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Persistent cortical excitatory neuron dysregulation in adult *Chd8* haploinsufficient mice.

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Abstract

$CHD8$ mutations cause autism spectrum disorder, cognitive deficits, and macrocephaly. $Chd8^{+/-}$ mouse models exhibit macrocephaly and transcriptional pathology, with inconsistent findings regarding neurogenesis, neuron function, and behavior. Via stereology and single nuclei transcriptomics (snRNA-seq), we found increased $Chd8^{+/-}$ cortical volume was not explained by increase in neuron number. Differential expression (DE) was present across cortical cell types, with excitatory neurons exhibiting high DE burden and shared and subclass-specific DE signatures. Bulk RNA-seq DE of constitutive $Chd8^{+/-}$ and conditional $Camk2a\text{-}Cre\ Chd8^{+/-}$ mice identified shared transcriptional pathology. DE in synaptosomal versus nuclear mRNA identified overlapping DEGs, but also significant differences and exaggerated synaptosomal changes. Building on DE findings implicating glutamatergic neurons, we found $Chd8^{+/-}$ mice exhibited altered excitatory neuron spine density and dynamics, decreased GCaMP activity correlation, and sleep perturbation. Thus, $Chd8$ haploinsufficiency causes lasting excitatory neuron dysfunction, perturbs RNA regulation beyond transcription, and impacts neuronal properties, cortical microcircuits, and behavior.

Introduction

Mutations in a growing list of genes cause monogenic Neurodevelopmental Disorders (NDDs) with overlapping but complex presentation, including autism spectrum disorder (ASD), intellectual disability (ID), and behavior or psychiatric disorders[1,2]. *CHD8* encodes the chromatin remodeling factor (CRF) Chromodomain Helicase DNA-binding protein 8, and has among the highest rates of protein disrupting rare and de novo mutations in ASD cases[1]. CHD8-associated NDD (*CHD8*-NDD) has core but variably expressed features including ASD, ID, and macrocephaly, as well as sleep, gastrointestinal, psychiatric, and neurological issues[3–9]. *CHD8* is ubiquitously expressed and has pleiotropic functions in the developing and mature brain. Clarifying the links between *CHD8* haploinsufficiency, macrocephaly, and pathology may offer critical insights into the etiology of the 15% of ASD patients that exhibit more severe cognitive and behavioral phenotypes often with poorer prognosis[10]. Furthermore, Chd8 has been identified as a central regulator in network studies of ASD-associated loci[11–13], and serves as a key example of the many CRF genes implicated in ASD and other NDDs[14–18]. Defining the pathological consequences associated with *CHD8* haploinsufficiency is thus an important step towards understanding both *CHD8*-specific mechanisms and broader NDD neurobiology.

Chd8 knockout is embryonic lethal in mice[19,20], and NDD-relevant phenotypes have been observed across studies of heterozygous *Chd8*^{+/-} mouse models[20–26]. Among the consistent findings across constitutive *Chd8*^{+/-} mouse models is the presence of adult macrocephaly and transcriptional pathology[20,22,24,25]. Bulk RNA-seq on developing and adult *Chd8*^{+/-} mouse brain has been performed in a number of studies, finding relatively subtle effects but replicated perturbation of energetics and protein homeostasis and downregulation of synaptic and neuronal genes[20,21,24,25,27–30]. Recent single cell studies of *Chd8*^{+/-} mice suggest subtle changes in neurodevelopment and perturbations to neurons[31–33], but have lacked resolution to analyze specific subtypes in mature cortex. Studies of *Chd8*^{+/-} mouse behavior and cognition have been more variable[20–26], with evidence that some variability is due to genetic background[34,35]. Multiple studies of Chd8 haploinsufficiency have identified changes to electrophysiology in the cortex and in in vitro[21,24,36,37], indicating impacts on neuron function. In vitro

studies in human and non-human primate neurons and human cortical organoids also indicate

perturbation to neurogenesis, increases in organoid size paralleling macrocephaly, and neuronal

electrophysiological and network level dysfunction[31,32,38–41]. Finally, conditional *Chd8* knockout studies

have been conducted targeting specific cell types such as excitatory neurons[36,42–46], oligodendrocytes[47–

49], and astrocytes and microglia[50,51]. Many of these studies have primarily focused on homozygous

conditional mutants, which may not accurately model the heterozygous mutations relevant to NDDs.

Despite extensive study of *Chd8* as a representative NDD risk gene, key questions remain regarding

how heterozygous mutation leads to pathology at the cellular, molecular, and circuit level. First, no

published studies have linked adult macrocephaly to changes in cellular composition or described cell-

type specific molecular pathology in adult *Chd8*^{+/-} mouse brain. Second, it remains unclear whether

neuronal dysfunction has arisen from developmental disruption or reflects a continued requirement for

full *Chd8* dosage in mature neurons, and whether reported RNA expression changes are due to

transcriptional or post-transcriptional mechanisms. Third, circuit-level consequences to behavior

beyond sociability and cognition remain largely unexplored. To address these gaps, we characterized

adult *Chd8*^{+/-} mice and cerebral cortex across cellular, molecular, functional, and behavioral domains

(**Figure 1A**). Our findings reveal selective vulnerability of cortical glutamatergic neurons to *Chd8*

haploinsufficiency, implicate disrupted post-transcriptional regulation of synaptosomal RNA

homeostasis, and demonstrate associated changes in dendritic spine dynamics, impaired neuronal

signaling coherence, and altered sleep architecture in *Chd8*^{+/-} mice.

Results

Description of Chd8 mutant mouse lines

Constitutive mutant *Chd8* mice were generated on the C57BL/6N background via CRISPR/Cas9

targeting exon 5, resulting in a 5 bp deletion that leads to reduced *Chd8* mRNA and protein and is early

embryonic homozygous lethal. We previously characterized heterozygous mutants from this line

(referred to as *Chd8*[+/5bpdel]*, herein *Chd8*^{+/-}), reporting differential expression and splicing, altered cortical

proliferation, increased brain volume, and phenotypes of altered exploration in open field assay and

deficits in fear conditioning and novel object recognition[20]. We also use a conditional *Chd8* loxP mutant

on the C57BL/6J background generated by Jackson Laboratory where exon 3 is ablated in the

presence of CRE (*Chd8*[em3Lutzy]). These were mated to *Camk2a*-CRE (B6.Cg-Tg(Camk2a-cre)T29-

1Stl/J; JAX strain: 005359) to direct conditional heterozygous ablation in post-mitotic forebrain

glutamatergic neurons in this line, herein referred to as *Chd8*[+/flox].

Increased adult cortical volume without increase in neuron number or soma size in Chd8^{+/-} mice

We previously identified increased cortical volume and macrocephaly in *Chd8*^{+/-} mice via structural

MRI[20]. Here, we aimed to replicate this finding and determine whether the volume increase results from

a higher number of neurons. We performed unbiased stereological analysis on Nissl-stained brain

sections from male and female heterozygous *Chd8*^{+/-} mice and wild-type littermates at postnatal day 42

(P42) (**Figure 1B-C**), an age marking the end of adolescence and a mature stage of mouse brain

development[52]. We examined 15–18 representative coronal sections per mouse using established

stereological methods to accurately assess cortical volume, neuronal distribution, and soma size.

Cortical volume was estimated using the Cavalieri method[53,53,54], revealing a significant overall increase

in *Chd8*^{+/-} mice compared to wild-type littermates (**Figure 1D**, P=0.032, Student's t-test). When

stratified by sex, the increase in cortical volume was more pronounced and independently significant in

males (P=0.009 males; P=0.61 females, Student's t-test) (**Supplement**). Comparing volume across

rostral-caudal sections, *Chd8*^{+/-} males showed increase in more rostral regions (**Supplement**).

Next, we investigated whether the cortical volume expansion was associated with an increase in

neuronal numbers or soma size. Using the optical fractionator method[55], we estimated neuron counts

across the cortex. We did not find significant differences in total neuron number in either the full cohort

or sex-stratified analyses (P=0.76, unstratified; P=0.37, males; P=0.3, females) (**Figure 1E**). Finally, we

assessed neuronal soma size and found no significant differences between genotype groups in full or

sex-stratified analyses (P=0.23, unstratified; P=0.81, males; P=0.19, females) (**Supplement**). Taken

together, these findings replicate the cortical volume increase observed in *Chd8*$^{+/-}$ mice, with a stronger

effect in males, and demonstrate that this expansion is not explained by an increase in neuronal

number or soma size. Instead, the increased cortical volume without an increase in numbers results in

decreased glutamatergic neuron density in the *Chd8*$^{+/-}$ cortex.

Figure 1. Increased cortical volume in *Chd8*$^{+/-}$ mice without a corresponding increase in neuron number. (A) Schematic overview of study investigating the role of *Chd8* haploinsufficiency in mature mouse cortex. (B–C) Representative coronal sections across the rostro-caudal extent of the cerebral cortex used for unbiased stereological analysis. (B) Cortical boundaries as determined for volume measurements. (C) Cellular organization visualized using Nissl staining (top) and NeuN immunostaining (bottom) in *Chd8*$^{+/+}$ and *Chd8*$^{+/-}$ mice. (D–E) Stereological profiles across the Z-plane showing (D) cortical volume estimates based on the Cavalieri method and (E) total neuron number as assessed by unbiased stereology in the same rostro-caudal regions. Data are stratified by sex and genotype. Error bars represent SEM. Statistical comparisons were performed using two-way ANOVA (Cortical volume: P=0.032 unstratified, P=0.009 males; P=0.61 females; Neuron Count: P=0.76, unstratified; P=0.37, males; P=0.30, females Student's t-test need to insert n per group).

Cell-type specific cellular and molecular pathology in Chd8^{+/-l} P60 cortex

Towards characterizing differences in RNA expression associated with *Chd8* haploinsufficiency in adult

(P60) mouse cortex, we performed single nucleus RNA sequencing (snRNA-seq) on constitutive

Chd8^{+/-} mice, as well as bulk RNA-seq on *Chd8*^{+/-} and conditional *Camk2a-CRE Chd8*[+/flox] mutants, and

for nuclear and synaptosomal RNA from *Chd8*^{+/-} mutants (**Figure 2A**). For snRNA-seq, we analyzed

Chd8^{+/-} (male n = 3, female n= 2) and WT littermates (male n=2, female n=3 WT). Following quality

control and ambient RNA correction[56], there were 11,751 and 12,169 nuclei from *Chd8*^{+/-} and WT

samples, respectively, which we mapped to 18 cortical cell types based on marker gene expression

and integration with the BICCN mouse brain atlas[57] (see methods) (**Figure 2B** and **Supplement**).

There was balanced representation of male and female samples and of *Chd8*^{+/-} and WT samples

(**Figure 2C**). *Chd8* expression was higher in non-neuronal cells, but detectable across all cell types

(**Figure 2C**). There were no significant differences in *Chd8* expression between mutant and WT cells,

as expected based on a cytosolic nonsense-mediated decay being required for reduced levels of the

mutant frameshift transcript. All major cortical cell types were identified, with expected expression of

marker genes (**Figure 2C**). Cell identity was split at three levels: cell type 3 representing general

classes (e.g. glutamatergic neurons), cell type 2 associated with specific canonical subtypes (e.g. L4/5

IT), and cell type 1 representing data-driven further sub-clustering of subtypes (e.g. L4/5 IT Glut1).

Following UMAP generation and cell type identification, we tested for differences in the relative

representation across different cell types, comparing normalized cell proportions between *Chd8*^{+/-} and

WT groups (**Figure 2E**). At the cell type 2 level, there was significant increase in OPC and decrease in

L6 IT, with trending increase in astrocytes and decrease in microglia. These findings are consistent with

the results from stereology, demonstrating that macrocephaly and increased cortical volume in *Chd8*^{+/-}

mice is not due to increase in number of glutamatergic neurons and further suggesting that increased

cortical volume is not explained by expansion of specific cell types.

Next, we performed cell-type specific differential expression (DE) analysis using a cluster-level

pseudobulk framework[58], where reads are from the relevant cell type are aggregated at the sample

level, followed by DE testing using DESeq2[59] with experimental batch included as a covariate. We

performed DE analysis at each level of cell type identity, with a focus on cell type 2 for results here. DE

results were stablished using either the full dataset or when down-sampling for equivalent cell/nuclei

numbers across cell types and when using both uncorrected and ambient RNA corrected expression

values, and similar effects were present when stratifying male and female samples (**Supplement**).

Comparing DE burden (defined as the number of total DE genes divided by genes passing criteria for

Figure 2: Cell type-specific pathology in adult *Chd8*$^{+/-}$ mouse cortex. A) Schematic depicting
experimental design for RNA-seq and snRNA-seq experiments. B) UMAP of 23,920 cortical nuclei from
P60 *Chd8*$^{+/-}$ and WT littermates with cell types annotated. C) Clustering of *Chd8*$^{+/-}$ (HET) and WT nuclei
(top) and male and female nuclei (bottom) in UMAP space. D) Cell type identification dot plot
representing average expression of cell type-specific marker genes in each cell type. Tree (bottom)
shows 3 levels of cell type identification (Cell_Type_1-3). E) Cell type proportion comparison between
Chd8$^{+/-}$ (HET) and WT nuclei, revealing a significant decrease in mutant L6 IT Glut nuclei (*p = 0.027)
and increase in mutant OPCs (*p = 0.048) (Student's t-test). F) DEG burden across cell types (Burden
= DE genes / expressed genes * 100). Significant DE burden was found in L2/3 IT (*p = 0.00001), L4/5
IT (*p = 0.00001), L5 IT (*p = 0.00001), L5 ET (*p = 0.0045), L6 CT Glut (*p = 0.0004), and VLMC (*p =
0.0009) nuclei (permutation test, n= 10,000). G) Heatmap showing –log10(pval) of top 25 unique
upregulated (top) and downregulated (bottom) bulk and pseudobulk DEGs in each cell type (p < 0.1).

testing), glutamatergic cell types along with VLMC showed the largest impacts (**Figure 3F**). Among

glutamatergic neurons, L2/3 intra-telencephalic (IT) and L4/5 IT neurons had the highest burden. At the

single gene level, the top DE genes (DEGs) varied by cell type, with the exception that glutamatergic

neuron subtypes, showed considerable overlap in effects (**Figure 3G**). We performed gene set

enrichment analysis (GSEA) based on DE rank using the clusterProfiler package[60] (**Supplement**). Only

glutamatergic neuron subtypes had DE signatures strongly associated with GO terms (FDR < 0.05),

with the strongest signatures in L2/3 IT and L4/5 IT. Using a relaxed threshold of uncorrected P < 0.05,

upregulated genes in glutamatergic neurons showed shared enrichment for pathways including

Synapse organization, *Synaptic signaling*, and *Axon guidance*, and *Neuron differentiation*. Finally, we

applied NeuronChat[61] to infer cell-cell communication networks comparing receptor-ligand relationships

in *Chd8*^{+/-} and WT cortex based on snRNA-seq data (**Supplement**). This analysis revealed significantly

reduced Neurexin-Neuroligan interaction strength and frequency in *Cdh8*^{+/-} mice, with the strongest

effect in L2/3 IT neurons (**Supplement**). Conversely, we detected increased communication strength

involving glutamate receptors in the *Chd8*^{+/-} mutants (**Supplement**). These findings highlight disrupted

synaptic signaling in *Chd8*^{+/-} mice and suggest that glutamatergic neuron subtypes, particularly L2/3 IT

and L4/5 IT neurons, are disproportionately affected in the adult cortex.

Shared and cell-type specific DE co-expression modules in Chd8^{+/-} *glutamatergic neurons*

To capture systems-level expression patterns in glutamatergic neurons, we used hdWGCNA[62] to

identify gene co-expression modules and then identified differentially expressed modules (DEMs)

based on log2-transformed Fold Change (logFC) of module genes (see methods for details). All

glutamatergic cell subtypes were used as input to hdWGCNA, which yielded 10 modules accounting for

1,691 (17%) genes, with the remaining 8,115 genes assigned to the grey group (**Figure 3A**). 8/10

modules were DEMs in at least one glutamatergic subtype, as indicated by highlighted label and box

outlines in **Figures 2B-E.** Two modules (M1 and M7) were DEMs across most glutamatergic subtypes,

whereas the other six DEMs (M2, M3, M4, M6, M9, and M10) showed genotype differences in only one

or two subtypes. Module level differential expression direction and effect size varied, though all but one

Figure 3: hdWGCNA reveals differentially expressed glutamatergic cell coexpression modules.
A) 10 glutamatergic modules identified via hdWGCNA B) Number of genes per module. C) Relative expression of glutamatergic modules across glutamatergic neuron subtypes (module score = average expression of all module genes compared to expression-matched background genes; DEMs identified via comparison of median pseudo-bulk logFC of module genes to that of the grey module via t-test; DEMs (*p < 0.05) in at least one population are labeled in yellow. D) DEG burden (calculated as in Fig. 2F) of each DEM in each cell type E) Heatmap of relative median pseudo-bulk logFC of module genes for glutamatergic cell types scaled by p-value. White and black boxes in C-E indicate the cell types in which each corresponding module was DE. F) Representative significant GO terms for Biological

Processes enriched in glutamatergic modules. (*p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001). G) Box plots for 4
representative DEMs showing logFCs of module genes in each glutamatergic subtype. Opaque boxes
indicate cell types where the module shown was significantly differentially expressed. H) Feature plots
(left) showing relative expression of representative genes from DEMs of interest in UMAP space. Dot
plots (right) show median sample-level expression of the same genes. Black boxes indicate cell types
where the corresponding module is differentially expressed, or where the direction of change in module
expression is consistent across batches.

DEM (M6 in L4/5 IT) were upregulated in *Chd8*^{+/-} mutants. The modules varied in gene number (**Figure**

3B) and relative expression patterns (**Figure 3C**) across glutamatergic subtypes and cortical layers.

The proportion of module genes that were individually DE (**Figure 2D**) and the module-level logFC

(**Figure 2E**) similarly varied across modules and subtypes.

The glutamatergic co-expression modules showed different association to biological processes based

on GO enrichment (**Figure 3F**). First, 6/10 modules showed overlapping enrichment for a variety of

general neuron-associated terms (e.g. *Synapse assembly*, *Axon Guidance*, *Behavior*) without strong

module-specific GO terms. These included DEMs M1, M2, and M3, as well as non-DEMs M8 and M5.

These modules also showed relative expression differences across glutamatergic subtypes and cortical

layers, suggesting that co-expression for these gene sets is primarily driven by expression co-variation

associated with cell identity, rather than driven by co-expression associated with biological processes

or genotype effects. The remaining four modules (M4, M6, M7, M9) were all DEMs and featured strong

module-specific GO enrichment: M4 and M9, associated with *Aerobic Respiration* and *Translation* and

upregulated in L2/3 IT, M6, associated with *mRNA processing* and downregulated in L4/5 IT, and M7,

which was broadly downregulated and associated with general neuronal terms as well as GO terms

represented by *Circadian rhythm*. In addition to module-specific GO terms, these four modules did not

show subtype- or laminar-associated differences in relative expression and had DE signatures limited

to individual glutamatergic subtypes. We highlight gene-level differential expression patterns for DEMs

of high interest in **Figure 3G**, focusing on M1 and M7 modules that are broadly DE across

glutamatergic subtypes, and M3 and M4 modules that are subtype-specific DEMs with prominent

effects in L4/5 IT and L2/3 IT, respectively. **Figure 3H** shows representative gene expression patterns

from these DEMs visualized in UMAPs and pseudobulk-level relative expression plots. See

Supplement for extended modules visualizations. M1 (featuring *Rspo2*) includes a large set of genes

that are expressed most highly in deep layer excitatory neurons (L6 CT and L6b), associated with

general neuronal and synaptic functions. Although it includes both up- and downregulated genes, M1

shows a significant bias towards upregulation with the strongest effects in L4/5 IT and L5 IT subtypes.

In contrast, M7 (featuring *Malm3*) is a smaller module exhibiting consistent upregulation across all

glutamatergic subtypes. It is associated with general neuronal function as well as circadian rhythm and

hormone response pathways. M3 (featuring *Rimbp2*) is selectively upregulated in more superficial

glutamatergic subtypes L4/5 IT neurons, with enrichment for neuronal and synaptic processes. In

contrast M4 (featuring *Atp5j2*) shows low expression across glutamatergic subtypes and GABAergic

neurons, but relatively higher expression in non-neuronal cell types, with gene ontology terms related to

translation and mitochondrial ATP metabolism. The shared dysregulation of M1 and M7 DEMs mirrors

overlapping GO enrichment patterns across glutamatergic subtypes observed in GSEA (**Supplement**),

reflecting convergent molecular pathology. The subtype-specific dysregulation of M3 and M4 suggest

genotype-dependent perturbations of distinct biological processes particularly affecting L2/3 IT and L4/5

IT neuron populations.

Bulk RNA-seq comparison identifies shared signatures in constitutive versus conditional Chd8 mutants

but divergent effects in nuclear versus synaptosomal mRNA fractions

We employed bulk RNA-seq as a complementary approach to snRNA-seq, assaying DE signatures

across four contrasts: mRNA from P60 cortex from constitutive *Chd8*$^{+/-}$ and from conditional *Camk2a-*

Cre x *Chd8*$^{+/flox}$ mice, and compartment-enriched nuclear and synaptosomal mRNA from P60 cortex

from *Chd8*$^{+/-}$ mice (**Figure 4**). For all conditions, 4-8 biological replicates for each of male and female

mutant *Chd8* mice were compared to matched WT littermates, with the primary DESeq2 DE model

including sequencing batch and sex as covariates. We also analyzed male and female samples

separately, finding generally shared DE signatures (similar as for snRNA-seq) (**Supplement**). Across

the four conditions, the largest number of DEGs at either FDR < 0.05 or P < 0.05 was in the

synaptosomal preparation, followed by the nuclear preparation, then full cortex from *Chd8*$^{+/-}$ and lastly

Chd8+/flox (**Figure 4A**). *Chd8* was among the top downregulated DEGs in all but the nuclear mRNA

condition, consistent with nonsense-mediated decay of mutant *Chd8* transcripts outside the nucleus

(**Figure 4B**). To identify shared and divergent DE signatures across conditions, we compared logFC of

DEGs; shared signatures are represented by concordant LogFC direction, condition-specific effects are

captured by patterns of change (up or down) in one condition with LogFC around zero in the other

condition, and divergent DE signatures are represented by opposite logFC direction. Comparison

between *Chd8+/-* and *Chd8+/flox* logFC for genes with FDR < 0.2 and P-value < 0.05 in *Chd8+/-* (**Figure**

4C, Supplement) captured largely shared signatures, indicating that effects from post-mitotic

heterozygous ablation in excitatory neurons accounts for a significant part of DEG transcriptional

pathology, DEGs identified in both the nuclear and synaptosomal conditions (FDR < 0.1) showed

strong concordance with bulk cortex, however there were striking differences and low concordance

between nuclear and synaptosomal enriched mRNA fractions (**Figure 4D**).

To compare pathway-level dysregulation across bulk RNA conditions, we used GSEA to identify Gene

Ontology (GO) terms where the annotated gene set exhibited significant shift in LogFC distribution

towards up- or downregulation, with shared and condition-specific enrichment for representative terms

shown in **Figure 4E**. Most of the up- and down-regulated terms identified in the constitutive *Chd8+/-*

were shared in the conditional *Chd8+/flox*, and most terms in the nuclear or synaptosomal enriched

conditions were shared in the full cortex preparation, findings that consistent with DEG concordance

across contrasts above. We identified shared upregulation of terms including *Cell cycle checkpoint*,

Electron transport chain, *Mitochondrial translation*, and *Chaperone mediated protein folding*, showing

overlap with terms that were also detected in glutamatergic neuron subtypes in the snRNA-seq data

(**Supplement** and **Figure 3**). Among upregulated terms that differed between synaptosomal and

nuclear conditions were *Regulation of gamma-aminobutyric acid secretion* and *Neuropeptide signaling*

pathway in the synaptosomal and *Regulation of DNA repair* and *Transport along microtubule* in the

nuclear fraction. For downregulated terms, *Axonogenesis*, *Synapse organization*, *Cell adhesion*, and

Regulation of transcription by RNA Pol II were shared, while *Dendrite morphogenesis* and *Postsynapse*

Figure 4: Shared DE in constitutive *Chd8*^{+/-} and *Camk2a-CRE* conditional Chd8[+/flox] mice, with divergent impacts on nuclear and synaptosomal mRNA and protein. A) Barplot of DEG counts across bulk RNA-seq experiments (constitutive *Chd8*^{+/-}, *Camk2a-CRE* conditional *Chd8*[+/flox], and nuclear and synaptosomal preparations from the *Chd8*^{+/-} line. B) Chd8 is down-regulated in all but the nuclear preparation. C) LogFC concordance between constitutive and conditional datasets for constitutive model DEGs. D) LogFC concordance plots for nuclear and synaptosomal versus whole cortex for DEGs identified in nulear or synaptosomal fractions on left, reduced concordance between nuclear and synapsomal DEG logFC on right. E) Selected enriched GO terms for upregulated (left) and downregulated (right) genes across experiments. F) Downregulation of Dlg2 in synaptosomal RNA. GH) Western blot validating decreased synaptosomal PSD93 protein in *Chd8*^{+/-} cortex.

organization were example synaptosomal-enriched terms. Overall, bulk RNA-seq results from the full

cortex and from the nuclear and synaptosomal conditions showed evidence of concordance with DEG

findings from snRNA-seq, though with fairly substantial overall differences in DE signatures

(**Supplement**). The nuclear enriched mRNA showed upregulation of genes associated with the

glutamatergic M1 and M7 hdWGCNA modules that were broadly upregulated across glutamatergic

subtypes in the snRNA-seq data (**Supplement**), validating relevance of these broad DEMs. GO terms

associated with L2/3 IT enriched upregulated M4 and M9 modules associated with mitochondrial

energetics were among the strongest bulk RNA-seq upregulated GSEA hits across conditions. Finally,

for the ASD and neuropsychiatric-associated synaptosomal-specific downregulated *Dlg2* gene[63–66],

which encodes the PSD93 excitatory synaptic scaffold protein, we validated reduction at the protein

level in synaptosomal preparations (**Figure 4F-4H**). These results solidify transcriptional pathology in

adult cortex due to *Chd8* haploinsufficiency and provide insights into cell-autonomous effects in post-

mitotic excitatory neurons and suggest differential mRNA levels are driven by both transcriptional and

post-transcriptional mechanisms that have heightened impact on synaptosomal mRNA levels.

Altered excitatory neuron spine dynamics and calcium signaling coherence in Chd8^{+/-} mice

The snRNA-seq and bulk RNA-seq both pointed to cortical excitatory neuron dysfunction and previous

studies have identified electrophysiological signatures in vivo and in vitro in glutamatergic

neurons[21,36,37,40,40,41]. To further investigate structural pathology of cortical neurons, we crossed *Chd8*^{+/-}

mice with thy1-YFP mice, which express cytoplasmic yellow fluorescent protein in a sparse subset of

layer 5 pyramidal neurons (L5 PyrNs)[67], and performed in vivo two-photon (2P) imaging on apical

dendrites of L5 PyrNs. We compared the density and dynamics of dendritic spines (postsynaptic

structure of majority excitatory synapse) between WT and *Chd8$^{+/-}$* littermates at adolescence (P30) and

adulthood (P90) mice (**Figure 5A**). Adolescent *Chd8$^{+/-}$* mice had lower spine density on the apical

dendritic tufts of L5 PyrNs (**Figure 5B**). Following the same dendritic segments over seven days, we

also found that *Chd8$^{+/-}$* mice had increased dendritic spine formation relative to WT mice, but

comparable spine elimination (**Figure 5C**). On the other side, adult *Chd8$^{+/-}$* mice had normal spine

density and dynamics (**Figure 7D-E**). These results indicate that *Chd8* haploinsufficiency delays

spinogenesis of cortical neurons during early development (before P30).

Figure 5: Delayed spinogenesis during *Chd8$^{+/-}$* development. A) Dendritic segment imaged over 7-
days in somatosensory cortex of adolescent WT and *Chd8$^{+/-}$* mice. Arrowheads: eliminated spines;
arrows: formed spines; asterisks: filopodia. Scale bar = 2 μm. B, D) Spine density in adolescent (b) and
adult (D) *Chd8$^{+/-}$* or WT littermates. C, E) The percentage of spines formed or eliminated over 7d is higher
in adolescent (D) and adult (E) *Chd8$^{+/-}$* than WT littermates, mean, SEM., unpaired t-test. **p<0.01.

To understand how disruption of *Chd8* signaling affects the function of a cortical microcircuit, we

performed calcium imaging in acute slices taken from wildtype or *Chd8*^{+/-} mouse brains expressing the

genetically encoded calcium indicator *GCamp6f* in prefrontal cortex neurons under the control of the

human *Synapsin* promoter (**Figure 6A-D**). We collected 60-minute recordings from a total of 544

neurons from 8 wildtype slices (68+/-9 neurons/slice) and 818 neurons from 10 *Chd8*^{+/-} slices (82+/-9

Figure 6: Disruption of coordinated activity in *Chd8*^{+/-} PFC microcircuits. A. Mice injected with
Syn-GCamp6f and activity recorded from acute slices after 4-6 weeks. B, wide field and GFP at 4x
(left). 10X of individual neurons and z-projection of standard deviation across frames (right). C, z-
scored fluorescence traces from neurons in a single slice. D, Raster of events. E, Cumulative
probability function showing overlap in fraction of frames active for neurons from WT (blue) and *Chd8*^{+/-}
(red) slices. F, Activity of each cell as a function of depth from cortical surface. Cells binned by distance
from surface (gray boxes) and mean correlations within and between bins calculated. G,H, 8x8 matrix
of mean correlation coefficient calculated for cells within each pair of bins, averaged for WT (G) or
Chd8^{+/-} (H) slices. I, cumulative distribution function (CDF) of mean correlation across 544 pooled WT
(blue) neurons and 818 pooled *Chd8*^{+/-} (red) neurons for all bins. J, Mean correlation coefficient of WT
and *Chd8*^{+/-} slices ($p < 0.05$, t-test). K, CDF of the mean value of the subset of bins in which neuron 1
was < 300 microns from cortical surface. L, Mean correlation coefficient of superficial neurons in WT
and HET slices ($p < 0.01$, t-test).

neurons/slice). Overall, the activity of wildtype and *Chd8*$^{+/-l}$ slices was similar (**Figure 6E-F**; mean

fraction of frames active = 5.2+/-0.2% WT vs 5.0+/-0.2% HET, p = 0.4, t-test). To examine the

functional connectivity across the prefrontal microcircuit, we binned neurons into eight 75 μm bins

starting at the cortical surface and extending to a depth of 600 μm, and calculated the correlation

coefficient between the activity of neurons according to the location of each neurons within the slice,

then averaged the correlation coefficient based on the depth of 600 μm, and calculated the correlation

coefficient between the activity of neurons according to the location of each neurons within the slice,

then averaged the correlation coefficient based on the position of each neuron in the cell pair (**Figure**

6G-H). Visual examination of the resulting matrix of averaged correlations revealed that neuron pairs

from heterozygous *Chd8*$^{+/-l}$ slices had on average lower correlation coefficients compared to neuron

pairs from WT slices, and this was particularly pronounced when at least one neuron was located in the

superficial (< 300 μm from the cortical surface) aspect of the slice (**Figure 6I-L**; mean correlation

coefficient WT 0.0057 +/-0.0001 vs 0.0030+/-0.0005, p < 0.05, t-test; n = 8 WT and 10 HET slices;

mean correlation coefficient superficial WT 0.0050+/-0.0009 vs HET 0.0021+/-0.0004, p < 0.01, t-test; n

= 8 WT and 10 HET slices), suggesting that these neurons are relatively disconnected from deeper

layer neurons in the prefrontal microcircuit of mutant *Chd8*$^{+/-l}$ animals.

Chd8$^{+/-}$ *mice exhibit disrupted sleep*

We previously tested *Chd8*$^{+/-}$ mice across a battery of behavioral assays, finding deficits in novel object

recognition and fear conditioning in the learning and memory domain with no differences in sociability

using the three-chamber social preference test or in male-female interactions. Sleep issues are a

common symptom in humans with *CHD8* mutations and the transcriptional dysregulation in *Chd8*$^{+/-}$

mice featured upregulation of the circadian-associated M7 glutamatergic module. Thus, we used

EEG/EMG to continuously record neural activity during a 24-hour period, assigning states of REM,

NREM, and Wake, analyzing 11 *Chd8*$^{+/-}$ (female=7, male=4) and 8 WT littermates (female=4, male=4)

(**Figure 7A-B'**). The total time in seconds that each mouse spent in each state was calculated for each

hour (**Figure 7C-D**). For comparison of sleep patterns, total and standard deviation (SD) were

Figure 7: Perturbed sleep patterns in *Chd8*⁺ᐟ⁻ mice. A) Schematic of 24hr EEG/EMG sleep analysis.
B) Example EEG/EMG traces showing activity during REM, NREM, and Wake state. B') Spectrogram
of the EEG signal in B C) Summary of time spent in each state during each hour of the 24hr monitoring
period for wild type (left) and *Chd8*⁺ᐟ⁻ groups. Mean and SD shown. D) Summary of mean total time
spent in each state separated by light and dark stages (left). Summary of SD in time spent in each state
separated by light and dark stages. See text for statistical summary.

calculated by subject using hourly values and compared for light (Zeitgeber Time ZT0-ZT12) and dark

(ZT12-ZT24) phases (**Figure 7E-F**). *Chd8*^+/- mice had a significant increase in time spent in REM in the

dark stage (P = 0.036 [unpaired t-test with Welch's correction]), and significantly less time spent in

NREM (P = 0.008 [unpaired t-test with Welch's correction]) and increased time spent in wake state (P =

0.040 [unpaired t-test with Welch's correction]) in the light phase. Comparing SD of the time spent per

state across hours, *Chd8*^+/- mice showed higher variability in all states. SD of REM time was

significantly higher during both light and dark phases (P = 0.012 and 0.003, respectively), and SD of

NREM and Wake time were significantly higher during dark phase (P-values = 0.017 and 0.006,

respectively) and marginally increased during the light phase (P = 0.115 and 0.059 respectively).

Together results revealed disrupted sleep patterns in *Chd8*^+/- mice, including more time in REM and

time spent in Wake in the light stage, and higher variability in time spent in specific sleep/wake states

across the light and dark stages.

Discussion

This study extends understanding of how *Chd8* haploinsufficiency alters the adult mouse cerebral

cortex. Via stereology and snRNA-seq, we show that increased cortical volume in *Chd8*^+/- mice is not

due to increase in cortical excitatory neuron numbers, and, in fact, is associated instead with decreased

neuron density. While macrocephaly was not due to increased numbers in excitatory neurons, these

cells do exhibit sensitivity to *Chd8* haploinsufficiency at the level of cell-type specific transcriptional

pathology, synaptosomal RNA homeostasis, dendritic spine formation, and signaling coherence.

Finally, we expand the phenotypic testing of heterozygous *Chd8* mouse models in the domains of sleep

and cognitive performance, finding perturbations to sleep state that aligns with high prevalence of sleep

disturbance reported in patients carrying *CHD8* mutations. Overall, our findings add to the

understanding of the effects of heterozygous *Chd8* mutation on the mouse cortex, providing new

insights into anatomical, cellular, and circuit impacts, dosage sensitivity during brain development and

in post-natal postmitotic neurons, and demonstrating presence of sleep disturbance.

Increased brain size during development and increased cortical volume in adult mice has been reported

across different mutant *Chd8* mouse lines[20,25,27,29]. *Chd8* haploinsufficiency has also been linked to

altered neurogenesis in mouse[20,25,28] and in vitro in human cellular and organoid brain models[32,38].

While increased production of cortical excitatory neurons during development leading to increased

neurons in the adult cortex seemed a plausible explanation for cortical volume increase, results from

both stereology and snRNA-seq show this to not be the case in our *Chd8*^{+/-} mouse model. In fact, we

found the opposite pattern of decreased excitatory neuron density driven by increased volume without

increased neuron counts or increased soma size. There was a trend of decrease in proportions of

certain glutamatergic types in snRNA-seq data, reaching significance for decreased in L6 IT neurons in

the mutants. snRNA-seq indicated significant increase in proportion of OPCs and trend towards

increase in astrocytes, raising the possibility that increased proportions of non-neuronal cells may

explain some of the increased cortical volume. Whatever the roots of *Chd8*-associated macrocephaly, it

is unclear what the link between this neuroanatomical signature and relevant social and cognitive

phenotypes, with a recent study finding little correlation between adult brain weight and behavioral

phenotypes for *Chd8*^{+/-} mice from a series of genetic backgrounds[34]. It could be that causes of

macrocephaly and behavioral phenotypes in *Chd8*^{+/-} mice are independent, or that the mechanisms for

are linked, but with variable anatomical and behavioral outcomes in adult mice. Our results do point to

glutamatergic pathology and one intriguing possibility is that changes in neuronal morphology and

microstructure organization, for example dendritic arborization, could account for the changes. Further

studies will be needed to resolve specific causes of volume increase in *Chd8*^{+/-} adult cortex.

Via unbiased snRNA-seq, we found that glutamatergic neurons exhibit the strongest transcriptional

pathology across cell types in adult mouse *Chd8*^{+/-} cortex, with the most extensive impacts in L2/3 IT

and L4/5 IT subtypes. We identified subtype-specific and shared glutamatergic DEMs, including shared

upregulation of M1 and M7 modules, which are associated with general neuron-associated pathways

and with specific circadian rhythm GO terms. Transcriptional pathology in bulk RNA-seq analysis of

constitutive and conditional *Chd8*^{+/-} mutants here aligns with *CHD8* studies in vitro and using mouse

models[12,20,22,24,25,28,68], with our study adding substantially via integrating single cell and bulk, constitutive

and conditional mouse models, and synaptosomal mRNA fractions. These findings include upregulated

aerobic respiration and mitochondrial energetics, which we map to having the strongest signature in

L2/3 IT neurons, and downregulation associated with synaptic organization and signaling. Bulk RNA-

seq transcriptional changes in excitatory neuron-specific *Chd8*[+/flox] mice paralleled changes in

constitutive heterozygous *Chd8*^{+/-} mutants, demonstrating continued requirement for full *Chd8* dosage

and indicating that excitatory neuron transcriptional phenotypes in mature *Chd8*^{+/-} mice may be

independent of developmental impacts. Our findings of effects in *Chd8*[+/flox] mice due to ablation in

excitatory neurons are consistent with earlier in vitro studies of both heterozygous and homozygous

neuronal ablation[40,69], and extend previous studies of adult *Chd8*^{-/-} conditional mutant mice that did not

examine NDD-relevant heterozygous mutants[44]. We further link transcriptional dysregulation in

glutamatergic neurons to functional impacts in these cells, finding altered dendrite spine formation

during adolescence which manifests at the circuit level as de-correlated spontaneous prefrontal activity.

Finally, though not directly linked to specific cells or circuits, we identified perturbed sleep patterns

Chd8^{+/-}. These findings are highly relevant to NDDs, as disrupted synaptic development and altered

network activity represent candidate causal mechanisms and sleep disturbances are commonly

reported in individuals with ASD and related conditions[70] and are one of the more penetrant phenotypes

in CHD8-NDD[71]. Constitutive *Chd8*^{+/-} mice do not exhibit classic sociability deficits in the three-chamber

social preference assay and behavioral and cognitive phenotypes vary across *Chd8*^{+/-} studies and

across mouse genetic backgrounds[20–22,24,25,27,34,37]. As such, behavioral studies of *Chd8* mutant mice

have proved challenging to interpret. Our results, along with studies that have identified other

phenotypes at cellular, molecular, and anatomical level such as via electrophysiology or structural MRI,

highlight molecular endophenotypes that may be more consistent in expression and have high

translational relevance. Future studies will be needed to determine which aspects of *Chd8*^{+/-} mouse

phenotypes are driven by developmental versus later requirement for full dosage, which specific

neuronal and glial populations are dependent on Chd8, and if molecular, cellular, and neuroanatomical

phenotypes are consistent between mutant lines and across mouse and human *CHD8*^{+/-} models.

One novel finding from our study was the significant differences in DE signatures between nuclear and

synaptosomal mRNA preparations. Bulk nuclear RNA-seq recapitulated upregulation observed for the

two glutamatergic DEMs with broad dysregulation and had the highest concordance with snRNA-seq

DEGs, as well as being strongly concordant with the full bulk cortex RNA-seq. Thus, nuclear RNA

changes observed at both single cell/nucleus and bulk level appear robust. Surprisingly, there was

relatively weak concordance between synaptosomal and nuclear DEGs, with a stronger overall DE

signature in the synaptosomal enriched preparations. These findings indicate disconnect between

changes in transcriptional rate, captured by nuclear RNA datasets, and changes in steady-state mRNA

levels in $Chd8^{+/-}$ cortex. We and others previously identified altered mRNA splicing in $Chd8^{+/-}$ mouse

and *in- vitro* models[20,72], raising the possibility that $Chd8$ haploinsufficiency directly or indirectly alters

RNA processing. ChIP-seq studies of CHD8 have consistently identified enrichment of regulatory

targets associated transcription and RNA processing[73]. Intriguingly, we did observe down-regulation of

RNA processing associated with L4/5 IT specific DEM M6. Beyond a better understanding of the

molecular function of Chd8, future studies are needed to determine whether the synaptosomal DEG

signature is specific to synaptosomal localized mRNA, or a more broadly present in cytosolic mRNA

overall, what the cell-type specific impacts are on mRNA processing and localization, whether

synaptosomal RNA differences are associated with differences in synaptic protein makeup and synaptic

function, and if this finding extends to $CHD8^{+/-}$ human neurons.

There are limitations to this wok that should be considered. The number of replicates (N=5 per

genotype) and contrasts ($Chd8^{+/5bpdel}$ versus WT) was restricted for snRNA-seq, somewhat limiting

statistical power and scope of these experiments. Additionally, nuclei-based methods may miss

changes in cytosolic mRNA levels[74,75], which may be relevant based on our bulk analysis. Further,

there are challenges with snRNA-seq for DE testing at single gene level using individual cells/nuclei.

While Wilcoxon tests are commonly used in single cell differential expression analysis, we found this

method yielded high false positive rates (as issue that has been raised previously[76]. In contrast,

pseudobulk and hdWGCNA methods take advantage of aggregating cells or genes to compare

expression at the cluster or module level, giving more robust DE results at the cost of reducing

resolution for single cell and single gene level effects. Finally, it is unclear how much the transcriptomic

pathology extends to protein level or impacts function. With regard to functional studies, we chose three

in vivo assays to focus on: spine dynamics, correlated GCaMP signaling, and sleep. Previous studies

have not tested these phenotypes, and we believe our results provide new insights into pathology.

However, other assays would be valuable and each of the domains we studied could be investigated at

higher depth. We did not test conditional *Chd8*$^{+/flox}$ mice beyond bulk RNA-seq, leaving unanswered

whether this model recapitulates other pathology. Finally, *Chd8* mutant mouse lines exhibit variation in

phenotype penetrance and expressivity, which is at least in part due to the impact of genetic

background[34]. Considering this, our findings may not be conserved in other *Chd8* mouse models,

though we note overlapping transcriptional signatures described here and in other studies as

summarized above. While these limitations hold, our results lay the foundation for future work

characterizing constitutive and conditional mutant *Chd8* mouse models.

Our study extends understanding of the impacts of Chd8 haploinsufficiency in vivo in mouse brain, with

a focus on glutamatergic excitatory neurons. We show that constitutive and conditional heterozygous

ablation leads to convergent transcriptional pathology and to impacts on neuronal spinogenesis and

circuit function. Our findings illustrate how loss of *Chd8*, which has received attention for high

expression in early development and role as a chromatin remodeler, impacts the cell-type specific

makeup and pathology of the adult cortex extending across molecular, cellular, circuit, and organismal

phenotypes and providing support for a framework where excitatory neuron dysfunction at the level of

synapses and circuits may be an area of casual convergence in monogenic NDDs featuring ASD and

ID and raising the possibility that interventions targeting postnatal postmitotic cortical neurons may be

effective at addressing at least some of the underlying NDD pathology.

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Author contributions

A.S.N. conceived the project with substantial contributions from Y.Z., D.A., V.S. C.P.C led the project execution, designed experimental work and oversaw most aspects of data generation and analysis. S.L fully executed snRNA-seq bioinformatic and led most of the data analysis with contributions from K.C, N.S, E.F, N.C., E.S., C.A., A.W and A.S.N. C.P.C, W.A, J.B, and S.F carried out experimental stereology and analysis. C.P.C, S.L, P.B, A.K.S, D.P, D.R, M.C, L.D, J.Z and R.O carried out experiments. C.M. and J.B. performed 2P spine imaging and analysis, J.S., B.M, and J.L. performed EEG recording and analysis. CPC, SL and ASN wrote the manuscript.

Methods

Animals

Generation of Cas9-mediated 5bp frameshift deletion in exon 5 of *Chd8* in mice (here referred to as *Chd8*^{+/-} mice) was previously described[20]. For in vivo imaging, this mouse line was crossed with the thy1-YFP-H (JAX strain: 003782) mouse line and maintained in the C57BL6/J (JAX strain: 000664) background. Mutant mice *Camk2a-CRE Chd8*[+/flox] were obtained by crossing Chd8 loxP mice on

C57BL/6J (*Chd8^{em3Lutzy}*; JAX strain: 031555) to Camk2a-CRE (*B6.Cg-Tg(Camk2a-cre)T29-1Stl/J*; JAX

strain: 005359) to achieve heterozygous ablation in post-mitotic forebrain glutamatergic neurons. All

protocols utilized in the generation of mouse brain samples were approved by the Institutional Animal

Care and Use Committees (IACUC) at the University of California Davis and University of California

Santa Cruz. Mice were housed in a temperature-controlled vivarium maintained on a 12-h light–dark

cycle. We made efforts to minimize pain, distress and the number of animals used in the study.

Histological tissue preparation and Nissl Stain

Thirty-six 42-day-old mice were included in this analysis (16 brains per genotype, 16 per sex).

Mice were anesthetized using Isoflurane and perfused transcardially using room temperature saline

solution (0.9% NaCl) followed by 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) in 0.1 M phosphate buffered (PB) saline

using a peristaltic pump (Minipuls 3, Gilson) at 20 rpm flow rate. Brains were removed and post-fixed in

4% PFA at 4ºC for 24 h. Fixed brains were cryoprotected in 50 ml of 10% and 20% glycerol solutions

with 2% DMSO in 0.1 M phosphate buffer (PB; pH 7.4; for 24 and 72 hours, respectively). Brains were

blocked at -2.00mm posterior to the interaural line prior to flash freezing. Sections were cut using a

freezing, sliding microtome in 4 series at 60 μm (Microm HM 440E, Microm International, Germany).

Every 4th section was collected in 10% formaldehyde in 0.1 M PB (pH 7.4) and post-fixed at 4ºC for 1

week[77]. Sections were rinsed twice for 1 hour each in 1ml of 0.1M PB, mounted on gelatin-coated

slides, and air-dried overnight at 37°C. Defatting was performed in a mixture of chloroform/ethanol (1:1,

vol) for 2 x 1 hour. The brains were rehydrated in graded alcohols; 100% ethanol, 100% ethanol, 95%

ethanol, 70%, 50% and dipped in deionized water[77,78]. Sections were stained 40 seconds in a 0.25%

thionin solution (Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, cat. no. T-409), dehydrated through graded alcohols,

differentiated in 95% ethanol and 5 drops of glacial acetic acid, cleared in xylene and cover-slipped with

DPX (BDH Laboratories, Poole, UK)[77].

Stereology

The inferior boundary of the cortex was defined as the bottom of the agranular insular area (AIA), and

the superior boundary was defined as the anterior cingulate area (ACA) or the retrosplenial area (RSA)

and the white matter was then followed to the ACA/RSA border[79]. Neuron number, neuronal soma size,

and brain volume were estimated using Stereoinvestigator V10.50 (MBF Biosciences, Williston, VT)

attached to a Zeiss Imager.Z2 Vario with a Zeiss AxioCam MRc. An EC PlanNeoFluar 2.5 x objective

was used to trace the outline of the cortex and a PlanApoChromat 100x oil objective was used for cell

counts and soma size determinations. The volume of the cortex was determined using the Cavalieri

method[53,54,80]. For each mouse, 15-18 sections (480 μm apart) were analyzed with the first section

chosen randomly amongst the first through the cortex. Estimates of neuron numbers were obtained

using the Optical Fractionator method[55,81]. Since no lateralization was found in the volumetric estimates

(p = 0.65), we sampled the left hemisphere of half of the mice and the right hemisphere of the other half

for estimates of neuron numbers. We used the same sections that were used for volumetric estimates.

We used a counting frame size of 18x18x10μm with 2 μm guard zones, and a scan grid of 480x480 μm

placed at a random angle. Neurons were defined following established protocols[53–55,80–82] based on: 1)

dark staining, 2) a well-defined nucleolus and 3) a round, non-jagged cell body[77,82–85]. Section thickness

was measured at every counting site. The volume of neuronal somas was determined using the

Nucleator method[86] during the Optical Fractionator analysis. Comparison of stereological measures

(volume, neuron number, and soma size) were performed via ANOVA to examine global effects of sex

and genotype and test for sex by genotype interaction, and then via t-test to compare the effect of

genotype in males and females. In addition to test results, effect sizes are reported for ANOVA (partial

eta squared, η_p^2) and t-test (Cohen's d). Statistical analyses were performed using SPSS (version 26),

plots were generated using *ggplots2* package in R programming language[87].

Rostro-Caudal Volume analysis.

To investigate the effects of genotype and sex on Cavalieri counts, mixed-effects regression models

were employed using the `lme4` and `lmerTest` packages in R. The initial model tested the main effect

of genotype on Cavalieri counts while accounting for sex, batch effects, and the z-position of the mouse

brain sections. Polynomial terms up to the fourth degree for z-position (Zpos) were included to capture

potential non-linear relationships observed in exploratory data analysis. Subsequently, a model was

fitted to examine the interaction between genotype and sex, including an interaction term for these

variables. This model was structured to evaluate whether the effect of genotype on Cavalieri counts

varied by sex. The analysis was extended to assess the effects of genotype across different rostral-

caudal brain segments. The segments - Rostral, Median, and Caudal - were defined based on changes

in direction observed in the z-position plot, aiming to reflect the anatomical structure of the mouse brain.

Dummy coding was applied to compare each segment against the reference levels. The final model

included these segments as factors, alongside the previously mentioned covariates and polynomial

terms for z-position. For data visualization, the `ggplot2` package was utilized to create plots depicting

the relationship between z-position and Cavalieri counts. Separate smoothed plot lines were generated

for each sex and genotype combination, providing a clear visual representation of the data across

different brain regions. All statistical analyses were performed using R. The mixed-effects models

allowed for robust estimation of fixed effects while accounting for random effects associated with batch

and individual mouse variations.

Adult mouse cortex dissections

Mice were anesthetized with isoflurane and euthanized via cervical dislocation in accordance with

institutional animal care protocols. Brains were rapidly extracted, and cerebral cortices were dissected

on ice following standard anatomical landmarks. Dissected tissues were snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen

or dry ice to preserve molecular integrity and minimize RNA degradation, and stored at -80°C until

further use. These samples were subsequently used for RNA extraction, nuclear isolation, or cellular

fractionation, as described below.

Cellular Fractionation (synaptosomal preparation)

Brains from $Chd8^{+/5bpdel}$ and wild-type littermates were collected on or around PND60. Following

cervical dislocation, brains were sub-dissected to isolate Cortex. Flash frozen cortices were stored at -

80C until further processing. On the day of cellular fractionation, samples were treated with Syn-Per

reagent (ThermoFisher Scientific Catalog #87793) to obtain cytosol, synaptosome and flowthrough

("total") fractions. The "total" fraction was then used treated with "NE-PER™ Nuclear and Cytoplasmic

Extraction Reagents" (cat #78833) to obtain the nuclear, and a "cleaner cytosol" fractions. Total RNA

from these fractions was then extracted using RNA RNAqueous™ Total RNA Isolation Kit (cat#

AM1912 ThermoFisher Scientifics). Manufacturer protocols were followed with minor adjustments to

increase RNA yield from cellular fractions. Adjustments included combining the cortex samples with

500µl of Syn-Per reagent and 5µl of protease inhibitors during homogenization, based on our starting

sample amount, and adding 350µl of RNA extraction lysis buffer immediately after fractionation to the

synaptosome and nuclear fractions.

Western blot analysis

Synaptosomal fractions were obtained from cortical extracts from PND 60 micethe using the Syn-Per

reagent following manufacturer instructions as described above. Protein concentration was quantified

using a BCA protein assay kit (Pierce, 23225) and samples were stored at -80℃ until use. For the SDS

gel electrophoresis, samples were diluted in 6X Laemmli SDS buffer (375mm Tris-HCl, 9% SDS, 50%

glycerol, 0.03% Bromophenol blue) and 5% β-mercaptoethanol, boiled at 70℃ for 10 min, and

separated on a 4-20% polyacrylamide tris-glycine protein gel (BioRad). Prior loading into the gel,

samples were incubated at 70℃ for 10 min. After SDS-PAGE, proteins were wet transferred onto a

PVDF membrane (Millipore Sigma) overnight at 4℃ (13mA, constant current). Membranes were

blocked with Intercept PBS blocking buffer (Li-Cor) at room temperature for one hour. Primary antibody

PSD93 (1:50, DSHB, Clone N18/28, supernatant fraction) was diluted in 7.5 ml Intercept PBS blocking

buffer with 0.1% Tween. Membranes were incubated with the primary antibody solution overnight at

4℃, then washed four times for 10min with PBS with 0.1% Tween (PBST). Fluorescently tagged

secondary antibody (Li-Cor) were diluted in 10ml Intercept PBS blocking buffer with 0.1% Tween. After

the initial washes, blots were incubated with the secondary antibody solution for one hour at room

temperature. Blots were washed an additional four times for 10min with PBST and two times with PBS.

Bands were visualized using the Odyssey DLx imaging system (Li-Cor).

RNA Isolation, bulk RNA-Sequencing and bioinformatics analysis

Mouse cortices were collected at around PND60 from the following groups: 16 wild-type (WT) mice and

16 Chd8^{+/-} mice (8 males and 8 females in the WT group; 7 males and 9 females in the Chd8+/- group),

as well as 6 WT and 8 Chd8+/flox control mice (4 males and 2 females in the WT group; 5 males and 4

females in the Chd8[+/flox] group). Samples were snap frozen on dry ice and stored at -80C until RNA

preparation. Total RNA was obtained using RNAqueous Total RNA Isolation Kit (cat# AM1912

ThermoFisher Scientifics), and assayed via Agilent RNA 6000 Nano Bioanalyzer kit/instrument. Sample

RIN scores ranged from 8 to 9.4. Poly-A-enriched mRNA libraries were prepared at Novogene using

Illumina reagents. Libraries were sequenced using Illumina NovaSeq 6000 S4 system, paired-end 150

(PE150) method. Reads were aligned to mouse genome (GRCm38/mm10) using STAR (version

2.5.4b)[88], and gene counts were produced using featureCounts[89]. On average, 50 million paired-end

reads (PE) aligned per sample, with a range of 32 to 84 million reads. Data quality was assessed using

FastQC[90], and principal component analysis (PCA) was used to determine presence of sample outliers.

All 24 samples were qualified for the analysis. Raw RNA-seq fastq files and a gene count matrix is

available on GEO (accession number TBD). Bioinformatic analysis was performed using R

programming language version 4.2.1 (R Development Core Team, 2015) and RStudio integrated

development environment version 2023.06.0 (Team R, 2018). Plots were generated using ggplot2 R

package version 3.4.0. Heatmaps were generated using pheatmap R package 1.0.12.

Bulk differential expression (DE) analysis

For DE analysis we used edgeR R package[91]. Genes with a minimum of 1 counts per million (CPM) in

at least six samples were included in the analysis. The first surrogate variable from the SVA-batch-

correction method was used as a covariate in the edgeR GLM model[92]. For sex-stratified DE, we used

a threshold of CPM > 1 in at least 3 samples, and no batch correction. Reads Per Kilobase per Million

mapped reads (RPKM) were used for plotting summary heatmaps and expression data of individual

genes.

Bulk gene ontology enrichment analysis

To test for enrichment of GO terms we used the TopGO R package version 2.34[71]. Mouse Gene

Ontology (GO) data was downloaded from Bioconductor (org.Mm.eg.db). For the analysis presented

here, we restricted our testing to GO Biological Process annotations and required a minimal node size

of 20, and at least 2 significantly DE genes in a GO term. We used the internal 'weight01' testing

framework and the Fisher exact test, a strategy recommended for gene set analysis that generally

accounts for multiple testing comparisons. For GO BP analysis, we reported terms with p-value<0.05.

For all enrichment analysis, the test set of DE genes was compared against the background set of

genes expressed in our study based on minimum read-count cutoffs described above.

Single Nuclei RNA-seq

Nuclei isolation for snRNA-seq and pooling strategy

Frozen issue from the first 6 samples was processed into nuclei using 2mL glass dounce homogenizers

containing 2mL of EZ Prep lysis buffer each. Tissue for 3 samples was dounced over ice, 25 times with

pestle A and 35 times with pestle B. Each solution was transferred to a 15 mL conical tube, then the

same douncing process was repeated for the second set of 3 samples. Solutions from the latter 3

samples were pooled with those of the first 3 such that each pool contained one male and one female

of opposite genotype. An additional 6 mL of EZ Prep lysis buffer was added to each conical tube and

the tubes were incubated on ice for 5 minutes. Homogenates were centrifuged at 500xg for 5 minutes

at 4°C, the supernatant was discarded, and the pellet was washed twice in NSB (1X PBS with 0.01%

BSA and 0.1% RNAse inhibitor). The final pellet was resuspended in 1mL NSB then passed through a

20uM cell strainer. Nuclei were counted using a LUNA-FL cell counter and Acridine Orange/ Propidium

Iodide stain. The 10X Genomics nuclei isolation kit, with protocol as described, was used to isolate

nuclei for the final 4 samples. These samples were combined into 2 pools, each containing one male

and one female of opposite genotype, then nuclei were counted as described previously. Nuclei

suspensions had concentrations adjusted to target 10,000 nuclei for sequencing per pool, then used as

input for the 10X Genomics 3' Gene Expression Assay. Libraries were generated according to the v3

protocol by the UC Davis DNA Technologies Core. For the first 3 pools, libraries were sequenced with

the Illumina NovaSeq 6000 at 80,000 reads per nucleus. The remaining two pools were sequenced with

the Element Biosciences AVITI at 80,000 reads per nucleus.

RNA-seq relevant bioinformatics

Pre-processing of snRNA-seq data and initial QC

De-multiplexed sequencing data were obtained from the UC Davis DNA Technologies Core as FASTQ

files. FASTQ files were passed through the Cell Ranger *count* pipeline for alignment to the mouse

mm10 genome, filtering, and creation of feature-barcode matrices. Ambient RNA removal was

performed using SoupX (version), and Seurat objects were generated using Seurat (version). These

Seurat objects were subjected to initial clustering, and each resulting cluster was filtered based on

cluster-specific thresholds for UMI count, feature count, and percentage of mitochondrial reads, which

were determined using standard deviation criteria. Mitochondrial genes were then removed from all

objects.

Doublet removal

The DoubletFinder package (version) was used to assign nuclei as 'Singlet' or 'Doublet'. Predicted

doublets were removed before proceeding with downstream analyses.

Assigning sex and genotype

Nuclei were next assigned as 'male' or 'female' using the sxreveal package, which uses X- and Y-linked

marker gene expression to predict sex. *Chd8* genotype was assigned based on the predicted sex and

pool-specific metadata. Because each pool consisted of only one male and one female of opposite

genotype, all female nuclei in a pool were assumed to be one genotype and all males were assumed to

be the other.

Clustering analysis

Seurat objects for each of the 5 samples were individually passed through *SCTransform* to normalize

counts, then all 5 were integrated using *IntegrateData*. The 'RNA' assay of the integrated object was

normalized and scaled using *NormalizeData* and *ScaleData*. Principal Components Analysis was

performed on the 'Integrated' assay of the integrated data to identify top variable genes, and

FindNeighbors was used to construct a KNN graph based on their euclidean distance in PCA space.

The data were then passed through *FindClusters* to group cells into clusters using the Louvain

algorithm. Clusters were visualized with uniform manifold approximation and projection (UMAP).

Cell type annotation

FindAllMarkers was used to identify cluster marker genes. Modules of cell type marker genes described

in published scRNA-seq datasets from adult mouse cortex were constructed. Canonical marker genes

were added to these modules, then *AddModuleScore* was used to calculate relative expression of each

module in each cluster. The cell type associated with the marker gene module that had the highest

expression in each cluster was assigned as that cluster's identity. All nuclei were assigned identities at

3 levels of classification, with 'Cell_Type_1' being the most specific and 'Cell_Type_3' the broadest.

Cell type re-clustering

Clusters that were poorly clustered, had a high percentage of mitochondrial reads relative to other

clusters, or had ambiguous marker genes (i.e. markers for multiple distinct cell types) were removed

before subsequent analysis. The filtered Seurat object was then re-normalized, re-scaled, and re-

clustered as described previously.

Differential expression (DE) analysis

A pseudo-bulk approach was used to identify differentially-expressed genes in each cortical cell

population. Each cluster was extracted as a subset of the main Seurat object, then raw counts were

passed through the *DESeq2* pipeline to compare *Chd8* mutant and wild-type nuclei within that subset.

Batch was included as a covariate in the *DESeq2* statistical model. DEGs with an adjusted p-value <

0.05 were deemed significant. This analysis was performed at each of the 3 levels of cell type

assignment.

Burden analysis

A minimum expression threshold was determined based on the minimum expression level ('baseMean')

of DEGs with p-value < 0.05. For each cell type, DE burden was calculated as the percentage of DEGs

relative to the total expressed genes that passed the minimum expression threshold. A permutation test

with 1,000 iterations was performed to assess the statistical significance of the observed DE burden.

This analysis was performed at each of the three levels of cell type classification.

Cell type proportion analysis

For each cell population, nuclei of each genotype were counted, then counts were converted to a

proportion of the total cells in each sample. Linear models adjusted for genotype, sex, and batch were

used to assess whether or not the proportions of mutant and wild-type nuclei for each cell type were

statistically different.

hdWGCNA

High-dimensional weighted gene co-expression network analysis (hdWGCNA) was applied to construct

gene co-expression networks for each cell population. Nuclei of specific cell types were grouped by

sample and passed through the *MetacellsByGroups* function to create metacells. Custom parameters

for 'k', 'max_shared', and 'min_cells' were chosen for each cell type. We determined the optimal soft

power using *TestSoftPowers*, built the co-expression network with *ConstructNetwork*, and detected

modules via hierarchical clustering. Harmonized module eigengenes (hMEs) were calculated for each

module using *ModuleEigengenes* and *GetMEs*.

Differential module expression analysis

To test for differences in module gene expression by genotype, we analyzed each module identified in

glutamatergic neurons by plotting the log fold change (logFC) of its member genes based on pseudo-

bulk differential expression analysis. We then compared the median logFC of each module to that of

the corresponding 'grey' module using a t-test, applying Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons.

Modules with a Bonferroni-adjusted p-value < 0.05 in at least one glutamatergic subtype were

considered significantly differentially expressed.

GO enrichment analysis

GO analysis was performed on significant DEGs and DEMs using *enrichGO,* with the gene universe

being set to all genes expressed in the cell type the DEGs or DEMs were identified in. Genes and

modules were annotated with biological process and molecular function terms. Terms were deemed

significant if they had a corrected p-value < 0.05.

Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA)

Gene set enrichment analysis was performed on DEGs from bulk and pseudobulk DE analysis using

the clusterProfiler R package[60] (version 4.10.0) with the org.Mm.eg.db database (version 3.18.0,

Carlson M (2022). _org.Mm.eg.db: Genome wide annotation for Mouse_. R package version 3.15.0.).

For pseudobulk DEGs, gene hits from each cell type were filtered to include only genes with adjusted p-

value < 0.05 and absolute LogFC > 0.25. Enrichment testing was conducted separately for upregulated

and downregulated gene sets using the enrichGO() function, with background genes defined as all

genes tested for differential expression in the corresponding analysis. Multiple testing correction was

applied using the Benjamini-Hochberg method, and GO terms with adjusted p-values < 0.05 were

considered significant.

Calcium Imaging - Stereotactic injections

We utilized adult mice of either sex housed and bred in the UCSF animal facility. To image prefrontal

activity in acute slices from wildtype or mutant animals, mice were injected with

AAV5.hSyn.GCaMP6f.WPRE.SV40 (Penn Viral Core). Mice were anesthetized with 2% isoflurane and

mounted in a stereotactic frame. Craniotomies were made according to stereotaxic coordinates relative

to Bregma. Coordinates for injection into mPFC were (in mm relative to Bregma): +1.7 anterior–

posterior (AP), –0.3 mediolateral (ML) and –2.75 dorsoventral (DV). Imaging was performed 4-6 weeks

later.

Slice preparation and imaging

300 μm coronal slices were prepared as previously described[93]. Immediately after preparation slices

were transferred to an N-Methyl-D-Glucamine (NMDG)-based recovery solution for 10 minutes before

being transferred to ACSF for the remainder of their recovery. The NMDG-based solution was

maintained at 32° C, and consisted of the following (in mM): 93 N-Methyl-D-Glucamine (NMDG), 93

HCl, 2.5 KCl, 1.2 NaH2PO4, 30 NaHCO3, 25 glucose, 20 HEPES, 5 Na-ascorbate, 5 Na-pyruvate, 2

thiourea, 10 magnesium sulfate, 0.5 calcium chloride. ACSF contained the following (in mM): 126 NaCl,

26 NaHCO3, 2.5 KCl, 1.25 NaH2PO4, 1 MgCl2, 2 CaCl, and 10 glucose. For imaging slices were

perfused with 'Active' ACSF which was identical to normal ACSF except containing elevated KCl (3.5

mM vs 2 mM) and reduced CaCl (1.2 mM vs 2 mM). Slice data was acquired at 10 Hz on an Olympus

BX51 upright microscope with a 20× 1.0NA water immersion lens, 0.5× reducer (Olympus), and ORCA-

ER CCD Camera (Hamamatsu Photonics). Illumination was delivered using a Lambda DG4 arc lamp

(Sutter Instruments). Light was delivered through a 472/30 excitation filter, 495nm single band dichroic,

and 496nm long pass emission filter (Semrock). All movies consisted of 36000 frames acquired at 10Hz

(1 hr) with 4×4 sensor binning yielding a final resolution of 256 × 312 pixels. Light power during imaging

was 100 – 500 μW/mm2. The Micro Manager software suite (v1.4, NIH) was used to control all camera

parameters and acquire movies. When necessary, drift correction was conducted in MATLAB using

custom written code[94] modified to utilize individual neurons as fiducials, whose positions were averaged

and aligned every 5 seconds. We segmented neuronal signals using a modified PCA/ICA approach[95]

modified as previously described[96] so that each segment was expressed as a binary ROI consisting of

pixels representing a single neuron. To deconvolve neuronal signals from background neuropil signals,

we subtracted the mean signal from each identified segment from the mean value in pixels surrounding

the edge of the segment (we excluded pixels that belonged to another ROI). Signals were subsequently

lowpass filtered to remove high frequency noise using the Matlab command: designfilt('lowpassfir',

'PassbandFrequency', 0.5, 'StopbandFrequency', .65, 'PassbandRipple', 1, 'StopbandAttenuation', 25).

We then detected events corresponding to epochs in which each neuron was active using threshold-

based event detection as previously described4. We detected increases in (F-F0)/F0 exceeding 2.5σ

over one frame, and then further thresholded these events by keeping only those events which

exceeded a 8σ increase over baseline and had an integrated area of 200 σ. σ is the standard deviation

of (F-F0)/F0. All further analysis was performed on binary rasters of detected events for each slice.

Cranial Window Implantation Surgery

Cranial window implantation in adult mice (6–8 weeks old) was performed as previously described[97].

Briefly, the mouse was anaesthetized by gaseous isoflurane (4% for induction, 1.5-2% for

maintenance) delivered through a vaporizer system and mounted on a stereotaxic frame. Throughout

the surgery the mouse was kept warm with a heating pad. Ophthalmic ointment was applied to prevent

eye desiccation and irritation. Carprofen (5 mg/kg, i.p.), buprenorphine (0.1 mg/kg, s.c.), enrofloxacin (5

mg/kg, s.c.), and dexamethasone (2 mg/kg, intramuscular) were administered. The fur over the surgical

site was shaved, and the scalp was cleaned with 3 rounds of alternating 70% ethanol and iodine

solution (Betadine®). A midline scalp incision was made, and the periosteum was gently scraped off

from the skull using a scalpel. A circular piece of the skull (centered at AP = –1 mm, ML = 1.5 mm) was

removed with a trephine (diameter = 2.3 mm, Fine Science Tools, Foster City, CA, USA) driven by a

high-speed micro-drill (Foredom K1070, Blackstone Industries, LLC, Bethal, CT, USA). The imaging

port was made by gluing a circular cover glass (#2, diameter = 2.2 mm) underneath a donut-shaped

glass (#1, inner diameter = 2 mm, outer diameter = 3 mm; Potomac Photonics, Inc., Baltimore, MD,

USA). The imaging port was mounted so that the bottom cover glass fit snugly into the cranial window

and the top glass donut rested above the skull. The imaging port was secured with a UV-cured

adhesive (Fusion Flo, Prevest DenPro, Jammu, India) onto the skull. After the solidification of the

adhesive, the scalp flaps were closed with suture. After 2 weeks of recovery, the central piece of the

scalp was excised, the edge of the scalp flap was secured to the tissue underneath with cyanoacrylate

(Vetbond), and a custom-made stainless-steel head-bar was secured over the skull with dental cement

(Jet Denture Repair, Lang Dental, Wheeling, IL, USA). The mouse received enrofloxacin,

buprenorphine, and carprofen once per day for two extra days post-surgery and was allowed to recover

for an additional week prior to imaging.

Thin skull preparation

The thin skull procedure was performed on adolescent (1 month old) mice as previously described[98].

Briefly, the mouse was anesthetized with a mixture of ketamine (20 mg/ml) and xylazine (2.0 mg/ml) in

0.9% sterile saline administered intraperitoneally (5 ml/kg body weight). Ophthalmic ointment was

applied to the eyes to prevent desiccation and irritation, and the fur over the scalp was removed with a

blade. A midline incision was made through the scalp and the periosteum was gently scraped off from

the skull. A high-speed micro-drill (Foredom K1070, Blackstone Industries, LLC, Bethal, CT, USA) and

a microblade were used to thin a small region of the skull to ~20 μm thickness. A custom-made head-

plate with a central opening was attached to the skull by cyanoacrylate glue (Krazy Glue, Elmer's

Products, Westerville, OH, USA), centered over the thinned region. The head-plate was secured onto a

custom-made metal baseplate to stabilize the mouse's head during imaging. Two-photon imaging was

performed as described above. After imaging, the head-plate was detached from the skull, the skull

was cleaned with sterile saline, and the scalp was sutured. The same region was imaged again 7 days

later.

In vivo two-photon (2P) imaging and analysis

2P imaging of dendritic spines was performed on a 2P microscope (Ultima IV, Bruker Co., Middleton,

WI) equipped with a 40× NA = 0.8 water immersion objective (LUMPlanFl/IR, Olympus, Japan) and an

ultrafast 2P laser (Mai Tai, Spectra-Physics, Santa Clara, CA) operating at 940 nm. The mouse was

anaesthetized with an intraperitoneal injection of a mixture of 85 mg/kg ketamine and 8.5 mg/kg

xylazine in 0.9% saline and mounted on a custom-made stage for imaging. Stacks of images were

acquired with a Z-step size of 1 μm at 4X zoom. Relocation of the same dendrites in subsequent

imaging sessions was achieved by reference to blood vessels and the dendritic branching pattern. The

same dendrites were imaged again 1 week after the first imaging session.

Data analysis was performed in ImageJ as previously described[98]. Typically, 150–200 spines were

analyzed per animal per session. The percentage of spines formed/eliminated was calculated as the

number of spines formed/eliminated divided by the total number of spines counted from the previous

imaging session. Dendritic spine density was calculated as the number of dendritic spines per 10 μm of

dendritic segment length on the first imaging day.

EEG/EMG recording and analysis

The EEG/EMG implant consists of a mini connector (Samtec Inc., SFMC-102-01-S-D) soldered to 2

EEG and 2 EMG electrodes made from Teflon-coated, multi-filament stainless steel wires (0.002" in

diameter, Medwire 316 SS7/44T, Sigmund Cohn Corp.). The mouse was anaesthetized by gaseous

isoflurane (4% for induction, 1.5-2% for maintenance) delivered through a vaporizer system and

mounted on a stereotaxic frame. Throughout the surgery the mouse was kept warm with a heating pad.

Ophthalmic ointment was applied to prevent eye desiccation and irritation. Buprenorphine (0.1 mg/kg,

s.c.), carprofen (5 mg/kg, i.p.), and enrofloxacin (5 mg/kg, s.c.) were injected. The fur over the surgical

site was shaved, and the scalp was cleaned with 3 rounds of alternating 70% ethanol and iodine

solution (Betadine®). A piece of the scalp was excised with scissors to expose the skull. The edge of

the scalp flap was secured to the tissue underneath with cyanoacrylate (Vetbond). The exposed skull

surface was gently scraped with a scalpel to remove the periosteum. Small holes (one at AP = + 2 mm,

ML = 2 mm; the other at AP = -3 mm, ML = 2 mm) were drilled through the skull using a high speed

microdrill (Foredom K.1070) with fine drill bits. The EEG electrodes were inserted into the holes,

positioned between the skull and the brain surface, and secured with a UV-curable adhesive (Fusion

Flo, Prevest DenPro). The EMG electrodes were positioned under the nuchal trapezoid muscles and

secured with Vetbond. The exposed skull surface was covered with a thin layer of Vetbond. The

EEG/EMG implant connector was then further secured onto the skull by dental cement (Jet Denture

Repair, Lang Dental). Enrofloxacin (5 mg/kg, s.c.) and carprofen (5 mg/kg, i.p.) were given at 24 h after

surgery. The mouse was allowed to recover for 7 days before EEG/EMG recording starts. A BL-420N

biological signal acquisition and processing system (Chengdu Techman, China) was used for

EEG/EMG recording. EEG was sampled at 200 Hz and band-pass filtered between 1-100 Hz; EMG

was sampled at 200 Hz and band-pass filtered between 1-2K Hz. Recorded data was annotated

manually and subsequently processed using custom-written Matlab programs (R2022, MathWorks

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