Transcriptomic Convergence and the Female Protective Effect in Autism

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ABSTRACT

Autism spectrum disorder (ASD) is a common neurodevelopmental condition characterized by deficits in social communication as well as restricted and/or repetitive behaviors. ASD is highly heritable[1], with a complex genetic architecture: large-scale studies have identified dosage-altering copy number variants (CNV) and single nucleotide variants (SNV) that implicate hundreds of genes as individually rare causes of ASD (ASD genes)[2–4], with common variation at multiple loci also contributing substantially to risk[5]. Understanding how disruptions to these functionally diverse genes lead to the shared core features of ASD remains a major challenge[6]. Moreover, ASD is three- to four-fold more common in males than females[7,8], and autistic females tend to carry more autosomal risk alleles for ASD compared to autistic males[9–13], but the biological basis of this "female protective effect" (FPE) is unknown[14,15]. Here we show that individual perturbations of 18 ASD genes converge on shared effects on gene expression, including widespread downregulation of other ASD genes. *De novo* reconstruction of a gene regulatory network (GRN) enabled the identification of central transcriptional regulators, including the prominent ASD gene *CHD8* as well as novel candidates such as *REST*, that drive this transcriptomic convergence in ASD. Furthermore, the X-linked transcription factor *ZFX*, which is expressed from both the active and the "inactive" X chromosomes in females[16], emerged as a key activator of many ASD genes: we propose that the higher *ZFX* expression level observed in female brain can buffer damaging mutations in diverse ASD genes, contributing to the FPE. Together, these results reveal how key GRNs can become broadly and similarly dysregulated upon disruption of individual ASD genes and provide molecular insight into the female protective effect in ASD.

MAIN

Large-scale genetic studies have implicated hundreds of genes in autism spectrum disorder (ASD), with many identified through rare mutations that result in loss of function of one allele[2,17]. This suggests that gene dosage plays an important role in ASD[18], making it critical to determine how appropriate expression levels of ASD genes are maintained. Characterization of gene regulatory networks (GRNs) can provide important insights into mechanisms mediating the proper transcriptional dosage of these ASD genes. Additionally, ASD is significantly male-biased in prevalence, and although some ASD genes have been identified on the X chromosome[19], X-linked genes alone cannot fully explain the male-biased prevalence of ASD (M.T. and D.C.P., under review)[14,20,21]. Moreover, it has been consistently demonstrated that females require greater autosomal genetic risk to manifest ASD compared to males[9–13]. The genetic mechanisms of this female protective effect (FPE) in ASD are unknown

Here, gene regulatory network (GRN) reconstruction identifies key drivers of the expression of ASD genes, including *CHD8* and *REST*. These analyses also uncover the female-biased transcription factor *ZFX*, which is expressed from both the active and "inactive" X chromosome in females, as a key regulator of ASD genes, suggesting a direct transcriptional mechanism that could contribute to the FPE. This study provides a crucial framework for uncovering how variants in diverse genes can cause convergent pathophysiological effects that ultimately result in ASD.

RESULTS

Depletion of ASD Genes Reveals Widespread Transcriptomic Convergence

Functional interrogation of ASD genes revealed strongly overlapping effects on downstream targets. Knockdown (KD) studies were performed for 20 ASD genes, including 18 genes from the Simons Foundation Autism Research Initiative (SFARI) Gene database[22,23] and two long non-coding RNAs (lncRNAs) previously implicated in ASD (*NR2F1-AS1*[24] and *SOX2-OT*[25]). The RNA-degrading CRISPR enzyme CasRx[26,27] and an array of three guide RNAs (gRNAs) per target (**Supplementary Table 1**) were used to induce individual KD of each target gene in control human male (XY) neural progenitor cell (NPC) cultures (**Fig. 1a-b** and **Extended Data Fig. 1a**). RNA-sequencing (RNA-seq)

analysis after 24 hours of KD demonstrated that nearly all perturbations led to a substantial number of

significantly differentially expressed genes (DEGs; adj. $p < 0.05$), with a median of 920 DEGs per

perturbation (25th percentile: 644, 75th percentile: 1485) (**Supplementary Table 2**). To ensure sufficient

statistical power for downstream analyses, we focused on the 18 perturbations (18/20, 90%) that

resulted in greater than 20 DEGs.

Transcriptome-wide analyses revealed that ASD gene KDs caused remarkably widespread

disruption of other ASD genes. Most sets of DEGs exhibited significant enrichment for known ASD

genes in the SFARI gene database (15/18, 83.3%) (**Fig. 1c** and **Supplementary Table 3**). In contrast,

there was no significant enrichment for genes implicated in intellectual disability (ID)[28] but not ASD

(only ID genes), despite their comparable expression in NPCs (only ID genes: 1062/1242, 85.5%

Fig. 1 | Depletion of ASD genes reveals widespread transcriptomic convergence.
a, Experimental design schematic. **b,** Immunocytochemistry of iPSC-derived NPC cultures. **c,** Bar plot depicting enrichment of SFARI genes or only intellectual disability (ID) genes within the DEGs of each KD condition, excluding the targeted gene itself. Error bars indicate lower 95% confidence interval for one-sided Fisher's test (upper bound of infinity not shown). **d,** Circos plot depicting high confidence SFARI DEGs shared between different KD conditions. **e,** Heatmap showing the relative expression of high confidence SFARI genes that are DEGs in at least 10 KD conditions (see also **Extended Data Fig. 1c**). Statistically significant DEGs are indicated with *. Top ASD risk genes from [2] are bolded. **f,** Relative CytoTrack dye intensity (-log2) over time. Only KD conditions that exhibited statistically significant effects that were consistent over time are displayed. Plot depicts mean +/- standard error of the mean (SEM). Statistical significance was determined using ordinary two-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparisons test. See **Supplementary Table 6** for full statistical results.

expressed; SFARI genes: 797/1230, 64.8% expressed). This suggests that perturbation of ASD genes

particularly affects other ASD genes, as opposed to neurodevelopmental genes more broadly.

Notably, we discovered a striking pattern of transcriptomic convergence across perturbations, which

we define as statistically significant overlap of the same differentially expressed genes (DEGs)

(**Extended Data Fig. 1b**). This was particularly evident for high confidence SFARI (HC-SFARI) genes,

the SFARI genes in the highest evidentiary tier for association with ASD (**Fig. 1d**). Moreover, HC-SFARI

genes tended to shift in a concordant direction as a result of different perturbations even when they were

not significant DEGs within a particular KD sample (**Extended Data Fig. 1c**). This included the prominent

ASD risk gene *CHD8*[29], which was significantly downregulated by most (11/18, 61.1%) of the KDs.

Remarkably, a total of 27 HC-SFARI genes were DEGs in at least 10 of the KDs (27/183, 14.8%, p =

4.1e-9), and all were consistently downregulated (**Fig. 1e**), demonstrating strong convergence on many

of the strongest risk genes for ASD.

This marked transcriptomic convergence suggested that candidate ASD risk genes could be

nominated by the following features: 1) consistent downregulation following ASD gene KDs, and 2)

dosage sensitivity, as indicated by high genic constraint scores[30] (**Supplementary Table 4** and **Materials

and Methods**). This approach yielded 397 genes (**Supplementary Table 5**), including 113 SFARI

(113/397, 28.5%, adj. p = 2.5e-39) and 49 HC-SFARI (49/397, 12.3%, adj. p = 1.5e-29) genes,

demonstrating that these criteria effectively prioritize known ASD genes. Thus, the remaining 284 non-

SFARI genes merit consideration as candidate ASD risk genes.

ASD Genes Regulate NPC Proliferation

Many ASD gene perturbations also caused similar phenotypic effects in NPCs. Proliferation

analysis using heritable dye (CytoTrack) revealed that 9/18 (50%) of the KDs led to a statistically

significant decrease in proliferation (**Fig. 1f** and **Supplementary Table 6**), including several genes

implicated in microcephaly (*SETD1B*[31], *SETD2*[32], *SETD5*[33], *KMT2E*[34], and *WAC*[35]). In contrast, only

1/18 (5.6%) of the KDs led to a significantly increased NPC proliferation rate. This suggests that

reduced NPC proliferation is a common phenotype that results from disruption of several different ASD

genes, consistent with previous findings of ASD-related effects on NPC proliferation[36].

Disruption of ASD Genes Alters Cerebral Organoid Development

Inducible KD in cerebral organoids further revealed shared neurodevelopmental phenotypes. To

enable these organoid studies, we created the FLEx-based Inducible CRISPR Knockdown (FLICK)

construct. FLICK enables control over the timing of KD through doxycycline-inducible genetic

recombination that results in constitutive expression of CasRx and an EGFP reporter (**Fig. 2a**),

Fig. 2 | Disruption of ASD genes alters cerebral organoid development.
a, Design of FLICK constructs for doxycycline-inducible CasRx KD. **b,** FLICK organoid after 2 months of development. Immunohistochemistry was performed to visualize expression of the following markers: EGFP = FLICK construct; DAPI = nuclei, PAX6 = NPCs; TBR2 = intermediate progenitor cells; CTIP2 = excitatory neurons. **c,** Expression of canonical brain marker genes used for identifying cell types by scRNA-seq. **d,** UMAP of integrated long-term organoid scRNA-seq data collected at one month and two months. **e,** Relative abundance of cells for each KD target from mosaic organoids at one or two months. Results are normalized to the starting proportion for each sample at day 0 and displayed relative to NTCs from the same timepoint. Plot depicts mean +/- SEM. The FLICK constructs had been induced by treatment with doxycycline on d14-d15. Statistical significance was assessed using repeated measures one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparisons test. **f,** Cell type composition per KD target in one-month organoids. Dotted lines indicate the NTC proportions of major cell types (radial glia, intermediate progenitors, and neurons). Samples for which the ExN/RG proportion was significantly different than NTC are indicated with * (adj. p < 0.05). Statistical analysis was performed using ordinary one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparisons test, considering all long-term samples from one month (shown here) and two months (see **Extended Data Fig. 2e**).

providing robust KD (**Extended Data Fig. 2a**). The FLICK constructs also contain identifying

sequences that can be captured during single-cell RNA-seq (scRNA-seq) and used to determine the

KD target in a given cell, enabling the analysis of mosaic cerebral organoids.

For long-term studies, we targeted ASD genes whose KDs had not been found to impair NPC

proliferation in our CytoTrack experiments (**Supplementary Table 6**). FLICK constructs targeting these

genes were separately transposed into iPSCs, which were later pooled to generate mosaic organoids

(day 0). KD was induced by doxycycline treatment from day 14-15, when the organoids predominantly

consisted of PAX6+ NPCs (**Extended Data Fig. 2b**). These organoids were subsequently grown until

either one or two months of development (**Fig. 2b**) and analyzed by scRNA-seq, which identified all

expected cell types (**Fig. 2c-d** and **Extended Data Fig. 2c-d**) including radial glial progenitors (RGs),

intermediate progenitor cells (IPCs), inhibitory neurons (INs), and excitatory neurons (ExNs).

Long-term organoid KDs revealed shared phenotypes across multiple perturbations. Several KDs,

particularly those targeting *BAZ2B*, *CLASP1*, and *EHMT1*, were depleted from the organoids compared

to NTCs (**Fig. 2e**), even though these KDs did not impair proliferation in NPC cultures (**Supplementary**

Table 6). Interestingly, pathogenic variants in *CLASP1*[37] and *EHMT1*[38] have been implicated in

microcephaly, consistent with this phenotype. Furthermore, these KDs also altered cell type proportions

in organoids, producing relatively greater numbers of ExNs and fewer RGs (adj. p = 0.021 for *BAZ2B*,

0.018 for *CLASP1*, and 0.012 for *EHMT1*) (**Fig. 2f** and **Extended Data Fig. 2e**). Together, this

suggests that disruption of these genes may result in increased ExN differentiation at the expense of

RG self-renewal. Most of the other KDs also trended toward an increased proportion of ExNs by the 2-

month timepoint, suggesting this is a convergent neurodevelopmental phenotype, in line with previous

observations[39,40].

Depletion of ASD genes resulted in prominent transcriptomic convergence in cerebral organoids

(**Fig. 3a** and **Extended Data Fig. 3a**). RGs with different KDs exhibited highly overlapping DEGs,

further supporting our findings from NPC cultures. Indeed, the DEGs identified in organoid RGs strongly

overlapped with the DEGs identified from KD of the same target in NPC cultures (**Extended Data Fig.**

3b), suggesting that these effects on gene expression are not specific to a particular model system.

Transcriptomic convergence was also observed within additional cell types including IPCs as well as

ExNs (**Fig. 3a** and **Extended Data Fig. 3a**), demonstrating that the convergence of ASD genes on

shared downstream effects is not unique to neural progenitors.

Although shared ASD DEGs have been identified from postmortem brain tissue from individuals

with distinct causes of ASD[41–47], evidence of transcriptomic convergence in previous experimental

studies has been limited[39,48,49]. Indeed, based on studies in cerebral organoids, it has been proposed

that different ASD mutations largely impact distinct downstream genes[39]. We find that detection of

overlapping DEGs is heavily dependent upon the number of cells sequenced for each perturbation, as

demonstrated by down-sampling analysis (**Fig. 3b**). This sample-size dependence likely explains the

lack of observable convergence in previous studies with smaller sample sizes.

Finally, while some convergently disrupted genes were cell type-specific, many genes were

consistently disrupted across multiple cell types, including SFARI DEGs (**Fig. 3c**). This suggests that

despite cell-type-specific features impacting the transcriptomic consequences of ASD gene

Fig. 3 | Transcriptomic convergence upon ASD gene perturbations in cerebral organoids.
a) Heatmap of cross-enrichment of DEGs for radial glia and excitatory neurons in long-term organoids. **b)** Down-sampling the number of cells per condition to the number indicated above each pie chart decreases the significant cross-enrichment (transcriptomic convergence) observed between sets of DEGs. **c)** Network visualization of DEGs shared amongst different KDs conditions and cell types. The thickness of edges represents the number of shared DEGs. Nodes plotted based on clustering with the Fruchterman-Reingold algorithm (*igraph*). Nodes that are closer together have more shared DEGs on average. **d)** Proportion of cells with each KD target from scRNA-seq of mosaic organoids with acute KD. **e)** UMAP of acute KD mosaic organoids from scRNA-seq. **f)** Heatmap of cross-enrichment between different KD samples in acute KD organoids.

perturbations, certain effects could be broadly shared by diverse cell types. This is consistent with

widespread observations of convergent ExN phenotypes such as disordered synaptic structure or

activity upon disruption of distinct ASD genes[50,51], and suggests that transcriptomic convergence does

not reflect merely a shared alteration of cell type or fate.

Transcriptomic Convergence Following Acute Perturbations in Cerebral Organoids

Acute disruption of ASD genes in 2-month organoids revealed even greater convergence on shared

DEGs. An additional set of mosaic FLICK organoids was grown for two months prior to inducing KD

with doxycycline treatment from day 61-62 followed by scRNA-seq two days later, allowing us to

determine the acute effects of disrupting these genes within organoids that had developed normally.

This approach resulted in similar numbers of cells per KD (**Fig. 3d** and **Extended Data Fig. 3c**),

enabling deeper analysis of the KDs that had been depleted from the organoids with long-term KD (**Fig.**

2e). As expected, these organoids contained a mixture of cell types (**Fig. 3e** and **Extended Data Fig.**

3d), with ExNs by far the most abundant cell type at this developmental timepoint (**Extended Data Fig.**

3e). Interestingly, many KDs resulted in ExN DEGs that were enriched for the DEGs identified from

NPC cultures (**Extended Data Fig. 3f**), again suggesting shared changes in gene expression across

cell types upon KD of ASD genes. Furthermore, acute KD of the target genes that had been depleted

from organoids over the course of long-term KD (**Fig. 2e**) allowed us to obtain much greater cell

numbers for these perturbations, revealing that these KDs also result in strong transcriptomic

convergence (**Fig. 3f**).

Key Transcription Factors, Including *REST*, Target Recurrently Dysregulated Genes

Transcriptional regulators that could mediate transcriptomic convergence in ASD were identified

through MAGIC analysis[52], which uses chromatin immunoprecipitation sequencing (ChIP-seq) data

from ENCODE to identify transcription factors and cofactors whose binding targets are enriched within

a gene set of interest. This uncovered transcriptional regulators whose target genes were recurrently

differentially expressed across many of the ASD gene KDs in NPCs (**Fig. 4a** and **Supplementary**

Table 7), including HC-SFARI genes such as *CHD2* and *SIN3A*. Of the recurrent MAGIC regulators *not*

previously implicated in ASD, several were both highly constrained (**Supplementary Table 4)** and co-

expressed with known ASD genes (**Fig. 4a**), features demonstrated to be predictive of novel ASD risk

genes[6].

MAGIC analysis also revealed consistent drivers of convergence in organoids (**Extended Data Fig.**

4 and **Supplementary Table 7**). Of the top recurrent transcriptional regulators identified in NPCs, half

(13/26, 50%) were also identified in organoid RGs (**Fig. 4b**). MAGIC also identified recurrent ExN

regulators shared across developmental stages and across long-term vs acute KD timescales,

including many SFARI genes. Interestingly, nine of these genes were also identified as top

transcriptional regulators in neural progenitors, suggesting that they are key drivers of convergence in

multiple cellular contexts.

Of particular interest, the RE1 silencing transcription factor (REST) was significant by MAGIC in

17/18 (94.4%) NPC perturbations (**Fig. 4a**) and consistently emerged as a top MAGIC regulator across

all tested conditions (**Fig. 4b**). While REST has not previously been directly associated with ASD, it has

critical neurodevelopmental roles, functioning as a master negative regulator of neurogenesis[53,54]. Re-

analysis of human and mouse REST ChIP-seq binding sites[55] identified strong enrichment of SFARI

Fig. 4 | Key transcription factors, including REST, target recurrently dysregulated genes.
a, MAGIC analysis identifying transcriptional regulators whose targets were enriched within the DEGs from at least 16 NPC KDs. Transcriptional regulators of particular interest are bolded. **b,** Quantitative Euler diagrams depicting the overlapping MAGIC transcriptional regulators identified in different conditions. **c,** Bar plot depicting enrichment of SFARI or only intellectual disability (ID) genes within REST targets from human and mouse embryonic stem cells. REST target data from Rockowitz and Zheng 2015. Error bars indicate lower 95% confidence interval for one-sided Fisher's test (upper bound of infinity not shown).

genes (adj. p = 3.6e-67 and 7.7e-50, respectively), including HC-SFARI genes (adj. p = 2.2e-13 and

3.7e-8, respectively), within REST targets (**Fig. 4c**), supporting a key role for REST in regulating ASD-

relevant gene expression.

Reconstruction of a Gene Regulatory Network Reveals Highly Interconnected ASD Genes

De novo gene regulatory network (GRN) reconstruction from our NPC RNA-seq data using

ARACNe[56,57] enabled associating additional transcription factors[58] and chromatin modifiers[59] – together

referred to as "regulators" – with their downstream targets (regulons). We validated this approach by

separately constructing "held-out" GRNs that excluded data from samples in which the KD target was a

potential regulator, which revealed strong cross-enrichment between the GRN-predicted targets from

these held-out networks and observed DEGs (adj. p for each < 3.98e-116, combined p = 4.08e-937)

(**Fig. 5a** and **Extended Data Fig. 5a**). Thus, ARACNe effectively captures *bona fide* regulatory

relationships. The full NPC GRN revealed a high degree of interconnection between ASD genes and

their upstream regulators (**Fig. 5b**), with ASD genes strongly enriched within central regulators of the

NPC GRN (adj. p = 7.6e-6 for SFARI genes, 8.6e-5 for HC-SFARI genes, centrality assessed by

PageRank algorithm[60]) (**Fig. 5c**). This suggests that genes associated with ASD are key drivers of

NPC gene expression in general. Central regulators were also enriched for pathways[61] associated with

the G2M checkpoint (adj. p = 3.3e-4) and mitotic spindle (adj. p = 1.1e-5), consistent with the NPC

proliferation phenotypes we observed (**Fig. 1g** and **Supplementary Table 6**).

GRN Analysis Identifies *CHD8* as a Top Driver of Convergence in ASD

We next identified GRN regulators that act as key drivers of ASD-associated transcriptomic

convergence. This analysis revealed 70 top drivers of convergence whose activity was consistently

altered by ASD gene KD (*VIPER*[62]), and whose targets are both enriched for SFARI genes and central

to the GRN (**Supplementary Table 8**). Nearly half of these top drivers of convergence are SFARI

genes (31/70, 44.3%, adj. p = 3.9e-11), and nearly one third are HC-SFARI genes (22/70, 31.4%, adj. p

= 6.7e-12). Moreover, these top drivers of convergence were consistently downregulated across nearly

Fig. 5 | Gene regulatory network analysis identifies *CHD8* as a top driver of convergence in ASD.
a, Volcano plot of genes predicted to be positively regulated by KMT2E, depicting their differential expression upon KD of KMT2E. Statistically significant DEGs with decreased expression are shown in blue, while DEGs with increased expression are shown in red (none). Statistically significant enrichment of 2nd degree regulon genes within the downregulated DEGs is indicated with the adjusted p-value. **b,** Depiction of a subset of the NPC GRN constructed using ARACNE. All regulators are shown along with first degree target genes that are SFARI genes. **c,** Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) demonstrating enrichment of genes with high PageRank scores within the gene sets shown. **d,** Bar graph depicting mean normalized degree, a measure of interconnectedness, across regulators from different gene sets. **e,** Depiction of modules of top regulators identified through iterative walktrap clustering. Hashed lines indicate that those lines are not to scale. Genes of particular interest are highlighted with large arrows. KD targets that are further analyzed in panel E are highlighted in red font. **f,** Bar plot depicting enrichment of CHD8 targets within several gene sets. Data from CHD8 ChIP-seq in NPCs from Sugathan et al. 2014. Error bars indicate lower 95% confidence interval for one-sided Fisher's test (upper bound of infinity not shown).

all ASD gene KDs (**Extended Data Fig. 5b**). They are also highly interconnected in the GRN (p < 1e-6)

(**Fig. 5d**), as well as the STRING database of protein-protein interactions[63] (p = 2.0e-9). Taken

together, this suggests that these genes not only act as central regulators of many ASD genes but also

cross-regulate each other, driving transcriptomic convergence in ASD.

Iterative walktrap clustering identified four gene modules within the 70 top drivers of convergence

(**Fig. 5e**), one of which (blue) was especially strongly interconnected. This module exhibited very high

cross-interaction through STRING analysis (p < 1e-16) and included *REST* (**Fig. 4** and **Extended Data**

Fig. 4) and several notable ASD genes including *CHD8*, one of the strongest known risk genes for

ASD[29]. Importantly, the inferred *CHD8* regulon from the GRN was strongly enriched (1st degree regulon

adj. p = 4.6e-7, 2nd degree regulon adj. p = 3.9e-20) for direct CHD8 target genes previously identified

through ChIP-seq from NPCs[64] (**Fig. 5f**), further supporting the validity of ARACNe-predicted regulatory

relationships. Moreover, consistent with previous reports[64,65], CHD8 ChIP-seq targets were also highly

enriched for NPC-expressed SFARI genes (adj. p = 2.6e-8) and HC-SFARI genes (adj. p = 8.5e-8). The

CHD8-containing module also included three transcriptional regulators (*SETD2*, *SETD5*, and *KMT2E*)

that we had directly perturbed, and DEGs from these KDs exhibited significant enrichment

for CHD8 ChIP-seq targets (adj. p = 1.2e-5, 7.8e-8, and 2.6e-4, respectively) (**Fig. 5f**), further

demonstrating convergent regulation of shared targets by critical ASD genes. This analysis

highlights *CHD8*, a high confidence ASD risk gene, as a key driver of transcriptomic convergence in

ASD.

The X-Linked Transcription Factor ZFX is a Female-Biased Regulator of ASD Genes

Prior studies have found that genes downregulated in ASD tend to be more highly expressed in

neurotypical female brain versus male[66,67], raising the possibility that this baseline female-biased

expression may contribute to the FPE[66,67]. We identified 68 genes that were consistently downregulated

by ASD gene KD and exhibited female-biased expression in the brain[68–70], 22 of which were highly

constrained (**Extended Data Fig. 6a**). This included nine SFARI genes (OR = 9.10, adj. p = 2.94e-5)

(**Fig. 6a**), two of which – *ZFX* and *ZNF711* – were also GRN regulators of targets enriched for SFARI

genes (adj. p = 6.0e-4 for *ZFX*, 0.044 for *ZNF711*) (**Fig. 6b**).

Among these, *ZFX* is of particular interest because it is expressed from both the active and

"inactive" X chromosome in females[16], making it one of the most highly and consistently female-biased

genes across diverse tissues[69–74], including the developing cerebral cortex[68,75] (**Extended Data Fig.**

6b). *ZFX* encodes a potent transcriptional activator of genome-wide targets[76–78], and we identified many

Fig. 6 | The X-linked transcription factor ZFX is a female-biased regulator of ASD genes.
a, Heatmap showing the relative expression of SFARI genes that are candidate contributors to the FPE in ASD across KD conditions. Statistically significant DEGs are indicated with *. **b,** Depiction of regulatory relationships between the candidate FPE contributors *ZFX* and *ZNF711* and their target SFARI genes, as identified by GRN analysis. Connections between *ZFX* and its targets are shown in black, while connections between *ZNF711* and its targets are shown in purple. **c,** Enrichment of ASD-relevant gene sets within the *ZFX* regulon, as identified by GRN analysis. Error bars indicate lower 95% confidence interval for one-sided Fisher's test (upper bound of infinity not shown). **d,** Depiction of regulatory relationships between *ZFX* and the top drivers of convergence in ASD (previously identified in **Fig. 5e**), as identified by GRN analysis. **e,** Enrichment of ASD-relevant gene sets within the following *ZFX* target sets: [1] targets in C4-2B cells, identified in San Roman et al. 2024; [2] common targets identified in Rhie et al. 2018; and [3] targets in MCF-7 cells, identified in San Roman et al. 2024. Error bars indicate lower 95% confidence interval for one-sided Fisher's test (upper bound of infinity not shown). **f,** Schematic depicting a model of the contribution of *ZFX* to the FPE in ASD.

regulatory relationships between *ZFX* and ASD-relevant gene sets in our GRN (**Fig. 6c**). This included our previously identified top drivers of transcriptomic convergence in ASD (OR = 9.8, adj. p = 2.2e-6). We also found that ZFX is a downstream target of many of these top drivers, with several reciprocal regulatory relationships (**Fig. 6d**). The strong enrichment of ZFX targets for ASD-relevant genes was further confirmed by re-analysis of ZFX ChIP-seq data[76,79] (**Fig. 6e**). As *ZFX* is recurrently downregulated upon disruption of ASD genes, its female-biased expression in combination with its role as a regulator of ASD-relevant genes could thus result in cascading and broad sex-differential impacts on ASD gene expression, potentially contributing to the FPE in ASD (**Fig. 6f**).

DISCUSSION

Here, we show widespread transcriptomic convergence following depletion of ASD genes and

highlight key chromatin modifiers and transcription factors, including *CHD8* and *REST*, as critical

drivers of this convergence. These drivers were highly interconnected with each other, often via mutual

regulatory relationships, revealing how disruption of a single regulator can lead to changes that

propagate throughout a GRN. We also identified the transcription factor *ZFX*, which is expressed from

both the active and "inactive" X chromosome in females, as a key transcriptional regulator of ASD

genes; the female-biased expression of *ZFX* could thus buffer the effects of ASD gene disruptions in

females, contributing to the FPE in ASD. Taken together, this work provides a model for how diverse

genes can converge on core transcriptomic changes and ultimately generate shared ASD phenotypes,

as well as how sex-differential activity of these genes can lead to male-biased risk for ASD.

Building an understanding of the complex relationships within GRNs is critical for identifying key

"rate-limiting" genes that affect the GRN as a whole and ultimately lead to a particular biological

outcome[80]. Prior studies of Hirschsprung disease have identified an analogous GRN centered on the

rate-limiting gene *RET*, which can be impacted by direct mutations in *RET* itself or disruptions of

upstream regulators of *RET*[81]. Here, we have similarly identified critical genes such as *CHD8*, *REST*,

and *ZFX*, whose effects can propagate throughout the GRN and drive transcriptomic convergence in

ASD.

Our functional studies in cerebral organoids uncovered transcriptomic convergence of ASD genes

in multiple cell types including ExNs. Future work to reconstruct GRNs from heterogeneous samples

through scRNA-seq will be valuable to understand how regulatory relationships are reorganized in

different cellular contexts[82–85], though these approaches are currently hampered by limited RNA capture

inherent to scRNA-seq techniques. As methodologies advance, it will be possible to reconstruct robust

GRNs from cerebral organoids and patient tissue samples, which will further refine our understanding

of gene regulation in complex biological systems.

Our results have wide-ranging implications for understanding neurodevelopment and disorders

such as ASD. Our identification of *ZFX* as a key transcriptional regulator of ASD genes is consistent

with a recent report implicating pathogenic *ZFX* variants in ASD[86]. Moreover, downregulation of *ZFX* by

KD of many different ASD genes suggests that decreased *ZFX* expression may be a recurrent

transcriptional feature of ASD; *ZFX*'s higher baseline level in the female brain due to its expression

from both X chromosomes could thus buffer females against this ASD-associated downregulation.

While males have a Y-linked homolog of *ZFX* called *ZFY*, it encodes a weaker transcriptional activator

than *ZFX*[76], and *ZFY*'s GRN regulon showed no enrichment for SFARI genes (OR = 1.1, adj. p = 0.36),

suggesting divergent roles with respect to ASD. In future studies, it will be important to determine

whether other genes expressed from both the active and "inactive" X chromosome in females also

contribute to the FPE in ASD (M.T. and D.C.P., under review).

While our perturbations focused on genes associated with ASD through rare single-gene mutations,

it is likely that other classes of ASD-associated variants also disrupt this same convergent network.

Supporting this, studies of postmortem brain tissue have demonstrated that idiopathic ASD cases share

core transcriptomic changes[42,47] and overlapping DNA methylation signatures[87] with cases of ASD

caused by rare mutations of large effect size, such as chromosome 15q11-13 duplication. Moreover,

reports suggest that common alleles of smaller effect size[88] implicated in ASD can also drive changes

that converge with those caused by rare ASD variants[89]. This raises the intriguing possibility that

distinct causes of ASD – including rare single-gene mutations, large copy number variants (CNVs), and

common genetic variation – could result in similar phenotypes by each converging on disruption of

shared ASD-relevant GRNs. Thus, work such as this that characterizes these GRNs has broad

potential to clarify our understanding of the genetic architecture of ASD across a wide variety of genetic

variant classes, uncovering potential therapeutic targets that could benefit individuals with diverse

causes of ASD. More broadly, while this work focused on ASD, the approaches used here are widely

applicable to different cell types and conditions. Thus, this study serves as a framework for uncovering

critical transcriptional regulators across a wide diversity of contexts, from development through disease.

Extended Data Fig. 1 | Transcriptomic convergence upon depletion of ASD genes in NPCs.
a, Relative expression of the targeted gene within each KD sample compared to non-targeting control (NTC) samples. Error bars: 95% confidence interval. **b,** Circos plots depicting DEGs shared between different KD conditions. For direct comparison, the circos plot for high confidence SFARI genes (shown in **Fig. 1d**) is also shown here. **c,** Heatmap showing the relative expression of high confidence SFARI genes that are DEGs in at least 5 KD conditions. Statistically significant DEGs are indicated with *. Genes that were identified amongst the 26 strongest ASD risk genes in [2] are bolded.

Extended Data Fig. 2 | Mosaic cerebral organoids with KD of ASD genes via the FLICK construct.
a, KD efficiency of FLICK constructs. Bar plot depicts the relative expression of the gene *ENSG00000261840* in iPSCs expressing FLICK constructs with non-targeting controls (NTC) or gRNAs that target the gene for degradation (KD), displayed as mean +/- SEM. **** $p < 0.0001$, two-tailed t test. **b,** Immunohistochemistry of a FLICK organoid at day 15. Nuclei are labeled with DAPI (blue), cells with active FLICK constructs are labeled with the reporter EGFP (green), and NPCs are identified by expression of PAX6 (red). **c,** UMAP of organoid scRNA-seq data colored by timepoint. **d,** UMAP of organoid scRNA-seq data colored by targeted gene. **e,** Cell type composition per KD target in two-month organoids. Dotted lines indicate the NTC proportions of major cell types (radial glia, intermediate progenitors, and neurons). Samples for which the ExN/RG proportion was significantly different than NTC are indicated with * (adj. $p < 0.05$). Statistical analysis was performed using ordinary one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparisons test, considering all long-term samples from one month (see **Fig. 2f**) and two months (shown here).

Extended Data Fig. 3 | KD of ASD genes in cerebral organoids reveals transcriptomic convergence.
a, Heatmap of cross-enrichment of differentially expressed genes (DEGs) from intermediate progenitor cells. **b,** Bar plot of cross-enrichment of DEGs from radial glia (RG) from one-month organoids versus DEGs from previous NPC cultures upon KD of the same target gene. Only perturbations with at least 20 DEGs were tested for cross-enrichment. Error bars indicate lower 95% confidence interval for one-sided Fisher's test (upper bound of infinity not shown). **c,** UMAP of scRNA-seq data from acute KD organoids, colored by KD target gene. **d,** Expression of canonical brain marker genes used for identifying cell types by scRNA-seq. **e,** Cell type composition across the different perturbations in acute KD organoids. **f,** Bar plot of cross-enrichment of DEGs from excitatory neurons (ExNs) from acute KD mosaic organoids versus DEGs from previous NPC cultures upon KD of the same target gene. Error bars indicate lower 95% confidence interval for one-sided Fisher's test (upper bound of infinity not shown).

Drivers of Transcriptomic Convergence in Cerebral Organoids

Extended Data Fig. 4 | Genes that exhibit recurrent dysregulation upon ASD gene KD in cerebral organoids are targets of key transcriptional regulators.

MAGIC analysis identifying transcriptional regulators whose targets are enriched within the DEGs from different cell types and stages of organoid development following KD of ASD genes.

Extended Data Fig. 5 | Top drivers of convergence identified through reconstruction of an NPC gene regulatory network.
a, Volcano plot of genes predicted to be positively regulated by the regulator shown above the plot, depicting their differential expression upon KD of the regulator. Statistically significant DEGs with decreased expression are shown in blue, while DEGs with increased expression are shown in red. Statistically significant enrichment of 2nd degree regulon genes within the downregulated DEGs is indicated with the adjusted p-value. **b,** Heatmap showing the relative expression of the top GRN drivers of convergence across the different ASD gene KD samples. Statistically significant DEGs are indicated with *. Genes that were identified amongst the 26 strongest ASD risk genes in [2] are bolded.

Extended Data Fig. 6 | *ZFX* exhibits female-biased expression in the brain and is recurrently downregulated upon ASD gene KD.
a, Heatmap showing the relative expression of candidate contributors to the FPE in ASD across KD conditions. Statistically significant DEGs are indicated with *. **b,** Bar plot depicting the significantly female-biased expression of *ZFX* across several tissues of the human central nervous system (CNS), including prenatal and adult cortex.

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557 METHODS

558 Knockdown with CasRx

CasRx[26], specifically NLS-RfxCas13d-NLS (Addgene #109049), was used in combination with
target-specific guide RNAs (gRNAs) to knock down (KD) targeted transcripts. A deep-learning-based
tool[27] was used to design gRNA spacer sequences targeting the genes of interest. These spacer
sequences were filtered to exclude homopolymers (greater than 4 As, greater than 3 Cs, Gs, or Ts).
Spacer sequences with potential off-target interactions were identified using BLAST[90] and excluded.
For each target gene, 3 separate spacer sequences were selected and combined into a tandem pre-
gRNA array, with each spacer sequence preceded by the CasRx direct repeat (DR36) sequence[27]:
CAAGTAAACCCCTACCAACTGGTCGGGGTTTGAAAC. Tandem pre-gRNA arrays are processed by
CasRx into individual gRNAs for KD[26]. See **Supplementary Table 1** for full sequences.
568
569 Molecular Cloning

To create constructs for the initial NPC KD experiments, the lentiviral pSicoR plasmid[91] (Addgene
#11579) was used as the backbone. The mouse U6 promoter was replaced with the human U6
promoter, which was used to drive expression of the CasRx gRNA arrays. These constructs were used
in combination with a CasRx knock-in cell line (described below).
For NPC proliferation assays, an all-in-one construct was created that contained CasRx and EGFP
expressed from the CAG promoter element and gRNA arrays expressed from the human U6 promoter.
The backbone also contained inverted terminal repeats (ITRs), allowing the construct to be integrated
into the genome by piggyBac transposase[92]. These constructs were based on the LiOn design[93]
(Addgene #154019), such that expression of CasRx and EGFP was dependent upon recombination of
the construct by piggyBac transposase, preventing expression from the episomal plasmid.
For organoid experiments, we created the FLEx-based Inducible CRISPR Knockdown (FLICK)
construct by engineering several features into a backbone incorporating the FLEx design[94]. In
particular, we included a modified Cre recombinase that includes an intron, which prevents
recombination of the plasmid during cloning[95]. We also included CasRx[26] as well as all necessary
components of the Tet-On 3G system[96] to enable doxycycline-inducible recombination. Furthermore,
we included identifying barcode sequences shortly upstream of the polyA sites for the fluorescent
reporters, which enabled determination of which KD construct was incorporated in each cell through

single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq). Finally, we incorporated ITRs, allowing the construct to be
integrated into the genome by piggyBac transposase[92].
589
Cell Culture
All human cell culture work was performed under protocols approved by Boston Children's Hospital
IRB #S07-02-0087. The control male human iPSC line "280" was previously generated and fully
characterized[97]. Human iPSCs and iPSC-derived NPCs were grown on tissue culture plates pre-coated
with Matrigel (Corning #354277) or Geltrex (ThermoFisher #A1413302). The cells were passaged as
needed using Accutase (Millipore Sigma #SCR005) or ReleSR (StemCell Technologies #100-0483).
Human iPSCs were cultured in mTeSR™ Plus medium (StemCell Technologies #100-0276). Human
NPCs[98] were generated from iPSCs using the STEMdiff™ SMADi Neural Induction Kit (StemCell
Technologies #08582) by following the Monolayer Culture Protocol for at least three weeks. NPCs were
continuously grown in Neural Induction Medium + SMADi and were not switched to Neural Progenitor
Medium. The medium was supplemented with 10uM Y-27632 (StemCell Technologies #72304) for
approximately 1 day following passaging of iPSCs or NPCs.
Cerebral organoids were generated from 280-iPSCs using the STEMdiff™ Cerebral Organoid Kit
(StemCell Technologies # 08570) with some recommendations from Giandomenico et al., 2021[99] as
well as additional modifications. In particular, the organoids were embedded in Matrigel (Corning
#354277) at day 7 and grown in Expansion Medium until day 14, at which point they were removed
from Matrigel and switched to Maturation Medium on an orbital shaker. Please see full details on
protocols.io.
608
Derivation of CasRx Knock-in iPSCs
CasRx[26] was knocked into the *AAVS1* safe harbor locus of 280-iPSCs using targeting constructs
that were previously described[96]. Individual iPSC colonies were picked and expanded. Southern blot
analysis was performed by Celplor to confirm correct targeting of the *AAVS1* locus. Karyotype analysis
was performed using KaryoStat (ThermoFisher), which revealed a 2.4Mb gain on chromosome 1, which
is described in microarray nomenclature as arr[GRCh37] 1q32.1(204108163_206539638)x3. This
region did not contain any of the target genes.
616
617   **Lentivirus**
618   Lentivirus was generated using standard protocols that have previously been described[100].
619   Lentiviruses were applied at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 4.0, as this MOI yields >98% transduced
620   cells. RNA was extracted 24 hours later.
621
Library Preparation for RNA Sequencing (RNA-Seq)
Bulk RNA was extracted using the Direct-zol RNA Microprep Kit (Zymo Research #R2062), and 3'
RNA-seq libraries were prepared following a modified version of the TagSeq protocol[101], incorporating
recommendations and pooling strategies from the CheapSeq protocol[102]. Briefly, 200ng of total RNA
from each sample was combined with an indexed oligo(dT) primer and buffer (from NEB #M0466L) as
described for CheapSeq. RNA was fragmented in a pre-heated thermocycler at 94C for 2.5 min without
the lid, after which the samples were moved immediately to ice. Each sample was then mixed with a
template-switching oligo (TSO) that contained an index and a unique molecular identifier (UMI) along
with additional reagents required for reverse transcription, as described for CheapSeq. The reverse
transcription reaction was performed at 42C for 90 minutes, without heat inactivation. Remaining single-
stranded RNA and oligos were then digested by adding 0.5uL of Buffer EB (Qiagen #19086), 0.5uL of
thermolabile ExoI (NEB #M0568S), and 0.25uL of RNase A (ThermoFisher #EN0531), and incubating
the samples at 37C for 30min, followed by heat inactivation at 85C for 5min and a hold step at 4C.
Up to 8 samples with different index sequences were then pooled, and cDNA was purified by
performing a 1.4x left-sided SPRI selection (Beckman Coulter #B23317). Q5 UltraII Mastermix (NEB
#M0544L) was then used along with partial Read1 and partial Read2 primers to amplify the cDNA for 7
cycles using a C1000 Touch Thermal Cycler (Bio-Rad #1851197), following the "CheapSeq PCR"
parameters described below. Amplified cDNA was purified through a 0.7x left-sided SPRI selection
(Beckman Coulter #B23317). Final library construction was performed by using Q5 UltraII Mastermix

(NEB #M0544L) along with standard TruSeq indexing primers (NEB #E6440S) and amplifying for 8 cycles following the "CheapSeq PCR" parameters described below. Libraries were purified by performing a 0.4x-0.65x double-sided SPRI selection (Beckman Coulter #B23317). Purified libraries were assessed using Tapestation HSD1000 (Agilent #5067-5584 and #5067-5585). For oligo sequences, see **Supplementary Table 9**.

    CheapSeq PCR:
1. 98C for 30s
2. X cycles of 98C for 10s, 65C for 75s
3. 65C for 5min
4. 4C forever

Differentially Expressed Gene (DEG) Analysis of Bulk RNA-seq from NPCs

    Three distinct NPC samples were analyzed per condition. Individual KD conditions were compared to three non-targeting control (NTC) conditions, which were considered together as a set of 9 control samples.

    Gene expression was quantified using alevin-fry with UMI deduplication (salmon-v1.9). A salmon index and transcript-to-gene map were built using Gencode v45. Counts from distinct transcripts that mapped to the same gene were summed. Only genes with a baseMean expression of >10 in NTC samples were considered for further analyses. Differential expression analysis was performed using DESeq2 (v1.42.0), with the model ~Batch + sgRNA.

    For KD confirmation, p-values were adjusted using Benjamini-Hochberg correction for multiple hypothesis testing for the set of 20 directly targeted genes. The raw p-value for SRCAP was derived from Droplet Digital PCR (see below), as SRCAP was filtered from RNA-seq analysis due to low expression. See **Supplementary Table 2** for details.

    For transcriptome-wide analyses, p-values were adjusted using Benjamini-Hochberg correction for multiple hypothesis testing for the set of 11,168 analyzed genes (baseMean >10 in NTCs).

Droplet Digital PCR (ddPCR)

    To confirm KD of SRCAP, which was filtered from RNA-seq analysis due to low expression, the same RNA samples that had been used for RNA-seq (above) were assessed by ddPCR. RNA was first converted to cDNA using the SuperScript™ IV VILO™ Master Mix (ThermoFisher Scientific # 11756050). Next, ddPCR was performed by combining cDNA at an RNA-equivalent concentration of 0.25ng/uL (5ng per 20uL reaction), primers at a final concentration of 0.1uM, and QX200™ ddPCR™ EvaGreen Supermix (Bio-Rad # 1864033). The ddPCR reactions were performed using the QX200 AutoDG Droplet Digital PCR System (Bio-Rad). Expression levels were normalized using the expression of the housekeeping gene *HPRT1*. The results were analyzed using the model Expr ~ Batch + type, where type was either NTC or the targeted gene (SRCAP). The resulting raw p-value was adjusted along with those for the other KD targets (from RNA-seq, above) using Benjamini-Hochberg correction for multiple hypothesis testing for the set of 20 directly targeted genes. See **Supplementary Table 2** for details.

Primer Design

    Primers (**Supplementary Table 10**) were designed using Primer-BLAST[103], which assesses potential off-target interactions using BLAST[90]. Oligos were ordered through Azenta or IDT. Primer specificity was confirmed by Sanger sequencing of PCR products (Azenta).

Gene Sets
1. SFARI genes: all genes included in the SFARI gene database[22,23] (4/3/25 release).
2. High confidence SFARI (HC-SFARI) genes: SFARI genes with a score of 1.
3. Intellectual disability (ID) genes: genes from the SysNDD database[28] (accessed 8/23/25) that were:
    a. associated with an ID term (HP:0001249, HP:0001256, HP:0002342, HP:0010864, HP:0002187)
    b. in the "definitive" category

695    c. not SFARI genes
696
697 **Enrichment Analyses**
698  Enrichment analyses were performed using hypergeometric tests, and p-values were adjusted
699 using Benjamini-Hochberg correction for multiple hypothesis testing. When displayed as bar plots, main
700 bars indicate odds ratio and error bars indicate lower 95% confidence interval for one-sided Fisher's
701 test (upper bound of infinity not shown).
702
703 **Analysis of Expression Correlation with SFARI Genes**
704  To determine whether a gene of interest was significantly co-expressed with SFARI genes in our
NPC RNA-seq data, we calculated the median Pearson correlation between the gene of interest and
each SFARI gene. To assess whether this degree of correlation was significant, we created an
empirical null distribution by calculating the median correlation between the gene of interest and 1000
randomly selected gene sets of the same size as the SFARI gene set, using the universe of NPC-
expressed genes (baseMean > 10 in NTCs). A one-sided empirical p-value was then calculated as the
proportion of null values greater than or equal to the observed median correlation. Regulators with p-
values < 0.05 were considered significantly correlated with SFARI genes.
712
713 **Identification of Consistently Downregulated DEGs**
714  Consistently downregulated DEGs were defined as genes that exhibited: 1) statistically significant
715 downregulation by at least three of the KDs, and 2) at least 80% concordance in the direction of
716 significant differential expression across all KDs.
717
718 **Constraint Analysis**
719  LOEUF scores (oe_lof_upper) were obtained from gnomad v2[30] to evaluate genic constraint. For
720 each gene, we calculated a per-gene LOEUF score by calculating the median of the LOEUF values of
721 each gene's associated transcripts. While LOEUF is a continuous metric, we utilized LOEUF < 0.35 as
722 recommended to identify highly constrained genes.
723
724 **Nucleofection**
725  Nucleofections were performed using the Neon Transfection System (ThermoFisher Scientific). For
NPCs, 2M cells were nucleofected with 10ug of KD plasmid and 2ug of a plasmid expressing piggyBac
transposase[92] using the 100uL tips. For iPSCs, 1M cells were nucleofected with 5ug of KD plasmid and
1ug of a plasmid expressing piggyBac transposase[92] using the 100uL tips. For small-scale
nucleofections, 10uL tips were used and the cell number and plasmid amounts were reduced
proportionally. Nucleofection of NPCs was performed using the following settings: voltage = 1600V,
width = 10, pulses = 3. Nucleofection of iPSCs was performed using the following settings: voltage =
950V, width = 30, pulses = 2.
733
734 **NPC Proliferation Assays**
735  LiOn-based KD constructs (see "Molecular Cloning") were nucleofected into 280-NPCs along with a
piggyBac-transposase-expressing plasmid (see "Nucleofection" for details). Four days later, the cells
were treated for 20 minutes with dye from the CYTOTRACK™ Red 628/643 Cell Proliferation Assay Kit
(Bio-Rad #1351205) diluted 1:500 in media. The cells were then rinsed with PBS (ThermoFisher
Scientific # 10010031) and passaged, with 1/5 of each sample plated into a well of 4 separate plates to
be used for the subsequent 4 timepoints. The remaining cells were used for flow cytometry to assess
the initial CytoTrack intensity on day 0 (d0). For the next 4 days, 1 well of each sample was dissociated
each day and analyzed by flow cytometry. The CytoTrack intensity values (negative log2) from the
EGFP+ cells expressing the KD construct were normalized to the EGFP- cells from the same well to
control for well-to-well variability in proliferation rates. They were further normalized to their initial
CytoTrack intensity from d0 to control for variability in dye incorporation. The results for each KD were
displayed relative to the mean value from the NTC samples, plotted as mean +/- standard error of the
mean (SEM). Statistical analysis was performed using ordinary two-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple
comparisons test (GraphPad Prism). Full details regarding sample numbers and statistical results are

available in **Supplementary Table 6**.
750
Assessment of FLICK KD Efficiency
To determine KD efficiency using FLICK constructs, three distinct samples were analyzed per
condition. Control 280 iPSCs were nucleofected with constructs encoding the NTC1 control gRNA array
or a gRNA array targeting the gene *ENSG00000261840*, along with a plasmid expressing piggyBac
transposase[92] to genomically integrate the FLICK constructs. To induce KD, the cells were treated with
2ug/ml doxycycline (Sigma D9891-1G) for 24 hours. Cells that had recombined the FLICK construct
were then isolated through fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS) (BD FACSymphony™ S6) for
EGFP+ cells, which were re-plated in triplicate and grown for an additional two days. RNA was then
isolated using the Direct-zol RNA Microprep Kit (Zymo Research #R2062). To generate cDNA, 500ng
of RNA was reverse transcribed using SuperScript™ IV VILO™ Master Mix (ThermoFisher Scientific
#11756050). Quantitative PCR (qPCR) was performed by combining cDNA at an RNA-equivalent
concentration of 1ng/uL (10ng per 10uL reaction), primers at a final concentration of 0.5uM, and
PowerUp™ SYBR™ Green Master Mix for qPCR (ThermoFisher Scientific #A25742). The qPCR
reactions were run in technical triplicate for each sample on the CFX384 Touch Real-Time PCR
Detection System (BioRad #1855484) using the "fast cycling mode" conditions described in the Master
Mix protocol. Expression of the KD target gene (*ENSG00000261840*) was assessed using the delta-
delta Ct method, with expression first normalized to that of the housekeeping gene *HPRT1* for each
sample, and then displayed relative to the average of the NTC control samples, plotted as mean +/-
SEM. Statistical significance was assessed using a two-tailed t test (GraphPad Prism).
770
Processing of Cerebral Organoids for Histological Analysis
Cerebral organoids were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA), diluted in PBS from 16% PFA
(Electron Microscopy Sciences # 15710), at 4°C overnight. Following fixation, cerebral organoids were
rinsed with PBS and then equilibrated in 30% sucrose (w/v in PBS) at least overnight at 4°C. For large
organoids, the 30% sucrose solution was replaced at least once following overnight incubation to
ensure complete cryoprotection. For cryosectioning, cerebral organoids were frozen in Tissue-Tek®
O.C.T. Compound (Sakura #4583) on dry ice. A Leica CM3050 S Cryostat was used to obtain 30um
sections, which were collected on Fisherbrand™ Superfrost™ Plus Microscope Slides (Fisher Scientific
#12-550-15) and stored at -80°C.
For immunohistochemical analysis, blocking buffer was prepared by combining 0.3M glycine
(Sigma G7403-1KG), 1% bovine serum albumin (Sigma A4503-50G), 0.3% Triton X-100 (Sigma
T8787-50ML), 10% normal goat serum (Fisher Scientific # NC9660079), and PBS. Slides were rinsed
in PBS to remove O.C.T. and then incubated in blocking buffer for 1 hour at room temperature (RT).
Blocking buffer was removed and replaced with fresh blocking buffer containing primary antibodies of
interest (see below), and the slides were incubated in a slide moisture chamber (Avantor # 76278-848)
at 4°C overnight. Slides were then rinsed with PBS three times for five minutes each. Secondary
antibodies (see below) and the nuclear stain DAPI (ThermoFisher Scientific #62248) were diluted in
blocking buffer (1:500 and 1:1000, respectively) and added to the slides for 30 minutes at RT, and the
slides were protected from light from this point forward. The slides were then rinsed in PBS three times
for five minutes each. Cover slips (Epredia #152455) were mounted using Fluoromount-G® (Fisher
Scientific #OB100-01), which was allowed to dry at least overnight at RT. After drying, slides were
stored at 4°C.
793
Antibodies
• PAX6 (BD Pharmingen #561462): diluted 1:300
• Nestin (Millipore Sigma #HPA026111-25UL): diluted 1:500
• TBR2 (Millipore Sigma #HPA028896-100UL): diluted 1:300
• CTIP2 (Abcam #ab18465): diluted 1:300
• EGFP (Aves #GFP-1010): diluted 1:1000
• Secondary antibodies (from ThermoFisher Scientific, e.g. #A-21247): diluted 1:500
801

Confocal Imaging and Processing

Cerebral organoid sections were imaged using a Zeiss LSM 980 confocal microscope. Standard image processing was performed using Adobe Photoshop.

Cerebral Organoid scRNA-seq

For scRNA-seq, cells were collected from:
- 1 month: 10 organoids, pooled together and collected as a single batch
- 2 months: 14 organoids collected in two batches, with 7 organoids collected together on day 60 and an additional 7 organoids collected together on day 61
- acute KD: 8 organoids, pooled together and collected as a single batch

To collect cells, mosaic cerebral organoids were cut into pieces using spring scissors, rinsed twice with PBS to remove debris, and then dissociated using the Neural Tissue Dissociation Kit – Postnatal Neurons (Miltenyi Biotec # 130-094-802) using the enzyme mixes described for brain tissue. Gentle dissociation was performed by trituration with pipette tips of decreasing diameter, starting with wide orifice tips (Rainin # 30389218) and progressing to standard tips. Cells with recombined FLICK constructs were isolated through FACS (BD FACSymphony™ S6) for EGFP+ cells. Transcriptome-wide scRNA-seq libraries were prepared using Chromium Next GEM Single Cell 3' Reagent Kits v3.1 (Dual Index) from 10X Genomics, following user guide CG000316 Rev A.

Construction of FLICK Barcode Sequencing Libraries

Please see full details on protocols.io. Briefly:

For quantification of FLICK constructs from the initial pool of iPSCs used to generate mosaic organoids (d0), RNA was extracted from triplicate samples of 42k cells using the Direct-zol RNA Microprep Kit (Zymo Research #R2062). To generate cDNA, 50-250ng of RNA was reverse-transcribed using the SuperScript™ IV First-Strand Synthesis System (Invitrogen 18091050) along with an oligo(dT)VN primer containing UMIs. Sequencing libraries were then generated using Q5® Hot Start High-Fidelity 2X Master Mix (NEB #M0494L) and custom primers.

To generate FLICK barcode libraries from scRNA-seq libraries, 5uL of amplified and cleaned cDNA (produced by following the 10X User Guide CG000316 Rev A through the end of Step 2) was used. Barcode-containing cDNA was amplified for sequencing using Q5® Hot Start High-Fidelity 2X Master Mix (NEB #M0494L) and custom primers.

Libraries were cleaned using SPRIselect DNA Size Selection Reagent (Beckman Coulter # B23317) and assessed using TapeStation High Sensitivity D1000 reagents (Agilent #5067-5603 and #5067-5584).

Alignment and Quantification of Organoid scRNA-seq Data

scRNA-seq data was aligned to the pre-built CellRanger (v.9.0.0) hg38 reference using *cellranger-count* in feature-barcode mode to perform simultaneous gene expression and guide abundance quantification. Introns were not included in gene expression quantification (--include-introns=false) to avoid quantifying partially degraded transcripts that had been targeted by CRISPR-CasRx. CRISPR guide sequencing library FASTQs for 2-month samples were downsampled to 1.25% of reads using seqtk (v1.4) to match CRISPR library sequencing depth for one-month samples and to minimize background for guide assignment using the cellranger-CRISPR guide quantification pipeline. All other default parameters were used. CellRanger guide assignments were used to filter to only cells with exactly one assigned guide.

Pre-Processing and Quality Control of Organoid scRNA-seq Data

Long-term and acute KD samples were processed separately but equivalently. CellBender (v0.3.2) was used to perform detection and filtering of ambient RNA contamination, while scrublet (v0.2.3) was used to perform automatic doublet detection and filtering. All other downstream analysis was performed with Seurat (v5.0.0). High-quality cells were retained according to the following quality-control metrics: 1) percent mitochondrial (percent.mt) gene expression < 20% and 2) 500 < number of expressed genes (nFeature_RNA) < 6000.

Cell-Type Annotation of Organoid scRNA-seq Data

Cell-type annotation was first performed on only non-targeting control (NTC) cells. NTC cells were extracted to create a control-only Seurat object. This object subsequently underwent normalization (*NormalizeData*), variable feature identification (*FindVariableFeatures*), scaling (*ScaleData*; regressed covariates of percent.mt, percent_ribo, nCount_RNA, and nFeature_RNA), and dimensionality reduction (*RunPCA* and *RunUMAP*). Integration was performed using harmony (v1.2.0) across organoid batches and this integrated object was used for unsupervised clustering (*FindNeighbors* and *FindClusters*, resolution = 0.6 and 1.2). A small number of unsupervised clusters (<1000 cells) were filtered due to low cluster-wide QC metrics (i.e. exceptionally high or low nCount_RNA, high percent.mt). All subsequent 2-D visualization of this control-only Seurat object was performed using a UMAP representation of the integrated data. Cell type annotation was performed using canonical brain marker genes. A Seurat object was next constructed for all cells, following the same processing pipeline (e.g., normalization, scaling, dimensionality reduction, and integration) as described above. To perform cell-type annotation, label transfer was performed from the control-only Seurat object (*TransferData*) to the full Seurat object. Expression patterns of canonical brain marker genes were then used to refine and finalize these cell type annotations.

Analysis of Relative Abundance per KD in Cerebral Organoids

The relative abundance of cells for each KD target was determined for each time point (d0, d30, d60, or d61). For d0, relative abundance was determined from bulk RNA-seq libraries (see "Construction of FLICK Barcode Sequencing Libraries") using a custom pipeline (see **Code Availability**). For d30, d60, and d61, relative abundance was determined from scRNA-seq using the CRISPR guide assignments generated by CellRanger (see "Alignment and Quantification of Organoid scRNA-seq Data"). For each sample, results were normalized to the starting proportion at d0 and displayed relative to NTCs from the same timepoint. Results were plotted as mean +/- SEM. Statistical analysis was performed using repeated measures one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparisons test (GraphPad Prism), considering all long-term samples (d30, d60, and d61).

Analysis of Relative Cell Type Proportions in Cerebral Organoids

The relative ExN/RG proportion was determined for each KD target at d30, d60, and d61. Results were normalized to the NTC sample from the same timepoint. Statistical analysis was performed using ordinary one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparisons test (GraphPad Prism), considering all long-term samples (d30, d60, and d61).

Differential Expression Analysis of Cerebral Organoid scRNA-seq Data

Differential expression analysis was performed between perturbed cells per guide and cells that received NTCs, stratified by major cell types (radial glia, intermediate progenitor cells, excitatory neurons, or inhibitory neurons). Seurat *FindMarkers* was used to perform differential expression with logfc.threshold = 0, min.pct = 0.10, min.cells.group = 3 and otherwise all default parameters. Enrichment analyses of differentially expressed genes (DEGs) were performed using hypergeometric tests, and p-values were adjusted using Benjamini-Hochberg correction for multiple hypothesis testing. The universe was defined as all genes expressed in both comparisons of interest.

Visualization of Shared DEGs Between Organoid Cell Types

Shared DEGs were visualized between organoid cell types (**Fig. 3c**) using the R package igraph (v2.0.3). The Fruchterman-Reingold layout algorithm (*layout_with_fr*) was used to determine final node placement.

MAGIC Analyses

MAGIC[52] (v1.1) was used to identify transcription factors and cofactors whose targets are enriched in the DEGs from individual perturbations. The strategy of "gene body (promoter to the end of the last exon) plus 1Kb flanking sequence either side of the gene body" was used. For NPC analyses, the universe was set as all genes with baseMean > 10 in NTC samples. For organoid analyses, the

909 universe was set as all genes expressed in at least 10% of cells of that cell type (Seurat min.pct = 0.10;
910 no log2 fold-change cutoff), as these were the genes assessed for differential expression.
911
Re-Analysis of REST ChIP-Seq Data
Data was extracted from Table S2 from Rockowitz and Zheng 2015. Mouse genes were mapped to
human genes using Orthology.eg.db (v3.20.0), org.Mm.eg.db (v3.20.0), and org.Hs.eg.db (v3.20.0).
Enrichment analysis was performed using a hypergeometric test with all BrainSpan genes with
normalized expression >= 1 as the universe (version "RNA-Seq Gencode v10 summarized to genes";
https://brainspan.org; accessed 1/6/24). P-values were adjusted using Benjamini-Hochberg correction
for multiple hypothesis testing. Results were displayed as bar plots, with main bars indicating odds ratio
and error bars indicating lower 95% confidence interval for one-sided Fisher's test (upper bound of
infinity not shown).
921
Gene Regulatory Network (GRN) Construction and Benchmarking
A GRN was constructed using the bioinformatic tool ARACNe-AP[57]. The input was the RNA-seq
data from our 3 NTCs and the successful KD samples with at least 50 DEGs. We used curated lists of
transcription factors[104] and epigenetic regulators[59] and selected genes expressed in NPCs (baseMean
>10 in NTC samples) as the candidate genetic regulators. To create the GRN, we used default
parameters and 100 bootstraps that were then aggregated together to form the final network. We then
used VIPER[62] (v1.36.0) to identify differentially active regulons following standard operating
procedures. In brief, we identified regulons with significant differential expression between NTCs and
KDs using a t-test, with a null distribution defined by sample permutations.
To benchmark the predictive power of the ARACNe-derived GRNs, we generated additional
ARACNe networks after individually holding out perturbation samples for five target genes that were
identified as regulators of at least 250 genes (range: 478-1219 genes) in their 2nd degree regulons (i.e.,
their direct targets, which constitute their 1st degree regulon, as well as the direct targets of those
genes). For each held-out regulator, we assessed overlap using a hypergeometric test between 1) the
predicted positively regulated genes within its 2nd degree regulon, and 2) the set of downregulated
DEGs resulting from perturbation of that same regulator. P-values were adjusted using Benjamini-
Hochberg correction for multiple hypothesis testing. P-values across the five held-out perturbations
were combined using Fisher's method.
940
PageRank Analysis of GRN
To identify central regulators within our GRN, we converted the GRN to a graph using the R
package igraph (v2.1.4) and ran the PageRank algorithm[60] using the igraph method *page_rank*. We
then rank-ordered genes by their PageRank score and ran gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA)[105]
using the R package fgsea (v1.32.4), testing the following ontologies: SFARI genes, HC-SFARI genes,
ID genes (exclusive of SFARI genes), and the 50 Molecular Signature Database Hallmark Pathways[61]
(obtained from https://www.gsea-msigdb.org/gsea/msigdb).
948
Identification of Top Candidate Regulators for Driving Convergence in Autism
950 VIPER[62] (v1.36.0) was used to identify GRN regulators whose regulons were significantly
951 differentially active across the KDs compared to NTC controls. From these, we prioritized 70 regulators
952 whose regulons were significantly enriched for both SFARI genes (hypergeometric test with Benjamini-
953 Hochberg correction for multiple hypothesis testing) and high PageRank scores (gene set enrichment
954 analysis with Benjamini-Hochberg correction for multiple hypothesis testing).
955
Additional GRN Analyses
Mean normalized degree for the indicated set of regulators and their 1st degree regulons (**Fig. 5d**)
was calculated using the R package igraph (v2.1.4) by running the function *mean(degree(graph,*
normalized = TRUE)). We then created an empirical null distribution of mean normalized degrees for
each indicated set of regulators by creating 1M subnetworks of the same set size of randomly selected
GRN regulators. Relative mean normalized degree was calculated as the observed mean normalized
degree for a given set of regulators divided by the mean of the values for the corresponding empirical

null distribution. A one-sided empirical p-value was then calculated as the proportion of null values
greater than or equal to the observed mean normalized degree, with a detection limit of p = 1e-6.
To evaluate known or predicted protein-protein interactions between the top 70 regulators, we
utilized the STRING database GUI[63]. For the universe, we used the full set genes that were considered
as candidate genetic regulators in the GRN: transcription factors[104] and epigenetic regulators[59] that
were expressed in NPCs (baseMean >10 in NTC samples). All other default parameters were used.
For clustering of our 70 regulators into modules, we used iterative walktrap clustering using the R
package igraph (v2.0.3) by running the function *cluster_walktrap* with default parameters.
971
Re-Analysis of CHD8 ChIP-Seq Data
For enrichment analysis of CHD8 targets, we used Supplementary Data 1 from Sugathan et al.,
2014[64]. Enrichment of the indicated gene sets was tested using hypergeometric tests, with the universe
set to NPC-expressed genes (baseMean > 10 in NTCs). P-values were adjusted using Benjamini-
Hochberg correction for multiple hypothesis testing. Results were displayed as a bar plot, with main
bars indicating odds ratio and error bars indicating lower 95% confidence interval for one-sided Fisher's
test (upper bound of infinity not shown).
979
Identification of Female-Biased Genes
To identify genes that exhibit female-biased expression in the neurotypical brain, we combined
DEG call sets from the following works:
(1) Table S4 from Kissel et al., 2024[68]: Identified as significantly female-biased in either the UCLA
cohort, BrainVar cohort, or via meta-analysis.
(2) Oliva et al., 2020[69] (https://storage.cloud.google.com/adult-gtex/bulk-qtl/v8/sb-
eqtl/GTEx_Analysis_v8_sbgenes.tar.gz): Identified as significantly female-biased in either
BRNCTXA or BRNCTXB.
(3) Table S4 from Naqvi et al., 2019[70]: Identified as significantly female-biased in the brains of all
assessed species (human, mice, rats, dogs, and macaques).
990
Re-Analysis of ZFX Targets from Rhie et al., 2018 and San Roman et al., 2023
ZFX ChIP-seq targets were obtained from Table S3E from Rhie et al. 2018. ZFX targets were also
obtained from San Roman et al. 2024, which previously performed integrative analysis of ZFX ChIP-
seq data (ENCODE) and *ZFX* KD RNA-seq data from Rhie et al. 2018. Enrichment was analyzed using
hypergeometric tests and p-values were adjusted using Benjamini-Hochberg correction for multiple
hypothesis testing. For analysis of common ZFX targets from Rhie et al. 2018, the universe was
defined as genes expressed in both of the cell lines used for ChIP-seq for which RNA-seq was also
available (C4-2B and MCF-7). For analysis of ZFX targets from San Roman et al. 2024, the universe
was defined as genes expressed in the corresponding cell type from Rhie et al. 2018. Results were
displayed as a bar plot, with main bars indicating odds ratio and error bars indicating lower 95%
confidence interval for one-sided Fisher's test (upper bound of infinity not shown).
1002
Data Availability
All raw data has been deposited to GEO (GSE305954). GEO data can currently be accessed
anonymously by reviewers using the information provided to the editor. Please note that this data is
currently embargoed and should only be accessed by reviewers for the purpose of manuscript review.
This data should not be distributed or used for other purposes until the embargo is lifted on the date of
publication, at which point all GEO data will be publicly available.
1009
1010　**Code Availability**
1011　Code has been provided to reviewers as a zip file (REA_MT_CAW_code.zip) and will be publicly
1012　available via Github on the date of publication.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We thank members of the Walsh Lab for helpful discussions. We are also grateful to Dr. Norma K. Hylton and Evan M. Bushinsky of the Walsh Lab for assistance with cerebral organoid culture, Dr. August Yue Huang for technical feedback regarding statistical analyses, and Dr. Adrianna K. San Roman and Dr. Marla E Tharp of the Page Lab for their insights regarding *ZFX*. This work was facilitated by the BCH Flow Cytometry Research Core (funded by 5U54DK110805), the BCH IDDRC Molecular Genetics Core Facility (funded by NIH P50 HD105351), the BCH Cellular Imaging Core (funded by NIH P50 HD105351), and Lingsheng Dong of the HMS Research Computing Core. This work was supported by Autism Speaks Postdoctoral Fellowship 13008 and NIGMS T32 GM007748 (R.E.A.); NIH T32 GM007753 and T32 GM144273 (M.T.); the Simons Foundation Autism Research Initiative, the Howard Hughes Medical Institute, The Brit Jepson d'Arbeloff Center on Women's Health, Arthur W. and Carol Tobin Brill, Matthew Brill, Charles Ellis, Carla Knobloch, The Brett Barakett Foundation, the Howard P. Colhoun Family Foundation, and the Seedlings Foundation (M.T. and D.C.P.); the Harvard Program for Research in Science and Engineering and the Harvard College Research Program (T.S.); a Howard Hughes Medical Institute Fellowship from the Helen Hay Whitney Foundation and Grant K99MH136290 from NIMH/NIH (J.H.T.S); K99 NS135123 from the NINDS/NIH (X.Q.); the Howard Hughes Medical Institute and Grant K99EY034603 from NEI/NIH (R.N.D); the Harvard-Amgen Scholars Program (G.E.); and grants from the Simons Foundation and Autism BrainNet (953759), NIMH (U01MH106883), the Hock E. Tan and K. Lisa Yang Center for Autism Research at Harvard University, and the Allen Discovery Center program, a Paul G. Allen Frontiers Group advised program of the Paul G. Allen Family Foundation (C.A.W). D.C.P. and C.A.W. are Investigators of the Howard Hughes Medical Institute.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

R.E.A and M.T. conceived the experiments and led the analyses, with supervision from C.A.W. M.T. led all bioinformatic analyses. R.E.A. designed all plasmid constructs with support from T.S. and S.L. Molecular cloning and lentivirus production were performed by R.E.A., T.S., and S.L. The CasRx knock-in iPSC line was generated by J.H.T.S. Cell culture was performed by R.E.A., T.S., S.L., and N.M., with contributions from S.Z., G.E., and J.H. Bulk RNA-seq libraries were prepared by R.E.A. and S.L. Analysis of bulk RNA-seq results was performed by M.T., with code contributions from R.N.D. NPC proliferation assays were performed by R.E.A., S.L., S.Z., G.E., and J.H. Cerebral organoids were cultured by R.E.A., T.S., and N.M., with advice and support from X.Q. Cerebral organoid scRNA-seq libraries were prepared by R.E.A. and N.M. Analysis of scRNA-seq libraries was performed by M.T. Cryosectioning and immunohistochemical labeling of cerebral organoids was performed by R.E.A. and N.M. Confocal imaging and histological analyses of cerebral organoids were performed by D.E.-A. D.C.P. contributed to the interpretation of *ZFX* as a contributor to the female protective effect in ASD. R.E.A., M.T, and C.A.W. wrote the manuscript with contributions from all of the authors. All of the authors read and approved the final manuscript.

COMPETING INTERESTS

C.A.W. consults for Maze Therapeutics, Mosaica Medicines, Bioskryb Genomics (cash, equity). The remaining authors declare no competing interests.

SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION

Supplementary Information is available for this paper.

MATERIALS & CORRESPONDENCE

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SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION

Supplementary Table 1. Guide RNA (gRNA) sequences for use with CasRx.

Supplementary Table 2. Data associated with **Extended Data Fig. 1a**.

Supplementary Table 3. Data associated with **Fig. 1c**.

Supplementary Table 4. Median LOEUF scores used for assessing constraint. Highly constrained genes were defined as having a median LOEUF score of less than 0.35.

Supplementary Table 5. Genes that meet the criteria used for identifying candidate ASD risk genes: 1) statistically significant downregulation by at least three of the ASD KDs, with at least 80% concordance in the direction of significant differential expression across all KDs (consistently downregulated DEGs); and 2) intolerance to loss of function variants (highly constrained genes).

Supplementary Table 6. Data associated with NPC proliferation assays depicted in **Fig. 1f**.

Supplementary Table 7. Top significant MAGIC regulators identified in different cell populations. For each population, MAGIC regulators were scored by the number of ASD gene KDs that implicated the regulator. The 25 top scoring regulators are included here, along with any additional regulators with a tied score.

Supplementary Table 8. Top drivers of convergence in ASD, as identified through GRN analysis.

Supplementary Table 9. Oligo sequences used to generate libraries for bulk RNA-sequencing.

Supplementary Table 10. Primers for ddPCR/qPCR.