1*)
strongly associated with NDD were added (**SI Fig. 1A**). Many of these 29 genes differed
in relative frequency of LoF gene mutations between ASD (n=16) and DD (n=4)[61],
schizophrenia[62], and epilepsy[63,64] (**Fig. 1A-B, SI Fig. 1B**), as well as general associations
with GWAS for many neuropsychiatric disorders (MAGMA[65]) (**Fig. 1C; SI Fig. 1C**),
indicating a pleotropic effect and consistent with the shared genetic liability across
neuropsychiatric disorders[66]. iNPCs, iGLUTs, and iGABAs (**SI Fig. 2A**), as well as their
in vivo fetal counterparts (**SI Fig. 2B**), expressed all genes prioritized herein[67].

Towards resolving whether regulatory genes confer continuous or distinct periods of
susceptibility across neurodevelopment, we knocked out (KO) regulatory NDD genes in
neural progenitor cells (SNaPs[68], here termed iNPCs), immature and mature
glutamatergic neurons (iGLUTs)[69], and mature GABAergic neurons (iGABAs)[70] (**Fig. 1D**).
A pooled CRISPR approach (ECCITE-seq[71]) combined direct detection of sgRNAs and
single-cell RNA sequencing to compare loss-of-function effects across 29 NDD genes.
The CRISPR-KO library was generated from pre-validated gRNAs (three to four gRNAs
per gene). Sequencing of the gRNA library confirmed the presence of gRNAs targeting
24 genes (*ANK3, ARID1B, ASH1L, ASXL3, BCL11A, CHD2, CHD8, DPYSL2, FOXP2,*
KMT5B (SUV420H1), KDM5B, KDM6B, KMT2C, MBD5, MED13L, NRXN1, PHF12,

PHF21A, SCN2A, SETD5, SIN3A, SKI, SMARCC2, WAC), but three *(DPYSL2, FOXP2,*
SCN2A) were present at lower frequency (**SI Fig. 3B-C**).

Control hiPSCs were induced to iNPCs, iGLUTs, and iGABAs (**SI Fig. 3A**), transduced
first with lentiviral-Cas9v2 (Addgene #98291) and subsequently with the pooled lentiviral
gRNA library three days before harvest, at day 7 (iNPC and immature iGLUT), day 21
(iGLUT), and day 36 (iGABA) (experimental workflow **SI Fig. 4A;** computational workflow
SI Fig. 4B; experimental validation of CRISPR editing efficiency in **SI Fig. 5**). After filtering
and QC, we resolved NDD transcriptomes for 118,436 single cells: 25,402 iNPC, 38,097
immature (d7) iGLUT, 28,388 mature (d21) iGLUT, and 26,549 mature (d36) iGABA.
Because original gene-expression based clustering was driven by cellular heterogeneity,
cell quality, and sequencing lane effects (**SI Fig. 6A**), independent of gRNA identity, we
removed cells with high expression of subtype markers and adjusted for cellular
heterogeneity (**SI Fig. 6B,C**; **SI Table 2**). 'Weighted-nearest neighbor' (WNN) analysis
assigned clusters based on both gRNA identity class and gene expression to ensure that
cells assigned to a gRNA identity class demonstrated successful perturbation of the
targeted NDD gene[72]. For those WNN clusters where most cells were assigned to a single
KO target, the transcriptomic signatures were compared to non-targeting scramble control
clusters. Altogether, 35,777 cells were used for downstream analyses: 12,107 iNPC,
3,171 immature iGLUT, 11,802 mature iGLUT, and 8,697 mature iGABA). An average of
474 cells were assigned to each individual sgRNA (757 iNPC, 227 immature iGLUT, 562
mature iGLUT, 414 mature iGABA), totaling 33,150 perturbed cells and 2,627 controls
(882 iNPC, 90 immature iGLUT, 1,258 mature iGLUT, and 397 mature iGABA). The gene
expression patterns of non-perturbed iNPCs and iNeurons (>30% of all pooled cells) were
significantly correlated with fetal brain cells and cortical adult neurons.

Successful perturbations were identified for 23 NDD genes (**SI Fig. 6,7**): 16 in iNPCs, 14
in immature iGLUT neurons, and 21 in mature iGLUT and iGABA neurons (**SI Fig. 6**).
Nine NDD genes were perturbed in all four cell types (*ARID1B, ASH1L, CHD2, MED13L,*
NRXN1, PHF21A, SETD5, SIN3, SMARCC2; **SI Fig. 7A,B**). For most NDD genes, KO
in mature iGLUTs yielded the largest number of differentially expressed genes (DEGs,
pFDR<0.05) (**SI Fig. 7B**), an effect that was not driven by differences in the extent of
perturbation of the NDD gene itself between cell types (**SI Fig. 7Ci**). The transcriptomic
effects of individual NDD genes cluster by cell type: the strongest NDD gene correlations
are in mature iGLUTs (i.e., all nominally significant (p<0.01) log2FC DEGs are most highly
correlated with each other and least correlated with the other cell types, whether relative
to all scramble control cells (**Fig. 1Ei,ii; SI Fig. 7Cii**) or random subsets of scramble
control cells (**Fig. 8A,B**)). DEGs across individual NDDs shared significant gene ontology
enrichments, such as extracellular matrix in iNPCs (downregulated), electron transport in
iGABAs (upregulated), and transcription and translation in mature iGLUTs (upregulated)
(**SI Fig. 9A**), with mature iGLUTs and iGABAs having the greatest number of shared
enrichments (**SI Fig. 9B, SI Data 1**). Likewise, DEGs across individual NDDs in mature
iGLUTs frequently enriched for SCZ GWAS genes (12 of 21 NDD genes), whereas in
mature iGABAs for migraine GWAS genes (8 of 21) iGABAs (**SI Fig. 10**).

Unsurprisingly, given the greater within cell-type correlations between NDD genes and
the unique pathway enrichments across cell-types, very few DEGs shared significance
and direction of effect for the same NDD gene perturbation across all four cell-types (FDR

adjusted $p_{meta}<0.05$, Cochran's heterogeneity Q-test $p_{Het} > 0.05$; computational workflow,
SI Fig. 11A); in fact, the only common DEG between cell types was frequently the
targeted NDD gene itself. With a more relaxed statistical threshold (nominal p-value
<0.05), modest shared effects of individual NDD genes could be resolved across cell
types. These effects rarely resulted in perturbation of the other NDD genes themselves
(**SI Fig. 11B**), showed very little overlap between NDD genes (**SI Fig. 11C**), and no
significant enrichments with psychiatric GWAS after multiple testing correction (**SI Fig.**
11D).

NDD gene knockouts result in cell-type-specific convergent genes and networks.

"Convergent genes" (**Fig. 2**) are those DEGs with significant and shared direction of effect
across all NDD gene perturbations (FDR adjusted $p_{meta}<0.05$, Cochran's heterogeneity
Q-test $p_{Het} > 0.05$)[73,74] (computational workflow, **Fig. 2A**). Across the nine NDD genes
perturbed in all four cell types (_ARID1B, ASH1L, CHD2, MED13L, NRXN1, PHF21A,_
SETD5, SIN3A, SMARCC2), convergence was highly cell-type specific (**Fig. 2; SI. Fig.**
12A-C). Although the strength of convergence correlated across cell types (**Fig. 2C,ii**), it
was greatest in mature iGLUTs (quantified as the ratio of convergent genes to the average
number of DEGs across all 152 unique two-to-five gene combinations of these nine NDD
genes) (**Fig. 2C,i**).The unique "top" convergent genes (**Table 1**) showed little overlap
across all cell-types, with mature iGLUTs (11,473) having the largest absolute number of
convergent genes (**Fig. 2D**). Convergent genes were enriched for schizophrenia GWAS
loci (MAGMA[65], FDR <0.05) (**Fig. 2Ei**), rare ASD and FMRP target genes (FDR <0.05)
(**Fig. 2E,ii**), and pathways involved in neurodevelopment, mitochondrial function, and
translational regulation **(SI Fig. 13).** When tested again across the 21 NDD genes
perturbed in both iGLUTs and iGABAs, mature iGLUTs again showed the largest absolute
number of convergent genes (iGLUTs, 10,557, **SI Fig. 14A;** iGABAs, 892, **SI Fig. 14B**).
Intriguingly, although convergent genes were highly cell-type-specific, those NDD gene
combinations that were highly convergent in one cell type were likely to be convergent in
others; in neurons, top convergent sets most frequently included _ARID1B_, _SETD5_ and
NRXN1 **(SI Fig. 12D).**

Given that the biological impact of convergence is likely to be impacted by the strength of
shared gene regulatory relationships and functions, we re-examined convergence within
the framework of co-expression networks (Bayesian bi-clustering). "Convergent
networks" (**Fig. 3**) are co-expressed genes that share similar expression patterns across
NDD gene perturbations[73,74] (computational workflow, **Fig. 3A**). The network connectivity
score ("network convergence") informs the strength and composition across cell types
(i.e., networks with more interconnectedness and containing genes with greater functional
similarity have increased convergence). Convergent networks generated from the 9 NDD
genes perturbed in all four cell types (**Fig. 3B**), across the 21 NDDs genes in both iGLUTs
and iGABAs (**SI Fig. 14C**), or across all NDD genes in all four cell types **(SI Fig. 15A)**
revealed the greatest convergent network strength in iGLUTs. Network-level
convergence was weakly correlated between cell types **(Fig. 3C)**; we illustrate distinct
networks that were strongest across cell types (**Fig 3F, SI Fig. 15B,C**). Consistent with
this, the number of convergent unique network nodes was greatest in iGLUTs and distinct
across cell types (**Fig. 3D; Tables 2-3**), and significantly enriched for rare variants linked
to schizophrenia and ASD (**Fig. 3E; Tables 2-3).**

Convergent genes and networks target synaptic, epigenetic, and mitochondrial biology.

Convergent genes and networks revealed cell-type-specific disease (**Fig. 2E**) and
functional enrichments (**Fig. 2F, 4A-B; SI Fig. 13**), many consistent with established NDD
etiology in neurogenesis[22,27,54-60] and synaptic biology[47-50]. For example, iNPCs were
significantly enriched for pathways involved in proliferation and differentiation, whereas
mature iGLUTs showed unique enrichments in neuronal communication (e.g., pre-
synaptic function) and regulation of gene expression (e.g., mRNA processing and protein
translation). Unexpectedly, both mature iGLUT and iGABA neurons were enriched for
mitochondrial biology (e.g., oxidative phosphorylation: mature iGLUTs: NEs=2.8, p<2.2e-
16, FDR<0.001; mature iGABAs: NES=1.67, p=0.023, FDR<0.05)**.**

Functional validation of five NDD genes (*KMT5B, NRXN1, CHD8, ASH1L, ARID1B*) in
inducible Cas9 (iCas9)[75] neural progenitor cells (CD184$^+$/CD133$^-$ NPCs) in arrayed
format revealed effects on proliferation (Ki67; **Fig. 4C; SI Fig. 16i**), neurogenesis (NPCs:
CD184+/CD44-/CD24+, neurons: CD184-/CD44-/CD24+*;* **SI Fig. 16ii**), and gliogenesis
(astrocytes: CD184+/CD44+; **SI Fig. 16iii)** that varied between genes. Likewise, a pooled
CRISPR analysis in iCas9 cortical organoids confirmed effects on neurogenesis, again
with variable effects between NDD genes (**SI Fig. 17**).

To assess how loss of NDD-associated genes affects mitochondrial function, we
performed a pooled CRISPR knockout screen using a nearly identical library (same
backbone, guide density, and control set) in the H1-iCas9 line. Transduced cells were
differentiated into NPCs and iGLUTs by day 21, stained with the Δψm-sensitive dye JC-
1, and sorted by fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS) into high- (PE-high) and low-
(FITC-high) membrane-potential fractions, following amplicon sequencing to quantify
gRNA representation in each fraction (**Fig. 4D**). Of the fifteen KOs, ten resulted in
elevated mitochondrial membrane potential (MPP) in both NPCs and iGLUTs, the
remaining five caused cell-type-specific impacts on mitochondrial membrane potential.
Pathway enrichment of the ten NDD genes that increased mitochondrial membrane
revealed a convergence on chromatin remodeling complexes, microRNAs, and
transcription factors.

For three NDD KOs (*ASH1L, ARID1B, NRXN1)*, we validated mitochondrial effects in
arrayed format. First, by high content imaging, we analyzed and quantified 1 x 10^4
mitochondria per genotype, with morphological measurements taken for mitochondrial
(TOMM20-positive) volume, surface area, and sphericity (roundness) as well as total
OXPHOS complex, within neuronal dendrites (MAP2-positive) of mature (d21) iGLUTs.
ARID1B KO resulted in increased mitochondrial networking (indicated by decreased
mitochondrial sphericity absent in mitochondrial volume and surface area; one-way
ANOVA, Šidák's adjusted p<0.05) concomitant with increased levels of OXPHOS
proteins (one-way ANOVA, Šidák's, adjusted p<0.01) (**Fig. 4E; SI Fig. 18**), overall
consistent with increased mitochondrial efficiency. Second, we tested oxygen
consumption during basal respiration and OXPHOS-dependent ATP production
(Seahorse Cell Mito Stress test). NRXN1 KO resulted in increased basal respiration, ATP
generation, and maximal capacity in iGLUTs (one-way ANOVA, p<0.05, p<0.001; **Fig.
4F**), which contrasts with decreased spare capacity in NPCs (one-way ANOVA, p<0.05;
Fig. 4F); increased basal respiration, in the absence of fused mitochondria with elevated
OXPHOS protein levels, is consistent with less efficient mitochondrial function. Both

ARID1B and NRXN1 KO neurons show evidence of increased mitochondrial activity,
ARID1B KO through enhanced fusion and OXPHOS capacity, whereas NRXN1 KO by
increasing the workload on existing ETC machinery to meet ATP demands. As observed
for neurogenesis in iNPCs, single gene knockouts iGLUTs confirmed convergent effects
on mitochondrial biology, finding distinct but related phenotypes between NDD genes.

Convergent networks are strongest between NDD genes with common phenotypes,
biological annotations, and co-expression patterns in the post-mortem brain

By design, *in vitro* models substantially limit the complexity of the observed impact of NDD
genes, lacking higher-level circuit levels effects. Towards applying molecular
convergence *in vitro* to explore the mechanisms of phenotypic convergence *in vivo,* the
convergence of sets of NDD genes were next explored on the basis of shared behavioral
effects in zebrafish mutants (**Fig. 5**). A comprehensive *in vivo* high-throughput, automated
behavioral analysis in zebrafish[60] revealed clear stratification of NDD genes based on
basic arousal and sensory processing behaviors in the developing vertebrate brain. Given
that zebrafish brain gene expression was significantly correlated with *in vitro* human-
derived mature neurons (**Fig. 5B, SI Fig. 19**), asked behavioral stratification of NDD
mutants in zebrafish can be attributed to molecular convergence. For fifteen NDD genes
for which we have matched behavioral and molecular analyses, zebrafish KOs were
clustered based on behavioral effects, yielding four distinct clusters of genes: set 1
(*MBD5, NRXN1, KDM5B*), set2 (*CHD2, SMARCC2, PHF12, SKI*), set 3 (*KMT5B, KMT2C,*
KDM6B), and set 4 (*ARID1B, ASH1L, CHD8, PHF21A, WAC*) (**Fig. 5A; SI Data 2)***. Gene-
level convergence between NDD genes in these sets was distinct, largely non-
overlapping between cell-types, and stronger in mature iGLUTs than mature iGABAs
(**Fig. 5C**). Likewise, rare ASD, SCZ, and ID LoF genes (**Fig. 5F**) and phenotypes related
to developmental delay, behavior, motor function, and seizure (**Fig. 5Ei**), showed unique
enrichments by set, predominately in the iGLUTs. Drugs predicted to reverse convergent
genes (i.e drugs with anticorrelating transcriptomic signatures) in iGLUTs and iGABAs
were prioritized from the 776 cMAP[76] drugs with matched clinical and experimental
zebrafish data. Top enriched drugs included antidepressants, antipsychotics, and statins
(**Fig. 5Eii)**. Whereas some drugs were broadly predicted to reverse convergent
signatures in all four NDD gene sets (e.g., the antipsychotic perphenazine), others
uniquely targeted specific sets (e.g., naltrexone in set 2 iGLUTs, sirolimus in set 3
iGLUTs, and valsartan in set 3 iGABAs). By considering existing pharmacological effects
of the top drugs on zebrafish behavior[60], some of the predicted drug reversers were
shown to oppose effects on NDD related phenotypes in zebrafish (**Fig. 5H**). Yet, the
direction of effect predicted based on transcriptomic convergence in human neurons did
not always align with anti-correlating behavioral effects in zebrafish (e.g., moxifloxacin,
perphenazine).

To query whether convergence reflected clinical associations to ASD or DD, we again
quantified convergence as the ratio of convergent genes to the average number of DEGs
(see **Fig. 2E**), here across all (2-5 gene) combinations of all NDD genes perturbed in each
cell type (e.g., 27,824 unique combinations of 21 NDD genes in iGLUTs and iGABAs; **SI**
Fig. 20A). Convergence, both gene-level (**SI Fig. 20C**) and network-level (**SI Fig. 20D**)**,**
was greater between genes with stronger associations to ASD compared to DD[61]**.** This
was particularly so in mature neurons, especially iGABAs, albeit influenced by the number

of NDD genes in a set (**Fig. 20E-F**).

Next, to resolve the extent to which functional similarity and co-expression patterns
between NDD genes predicted convergence, we trained a prediction model (random
forest linear regression)[77] using 70% of our data, evaluated it using 30% of our data, and
validated in an external dataset[73] (computational workflow, **Fig. 6A**; model predictor
variables, **Fig. 6B;** more information **SI Fig. 21,22**). Cell type, brain co-expression
(dorsolateral prefrontal cortex, DLPFC), and functional similarity (i.e., gene ontology)
correlate with convergence and well-predicted gene level convergence (97% variance
explained; mean of squared residuals (RMSE)=0.021) (**Fig. 6C; SI Fig. 15C,Di**) and
moderately predicted network-level convergence (53% variance explained; RMSE=0.73)
(**Fig. 6D; SI Fig. 15C,Dii)**. Our trained model accurately predicted gene-level (Pearson's
R=0.998, P<0.001, RMSE=0.15) (**Fig. 6E,I; SI Fig. 15Ei**) and network-level convergence
in our testing set (R=0.72, P<2.2e-16, RMSE=0.85) (**Fig. 6E,ii; SI Fig. 15Ei),** and
performed moderately well in predicting network-level convergence (R=0.26, P<0.001,
RMSE=0.68) (**Fig. 6F,iI; SI Fig. 15Fii)** and to a lesser extent gene-level convergence
(R=0.14, P<0.001 RMSE=1.75) (**Fig. 6F,I; SI Fig. 15Fi)** in the external dataset.

DISCUSSION

Towards empirically resolving the common pathways converged upon by NDD risk gene
effects, 29 NDD genes were targeted through a pooled CRISPR-KO strategy. The
molecular points of convergence across NDD risk genes varied between the cell types of
the brain, being greatest in mature glutamatergic neurons, where they were enriched not
just for pathways with well-established links to ASD etiology (e.g., gene regulation,
synaptic biology), but also mitochondrial function[79]. While downstream effects of
epigenetic NDD genes unexpectedly targeted mitochondrial genes, in fact, five percent
of NDD cases meet diagnostic criteria for classic mitochondrial disorders[80]. Mitochondrial
DNA mutations[81], haplotypes[82] and heteroplasmy[83] have all been associated with NDD.
In mice, not only are mitochondrial mutations sufficient to cause behavioral and
electrophysiological phenotypes[84], but 22q11 and FMRP mouse models reveal
mitochondrial deficits and oxidative stress[85,86], and established neuronal connectivity and
behavior phenotypes can be reversed by antioxidant treatment[86]. Conversely, knockout
of NDD genes in NPCs primarily alter neurogenesis[54,57,59] and developmental
dynamics[27,87]. Put simply, perturbations of the same NDD genes resulted in different
convergent networks across cell types. This observation connects the pleiotropic nature
of many NDD genes and pathophysiological evidence linking multiple cell types and
distinct cellular functions to NDD.

What explains phenotypic convergence between NDD genes with distinct annotated
functions? The strength of convergence was most highly correlated to common clinical
associations, biological annotations, and co-expression patterns in the post-mortem
brain. Critically, these factors are inter-dependent. NDD risk genes most strongly
implicated in DD are enriched for expression in progenitor cells and immature neurons,
and those in ASD in mature neurons[61]. Moreover, cellular identities and biological
pathways are captured by patterns of gene co-expression[88,89]. Transcriptomic and
epigenomic analyses of post-mortem brain from NDD cases likewise indicate convergent

molecular signatures[90] and subtypes of NDD[91]. Thus, we posit that shared clinical and
phenotypic effects of distinct NDD genes in fact reflect the patterns of co-expression in
the developing brain.

Personalized medicine seeks to tailor treatments to individual patients[92]; for example,
cancer[93] and monogenic disease[94] patients with specific genetic mutations receive
targeted treatments. Ideally, precision medicine will not require targeting risk genes one-
at-a-time. Previous efforts to classify NDD genes to predict clinical features or treatment
response applied gene ontology[4,61] or differential KO effects on neurodevelopment *in*
vitro[54] or *in vivo*[59]. Here, convergence stratifies risk genes on the basis of shared
molecular impacts in neurons; in doing so, we can predict novel drug targets (**Fig. 5**) that
highlight a clinically actionable development therapeutic window that potentially persists
after symptom onset. The extent to which convergent downstream targets, whether
associated with risk or resilience, can be manipulated to prevent or ameliorate NDD
signatures and phenotypes warrants future investigation. Despite abundant recent
evidence that NDD risk genes have convergent neurodevelopmental effects, strong
convergence in post-mitotic neurons

Although rare LoF NDD gene mutations tend to confer large effects in the individuals who
carry them, the small effects of common variants account for much of the genetic risk for
NDD at the population level[2,95]. The differences in expressivity and incomplete
penetrance of high effect-size rare variants is frequently attributed to diversity across
polygenic backgrounds[96]; *in vitro*, NDD gene effects are indeed influenced by the
individual genomic context[27]. In psychiatry, common genetic variants are more associated
with cross-disorder behavioral dimensions[97] and rare variants with co-occurring
intellectual disability[98]. Common risk variants interact with rare mutations to determine
individual-level liability in ASD[99-101], schizophrenia[102,103], epilepsy[104], Huntington's
disease[105] and more[106]. Our results, highlighting that convergence downstream of NDD
gene effects are enriched for cross-disorder GWAS variants and rare LoF genes, inform
pleiotropy of genetic risk for psychiatric disorders. Moving forward, we argue that it is
critical that empirical functional genomic studies systematically consider the impact of
common and rare variants together, including screening the impact of LoF genes in hiPSC
lines derived from donors with high and low polygenic risk scores[107]. Intriguingly, even
susceptibility to environmental risk factors for NDD (e.g., valproic acid[108]) seems to be
mediated by genetic background[109]. Deeper phenotypic characterization of NDD effects
across donors will be critical in determining how complex genetic (or environmental)
interactions shape cellular phenotypes, circuit function, and human behavior in the clinic.

In the post-mortem brain, NDD gene signatures are not just associated with
downregulation of co-expression modules involving synaptic signalling[110], but also
upregulation of microglial and astrocyte gene modules[91,110-116]. The extent to which
increased neuroimmune activity in NDD is a response to cellular or environmental
sources of inflammation, or indicative of a non-cell autonomous role for glia cells in risk
is unclear; evidence supports both possibilities. Consistent with a model of maternal
immune activation during neurodevelopment[117], glucocorticoids and inflammatory
cytokines perturb the expression of psychiatric risk genes[118,119], altering the regulatory
activity of psychiatric risk loci[120], and interfering with neuronal maturation in brain
organoids[121]. Yet, *in vivo* analysis of NDD genes in zebrafish revealed global increases

in microglia[60] and *in vitro* screening in human microglia uncovered roles in endocytosis
and uptake of synaptic material[122]. Indeed, given the reciprocal relationships between
neuronal activity and glial function, epigenetic state, and gene expression[123-126], it seems
probable that both cell-autonomous and non-cell-autonomous effects underlie and/or
exacerbate NDD gene effects.

In summary, we demonstrate that convergent effects of NDD risk genes vary between
cell types. Our analyses suggest that clinical convergence between regulatory and
synaptic genes in the etiology of NDD is driven more so by co-expression patterns of risk
genes then direct regulation of epigenetic genes on synaptic targets. If the convergence
of multifold risk genes on a smaller number of shared molecular pathways indeed explains
how genetically heterogeneous mutations result in similar clinical features, then genetic
stratification of cases will inform novel therapeutic targets. We predict that such
individualized points of therapeutic intervention may be most effective when targeting
mature glutamatergic neurons, which not only harbor the strongest convergent effects but
also represent a therapeutic window that is actionable after diagnosis.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Generation of neural cells: Informed consent was obtained at the National Institute of
Mental Health, under the review of the Internal Review Board of the NIMH. hiPSC work
was reviewed by the Internal Review Board of the Icahn School of Medicine at Mount
Sinai as well as by the Embryonic Stem Cell Research Oversight Committee at the Icahn
School of Medicine at Mount Sinai and Yale University. Fibroblasts were genotyped by
IlluminaOmni 2.5 bead chip genotyping[127,128], PsychChip[129], and exome sequencing[129];
hiPSCs[129] were validated by G-banded karyotyping (Wicell Cytogenetics) and genome
stability monitored by Infinium Global Screening Array v3.0 (Illumina). SNP genotype was
inferred from all RNAseq data using the Sequenom SURESelect Clinical Research
Exome (CRE) and Sure Select V5 SNP lists to confirm that neuron identity matched
donor. Control hiPSCs were cultured in StemFlex media (Gibco, #A3349401)
supplemented with Antibiotic-Antimycotic (Gibco, #15240062) on Geltrex-coated plates
(Gibco, #A1413302). Cells were passaged at 80-90% confluence with 5mM EDTA (Life
Technologies #15575-020) for 3 min at room temperature (RT). EDTA was aspirated and
cells dissociated in fresh StemFlex media. Media was replaced every 48-72 hours for 4-
7 days until the next passage.

Transient transcription factor overexpression from stable clonal hiPSCs was used to
induce control hiPSCs to iNPCs (here SNaPs)[68], iGLUTs[69], and iGABAs[70]. iNPCs are
rapidly generated by 48-hour induction with *NGN2*[68,130]. iGLUTs are induced via transient
overexpression of *NGN2*, and are >95% glutamatergic neurons, robustly express
excitatory genes, and show spontaneous excitatory synaptic activity by three-to-four
weeks *in vitro*[29,34,35,67,69,131-137]. iGABA neurons are induced via transient overexpression
of *ASCL1* and *DLX2,* and are >95% GABAergic neurons, robustly express inhibitory
genes, and show spontaneous inhibitory synaptic activity by five-to-six
weeks[38,70,133,138,139]. iNPCs, iGLUTs, and iGABAs express most NDD genes, including all
genes prioritized herein[67].

We transduced hiPSCs from two control donors (553-3, karyotypic XY; 3182-3, karyotypic
XX) with lentiviral *pUBIQ-rtTA* (Addgene #20342) and *tetO-NGN2-eGFP-NeoR* (Addgene
#99378) for iNPCs and iGLUTs, or *pUBIQ-rtTA* (Addgene #20342), *tetO-ASCL1-*
PuroR (Addgene #97329)*,* and *tetO-DLX2-HygroR* (Addgene #97330) for iGABAs.
Following transduction by spinfection at 1000g for 1 hour at 37°C, hiPSCs were subjected
to 48-hour antibiotic selection (1mg/mL neomycin G418 (Thermo #10131027), 0.5µg/mL
puromycin (Thermo #A1113803), and/or 250µg/mL hygromycin (Thermo, #10687010)
and then clonalized by expansion from single colonies. Ultimately, clonal and inducible
iNPC/iGLUT 3182-3-clone5 (XX) and iGABA 553-3-clone34 (XY) hiPSCs were validated
lentiviral genome integration by PCR, doxycycline induced transcription factor expression
by qPCR, and robust and consistent neuronal induction confirmed by RNA-seq and
immunocytochemistry for relevant cell type markers. Analyses throughout reflect data
from iGLUT 3182-3-clone5 (iNPC, d7 iGLUT and d21 iGLUT) and iGABA 553-3-clone34
(d36 iGABA) (**SI Fig. 4A-B**).

iNPCs: At DIV0, 3182-3-clone5 hiPSCs were dissociated and plated at 1.5 x 10^6 cells per
well onto Geltrex-coated 6-well plates (1:250 dilution coating) in SNaP Induction Media
(DIV0): DMEM/F12 with Glutamax (ThermoFisher, 11320082), Glucose (0.3% v/v), N2
Supplement (1:100, ThermoFisher, 17502048), Doxycycline (2 µg/mL; Sigma-Aldrich,
D9891), LDN-193189 (200 nM; Stemgent, 04-0074), SB431542 (10 µM; Tocris, 1614),
and XAV939 (2 µM; Stemgent, 04-00046) supplemented with 25 ng/mL Chroma I ROCK2
Inhibitor. After 24 hours, DIV2, cells were fed with Selection Media: DMEM/F12 with
Glutamax, Glucose (0.3% v/v), N2 Supplement (1:100), Doxycycline (2 µg/mL), Geneticin
(0.5 mg/mL; Thermofisher, 10131035), LDN-193189 (100 nM), SB431542 (5 µM), and
XAV939 (1 µM). After 48 hours post induction (DIV2), SNaPs were dissociated with
Accutase for 10 minutes at 37°C, quenched in DMEM, pelleted at 800g for 5 minutes, and
replated at 1.5x10^6 cells per well onto Geltrex-coated 6-well plates in SNaP Selection
Media supplemented with Geneticin (0.5 mg/mL). After 16-18 hr (DIV3), medium was
switched to SNaP maintenance Medium: DMEM/F12 with Glutamax, Penn/Strep (1:100),
MEM-NEAA (1:100; Life Technologies, 10370088), B27 minus Vitamin A (1:50; Life
Technologies, 12587010), N2 Supplement (1:100; Life Technologies, 17502048),
recombinant human EGF (10 ng/mL; R&D Systems, 236-EG-200), recombinant human
basic FGF (10 ng/mL; Life Technologies, 13256029), Geneticin (0.5 mg/mL), and
Chroman I (25 ng/mL). Cells were fed every 48 hours with SNaP maintenance medium
lacking Chroman I and Geneticin. Cells were dissociated and seeded weekly at a density
of 1.25-1.5x10^6 cells per well onto Geltrex-coated 6-well plates until NPC morphology was
observed and persistent. Cells were expanded and cryofrozen.

DIV7 iGLUTs: 3182-3-clone5 iNPCs were thawed and seeded at 1x 10^6 cells per well
onto Geltrex-coated 12-well plates. *NGN2* expression was induced with Doxycycline (2
µg/mL) for 24 hrs (DIV0) with antibiotic selection for 48 hrs (DIV1-3) in SNaP maintenance
medium. At DIV 4 SNaPs were dissociated with Accutase, switched into Neuronal
Medium: Brainphys (Stemcell, 05790), Glutamax (1:100), Sodium Pyruvate (1 mM), Anti-
Anti (1:100), N2 (1:100), B27 without vitamin A (1:50), BDNF (20 ng/mL; R&D, 248-BD-
025), GDNF (20 ng/mL; R&D, 212), dibutyryl cAMP (500 µg/mL; Sigma, D0627), L-
ascorbic acid (200 µM; Sigma, A4403), Natural Mouse Laminin (1.2 µg/m; Thermofisher,
23017015) and seeded in Geltrex-coated (1:120 dilution coating) 12-well plates. Medium
was changed every 24 hrs until DIV7 harvest.

D21 iGLUTs: hiPSCs were harvested in Accutase (Innovative Cell Technologies, AT-104)
for 5 minutes 37°C, dissociated into a single-cell suspension, quenched in DMEM,
pelleted via centrifugation for five minutes at 1000 rcf and resuspended in StemFlex
containing 25 ng/mL Chroma I ROCK2 Inhibitor and 2.0 µg/mL doxycycline (DIV0),
seeded 1×10^6 cells per well onto Geltrex-coated 6-well plates (1:250 dilution coating),
and incubated overnight at 37°C. The next day, DIV1, hiPSCs were subjected to 48-hour
antibiotic selection by medium replacement with Induction Media: DMEM/F12
(Thermofisher, 10565018), Glutamax (1:100; Thermofisher, 10565018), N-2 (1:100;
Thermofisher, 17502048), B27 without vitamin A (1:50; Thermofisher, 12587010),
Antibiotic-Antimycotic (1:100) with 1.0µg/mL doxycycline and 0.5mg/ml Geneticin. At
DIV3, cells were treated with 4.0µM cytosineβ-D-arabinofuranoside hydrochloride (Ara-
C) and 1.0µg/mL doxycycline to arrest proliferation and eliminate non-neuronal cells in
the culture. At DIV4 immature neurons were dissociated with Accutase and 5 units/mL
DNAse I at 37°C for 7-10 min, quenched in DMEM, centrifuged for five minutes at 1,500
rpm and resuspended in 25 ng/mL Chroma I ROCK2 Inhibitor, 1.0 µg/mL doxycycline and
4.0µM Ara-C and switched to Neuron Medium: Brainphys (Stemcell, 05790), Glutamax
(1:100), Sodium Pyruvate (1 mM), Anti-Anti (1:100), N2 (1:100), B27 without vitamin A
(1:50), BDNF (20 ng/mL; R&D, 248-BD-025), GDNF (20 ng/mL; R&D, 212), dibutyryl
cAMP (500 µg/mL; Sigma, D0627), L-ascorbic acid (200 µM; Sigma, A4403), Natural
Mouse Laminin (1.2 µg/mL; Thermofisher, 23017015) and seeded 7×10^5 cells per well
onto Geltrex-coated (1:60 dilution coating) 12-well plates and incubated overnight at
37°C. The next day, DIV 6, Chroman I was removed from culture and Ara-C lowered to
2.0 µM with a full Neuronal medium change. At DIV 7 a full Neuronal Medium change was
performed to remove doxycycline and Ara-C from culture, to allow for antibiotic resistant
genes silencing. From DIV7 onwards, half neuronal medium changes were performed
every 72 – 96 hrs until mature DIV 21 for harvest.

DIV36 iGABAs: hiPSCs were harvested in Accutase (Innovative Cell Technologies, AT-
104) for 5 minutes 37°C, dissociated into a single-cell suspension, quenched in DMEM,
pelleted via centrifugation for five minutes at 1000 rcf and resuspended in StemFlex
containing 25 ng/mL Chroma I ROCK2 Inhibitor and 2.0 µg/mL doxycycline (DIV0),
seeded $1.5-2 \times 10^6$ cells per well onto Geltrex-coated 6-well plates (1:250 dilution coating),
and incubated overnight at 37°C. The next day, DIV1, hiPSCs were subjected to 48-hour
antibiotic selection by medium replacement with Induction Media: DMEM/F12
(Thermofisher, 10565018), Glutamax (1:100; Thermofisher, 10565018), N-2 (1:100;
Thermofisher, 17502048), B27 without vitamin A (1:50; Thermofisher, 12587010),
Antibiotic-Antimycotic (1:100) with 1.0µg/mL doxycycline, 1.0 µg/mL puromycin (Sigma,
P7255) and 250 µg/mL hygromycin (Sigma, 10687010). At DIV3, cells were treated with
4.0µM cytosineβ-D-arabinofuranoside hydrochloride (Ara-C) and 1.0µg/mL doxycycline
to arrest proliferation and eliminate non-neuronal cells in the culture. At DIV5 immature
neurons were dissociated with Accutase and 5 units/mL DNAse I at 37°C for 7-10 min,
quenched in DMEM, centrifuged for five minutes at 1,500 rpm and resuspended in 25
ng/mL Chroma I ROCK2 Inhibitor, 1.0 µg/mL doxycycline and 4.0µM Ara-C and switched
to Neuron Medium: Brainphys (Stemcell, 05790), Glutamax (1:100), Sodium Pyruvate (1
mM), Anti-Anti (1:100), N2 (1:100), B27 without vitamin A (1:50), BDNF (20 ng/mL; R&D,
248-BD-025), GDNF (20 ng/mL; R&D, 212), dibutyryl cAMP (500 µg/mL; Sigma, D0627),
L-ascorbic acid (200 µM; Sigma, A4403), Natural Mouse Laminin (1.2 µg/mL;

Thermofisher, 23017015) and seeded 7 x 10^5 cells per well onto Geltrex-coated (1:60
dilution coating) 12-well plates and incubated overnight at 37°C. The next day, DIV 6,
Chroman I was removed from culture and Ara-C lowered to 2.0 μM with a full Neuronal
medium change. At DIV 7 a full Neuronal Medium change was performed to remove
doxycycline and Ara-C from culture, to allow for antibiotic resistant genes silencing. From
DIV7 onwards, half neuronal medium changes were performed every 72-96 hrs until
mature DIV 36 for harvest.

CRISPR knockout gRNA library design (Thermofisher) and validation
From the 102 highly penetrant loss-of-function (LoF) gene mutations associated with ASD
(58 gene expression regulation, 24 neuronal communication genes, 9 cytoskeletal genes,
and 11 multifunction genes)[4], gene ontology and primary literature research identified 26
epigenetic modifiers specifically involved in chromatin organization, rearrangement, and
modification. ASD gene expression (RNA-seq RPKM in iGLUTs) was plotted against
significance of ASD association (TADA FDR Values), to ensure selection of genes with
the highest expression and highest clinical association. Gene expression was confirmed
across development in the brain (BrainSpan[140]), and in bulk and scRNA-seq (**SI Fig. 1B-**
C). 21 epigenetic modifiers (*ASH1L, ASXL3, ARID1B, CHD2, CHD8, CREBBP, KDM5B,*
KDM6B, KMT2C, KMT5B, MBD5, MED13L, PHF12, PHF21A, POGZ, PPP2R5D, SETD5,
SIN3A, SKI, SMARCC2, WAC,) as well as two transcription factors with putative roles as
chromatin regulators (*FOXP2, BCL11A*) were selected (**SI Fig. 1A**). Gene regulatory
transcription factors, general transcription factors, and DNA replication genes were
excluded. Three extensively studied synaptic genes (*NRXN1, SCN2A, SHANK3*) with
roles in ASD were included as positive controls and three under-explored genes for ASD
role in neuronal communication genes (*ANK3, DPYSL2, SLC6A1*) were also included in
the library.

Individual DNA from glycerol stocks of Invitrogen™ LentiArray™ Human CRISPR Library
gRNAs-PuroR (ThermoFisher, A31949) (3-4 individual gRNAs per gene, see **SI Table 1**)
were prepared using GeneJET Plasmid Miniprep Kit (K0503) and pooled at an equimolar
ratio and a 5-fold ratio of scramble control gRNA plasmid. Library quality was confirmed
by restriction enzyme digest (10x Cutsart NEB), agarose gel purification using QIAquick
Gel Extraction Kit (#28706) to check library purity, followed by Mi-seq for gRNA count
distribution (**SI Fig. 3B**). Based on the abundance of gRNAs from Mis-seq, 4 NDD gene
targets were highly unlikely to be resolved in the final experiments – *POGZ, PP2R5D,*
SHANK3, SLC6A1 – and 3 with low abundance and less likely to be resolved (*SCNA2,*
FOXP2, DYPSL2) (**SI Fig. 3C**).

Lentiviral Cas9v2-HygroR (Addgene, 98291) and pooled LentiArray-gRNA-PuroR
CRISPR-KO library were packaged as high-titer lentiviruses (Boston Children's Hospital
Viral Core) and experimentally titrated in each cell type. Highest viable MOI was used for
Cas9v2 and MOI < 0.5 for lentivirus gRNAs pool library.

CRISPR and gRNA delivery: Lentiviral Cas9v2-HygroR (Addgene #98291) transduction
of iNPCs, day 4 (iGLUTs), or day 5 (iGABAs) occurred via spinfection (one hour at 1,000
g) and followed by 72 hr hygromycin (250 μg /mL) (except for iGABAs, which express
inducible hygromycin resistance at this stage). Pooled Invitrogen™ LentiArray™ Human
gRNA-PuroR CRISPR-KO Library gRNAs (ThermoFisher #A31949) (MOI 0.3-0.5) were
transduced via spinfection three days prior to harvest (e.g., d4 for D7 iGLUTs, d18 for

D21 iGLUTs, d33 for d36 iGABA), with fresh medium containing puromycin (1 µg/mL)
added 16-24 hours post transduction of gRNAs. For mature iGLUTs and iGABAs, as
doxycycline was removed from medium at DIV7, and by DIV18 neurons had lost
transcription factor linked antibiotic resistance, at 24 hours post-transduction (DIV19 or
DIV34) puromycin (1 µg/mL) and hygromycin (250 µg /mL) were added to media for 48-
hr antibiotic selection prior to harvest (**SI Fig. 4A,i**).

Dissociation of different neural cell types to single cells for scRNAseq assays: Cells were
dissociated 72 hrs post gRNA library delivery for single cell sequencing, as iNPCs, DIV7
and DIV21 iGLUTs, or DIV36 iGABAs as follows:

iNPCs and DIV7 iGLUTs were dissociated in accutase for 5min @37°C, washed with
DMEM/10%FBS, centrifuged at 1,000xg for 5 min, gently resuspended, and counted.

DIV21 iGLUTs and DIV36 iGABAs were dissociated with papain. Papain was pre-warmed
(39°C) for 30 minutes in HBSS (ThermoFisher, 14025076), HEPES (10 mM, pH 7.5)
EDTA (0.5 mM), Papain (0.84 mg/mL; Worthington-Biochem, LS003127). The cells were
washed with PBS-EDTA (0.5 mM) and 300 uL of papain solution and 5 units of DNAse I
was added per well of 12-well plate and incubated at 37°C for 10-15 minutes, 125 rpm.
Dissociation was quenched with DMEM-10%FBS. Detached neurons were broken by
gentle manual pipetting, pelleted at 600 g for 5 minutes, resuspended in DMEM-10%FBS,
filtered through a cell strainer and counted and submitted for 10X sequencing.

Cells were loaded into 10X in four lanes per cell type, targeting 20,000 cells per lane for
a total of ~80,000 targeted cells per cell type. scRNA-seq was performed at Yale
Genomics Core with the 10X single cell 5' v2 HT with CRISPR barcode kit (**SI Fig. 4A,ii**).

Bulk RNAseq and CRISPR-editing efficiency evaluation: The H1 hESC line with iCas9
(NIHhESC-10-0043), generously provided by the Huangfu Lab, was used to assess the
editing efficiency of the gRNAs[75,141] and conduct the mitochondrial pooled and arrayed
experiments. NPCs were generated using the dual SMAD inhibition approach per the
STEMdiff SMADi Neural Induction Kit protocol (STEMCell Technologies, #08581). To
validate gene KO, NPCs were transduced with LV particles carrying four gRNAs per
target gene. After 48 h of selection with 1 µg/mL puromycin, Cas9 expression was
induced by adding dox at 2 µg/mL for 72 h. Following induction, cells were collected for
bulk RNA-seq. Total RNA was extracted using TRIzol™ reagent (Invitrogen). PolyA RNA-
seq library preparation and sequencing were conducted at the Yale Center for Genomic
Analysis (YCGA). Raw fastq files were quality-checked by FastQC, then mapped to
human genome reference hg38 (STAR[142]). GRNA targeted-loci for each sample were
extracted (SAMtools[143]). Variation/small insertion/deletion at site of interest and mutation
efficiency at corresponding loci was called (CrispRVariants R package[144]), after excluding
possible germline variants from Cas9-non-induced samples.

Proliferation and neurogenesis analysis: For proliferation analysis using Ki-67, NPCs
were seeded into 24-well plates and either treated with doxycycline (induced) to activate
Cas9 or left untreated (uninduced). The cells were cultured for 7 days, representing
approximately three NPC generations. On day 7, cells were collected, and ~1 × 10^6 cells
were stained with Ki-67-FITC (#130-117-803, Miltenyi Biotec) using the
Foxp3/Transcription Factor Staining Buffer Set (#00-5523, Invitrogen), following the
manufacturer's protocol.

To evaluate the effects of gene KOs on neurogenesis and gliogenesis, transduced NPC-iCas9 lines were spontaneously differentiated into human cortical neurons and glial cells. Briefly, 1×10^6 cells were seeded in GelTrex-coated (1:5) 6-well plates and cultured in complete neuronal media containing BrainPhys™ Neuronal Medium, Glutamax (100X), Sodium Pyruvate (100 mM), B-27 (-RA) supplement (50X), N2 (100X), Anti-Anti (100X), Natural Mouse Laminin (1 mg/ml), dbcAMP (500 mg/ml), L-Ascorbic Acid (200 µM), BDNF (20 µg/ml), and GDNF (20 µg/ml). Media was refreshed every three days. On day 25, cells were collected and stained for FACS analysis using surface markers previously described[145] to differentiate NPCs (CD184+/CD44-/CD24+), neurons (CD184-/CD44-/CD24+), and glia (CD184+/CD44+). CD271, a marker for mesenchymal stem cells, was excluded from the original panel as NPCs were pre-purified via FACS using CD133+/CD184+/CD271- markers before differentiation. A minimum of 50,000 cells per gate were acquired using a BD LSRFortessa™ Cell Analyzer at the Yale Flow Cytometry Core. Flow cytometry data were analyzed using FlowJo™ v10.10 Software (BD Life Sciences).

All statistical analyses for flow cytometry assessment were conducted using GraphPad Prism version 9.5.1 (528) for macOS (GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA). Each well was treated as an independent replicate. Differences between knockout (induced) and control (uninduced) groups were assessed by comparing the mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) of the target fluorophore using an unpaired t-test with Welch correction to account for individual group variance. Multiple comparisons were corrected using the False Discovery Rate (FDR) method with a two-stage step-up procedure (Benjamini, Krieger, and Yekutieli) at an FDR threshold of 5%.

FACS Analysis of Mitochondrial Membrane Potential and CRISPR Screen Read-out via Amplicon Sequencing

For our mitochondrial assays we used a nearly identical library (same backbone, guide density, and control set) screened exclusively in the H1 inducible Cas9 (H1-iCas9) hPSC line. Mitochondrial inner membrane potential (Δψm) was measured in H1-iCas9, following differentiation to NPCs or iGlut on day 21. Cells were harvested, counted, and aliquoted at 1×10^6 cells per sample. JC-1 dye (MitoProbe™ JC-1 Assay Kit; Invitrogen #M34152) was dissolved in DMSO at a stock concentration of 200 µM and added to each sample to achieve a final concentration of 2 µM, then incubated for 30 min at 37 °C in 5% CO_2. A 50 µM CCCP control was included to induce complete mitochondrial depolarization. After staining, cells were washed once in their respective culture medium, resuspended in FACS buffer (Invitrogen eBioscience Staining Buffer #00422226), and analyzed immediately on a Thermo Fisher "Bigfoot" spectral cell sorter using 488 nm excitation with 525/50 nm (FITC) and 585/40 nm (PE) emission filters. Debris and doublets were excluded by forward/side scatter gating, and CCCP-treated samples were used to define FITC and PE gates. Approximately 1×10^6 events per sample were recorded. Cells were then pelleted (300 × g, 5 min) and genomic DNA extracted using the Qiagen DNeasy Blood & Tissue Kit (#69504).

UMI-tagged amplicon libraries were generated in three PCR steps. In PCR-1, genomic DNA was amplified with Platinum™ II Hot-Start PCR Master Mix (Invitrogen, #14000012) and UMI-containing primers (Forward: 5′-ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTACGTGACGTAGAAAGTAATAATTT

CTTGGGT-3′; Reverse: 5′-
GTGACTGGAGTTCAGACGTGTGCTCTTCCGATCTN(25)NNNNNNNNNACTCGGTGC
CACTTTTTCAA-3′) under the following conditions: 94 °C for 2 min; 4–6 cycles of 98 °C
for 5 s, 60 °C for 15 s, 60 °C for 30 s. The resulting ~180 bp products were purified and
concentrated using the Zymo DNA Clean & Concentrator-5 kit (#D4013) and eluted in 10
µL nuclease-free water (Thermo Fisher #AM9938). In PCR-2, purified product was
amplified with adaptor primers (Forward: 5′-
ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCT-3′; Reverse: 5′-
GTGACTGGAGTTCAGACGTGTGCTCTTCCGATCT-3′) for 22 cycles under identical
cycling conditions in a ~20 µL reaction. A seven-cycle indexing PCR (PCR-3) was
performed by the sequencing facility Yale Center for Genome Analysis (YCGA) prior to
sequencing. Final libraries were sequenced on an Illumina NovaSeq platform (paired-end
150 bp, 5 million reads per sample).

Flanking sequences on both sides of each gRNA were trimmed using BBDuk, and reads
were then mapped to gRNA reference sequences and counted using MAGeCK[146]. Raw
counts for each gRNA were normalized to counts of scrambled gRNA. Abundance of each
target gene was then calculated by summing of all gRNAs targeting that gene. Log2-
transformed fold changes of gRNA-targets abundance were compared between PE-high
samples and FITC-high samples.

Immunostaining. _Cells_ were fixed with fixative solution (4 % sucrose and 4 %
paraformaldehyde prepared in Dulbecco's Phosphate Buffered Saline (DPBS)) for 10 min
at room temperature (RT). Following this, cells were washed twice with DPBS and
incubated in blocking solution (2% normal donkey serum prepared in DPBS)
supplemented with 0.1% Triton for two hours at RT. After this, cells were incubated
overnight at 4 °C in the primary antibody solution prepared in blocking solution. Cells were
washed three times with DPBS, incubated at RT in secondary antibody prepared in
blocking solution, then washed three times with DPBS. In the second wash, cells were
incubated in DBPS supplemented DAPI (Sigma,1 µg/mL) for 2 min at RT.

Antibody	Species	Vendor	Catalog #	Dilution
anti-MAP2	chicken	Invitrogen, Abcam	PA1-10005, ab5392	1:1000
anti-Nestin	rabbit	Millipore	ABD69	1:200
anti-vGLUT1	rabbit	Synaptic systems	135-303	1:200
anti-GABA	rabbit	Sigma-Aldrich	A2052	1:200
TOMM20	mouse	Santa Cruz Biotechnology	sc-17764	1:200
Total OXPHOS	n/a	Abcam	AB-317270	1:500
anti-mouse	donkey	Jackson ImmunoResearch	715-605-151	1:500
anti-rabbit	donkey	Jackson ImmunoResearch	711-545-152	1:500

anti-chicken	donkey	Jackson ImmunoResearch	715-605-150, 703-545-155	1:500

Fixed cultures were acquired using a DragonFly Confocal Dual Spinning Disk confocal,
at 60x magnification and 1.4 numerical aperture. All images were acquired with a fixed
laser intensity and exposure time across experimental conditions. Four images were
acquired per well, and 4-10 wells were acquired per experimental condition. Each well
represents a biological replicate and statistical datapoint. Therefore, each replicate
represents hundreds of μm^2 of neuronal area and tens of thousands of individual
mitochondria.

Mitochondria morphology features were determined using the Surface module of Imaris
10.2. Likewise, OXPHOS complex features were determined using the surface module of
Imaris 10.2. The Volume, Area and Sphericity features of the Surface modules were
selected for analysis. Each datapoint is the average value of thousands of mitochondria,
aggregated on a well level. A one-way ANOVA with a Šidák's multiple comparisons test
was performed on data on GraphPad Prism 10.

Seahorse XF Mito Stress Test: NPCs: H1-iCas9 NPCs were seeded into Seahorse XF24
cell-culture microplates (Agilent) at 2×10^5 cells/well 24 h before the assay. One hour prior
to measurement, growth medium was removed, leaving 50 µL per well, and replaced with
1 mL of pre-warmed Seahorse XF DMEM (Agilent) supplemented with 10 mM glucose,
0.5 mM pyruvate, and 0.5 mM glutamine. Plates were equilibrated for 1 h at 37 °C in a
non-CO_2 incubator. Immediately before the assay, the medium was replaced with 500 µL
of fresh assay buffer. Oxygen-consumption rate (OCR) was recorded on a
Seahorse XFe24 Analyzer (Agilent) using the standard Mito Stress Test. The program
consisted of three sequential injections—1.5 µM oligomycin (Sigma), 1.5 µM
carbonyl-cyanide-p-trifluoromethoxy-phenylhydrazone/FCCP (Sigma), and a mix of
0.5 µM rotenone (Sigma) + 0.5 µM antimycin A (Sigma)—separated by four measurement
phases (baseline plus post-injection 1–3). Each phase comprised three cycles of 3 min
mixing, 2 min waiting, and 3 min measurement. *iGLUTs:* As above, with the following
modifications. Day-5 iGLUTs were plated at 1.65×10^5 cells/well in XF24 microplates and
cultured to day 21. The assay followed the same sequence described for NPCs, except
that the assay buffer contained 25 mM glucose and 0.23 mM.

CRISPR organoid assays: H1-hESC-iCas9 cells were transduced with a pooled gRNA
library containing four gRNAs per target gene, with 20% of the library comprising non-
targeting gRNAs. Following selection with 1 µg/mL puromycin, the established cell line
was used to generate cortical organoids following a well-established protocol[147] with slight
modifications. In brief, embryoid bodies (EBs) were generated using AggreWell plates
(Stemcell Technologies) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Once formed, EBs
were transferred to ultralow-attachment 10 cm plates (Corning) for further culture.
Patterning was initiated using StemFlex base media (A3349401, Gibco) supplemented
with 100 nM LDN193189 (x) and 10 µM SB431542 (x). The media was refreshed daily.
Organoids were cultured on an orbital shaker at 53 rpm for the duration of the protocol.
On Day 6, the patterning media was replaced with growth media; Neurobasal A medium
(10888022, Gibco), 1× GlutaMAX (35050061, Gibco), and 1× B27 (12587010, Gibco),
supplemented with 20 ng/mL FGF (PeproTech) and 20 ng/mL EGF (PeproTech). On Day

14, Cas9 expression was induced by treating the organoids with 2 μg/mL doxycycline (Sigma-Aldrich) for 72 hours. From Day 25, FGF and EGF were replaced with 20 ng/mL BDNF (PeproTech) and 20 ng/mL NT-3 (PeproTech). Media changes were performed every other day. Starting from Day 42, organoids were maintained in growth media without additional supplements. Media was refreshed 2–3 times per week.

The organoids were maintained in culture for ~80 days, at which point five organoids from three biological replicates were collected for DNA extraction using the DNeasy Blood & Tissue Kit (#69504, Qiagen). Extracted DNA was subjected to PCR amplicon sequencing with unique molecular identifiers (UMIs) using a three-step PCR protocol. In the first step (PCR-1), UMI-containing primers (5'-ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTACGTGACGTAGAAAGTAATAATTTCTTGGGT-3') and (5'-GTGACTGGAGTTCAGACGTGTGCTCTTCCGATCTN(25252525)NNNNNNNNNACTCGGTGCCACTTTTTCAA-3') were used for 4 cycles. PCR-2 utilized adaptor primers (5'-ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCT-3') and (5'-GTGACTGGAGTTCAGACGTGTGCTCTTCCGATCT-3') for 22 cycles. PCR-3, performed by the sequencing facility, added sample-specific indexing in 7 additional cycles. The prepared libraries were sequenced on a NovaSeq platform with paired-end 150 bp reads, generating 10 million reads per sample at the Yale Center for Genomic Analysis (YCGA).

Fragments amplified by PCR were sequenced on NovaSeq 6000 sequencer pair end at 150bp with ~10 million reads per sample. Flanking sequence on both side of gRNAs were trimmed using BBDuk, and reads were then mapped to gRNA reference sequences and counted using MAGeCK package[146]. Raw counts for each gRNA were normalized to counts of scrambled gRNA. Abundance of each gRNA-target genes were then calculated by sum of all gRNAs targeting that gene after excluding gRNAs with low KO-efficiency (<5%) (**SI Fig. 5Ci**). Average Log2-transformed fold change of gRNA-targets abundance were compared between doxycycline-induced versus uninduced samples on day 77 samples.

Analysis of single-cell CRISPRko screens in NPCs, DIV 7, DIV 21 iGLUTs and DIV 36 iGABAs. mRNA sequencing reads were mapped to the GRCh38 reference genome using the *Cellranger* Software. To generate count matrices for GDO (gRNA) libraries, the kallisto indexing and tag extraction (kite) workflow were used. Count matrices were used as input into the R/*Seurat* package[148] to perform downstream analyses, including QC, normalization, cell clustering, GDO demultiplexing, and covariate regression[71,149].

Normalization and downstream analysis of RNA data were performed using the Seurat R package (v.5.1.0), which enables the integrated processing of multimodal single-cell datasets. CRISPR-screen experiments in each cell-type were processed independently. Within each cell-type, ~100-80,000 cells were sequenced across 4 lanes. gRNA and RNA UMI feature counts were filtered removing the top and bottom decile of cells based on distribution of counts in each cell-type. The percentage of all the counts belonging to the mitochondrial, ribosomal, and hemoglobin genes calculated using Seurat::PercentageFeatureSet were filtered with cell-type specific thresholds, given the relatively high proportion of mitochondrial genes expressed in neurons. Mitochondrial, ribosomal, and hemoglobin genes as well as MALAT1 were removed

(^RP[SL][[:digit:]]|^RPLP[[:digit:]]|^RPSA|^HB[AEGQ][[:digit:]]|^HB[ABDMQ]|^MT-
|^MALAT1$). Lowly expressed genes, those that had at fewer than 2 read counts in 90%
of samples were also removed. Hashtag and guide-tag raw counts were normalized using
centered log ratio transformation, where counts were divided by the geometric mean of
the corresponding tag across cells and log-transformed. gRNA demultiplexing was
performed using the Seurat::MULTIseqDemux function for each lane individually and then
counts were merged across lanes (**SI Fig. 3B**). In NPCs, 94,363 cells were retained after
filtering and removal of negatively assigned cells with 62,7% classified as doublets and
37.3% classified as singlets. In DIV7 and DIV21 iGLUTs, 57,685 and 31,473 cell were
retained with 34% and 9.8% doublets and 66% and 90.2% singlets respectively. In DIV35
iGABAs, 64,462 cells were retained with 48.3% doublets and 51.7% singlets. For all
downstream analysis only cells with "singlet" gRNA classification were used (26,549-
38,097 cells per experiment) (**SI Fig. 4C-E**). Number of singlet cells by gRNA per cell-
type shown in **SI Fig. 5AB**.

Cell-type specific population heterogeneity correction. Gene-expression based clustering
was largely driven by cellular heterogeneity, cell quality, and sequencing lane effects. We
found that gRNA identity was not correlated with these covariates and thus sought to
remove transcriptomic variability to analyze the data as a more homogenous cell
population (**SI Fig. 6-7**). To adjust for cellular heterogeneity driving clustering within a cell
population we developed maturity and cellular subtype scores across both perturbed and
non-perturbed cells. First, variation related to cell-cycle phase of individual cells was
accounted for by assigning cell cycle scores using Seurat::CellCycleScoring which uses
a list of cell cycle markers[150] to segregate by markers of G2/M phase and markers of S
phase. Second, to address variance due to cellular heterogeneity within a single
experiment, we adapted the method applied by Seurat::CellCycleScoring to calculate a
"Maturity. Score" and "Subtype.Score" for each cell based on cellular subtype (more
variable in mature GABAergic neurons) and developmental time-point specific markers
(mora variable in NPCs and immature iGLUTs) (**SI Table 2**). Cells with outlier maturity
scores and subtype scores were removed from downstream analyses. RNA UMI count
data were then normalized, log-transformed and the percent mitochondrial, hemoglobulin,
and ribosomal genes (markers of cell quality), lane, cell cycle scores (Phase), and
maturity scores regressed out using Seurat::SCTransform. The scaled residuals of this
model represent a 'corrected' expression matrix, that was used for all downstream
analyses.

Although demultiplexing assigned the correct guide identity to each cell, to remove "false
positives" whereby gRNAs were assigned but gene expression was unperturbed, the
transcriptomes of gRNA clusters were evaluated relative to scramble gRNAs, ensuring
that cells assigned to a guide-tag identity class demonstrated successful perturbation of
the targeted NDD gene. To remove subsequent "false negatives", whereby a successful
CRISPR-KO may not result in significant down-regulation of the targeted gene[71] yet still
achieve an overall transcriptomic profile distinct from scramble populations, we performed
'weighted-nearest neighbor' (WNN) analysis to assign clusters based on both guide-tag
identity class and gene expression[72]. To identify successfully perturbed cells, the
transcriptomes of gRNA clusters were compared to Scramble-gRNA control clusters by
differential gene expression analysis (Wilcoxon Rank Sum) comparing each cluster to all
other clusters. Non-targeting WNN clusters and KO gRNA WNN clusters were filtered by

setting a quantile base average expression threshold of target genes based on the
distribution of target gene average expression across all other clusters. Clusters were the
collapsed by gRNA identity; gRNAs with less than 75 cells were removed from analysis.
These cells were then used for downstream differential gene-expression analyses[151]. For
each cell-type individually, single-cell gene expression matrices were PseudoBulked
using scuttle::aggregateAcrossCells function across lanes (4 pseudo-bulk samples per
perturbation), lowly-expressed genes were removed (leaving 18-22,000 genes) followed
by edgeR/limma differential gene expression analysis. Concordance between Wilcox-
rank sum differential gene expression analysis using single-cell data and limma:voom
using PseudoBulked data was assessed for each gene (**SI Fig. 6**).

In order to validate whether the high correlation within cell type was mainly due to exactly
the same scramble control cells, we re-performed DEGs using random selection of subset
of scramble cells for each cell type (**SI Fig. 8**). Briefly, for each gene, 50% (if number of
pseudobulked sample cells > 50) or 80% (if number of pseudobulked sample cells < 50)
of scramble cells were randomly selected using sample function from R. DEGs were then
performed as described above using limma/dreamlet package between KOs and subset
of scrambles different among genes. The process was repeated three times to avoid
random selection bias and median of each gene logFC was used as the final logFC.
Average overlap of random scramble cells across different genes is approximately 50%.

Meta-analysis of gene expression across perturbations[73]. Across NDD KOs, DEGs were
meta-analyzed (METAL[152]), and "convergent" genes were defined as those with
significant and shared direction of effect across all NDD gene perturbations and with non-
significant heterogeneity (FDR adjusted $p_{meta}<0.05$, Cochran's heterogeneity Q-test p_{Het}
> 0.05). To test convergence between NDD-KOs, meta-analyses were performed across
all possible combinations of 2-5 KO perturbations with and without sub-setting for those
shared across cell types (>40,000 combinations across cell-types) (**SI Fig 15C, SI Data
1**).

Bayesian Bi-clustering to identify Convergent Networks[73]. Across NDD KOs, convergent
networks were generated by Bayesian bi-clustering[153] and undirected gene co-
expression network reconstruction from the NDD KOs. Not constrained by statistical cut-
offs, and able to capture the effect of more lowly expressed genes, convergent networks
may be a more sensitive measure of convergence. Networks were built based on bi-
clustering (BicMix)[154] using log2CPM expression data from all the replicates across each
of the NDD gene sets and Scramble gRNA jointly. We performed 40 runs of BicMix on
these data and the output from iteration 400 of the variational Expectation-Maximization
algorithm was used. Target Specific Network reconstruction[155] was performed to identify
convergent networks across all possible combinations of the 9 NDD gene KO
perturbations shared across cell-types (n=502 combinations/cell-type) and randomly
sampled combinations of 2-21 KO perturbations without sub-setting for those shared
across cell types (n=1400-2300 combinations) (**SI Fig 15C**).

Influence of Functional Similarity on Convergence Degree. To test the influence of
functional similarity and brain co-expression between KOs on convergence and compare
the degree of convergence between the same KOs in different cell-types we established
two methods for defining and measuring convergence. First, gene-level convergence
using meta-analysis as described above, with the strength of convergence for each set

defined as ratio of convergent genes to the average number of DEGs.

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$$gene\ level\ convergence = \frac{nConvergent\ Genes}{mean(\sum_1^N\ nDEGs)}$$

Second, network-level convergence based on undirected network reconstruction from
Bayesian bi-clustering as described above. Bi-clustering identifies co-expressed genes
shared across the downstream transcriptomic impacts of any given set of KO
perturbations, thus, the resolved networks are the transcriptomic similarities between
distinct perturbations (convergence). We calculated the "degree of convergence" for each
network based on previously described metric[73]. Briefly, convergence scores are based
on (1) network connectivity as defined by the sum of the clustering coefficient (Cp) and
the difference in average length path (Lp) from the maximum average length path
resolved across all possible sets [(max)Lp-Lp] and (2) similarity of network genes based
on biological pathway membership scored by taking the sum of the mean semantic
similarity scores [156] between all genes in the network and (3) minimum percent duplication
rate across 40 runs. Duplication thresholds are network-dependent and a metric of
confidence in the connections.

$network\ level\ convergence$

$$= Cp + [(Lp) - Lp] + mean\left(\sum_1^N\ MFsemsim + BPsemsim + CCsemsim\right)$$

$$+ nDuplication\ runs/nTotal\ Runs$$

Functionally similarity scores across the NDD KO genes represented in each set was
calculated using (1) Gene Ontology Semantic Similarity Scores: the average semantic
similarity score based on Gene Ontology pathway membership within Biological Pathway
(BP), Cellular Component (CC), and Molecular Function (MF) (**SI Fig. 1D**) between NDD
genes in a set[156] and (2) brain expression correlation (BEC) score: based on the strength
of the correlation in NDD gene expression in the CMC (n=991 after QC) post-mortem
dorsa-lateral pre-frontal cortex (DLPFC) gene expression data,.

We performed Pearson's correlation analysis (Holm's adjusted P) on similarity scores and
the degree of network convergence to determine the influence of the similarity of the initial
KO genes on downstream convergence. We compared the average strength of
convergence across cell-types using a parametric Welch's F-test and pairwise Games-
Howell test.

Enrichment analysis of convergence for risk loci using MAGMA. We intersected cross
cell-type perturbation specific and cross perturbation cell-type-specific gene-level
convergence with genetic risk of eleven psychiatric and neurological disorders/traits
[attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder (ADHD)[157], anorexia nervosa (AN)[158], autism
spectrum disorder (ASD)[2], alcohol dependence (AUD)[159], bipolar disorder (BIP)[160],
cannabis use disorder (CUD)[161], major depressive disorder (MDD)[162], obsessive-
compulsive disorder (OCD)[163], post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD)[164], and
schizophrenia (SCZ)[165], Cross Disorder (CxD)[166], Alzheimer disease (AD)[167], Parkinson
disease (PD)[168], amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS)[169], Tourette's[170], migraine[171], chronic
pain[172], and neurotic personality traits[173] GWAS summary statistics] using multi-marker
analysis of genomic annotation (MAGMA)[65]. SNPs were mapped to genes based on the

corresponding build files for each GWAS summary dataset using the default method, snp-
wise = mean (a test of the mean SNP association). A competitive gene set analysis was
then used to test enrichment in genetic risk for a disorder across gene sets with an
FDR<0.05.

Over-representation analysis, functional enrichment annotation, and biological theme
comparison. To identify pathway enrichments unique to individual KOs, we performed
biological theme comparison and GSEA using ClusterProfiler[174]. Using FUMAGWAS:
GENE2FUNC, the 102 ASD genes were functionally annotated and overrepresentation
gene-set analysis for each convergent gene set was performed[175]. Using WebGestalt
(WEB-based Gene SeT AnaLysis Toolkit)[176], over-representation analysis (ORA) was
performed on all convergent gene sets against publicly available genset lists
GeneOntology, KEGG, DisGenNet and a curated gene list of rare-variant targets
associated with ASD,SCZ, and ID[67].

Random forest prediction model of convergence strength. To determine how well
functional similarity between KOs can predict gene-level and network-level convergence
we trained a random forest model[77] (randomForest package in R) for each type of
convergence, evaluated the model in an independent internal dataset, and validated the
model in an external CRISPRa activation screen[73]. Data from randomly tested gene
combinations (2-5 KO sets at the gene level and 2-10 KO sets at the network level) tested
across cell-types were randomly down-sampled into a training set (70%) and testing set
(30%) – all with comparable proportions of data by cell-type (**SI Fig. 15**). The random
forest model was trained with bootstrap aggregation using C.C, M.F, B.P semantic
similarity scores, brain expression correlation, number of genes, and cell-type as
predictors. The Random Forest linear regression model was evaluated in the testing data
by comparing actual values to predicted values, estimating the root mean squared error
and performing Pearson's correlations. Predictor models were validated using an external
dataset of 10 CRISPR-activation perturbations of SCZ common variant target genes with
multifunctional annotations broadly grouped as signaling/cell communication (*CALN1,*
NAGA, FES, CLCN3, PLCL1) and epigenetic/regulatory (*SF3B1, TMEM219, UBE2Q2L,*
ZNF804A, ZNF823)[73], and assessed based the root mean squared error and Pearson's
correlation between actual and predicted convergence strength.

Behavioral phenotyping of NDD knockouts in zebrafish

We performed automated, high-throughput, quantitative behavioral profiling of larval
zebrafish to measure arousal and sensorimotor processing as a readout of circuit-level
deficits resulting from gene perturbation[60]. We quantified 24 parameters across sleep-
wake activity and visual-startle responses in 15 stable homozygous or F0 CRISPant KO
lines. Stable zebrafish line (*ARID1B, ASH1L, CHD8, KDM5B, KMT2C, KMT5B, NRXN1*)
s were previously generated[60,177]; new CRISPant mutants (*CHD2, KDM6B, MBD5,*
PHF12, PHF21A, SKI, SMARCC2, WAC) were generated according to[178]. We identified
unique behavioral fingerprints for each NDD gene mutant, revealing convergent and
divergent phenotypes across mutants. To classify convergent behavioral subgroups that
may share circuit-level functions, we performed correlation analyses across mutants. We
identified four distinct subgroups of NDD genes with highly correlated behavioral features
(**Fig. 6B**).

Zebrafish larvae were raised at 28°C on a 14:10 hour light:dark cycle. Larvae were grown
in 150 mm Petri dishes in blue water (0.3g/L Instant Ocean, 1 mg/L methylene blue, pH
7.0) at a density of 60-80 larvae per dish. Behavioral assays were conducted in zebrafish
larvae at 5-7 dpf. At these developmental stages, sex is not yet determined.

Larvae were placed into individual wells of a 96 well plate containing 650 mL of standard
embryo water per well within a Zebrabox. Locomotion was quantified with automated
video-tracking system. The visual-startle assay was conducted at 5 days post fertilization
(dpf). To assess larval responses to lights-off stimuli (VSR-OFF), larvae were acclimated
to white light for 1 hour, and baseline activity was tracked for 30 minutes followed by five
1-second dark flashes with intermittent white light for 29 seconds. To evaluate larval
responsivity to lights-on stimuli (VSR-ON), the assay was revered, where larvae were
acclimated to darkness for 1 hour, and baseline activity was tracked for 30 minutes
followed by five 1-second white light flashes with intermittent darkness for 29 seconds.
For VSR-OFF and VSR-ON, six behavioral parameters were quantified using custom
MATLAB code[60]: (i) average intensity of all startle responses, (ii) average post-stimulus
activity (iii) average activity after first stimulus, (iv) stimulus versus post-stimulus activity,
(v) intensity of responses to the first stimulus, (vi) intensity of responses to the final
stimulus. The sleep-wake paradigm was executed between 5-7 dpf, following VSR-OFF
and VSR-ON assays. During a 14h:10h white light:darkness cycle, larvae activity and
sleep patterns were tracked within the Zebrabox and analyzed with custom MATLAB
code[60]. Six behavioral parameters were quantified for daytime and nighttime: (i) total
activity, (ii) total sleep, (iii) waking activity (iv) rest bouts (v) sleep length (vi) sleep latency.
Across VSR-OFF, VSR-ON, and sleep-wake assays, we analyzed 24 parameters.

Linear mixed models (LMM) were used to compare phenotypes of each behavioral
parameter between homozygous mutant versus wild-type or CRISPant versus scramble-
injected fish for each gene of interest. Variations of behavioral phenotypes across
experiments were accounted for by including the date of the experiment as a random
effect in LMM. Hierarchical clustering analysis was performed to cluster mutants and
behavioral parameters based on signed -log10-transformed p-values from LMM, where
sign indicates direction of the difference in behavioral phenotype when comparing stable
mutant to wild-type or CRISPant to scrambled-injected. Pearson correlation analysis was
used to assess correlations between mutants based on the difference in the 24
parameters. Difference was evaluated using signed -log10-transformed p-values.

Drug screen for behavioral phenotyping in zebrafish

>500 drugs and small molecules were screened for behavioral effects in zebrafish;
behavioral phenotyping of 24 parameters across sleep-wake activity and visual-startle
responses were performed and analyzed as above. Drug and NDD KO-related behavioral
phenotypes were compared using Pearson's correlation analysis to identify to correlating
and anti-correlating drugs (i.e. drugs that reversed behavioral signatures of NDD KOs)
(**SI Data 2**).

Drug prioritization based on perturbation signature reversal in LiNCs Neuronal Cell Lines.
To identify drugs that could reverse cell-type specific convergence across different KOs,
we used the Query tool from The Broad Institute's Connectivity Map (Cmap) Server[76].
Briefly, the tool computes weighted enrichment scores (WTCS) between the query set

and each signature in the Cmap LiNCs gene expression data (dose, time, drug, cell-line), normalizes the WTCS by dividing by the signed mean within each perturbation (NCS), and computes FDR as fraction of "null signatures" (DMSO) where the absolute NCS exceeds reference signature. We prioritized drugs that were negatively enriched for convergent signatures specifically in neuronal cells (either neurons (NEU) or neural progenitor cells (NPCs) with NCS <= -1.00, FDR<=0.05) and filtered for drugs that had clinical data in humans and paired behavioral phenotyping in zebrafish (**SI Data 2**).

STATEMENT OF ETHICS

Yale University Institutional Review Board waived ethical approval for this work. Ethical approval was not required because the hiPSC lines, lacking association with any identifying information and widely accessible from a public repository, are thus not considered to be human subject research. Post-mortem brain data are similarly lacking identifiable information and are not considered human subject research.

All procedures involving zebrafish were conducted in accordance with Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC; Protocol #2024-20054) regulatory standards at Yale University.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

MFG designed and executed the NDD gene ECCITEseq in iNPCs, iGLUTs, and iGABAs, with technical assistance from SC, OL, and JC and support from PJMD. KRT conducted all bioinformatic analyses and generated all figures, with technical assistance from AS. Arrayed KO lines and neuronal cultures were generated, validated, phenotyped, and analyzed by NB. NB, T-CH, CB, ALTS, and JL conducted mitochondrial phenotypic analyses. SBT, AP, ED, YD, SEF, and SK, generated, phenotyped, and analyzed zebrafish mutants with technical assistance from GD and bioinformatic supervision from ZW. JW, RM, ZC, and MG conducted LNCTP analyses. Funding and mentorship provided

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1062

1063 INCLUSION AND DIVERSITY

One or more of the authors of this paper self-identifies as an under-represented ethnic
minority in their field of research or within their geographical location. One or more of the
authors of this paper self-identifies as living with a disability. One or more of the authors
of this paper self-identifies as a gender minority in their field of research. One or more of
the authors of this paper self-identifies as a member of the LGBTQIA+ community. One
or more of the authors of this paper received support from a program designed to increase
minority representation in their field of research.
1071

1072 DATA AVAILABILITY

All source donor hiPSCs have been deposited at the Rutgers University Cell and DNA
Repository (study 160; http://www.nimhstemcells.org/).

sc-RNA sequencing data reported in this paper will be uploaded to Gene expression
omnibus (GEO) prior to publication. Previously published SCZ-CRISPRa screen datasets
that were used for external validation of random forest models are available on the GEO
(GSE200774) and on Synapse (syn27819129).

1079

1080 CODE AVAILABILITY

1081 The full analysis pipeline (including code and processed data objects) used for analysis
1082 of single-cell CRISPR-KO data, evaluation and characterization of gene-level and
1083 network level convergence, and predictive modeling using random forest will be publicly
1084 available through Synpase prior to publication.

1085

Custom MATLAB software developed by the Hoffman Lab to analyze visual-startle
response parameters is available on github
at https://github.com/ehoffmanlab/Weinschutz-Mendes-et-al-2023-
behavior; https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7644898. Custom MATLAB sofyware
developed by Jason Rihel to analyze sleep-wake assays is available on github
at https://github.com/JRihel/Sleep-Analysis/tree/ Sleep-Analysis-
Code; https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7644073.

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TABLES

Table 1. Disorder and behavioral associations of top convergent up and down-regulated genes by cell-type from MalaCards, OMIM, and GWAS catalogue.

Cell-type	Top Meta Gene	Meta P	Z-score	Rare Disorders *MalaCards*	GWAS and behavioral associations *GWAS Catalog*
iNPCs	AGAP4	1.2e-14	7.71		
	CYTL1	7.8e-9	-5.77	Muscular Trophy (AD)	T1D, UC, CD, T2D, psoriasis, celiac, autoimmune disease, thyroid disease, ankylosing spondylitis
immature iGLUTs	MBD2	1.2e-15	8.01	Cerebellar Ataxia, Deafness, Narcolepsy (AD), Breast Cancer	Allergic disease, psoriasis, neuroticism, hoarding disorder, executive function measurement, memory function
	SHOX	2.9e-13	-7.30	Turner Syndrome, Dysplasia	
mature iGLUTs	MAP3K14	6.2e-36	12.52	Immunodeficiency (AR; X-linked), Ectodermal Dysplasia, Noonan Syndrome	PD, neuroticism, neuroimaging, unipolar depression, mood disorder, anxiety, cognitive function, MS, asthma, allergic disease,
	JMY	2.4e-44	-13.97	Galloway Mowat Syndrome (AR; X-linked)	T2D
mature iGABAs	GPR83	1.3e-17	-8.54		testosterone measurement, free androgen index, age at menarche, anxiety like-behaviors
	UBE2D4	3.9e-21	9.44	Brachydactyly (AD)	
Autosomal dominant (AD), Autosomal recessive (AR), Parkinson's disease (PD), multiple sclerosis (MS), ulcerative colitis (UC), type-I diabetes (T1D), type-2 diabetes (T2D), Crohn's disease (CD)					

Table 2. Disorder and behavioral associations of top nodes by cell-type from MalaCards, OMIM, and GWAS catalogue.

Cell-type	Top protein-coding nodes across all networks	Rare disorders *MalaCards*	GWAS and behavioral associations *GWAS Catalog*
iNPCs	KIAA2012		ADHD/conduct disorder (rs1521882), educational attainment (rs12623702, rs4675248, rs2160317, rs2177083, rs34189321,rs58100125), migraine/T2D (rs6748072), amygdala volume (rs72936662)
immature iGLUTs	MYH15	Deafness (AR); de novo SCZ CNV	Social interaction measurement (rs13082569), cognitive function (rs3860537), unipolar depression (rs1531188), MDD (rs113689582), insomnia (rs62266174, rs6768511, rs6786515, rs6795280), BIP (rs1531188), ANX (rs4855559), educational attainment (rs115910830, rs2290601, rs3860537, rs60785803)
mature iGLUTs	GALNTL5	ASD, Spastic paraplegia 48 (AR)	
mature iGABAs	EREG	Epilepsy, Immune Deficiency Disease	ADHD (rs1350666), wellbeing measurement (rs112444088), learning & memory (pathway)
Autosomal recessive (AR), Anxiety disorder (ANX), Bipolar Disorder (BIP), Type-2 diabetes (T2D)			

1598 **Table 3**. Convergent nodes that overlap with CNV and rare variant target genes for
1599 each cell-type.

Celltype	Rare variant gene targets for ASD, SCZ, BIP, ID, and Epilepsy
iNPCs	*AATK, DLC1, PAK6*
immature iGLUTs	*ACMSD, HCST, MYH15, PAH, RSPO1, SFTPC, SH3RF2, SLC28A2, SNAI2, ACOT6, CSPG4, PYCARD, SLC5A7, SULT1B1, TBXA2R, TEKT5 ,TEX15, ARG1, ASB14, CACNA1D, OPLAH, GRM4, KCNT1, FKBP6, NPAP1, OCA2, ATP10A*
mature iGLUTs	*S100G, TRIM50, FOLR1, COX7B2, KIF23*
mature iGABAs	*CHRND, RETN, PAX6, RIMBP3, SPDYE5, TSKS*

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1601 **Table 4**. Disorder and behavioral associations of top nodes by cell-type and behavioral
1602 set from MalaCards, OMIM, and GWAS catalogue.

Cell type		Top Node	Gene name	Meta P	Z-score	Rare Disorders	GWAS
Mature iGLUT		CNBP	Sterol-mediated transcriptional repression	2.9e-16	8.18	Myotonic Dystrophy, Neuromyotonia & axonal neuropathy (AR), Creutzfeldt-Jakob Disease, Deafness (AR), Fragile-X tremor/ataxia, ALS	
	1	ANKRD36		1.95e-18	8.8		
		FOXJ3		1.7e-17	8.5		
	2	ATP6V0C		5.3e-44	-13.9	ASD, Epilepsy, NDD	
		FOXJ3	Gene expression regulation/chromatin	1.9e-19	9.02		EA (rs35011283)
	3	SOX12	Implicated in cell fate decisions during development	1.6e-17	-8.52	Microphtalmia Syndromic 12 (neurological)	Memory performance (rs78532272)
	4	FOXJ3		7.9e-22	9.6		
		ANKRD36	Ankyrin Repeat Domain 36	6.6-e26	-10.5	Neuropathy, Giant Axonal Nonsyndromic Deafness (AR)	SCZ (rs9631085), neuroimaging (rs11692435, rs167684, +6)
Mature iGABA	1	UBE2D4	Ubiquitin-Conjugating Enzyme E2 D4	1.2e-09	6.1		
		PRKAG2	Protein Kinase AMP-Activated Non-Catalytic Subunit	6.7e-7	-4.97	Wolff-Parkinson-White Syndrome, Neuromuscular Disease, Specific Language Impairment, Microencephaly, Epilepsy	EA (rs1860735, rs2538046, rs4726070), ASD/SCZ (rs115136442), impulse control (rs2302532), BIP (rs7795096), memory (rs2536058)
	2	MYL3	BBB & immune cell trasnmigration	4e-12	6.9	Wolff-Parkinson-White Syndrome, Microencephaly, Epiliepsy	
		TNFSF11		3.6e-10	-6.3	ID, NDD, developmental & epileptic encephalopathy, IBS,	
	3	KIF1A	Axonal Transporter Of Synaptic Vesicles	8.8e-12	6.8	ID, ASD, neuropathy, Epilepsy, Spastic Ataxia, Cortical Dysplasia, Alacrima, Achalasia, and Impaired ID Syndrome	Insomnia (rs10196604,rs4455151)
		UNC5C	Netrin Receptor	3.98e-8	-5.5	Alzheimer Disease, Familial 1	Insomnia (rs371745379), wellbeing (rs116984513), OCD (rs17384439), cognition (rs3846455), unipolar depression (rs6822806)
	4	UBE2D4		8.5e-13	7.2		
		UBC		1.7e-10	-6.4	Parkinson's disease, epilepsy, muscular dystrophy	Sleep duration (rs10773112), AD (rs78184510),

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Figure 1. Knock-out (KO) effects of 21 NDD risk genes are most strongly correlated in mature neurons. (A) List of rare-variant target risk genes associated neurodevelopmental disorders (NDD) separated by chromatin modifiers and neuronal communication genes. Bold gene names indicate strong associations with ASD based on Fu et al. 2022. Gene targets of rare variants associated with schizophrenia (SCZ), epilepsy (EPI) and bipolar disorder (BIP) are annotated. **(B)** Strength of association with ASD, as estimated by distribution of posterior probability (p.p.) scores from Fu et al. 2022; 4 out of 29 NDD genes were more strongly associated with developmental delay (DD) (blue; p.p.<=0.1) while 16 out of 29 were more strongly associated with ASD (red; p.p.>=0.9). Further annotation of individual risk genes are shown in **SI Figures 1-2**. **(C)** MAGMA enrichments of targeted genes across GWAS for anorexia nervosa (AN), chronic pain, amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS), SCZ, and BIP, BIP-I (bipolar subtype 1), and BIP-II (bipolar subtype 2). #nominal p-value<0.05, *FDR<0.05, **FDR<0.01, *FDR<0.001 **(D)** Schematic of hiPSC-derived cell-type specific scCRISPR-KO screen. Representative immunofluorescence for markers of NPCs (DAPI/Nestin), mature iGLUTs (DAPI/MAP2/vGLUT), and mature iGABAs (DAPI/MAP2/GABA). **(E)** Transcriptomic impact of NDD gene KO represented as the number of nominally significant (p<0.01) differentially expressed genes (DEGs). **(i)** Pearson's correlation matrix of log2FC DEGs

1635   across all NDDs and cell-types. **(ii)** Cross cell-type correlation network diagram across
1636   NDD perturbations (number of NDD gene knockout (KO) perturbations resolved indicated
1637   in parentheses); note that the mature iGLUT cluster is the most dense and the iNPCs
1638   most sparse.

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Figure 2. Gene-level convergence is greatest in mature glutamatergic neurons. In
total, nine NDD genes showed evidence of knockout across all four cell types: *ARID1B,
ASH1L, CHD2, MED13L, NRXN1, PHF21A, SETD5, SIN3A, SMARCC2*. For these nine,
"convergent genes" are defined as those differentially expressed genes (DEGs) with
significant and shared direction of effect across all NDD gene perturbations. **(A)**
Schematic explaining cell-type specific convergence at the individual gene level via
differential gene expression meta-analysis (FDR adjusted $p_{meta}<0.05$, Cochran's
heterogeneity Q-test $p_{Het} > 0.05$). **(B)** Convergence across 9 NDD genes is unique to
each cell type, using rank-rank hypergeometric (RRHO) test to explore correlation of
convergent genes shared across 9 NDD perturbations (RRHO score = -log10*direction of
effect) between cell-types. The top right quadrant represents down-regulated genes
(meta-analysis z-score >0) for the y-axis and x-axis cell-type. The bottom left quadrant
represents up-regulated convergent genes (meta-analysis z-score <0) for the y-axis and
x-axis cell-type. Significance is represented by color, with red regions representing
significantly convergent gene expression. **(C) (i)** The average strength of convergence,
measured as the ratio of convergent genes to the average number of DEGs across all
152 unique combinations of 2-5 genes from the nine NDD genes, was highest in iGLUTs.
(ii) The magnitude of convergence between the same NDDs tested in different cell types
was highly correlated (Pearson's correlation, $P_{holm}<2.2e-16$); with the strongest
relationship between immature and mature iGLUTs. **(D)** Venn diagram representing the
absolute overlap (regardless of direction of dysregulation) of cell-type specific convergent

genes shared across 9 NDDs. **(E) (i)** MAGMA enrichment –log10(p-value) of cell-type-
specific (color of points) convergence and GWAS-risk associated genes with significance
after multiple testing correction indicated as follows: #unadjusted p-value=<0.05,
*FDR<=0.05, **FDR<0.01, ***FDR<0.001. The direction of the triangles indicates a
positive (upwards triangle) or negative (downwards triangle) enrichment beta. **(ii)** Over-
representation analysis (ORA) enrichment ratios of cell-type-specific (color of bars)
convergence and rare variant target genes. Significance after multiple testing correction
indicated as follows: #unadjusted p-value=<0.05, *FDR<=0.05, **FDR<0.01,
***FDR<0.001. **(F)** Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) identified downstream
pathways involved in neural proliferation, neurite outgrowth, synaptic vesicle transport,
and mitochondrial function as cell-type specific targets of convergent genes across 9
NDDs. Results were filtered for pathways with nominal p-values <0.05. Normalized GSEA
enrichment scores represent the direction of enrichment based on the meta-analyzed Z-
score for each convergent gene. Cell-type is represented by shape and the size of each
point represents the –log10(FDR).

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Figure 3. Network-convergence resolves cell-type-specific and developmental-specific node genes. "Convergent networks" are co-expressed genes that share similar expression patterns across NDD gene perturbations, here resolved for the nine NDD knockouts resolved across all four cell types: *ARID1B, ASH1L, CHD2, MED13L, NRXN1, PHF21A, SETD5, SIN3A, SMARCC2*. **(A)** Schematic explaining cell-type specific convergence at the network level using Bayesian bi-clustering and unsupervised network reconstruction. **(B)** Strength of network convergence across all random combinations of 9 NDD KO perturbations by cell-type. **(i)** The mean strength of network convergence is significantly different by cell-type, with the highest convergence present in immature iGLUTs. The same KO combinations tested in one cell type may not resolve convergence in another cell type. Each point represents a resolved network, and its calculated convergence strength. Dots that represent the same combinations of KO perturbations, but tested in each cell type, are connected by a line. **(C)** Convergent network strength was most correlated between mature iGLUTs and iGABAs (Pearson's Correlation Coefficient (PCC) = 0.6, P_{Holm} <2.2e-16). Convergent network strength in iNPCs was not correlated with network strength in neurons. **(D)** Venn diagrams of the total number of

unique node genes within convergent networks for each cell-type. The lack of overlapping node genes between cell types **(D),** as well as the weak correlations of convergence strength between immature and mature cell-types **(C),** suggest greater cell-type specificity in the magnitude of network-level convergence compared to gene-level convergence. **(E)** Enrichment ratios from over-representation analysis (ORA) of cell-type specific (color of bars) convergent node genes for rare variant targets. (#unadjusted p-value=<0.05, *FDR<=0.05, **FDR<0.01, ***FDR<0.001). **(F, G)** Representative cell-type specific network plots for convergence across 15 genes (*ARID1B, ASH1L, ASXL3, BCL11A, KDM5B, CHD2, MBD5, MED13L, NRXN1, PHF12, PHF21A, SETD5, SIN3A, SKI, SMARRC2)* from **(F)** iNPCs and **(G)** mature iGLUTs. Network genes were filtered for protein-coding genes, clustered, and annotated based on the primary node gene for each cluster. Gene set enrichment analysis of the networks identified unique functions – with convergence in iNPCs affecting semaphorin-plexin signaling and pathways involved in cellular proliferation and migration during development while convergence in mature iGLUTs was enriched for sensory reception, immune response, and tryptophan metabolism.

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Figure 4. NDD knock-outs converge on mitochondrial function. (**A**) Gene set
enrichment analysis (GSEA) identified downstream pathways involved in neurogenesis,
neurite outgrowth, synaptic biology, and mitochondrial function as cell-type specific
targets of convergent genes across 15 NDD KOs (*ARID1B, ASH1L, ASXL3, BCL11A,*
KDM5B, CHD2, MBD5, MED13L, NRXN1, PHF12, PHF21A, SETD5, SIN3A, SKI,
SMARRC2) in iNPCs and mature iGLUTs. Results were filtered for pathways with nominal

p-values <0.05. Normalized GSEA enrichment scores represent the direction of
enrichment based on the meta-analyzed Z-score for each convergent gene. Cell-type is
represented by shape and the size of each point represents the –log10(FDR). (**B**)
Summary of network and gene-level pathway enrichments (from **Fig. 2-3**) for shared
effects of nine and fifteen NDD KOs in iNPCs and mature iGLUTs. (**C**) Proliferation
assessment of NPCs using Ki-67 median fluorescence intensity (MFI) measured with flow
cytometry, wildtype (purple: no iCas9 induction) versus knockout (green: doxycycline to
induce iCas9). 4-6 replicates per condition, unpaired t-test with Welch correction; p-values
corrected for multiple comparisons using FDR. (**D**) Scatter plot of gRNA $\log_2$ fold-change
(high- (PE-high) and low- (FITC-high) Δψm-sensitive dye JC-1 membrane-potential
fractions) in NPCs (x-axis) and mature iGLUT neurons (y-axis), with points colored by
enrichment category (shared NPC and iGLUT in red; distinct between NPC and iGLUT in
blue). Right: Bar chart of $-\log_{10}$(FDR) for over-represented gene sets in the tene gene
KOs enriched in both lineages. (**E**) (i) High resolution, high-throughput microscopy of
mitochondrial morphology (scale bar 10 μm): an isolated dendrite labelled with a dendritic
marker (MAP2), mitochondrial marker (TOMM20) and marker of the OXPHOS complex
(Total OXPHOS) (scale bar 5 μm). (ii) Effect of ARID1B-KO on mitochondrial sphericity
independent of changes in mitochondrial volume and surface area (**SI Fig. 18**). (iii) Effect
of ARID1B-KO on average fluorescence intensity of OXPHOS proteins. Each datapoint
indicates one well of a 96-well, representing hundreds of μm^2 of neuronal area and tens
of thousands of individual mitochondria (*adjusted p<0.05, ** adjusted p<0.01). (**F**) Effect
of NRXN1-KO on spare respiratory capacity in NPCs. Effect of NRXN1-KO on non-
mitochondrial respiration, basal respiration, maximal respiration, and OXPHOS-
dependent ATP in iGLUTs; coupling efficiency is not significantly different from parental
or NT. Data are presented as mean ± SEM. Statistical analysis was performed using one-
way ANOVA. *p<0.05, **p< 0.001. N=3 technical replicates.

Figure 5. Functional similarity and brain co-expression between NDD genes predict gene-level and network-level convergence, with unique influences by cell-type. (A) Schematic for training random forest models for gene and network-level convergence with external validation in a SCZ CRISPRa screen. **(B)** Predictor variables included in the model include scores of functional similarity, dorsolateral prefrontal cortex (DLPFC) brain co-expression, cell-type, and the number of KOs. (**B.P score** = semantic similarity of GO: Biological Process membership between KO genes; **C.C. score** = semantic similarity of GO: Cellular Component membership between KO genes; **M.F score** = semantic similarity of GO: Molecular functions membership between KO genes; **B.E.C** = dorsolateral prefrontal cortex expression correlations between KO genes; **nKOs** = number of KO genes tested for convergence). **(C)** Pearson's correlations of predictor variables and gene-level and network-level convergence (PBonferroni<=0.01**,

PBonferroni<=0.01***). **(D)** Functional similarity, brain co-expression, cell-type, and the
number of KOs assayed strongly predicted gene-level convergence (97% variance
explained by the model; mean of squared residuals=0.02) and moderately predicted
network-level convergence (53% variance explained; mean of squared residuals=0.73).
(i-ii) Importance of each of the predictor variables was assessed by two metrics: the
percent mean increase in squared residuals (%IncMSE) and the increase in node purity.
In the model – number of KO genes in a set is the most important predictor of
convergence based on %Inc MSE, but not node purity. However, the impact of nKOs on
gene-level convergence is much stronger – likely an artifact of the method used for
measuring convergence. For network level convergence, each variable has a IncMSE
between 20-30%. **(E)** Internal evaluation of the model using 30% of the original data
resulted in high concordance between convergence predicted by the model and the
measured convergence. Predicted gene-level **(i)** [gene-level convergence: n=19,823;
Pearson's R=0.984; p<2.2e-16; root mean squared error (RMSE) =0.15] and network-
level **(ii)** convergence [network-level convergence: n=962; rho=0.722; p<2.2e-16;
RMSE=0.85)] by the model strongly correlated with the measured convergence in the
testing sets. Correlation of predicted vs. accrual convergence values are color-coded by
cell-type with corresponding color-coded correlations and p-values listed in the upper right
corners of the scatterplots. **(F)** External validation in an independent scCRISPRa screen
of SCZ target genes predicted showed moderate, but significant, correlation between
convergence predicted by the model and the measured convergence. **(i)** gene-level
(n=1013, R=0.14, p=1.1e-05, RMSE=1.748) and **(ii)** network-level convergence (n=826,
R=0.26, p=2.9e-14, RMSE=0.68).

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Figure 6. NDD genes clustered based on behavioral phenotypes in zebrafish resolve unique gene-level convergent signatures in mature human neurons that predict drug reversers. (A) NDD risk genes uniquely cluster based on wake/startle behavioral responses in zebrafish mutants. Based on correlations between XYZ phenotypic measurements related to sleep, wake, and startle response in XYZ old zebrafish mutants, NDD risk gene cluster into three behavioral sets Set 1:*KMT5B, KDM6B, CHD8, ASH1L, SMARCC2*, Set 2: *MBD5, NRXN1, KDM5D*; Set 3: *ARID1B, ASH1L, CHD8, PHF21A*) **(B)** Gene expression in human mature iGLUTs and iGABAs correlate with expression in the zebrafish brain. Cellular deconvolution of wild-type Zebrafish brain expression based on adult single-cell brain reference identifying neurons as the largest proportion of cells in the fish brain. Gene expression in wt Zebrafish brain significantly positively correlate with gene expression of mature iGLUTs (rho=0.39, Holm's adj.P<0.001) and iGABAs (rho=0.39, Holm's adj.P <0.001). **(C)** Gene-level

convergence within these sets is largely non-overlapping between mature iGLUTs and
iGABAs and show unique enrichments for common psychiatric risk gene targets. **(D)** In
both iGABAs and iGLUTs, all four behavioral sets were enriched for FMRP targets Gene
targets of neurodevelopmental rare variants were only significantly enriched for
convergent signature in mature iGLUTs – with behavioral sets 4 uniquely significantly
enriched for secondary targets of ASD loss-of-function variant and set 3 uniquely enriched
for primary targets of SCZ non-synonymous variants. **(E) Behavioral gene set**
enrichment (F). Prediction of drugs targeting these convergent signals in mature neurons
identify drug reversers that target shared convergence across the sets (i.e, antipsychotic
perphenazine in iGLUTs) and some specific to unique convergence (i.e valsartan only in
in Set 3 iGABAs). **(G)** Measured effect of top predicted drugs on zebrafish behavior.
Highlighted for each set are cMAP predicted anti-correlating drugs with anti-correlating
(green, yellow, red boxes) or correlating (blue box) effects based on zebrafish behavior.
(**#**nominal p-value<0.05, ***FDR<0.05, **FDR<0.01, *FDR<0.001**).