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Monoallelic *de novo* variants in *DDX17* cause a neurodevelopmental disorder

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15 Abstract

16 DDX17 is an RNA helicase shown to be involved in critical processes during the early phases of 17 neuronal differentiation. Globally, we compiled a case-series of 11 patients with 18 neurodevelopmental phenotypes harbouring *de novo* monoallelic variants in *DDX17*. All 11 19 patients in our case series had a neurodevelopmental phenotype, whereby intellectual disability, 20 delayed speech and language, and motor delay predominated.

21 We performed *in utero* cortical electroporation in the brain of developing mice, assessing axon 22 complexity and outgrowth of electroporated neurons, comparing wild-type and Ddx17 © The Author(s) 2024. Published by Oxford University Press on behalf of the Guarantors of Brain. This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial License (https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0/), which permits non-commercial re-use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited. For commercial re-use, please contact reprints@oup.com for reprints and translation rights for reprints. All other permissions can be obtained through our RightsLink service via the Permissions link on the article page on our site—for further information please contact journals.permissions@oup.com. knockdown. We then undertook *ex vivo* cortical electroporation on neuronal progenitors to
quantitatively assess axonal development at a single cell resolution. Mosaic *ddx17* crispants and
heterozygous knockouts in *Xenopus tropicalis* were generated for assessment of morphology,
behavioural assays, and neuronal outgrowth measurements. We further undertook transcriptomic
analysis of neuroblastoma SH-SY5Y cells, to identify differentially expressed genes in DDX17KD cells compared to controls.

Knockdown of Ddx17 in electroporated mouse neurons *in vivo* showed delayed neuronal migration as well as decreased cortical axon complexity. Mouse primary cortical neurons revealed reduced axon outgrowth upon knockdown of Ddx17 *in vitro*. The axon outgrowth phenotype was replicated in crispant ddx17 tadpoles and in heterozygotes. Heterozygous tadpoles had clear neurodevelopmental defects and showed an impaired neurobehavioral phenotype. Transcriptomic analysis identified a statistically significant number of differentially expressed genes involved in neurodevelopmental processes in DDX17-KD cells compared to control cells.

We have identified potential neurodevelopment disease-causing variants in a gene not previously associated with genetic disease, *DDX17*. We provide evidence for the role of the gene in neurodevelopment in both mammalian and non-mammalian species and in controlling the expression of key neurodevelopment genes.

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- 21 **Running title**: *DDX17* is a novel neurodevelopment gene
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- 24

1 Introduction

2 RNA helicases have essential biochemical roles in all aspects of RNA metabolism, including 3 unwinding and annealing RNA molecules and remodelling ribonucleoprotein complexes. The DEAD-box proteins are highly conserved across species, comprising the largest family of RNA 4 helicases.^{1,2} They share twelve conserved motifs including the signature DEAD (Asp-Glu-Ala-5 Asp) motif, which altogether form a catalytic site for ATP hydrolysis and an RNA binding site.^{3,4} 6 DDX17, also known as DEAD box protein 17, and its close homolog DDX5, are highly energy 7 8 dependent DEAD-box helicases involved in diverse cellular processes, notably gene expression, biogenesis of miRNAs via their interaction with the Drosha/DGCR8 complex, and the regulation 9 of cell fate switches and biological transitions.⁵⁻⁷ They are coregulators of several transcription 10 factors including MYOD, a master regulator of muscle differentiation and SMAD proteins, which 11 mediate transforming growth factor beta induced epithelial-to-mesenchymal 12 transition. Additionally, they are components of the spliceosome and regulate alternative splicing. 13

DDX17, located on chromosome 22q13.2, has been shown to be involved in the control of 14 Repressor Element 1-silencing transcription factor (REST) related processes that are critical during 15 the early phases of neuronal differentiation.⁸ Through its association with REST, DDX17 promotes 16 its binding to the promoter of certain REST-targeted genes and coregulates the transcriptional 17 repression activity of REST. DDX17 and the REST complex are downregulated during 18 neuroblastoma cell differentiation, affecting activation of neuronal genes. Furthermore, DDX17 19 20 and DDX5 regulate the expression of multiple proneural microRNAs which target the REST 21 complex during neurogenesis, implicating DDX17 in neuronal gene repression.⁸ In 2022, Suthapot 22 et al.⁹ focused on characterising chromatin occupancy of DDX17 and DDX5 in hPSCs NTERA2 23 and their neuronal derivatives. They showed that the expression of both helicases is abundant 24 throughout neural differentiation of the hPSCs NTERA2, preferentially localised within the 25 nucleus and that they occupy chromatin genome-wide at regions associated with genes related to 26 neurogenesis. Both DDX17 and DDX5 are mutually required for controlling transcriptional 27 expression of these neurogenesis-associated genes but are not important for maintenance of the 28 stem cell state of hPSCs. In contrast, they are critical for early neural differentiation of hPSCs, 29 possibly due to their role in the upregulation of key neurogenic transcription factors such as SOX1, 30 SOX21, SOX2, ASCL1, NEUROG2 and PAX6. Critically, DDX17 and DDX5 are important for

differentiation of hPSCs towards NESTIN and TUBB3 positive cells, which represent neural
progenitors and mature neurons, respectively. However, those studies used a DDX17 and DDX5
co-depletion approach to address the function of these factors in neurogenesis, and information
regarding the specific contribution of each helicase to this process is lacking.

5 Many RNA helicases have been linked to disease (reviewed by Bohnsack *et al.*¹), particularly 6 several neurodevelopmental syndromes involving variants in genes encoding DEAD/DEAH box 7 proteins.¹⁰⁻¹⁵ However, to date *DDX17* has no disease-gene relationship. The gene is highly constrained for loss-of-function (LoF), i.e. fewer LoF variants in DDX17 are observed in 8 population datasets than would be expected under a null mutation hypothesis (37.7 expected, 1 9 observed, pLI = 1.0 in gnomAD). Genes can be quantified by constraint to LoF using the Loss-of-10 function Observed/Expected Upper-bound Fraction (LOEUF) score, which places genes along a 11 continuous spectrum of intolerance to haploinsufficiency.¹⁶ Genes highly constrained for LoF, 12 represented by low LOEUF scores, are highly associated with known haploinsufficient disease 13 genes.^{16,17} However, the majority of genes in the lowest LOEUF decile are not yet associated with 14 a disease phenotype but may be expected to cause disease if mutated through LoF.¹⁸ DDX17 has a 15 LOEUF score of 0.13, suggesting that haploinsufficiency of the gene is not tolerated. Considering 16 its role in neuronal differentiation, muscle differentiation and alternative splicing, one might expect 17 that DDX17 is an essential gene in neurodevelopment and may present such a phenotype in 18 humans. Therefore, we sought to identify and characterise a case-series of patients with LoF 19 20 variants in DDX17 and perform functional experiments to test the hypothesis that DDX17 represents a new gene-disease relationship in these patients. 21

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23 Materials and methods

24 Participant eligibility criteria

Between October 2019 and August 2023, participants were eligible to join our case-series if they had a confirmed *de novo* variant in *DDX17*, either missense or predicted loss-of-function (canonical splice site, frameshift, stop gained), and the variant was absent from population databases. With consent, detailed phenotype data were collected on a standardised phenotyping proforma filled in by each participant's referring clinician. In total, 11 eligible patients who fitted the eligibility criteria were identified, all of whom consented to participate in our study. Parents and legal guardians of all affected individuals provided written consent for the publication of their results alongside genetic and clinical information. Guardians of patients 6, 7 and 10 explicitly consented to have photographs published. No follow up data were collected.

5

6 Identifying study participants

We first obtained access to the 100,000 Genomes Project data in October 2019 through 7 membership of a Genomics England Clinical Interpretation Partnership, with approved project 8 9 RR359: Translational genomics: Optimising novel gene discovery for 100,000 rare disease patients. Deidentified whole genome sequencing and phenotype data (stored as human phenotype 10 ontology terms) were accessible in the Genomics England Research Environment. One patient 11 (patient 3), the index case, was identified with a de novo loss-of-function variant in DDX17. 12 13 Additional study subjects were identified through Matchmaker Exchange after deposition in GeneMatcher between 2019 and 2023.^{19,20} 14

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16 Sequencing and data analysis

All patients, except for patient 3, had trio exome sequencing performed. Data processing and variant filtering and prioritization were carried out by in house pipelines at respective host centres. Patient 3 had trio whole genome sequencing undertaken as part of the 100,000 Genomes Project²¹ and their data was filtered using the DeNovoLOEUF filtering strategy.¹⁷ DeNovoLOEUF is a tool that can be applied at scale to genomics datasets, extracting rare *de novo* predicted loss-of-function variants in LOEUF-constrained genes.¹⁷

23

24 Mouse experiments

Mouse breeding and handling was performed according to experimental protocols approved by the CECCAPP Ethics committee (C2EA15) of the University of Lyon, and in accordance with French and European legislation. Detailed methods on *ex vivo* cortical electroporation and primary neuronal cultures; immunostaining; *in utero* cortical electroporation; immunohistochemistry; image acquisition; and quantifications and statistical analyses are available in Supplementary
 methods.

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4 Xenopus tropicalis

5 Adult Nigerian strain Xenopus tropicalis were housed within the European Xenopus Resource 6 Centre (EXRC; https://xenopusresource.org), University of Portsmouth, in recirculating MBK1Ltd 7 systems maintained at 24°C - 25°C (12-12-hour light-dark cycle) with 10% daily water changes. 8 All Xenopus work was completed in accordance with the Animals (Scientific Procedures) Act 1986 9 under licence PP4353452 following ethical approval from the University of Portsmouth's Animal Welfare and Ethical Review Body. Detailed methods on: the generation of X. tropicalis crispant 10 animals and *ddx17* mutant tadpoles; wholemount *in situ* hybridisation; phenotypic analysis; 11 experimental design and statistical analysis are available in Supplementary methods. 12

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14 RNA-seq and RT-qPCR validation

Detailed methods are available in Supplementary methods. In summary, human SH-SY5Y 15 16 neuroblastoma cells were grown and transfected with siRNA against DDX17. Depletion of DDX17 17 protein was verified by western-blot and total RNA was isolated. Directional RNA libraries were prepared from total RNA after removal of ribosomal RNA (lncRNA library, Novogene). High 18 19 throughput sequencing of 150 bp paired-end reads was carried out on an Illumina Novaseq 6000 platform (Novogene), generating an average number of 75 million matched pairs of reads per 20 21 sample. Raw reads were pre-processed, mapped and filtered and then mapped reads were counted for each gene to compute a differential gene expression analysis with the DESeq2²² package (P <22 0.05, $\lceil \log_2(FC) \rceil \ge 0.50$ and basemean ≥ 10). Gene ontology and gene-set enrichment analyses 23 were carried out using the ShinyGO 0.76.3 web interface.²³ Validation of steady-state gene 24 expression was analysed by reverse transcription and qPCR, as described previously.²⁴ 25

26

1 **Ethics**

The index case was identified through the 100,000 Genomes Project (ethics approval by the Health 2 3 Research Authority [NRES Committee East of England] REC: 14/EE/1112; IRAS: 166046). The ethical approval letter is available on request. Additional participants were identified through 4 GeneMatcher. All participants provided written consent for sharing of phenotype and genotype 5 data as approved by their respective institutional review boards. Explicit written consent for 6 7 sharing of photographs was obtained from individuals providing identifiable information. All 8 Xenopus work was completed in accordance with the Home Office Code of Practice under 9 PP4353452 following ethical approval from the University of Portsmouth's Animal Welfare and 10 Ethical Review Body. Mouse breeding and handling was performed according to experimental protocols approved by the CECCAPP Ethics committee (C2EA15) of the University of Lyon, and 11 12 in accordance with French and European legislation.

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14 **Results**

We applied the DeNovoLOEUF filtering strategy, as previously described¹⁷, to 13,494 15 parent/offspring trios in the 100,00 Genomes Project, focusing on genes with a LOEUF score < 16 0.2 with no prior disease gene association. We identified one individual harbouring a heterozygous 17 18 pLoF variant in DDX17. Using the GeneMatcher platform, we identified a further 10 patients all 19 with *de novo* variants in *DDX17* presenting with neurodevelopmental phenotypes. Representatives for these participants were then invited to join our research study and referring clinicians were 20 asked to complete a standardised phenotype table (Supplementary File A). The summary of the 21 22 phenotypic features of the 11 patients (from 11 independent families) harbouring de novo 23 heterozygous variants in DDX17 are provided in Table 1 and further detailed in Supplementary File A. All variants were absent from gnomAD¹⁶ v2.1.1 and v.3.1.2. 24

The cohort comprises 8 males and 3 females, all of whom are alive and have a median age of 15 years at the latest available follow up. The median age of walking was 18 months. Intellectual disability, ranging from moderate to mild (IQ 56-83), is prevalent in 7/10 (70%) of patients. Seven of eleven (64%) of the cohort have dysmorphic facial features. Overlapping facial dysmorphology (Supplementary File A) between patients includes: synophrys; upslanting palpebral fissures;

depressed nasal bridge; posteriorly rotated ears; high arched eyebrows; epicanthus; telecanthus; 1 frontal bossing; micrognathia and strabismus. Three patients have 5th finger clinodactyly, two have 2 3 clubfeet, and three have 2,3 toe syndactyly (some of these features are shown in Fig. 1A). Fifty-4 six percent (5/9) have attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) and 4/11 (36%) have 5 features of autism. Ninety-one percent (10/11) have delayed speech and language development, 9/11 (82%) have global developmental delay, and 10/11 (91%) have neurodevelopmental delay. 6 Gross motor delay is prevalent in 7/11 (64%), and 9/11 (82%) have fine motor delay. Thirty-six 7 8 percent (4/11) have stereotypy and 5/11 (45%) have generalised hypotonia. Patient 9 (height 178 cm (Z=0.40); weight, 55.7 kg (Z= -0.89)) and patient 4 (height 165 cm (7th percentile); weight, 9 51.5 kg (4th percentile)) have signs of macrocephaly (Supplementary File A) with Z-scores of 3.97 10 and 3.23, respectively. Patient 5 had signs of macrocephaly at birth, which normalised through 11 12 infancy. Eight participants had brain MRI scans of which 4 patients showed abnormalities including: left lateral compartment greater than right; monolateral temporal cortical dysplasia; 13 asymmetry of the cerebral cortex and right sided nonspecific demyelination; generalised brain 14 demyelination, and periventricular white matter hyperintensities (Supplementary File A). No other 15 obvious asymmetry was observed. 16

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18 Molecular genetic findings

19 Following variant filtering and prioritisation of exome and genome data, no likely pathogenic or 20 pathogenic variants as curated using American College of Medical Genetics and Genomics and the Association for Molecular Pathology (ACMG-AMP) guidelines²⁵ were identified that fully 21 explained the patients' phenotypes. Eleven participating research programs identified *de novo* 22 variants of uncertain significance in DDX17 that were of sufficient interest to submit to 23 Matchmaker Exchange. Five variants were pLoF and 6 variants were missense (Fig. 1B). Of these 24 missense variants, 5 are within the helicase domain and evolutionarily conserved from budding 25 26 yeast to humans (Supplementary Fig. 1), suggesting that they are important for the structure and/or 27 function of the protein. The sixth missense variant (patient 11) is located within the carboxyl-28 terminal part specific to the p82 form of DDX17, which has been described in cells from humans and monkeys²⁶ but not annotated in the other species that we considered for the alignment of 29 Supplementary Fig. 1. 30

Four patients in the cohort had additional variants of uncertain significance reported 1 (Supplementary File A). Patient 7 had compound heterozygous pathogenic variants in ACADM 2 3 associated with medium chain fatty acid dehydrogenase deficiency; 4 NM 000016.5(ACADM):c.799G>A,p.(Gly267Arg) and NM 000016.5(ACADM):c.985A>G,p.(Lys329Glu). This was detected on newborn screening, 5 was promptly treated, and does not explain their reported phenotype. No other metabolic 6 abnormalities were detected. Patient 3 had a de novo Yq11.21-gter deletion and de novo Ypter-7 8 p11.3 duplication for which the significance is unknown. Patient 6 had an heterozygous variant in aciduria 9 *HCFC1* associated with methylmalonic and homocysteinemia, and this 10 NM 005334.3(HCFC1):c.4418C>T.p.(Thr1407Met) variant has been reported in ClinVar as benign. Patient 10 harboured an heterozygous 16q23.3 (81,477,800 - 81,552,781) VUS, inherited 11 12 from an unaffected mother.

13

14 Ddx17 supports cortical neuron development in the mouse

The identification of several variants in DDX17 associated with neurodevelopmental features 15 prompted assessment of DDX17 reduction on cortical development in animal models. We first 16 17 turned to *in utero* cortical electroporation (IUCE) in the mouse using two distinct shRNA plasmids targeting Ddx17 (shDDX17 #1 or shDDX17 #2) (Supplementary Fig. 2). Electroporations were 18 19 performed at embryonic day (E)15.5, the developmental stage at which progenitors give rise to 20 callosal-projecting pyramidal neurons. As a control, we used a pLKO.1 vector containing a filler 21 sequence, hence not targeting any mammalian gene. By P21, all electroporated neurons (visualised by mVenus fluorescence) reached the superficial layers of the cortex (layers II/III), as expected 22 (Fig. 2A). In contrast, we could observe defects in neuronal migration upon knockdown of Ddx1723 (Fig. 2B-C) and after quantification, a statistically significant fraction of neurons did not reach the 24 25 most superficial cortical layers in conditions electroporated with shRNA plasmids (Fig. 2G). 26 Despite this, neuronal polarisation and axon formation was not impaired. In control conditions, 27 axons of layer II/III neurons progress through the corpus callosum to reach the contralateral 28 hemisphere, and branch extensively on ipsilateral layer V (Fig. 2A), as well as contralateral layers 29 II/III (Fig. 2D). In shRNA-electroporated animals, we observed a trend toward a decrease of axon density in the ipsilateral side (Fig. 2B-C, quantified in Fig. 2H), and especially a strong reduction 30

1 of contralateral axon density (Fig. 2E-F, quantified in Fig. 2I). There was no difference in axon 2 density in the white matter (WM), indicating that the same proportion of axons reached the 3 contralateral hemisphere regardless of Ddx17 expression. Our results demonstrate that Ddx17 is 4 required for cortical development in the developing mouse brain.

5 Because the wiring of the brain results from sequential biological processes, defects in the early 6 steps (e.g. neurogenesis or neuronal migration) can lead to alterations in the later biological 7 processes such as axon development. To make sure that the axonal phenotypes observed in vivo 8 do not result from abnormal neuronal migration, we subsequently turned to in vitro neuronal cultures, which allow quantitative assessment of axonal development at a single cell resolution. 9 We performed ex vivo cortical electroporation (EVCE) at E15.5 to target neuronal progenitors in 10 the dorsal telencephalon and cultured neurons for 5 days in vitro (5 DIV). As before, we used the 11 pLKO.1 vector with a filler sequence (pLKO.1 clon.) as a control (Fig. 3A). In addition, and to 12 rule out that activation of the RISC complex causes non-specific axonal defects, we used another 13 hairpin-forming control vector that does not target a gene in mammalian cells (pLKO.1 scram.) 14 (Fig. 3B). Importantly, DDX17 protein expression was similar in both control conditions 15 (Supplementary Fig. 2). We then quantified the effect of Ddx17 inhibition on axonal development. 16 17 While axon morphology was similar with both control conditions (Fig. 3A-B), we observed altered axon development in shRNA-electroporated neurons (Fig. 3C-E). Specifically, the inhibition of 18 DDX17 expression decreased axon length and reduced collateral branch formation (Fig. 3F-G and 19 Supplementary Fig. 3). Two independent shRNA plasmids produced markedly similar phenotypes, 20 21 indicating that this phenotype is unlikely to be an off-target effect of the shRNAs. Furthermore, 22 we combined shRNA1 and shRNA2 as a way to increase knockdown efficiency and reduce offtarget effect, and observed an identical effect on axon length and branching (Fig. 3F-G). When we 23 24 normalised branch number to axon length, there was still a reduction of collateral branches in 25 shRNA-electroporated neurons compared to the control condition (pLKO.1 scram.), albeit this 26 difference was not statistically significant (Fig. 3H), suggesting that the effect of Ddx17 inhibition 27 is primarily on axon elongation. Of note, we detected only few neurons positive for the cleaved 28 (activated) form of caspase-3 in control and knockdown conditions, thus ruling out that Ddx1729 inhibition causes neuronal death in our experimental conditions (Supplementary Fig. 3). To 30 confirm this result, we tested the consequence of overexpressing human DDX17 by EVCE. Following electroporation, we observed an increased axon length compared to the control 31

condition, mirroring the effect of *Ddx17* knockdown (Fig. 3I-J, quantified in Fig. 3K).
 Interestingly, although we counted more branches per neuron (Fig. 3L), axon branching did not
 differ from the control condition when normalised per axon length (Fig. 3M). Overall, our results
 demonstrate that Ddx17 is important for axon development in mouse cortical neurons.

5

Xenopus ddx17 crispants and heterozygous mutants have reduced axon outgrowth and working memory

8 To test the effect of loss-of-function ddx17 variants in a second model, crispant *X. tropicalis* were 9 used. The exon structure of the human and *Xenopus* genes are similar and the proteins produced 10 have 68% amino acid identity with all altered amino acids from patients conserved in the frog with 11 the exception of N462 (Supplementary Fig. 4A). The expression pattern of ddx17 mRNA has not 12 previously been reported in *Xenopus* and *in situ* hybridisation shows it to be expressed most highly 13 in neural tissues including the migratory neural crest, brain, eye, and otic vesicle (see the purple 14 staining in Fig. 4A).

A crispant knockout of ddx17 was generated using two non-overlapping CRISPR/Cas9 gene-15 16 editing complexes designed to disrupt exon 7 (Supplementary Fig. 4B-D) and subsequently these were mated with wild-type frogs to produce F1 mutant heterozygous tadpoles, which more 17 accurately reflect the patient genotype (Supplementary Fig. 5A). The introduction of indels into 18 19 the ddx17 locus was tested by Sanger sequencing of the target region and demonstrated strong penetrance of indels in the founder crispant animals (Supplementary Fig. 5B), producing a ddx17 20 mosaic crispant knockout model (Xtr.ddx17^{em1EXRC}). The heterozygous offspring produced by 21 22 outcrossing mosaic founders were first identified using the T7E1 mismatch detection assay 23 (Supplementary Fig. 5C), with the genotype confirmed by Sanger sequencing (Supplementary Fig. 24 5D). This revealed the most frequently occurring deletions of 5 bp and 22 bp (Supplementary Fig. 25 5E), resulting in frameshifts leading to protein truncation within exon 7 (Xtr.ddx17^{em2EXRC}). The 26 phenotypes produced by each sgRNA were indistinguishable, showing they were not due to off 27 target effects (Supplementary Fig. 6).

28 Phenotypically, more than half of the founder (F_0) crispant embryos showed evidence of 29 gastrulation defects (Supplementary Fig. 6A). The remaining animals showed no gross

morphological defects (Supplementary Fig. 6B-C). The craniofacial morphology of ddx 171 2 crispants was tested by injecting CRISPR/Cas9 complexes into one-cell of a dividing two-cell 3 embryo. This results in the effects of the protein truncation being concentrated on one side of the 4 embryo along the left-right axis, with the other side acting as an internal control. This makes subtle 5 morphological changes easier to observe, but no altered gross morphology was observed in the crispants (Supplementary Fig. 6C) although there was an altered rate of neuronal outgrowth at 6 early developmental stages (Supplementary Fig. 6D-E). A decrease in head size was observed prior 7 8 to free-feeding stages (average 5.93 mm² for control tadpoles and 4.89 mm² for crispant tadpoles (NF42, n = 16), t(30) = 3.85, P < 0.001)). This significant decrease in head size was no longer 9 apparent at later stages of development (average 15.9 mm² for control tadpoles and 16.5 mm² for 10 crispant tadpoles (NF48, n = 16), t(30) = -5.05, P = 0.617) (Supplementary Fig. 6F). 11

F1 mutant $ddx 17^{+/-}$ tadpoles showed no gross morphological or developmental abnormalities. 12 Since there was clear evidence of reduced axon length in electroporated mouse brains deficient in 13 Ddx17, neuron outgrowth was also examined in Xenopus using an anti-HNK-1 antibody. Embryos 14 injected with control $(tyr)^{27}$ and ddx17 gene-editing complexes restricted to one side of the embryo 15 revealed reduced axon outgrowth in ddx17 crispants on the ipsilateral side (compare the injected 16 17 and uninjected lateral views in Supplementary Fig. 6D-E). Similarly, in the mutant $ddx 17^{+/-}$ model, axon outgrowth was visibly and significantly reduced compared with controls at NF24 (controls 18 mean 313; mutants mean 219; t38 = 6.785, P < 0.001) and NF26 (controls mean 910; mutants 19 mean 803; t(28) = 2.053, P = 0.05) (Fig. 4B-C), more embryos are shown in Supplementary Fig. 20 21 7A-B. Gross structural differences were not seen in the forebrain, midbrain or hindbrain regions of heterozygous *ddx17*^{+/-} animals, even when bred in a [Xtr.Tg(tubb2b:GFP)Amaya] RRID: 22 EXRC 3001 background (Fig. 4D and Supplementary Fig. 7C). 23

24 The phenotype of patients with ddx17 variants include neurodevelopmental deficits and these can 25 now be modelled in X. tropicalis using the Free-movement Pattern (FMP) Y-maze that is already 26 validated.²⁸ Before undertaking this test however, it was necessary to assess whether the tadpoles 27 moved sufficiently. Comparing the movement of control tadpoles and founder $F_0 ddx 17$ crispant 28 animals at NF48 showed that crispants move less over the 10-minute trial period (average 4.0 mm/sec for control tadpoles and 2.7 mm/sec for crispant tadpoles (n = 48, t(82) = -2.6, P = 0.012) 29 (Supplementary Fig. 6G). Heterozygous $ddx17^{+/-}$ mutant tadpoles behaved differently to the 30 mosaic homozygous animals in some respects, they were observed to move away from tactile 31

stimuli (to the head) and at later stages adopted a normal, head down filter-feeding posture with the ability to navigate freely within their environment. Further, in the heterozygotes no abnormalities in locomotive behaviour consistent with descriptors of seizure activity were noted during observation periods.^{29,30} Unlike the founder crispants, the locomotive activity of wild-type and mutant $ddx17^{+/-}$ tadpoles was indistinguishable at NF42 when tracked across a 10-minute trial period (Fig. 4E).

7 In a shortened, preliminary FMP Y-maze assay that tests working memory, founder crispant 8 tadpoles performed fewer alternations in their search patterns than controls (average alternations: 22.8% for control tadpoles and 19.5% for crispant tadpoles (n = 20, F(1, 33) = 0.366, P = 0.550), 9 and performed more repetitions than the controls (average repetitions 9% for control tadpoles and 10 11 12.8% for crispant tadpoles (n = 0, F(1, 33) = 3.272, P = 0.080) (Supplementary Fig. 6H). Neither change was significant in this shortened assay, nonetheless the data suggested a working memory 12 deficit. To test whether this was in fact the case and to circumvent the locomotive deficits in the 13 mosaic crispant tadpoles the full FMP Y-maze assessment was performed on the mutant $ddx17^{+/-}$ 14 tadpoles, which more accurately reflect the human genotype. These demonstrated significantly 15 fewer alternations (F(1, 80) = 14.25, P < 0.001) when compared to wild-type tadpoles (Fig. 4F), 16 showing that they have a major deficit in short-term working memory. 17

Taken together, these data strongly support a causative link between *ddx17* loss of function,
neurodevelopmental defects, and reduced axon growth in *X. tropicalis*.

20

21 RNA-seq analysis

22 Finally, to gain insight into the possible functions and target genes of DDX17 in a human cellular 23 context, we carried out a transcriptomic analysis of neuroblastoma SH-SY5Y cells in which we 24 knocked-down the expression of the DDX17 gene, using a mixture of 2 different siRNAs (Fig. 5A 25 and Supplementary Fig. 8). We identified 350 genes that were differentially expressed in DDX17-26 KD cells compared to control cells (Fig. 5B and Supplementary File B). The functions of this set of genes were significantly associated with developmental processes, in particular the development 27 28 and functions of the nervous system (Fig. 5C and Supplementary Fig. 9, and Supplementary File 29 C). For instance, the expression of several development-associated transcription factors (MSX2,

TBX3, *GATA3*, *FOSL1*, *NEUROG2*, *SMAD6* and *SMAD9*, *SOX13*, *DRGX*, *RARB*, *MYCN*...) was
deregulated upon *DDX17* KD. Of note, looking at the molecular functions associated with those
genes also revealed the presence of a significant number of *trans*-membrane receptors (31 genes)
and receptor ligands (15 genes) (Supplementary File B), including several receptors/ligands
associated with axon guidance (*DCC*, *EFNB2*, *PLXNA2* and *PLXNA4*, *SEMA6A* and *SEMA6D*, *RET*, *ROBO2*, *UNC5D*...).

7 We then analysed separately the subsets of genes of which steady-state expression was negatively 8 (131 genes) or positively (219 genes) altered by DDX17 KD (Supplementary files B and C). This analysis showed again a significant occurrence of GO terms associated with neurogenesis in both 9 groups of genes, but it also underlined a link between downregulated genes and body 10 morphogenesis, while the group of upregulated genes was associated more specifically to cell-11 12 signaling pathways (Supplementary Fig. 10). To validate our computational analysis, we selected 13 29 genes from the two subgroups of mis-regulated genes and measured their mRNA level by RTqPCR assays in mock-depleted and DDX17-depleted SH-SY5Y cells. Consistently, the expression 14 of each tested gene was altered as predicted from the RNA-seq, with a strong combined correlation 15 score $(R^2 = 0.942)$ (Fig. 5D-E). 16

17 Collectively, our results show that the *DDX17* gene is involved in several processes during the 18 development of vertebrates, in particular in the development of the nervous system. Our results 19 also strongly suggest this may be due to a role of DDX17 in regulating the expression of key 20 neurodevelopment-associated genes.

21

22 **Discussion**

To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study to describe *de novo* heterozygous *DDX17* variants associated with features describing a novel neurodevelopmental disorder, adding a new example to the list of helicases associated with such disorders.¹ Using mouse and frog animal models, we provide strong evidence that DDX17 plays important roles in the developing nervous system. More specifically, Ddx17 knockdown impaired neuronal migration and axon development in the brain of newborn mice and reduced axon outgrowth and branching in primary cortical neurons *in vitro*. In agreement with these results, crispant tadpole ddx17 models, including a

heterozygous F₁ model, also presented a reduced axon outgrowth phenotype. Heterozygous 1 2 knockout tadpoles also had clear functional neural defects. Since the region and developmental 3 state of the central nervous system in the mice and tadpoles in which this effect has been noted are 4 distinct, it suggests that DDX17 has an important role in widely distributed neurodevelopmental 5 processes. The conservation of function across evolutionarily distant species such as mice and 6 frogs strongly support that the role of DDX17 is conserved in humans too. These in vivo results are therefore consistent with the hypothesis that heterozygous loss-of-function DDX17 variants 7 8 identified in patients induce a significant alteration of the function of the protein during neuronal 9 development, resulting in the observed phenotype in our cohort.

The phenotype associated with *de novo* variants in DDX17 is consistent with a neurodevelopmental 10 11 disorder, typified by mild-moderate intellectual disability, delayed speech and language development and global developmental delay. Sixty-four percent (7/11) of the cohort have 12 dysmorphic facial features, although for many this is subtle. Overlapping dysmorphology between 13 patients includes: synophrys; upslanting palpebral fissures; depressed nasal bridge; posteriorly 14 rotated ears; high arched eyebrows; epicanthus; telecanthus; and strabismus. Some patients have 15 gross and fine motor delay, generalized hypotonia, sterotypy, and evidence of autism spectrum 16 17 disorder.

There were no substantial differences in phenotype severity between patients harbouring missense 18 19 variants versus loss-of-function variants, suggesting DDX17 haploinsufficiency causes the 20 observed phenotype. Since all missense variants but one are fully conserved from budding yeast 21 to humans and fall within the helicase domain, including two that are within core DEAD box 22 motifs (Fig. 1B and Supplementary Fig. 1), it suggests that they impact the structure and/or activity 23 of this domain in a way that deeply alters the overall function of DDX17, similarly to loss-of-24 function variants. There is evidence that even amino acids not within the core helicase motifs are 25 important for helicase functions, like Pro124 of p72 (Pro203 in p82), which is mutated in patient 26 8 and which is involved in ATP binding.³¹ Our preliminary molecular modelling analyses did not reveal any significant modification of the DDX17 structure in which patient missense mutations 27 28 were introduced (data not shown). However, our analysis was based on the only known 3D structure of human DDX17, which is limited to the helicase core domain.³¹ Recently it has been 29 shown that the two disordered and flexible flanking domains also strongly affect the helicase 30 activity of Dbp2, the yeast DDX17 ortholog.³² It is thus currently impossible to accurately predict 31

the impact of variants on DDX17 function, without taking into account the interactions between
 the structured and unstructured regions of the protein.

3 We and others have shown previously a role of DDX17 in the retinoic acid induced differentiation of neuroblastoma SH-SY5Y and pluripotent embryonal NTERA2 cells, respectively.^{8,9} However, 4 5 this effect was most evident when DDX17 knockdown was combined with the concomitant 6 depletion of its paralog DDX5. We now demonstrate that the downregulation of DDX17 alone is 7 sufficient to alter neuronal development, both in vivo and in vitro. Both DDX17 and DDX5 have 8 largely redundant functions, which probably explains why their joint depletion has such a strong effect compared to single protein depletion. Interestingly, two distinct shRNAs targeting Ddx179 alter neuronal migration in the mouse cortex. Although shRNA-based strategies are prone to off-10 11 target disruption of neuronal migration in the mouse cortex³³, the migration phenotype is compatible with our previous observation that DDX17 controls the activity of the Repressor 12 Element 1-silencing transcription factor (REST) complex during neurogenesis⁸ and that the 13 REST/CoREST complex regulates neuronal migration.³⁴ Future studies using genetic knockout 14 models will demonstrate the specificity of the migration phenotype. Furthermore, we report that 15 DDX17 plays a role in axon morphogenesis that is independent of its function in neuronal 16 17 migration.

Xenopus frogs have been used as pioneer model organisms since the mid-twentieth century, mainly 18 in discovery research.³⁵ Gene editing was found to be exceptionally effective in them and their 19 application as tools for studying disease has increased.³⁶ X. tropicalis are diploid tetrapods with 20 21 very few gene duplications. Their genome structure has high levels of synteny with humans³⁷ and 22 the initial determination that 80% of human disease genes have orthologues in this species is now 23 thought to be an underestimate.³⁸ We and others have shown them to be highly suited to testing the 24 links between a variant of uncertain significance and human disease phenotypes.^{28,39} This can often 25 be achieved without breeding the animals due to the efficiency of CRISPR/Cas resulting in very 26 low levels of mosaicism in founders. Hence, they represent a rapid and cost-effective assay for gene-disease associations, filling an important gap between the mouse and zebrafish models. Here 27 28 we have used mosaic crispant founders and heterozygous F_1 non-mosaic models to test the effect 29 of a truncation in ddx17 and find a very significant decrease in effective neurodevelopment. If we 30 directly compare mosaic homozygous crispants with non-mosaic F₁ heterozygous animals, there are stronger phenotypic effects in mosaic founder animals. This is a known phenomenon, which 31

may be associated with a failure to activate compensatory mechanisms in mosaic animals,
 including crispants in another aquatic model, zebrafish (reviewed by Rouf *et al.*⁴⁰). This suggests
 that *Xenopus* behave like zebrafish in this respect.

4 Our data offer some limited insights into the mechanism whereby DDX17 variants affecting its 5 function relate to the disease phenotype. Since DDX17 is known to regulate gene expression at 6 multiple levels, the different pathological features associated with DDX17 mutations likely result 7 from the altered expression of some of its target genes and transcripts. Indeed, our transcriptomic 8 analysis showed that 350 genes may be impacted, a large proportion of which are important for development and morphogenesis, and most particularly for neurogenesis. This includes several 9 key transcription factors (NEUROG2, RARB, MYCN...), the deregulation of which could have 10 direct and indirect effects on many other genes in the course of embryonic development. 11 Furthermore, the DDX17-dependent regulation of several genes coding for trans-membrane 12 receptors and ligands associated with axon guidance is also of particular significance, considering 13 the altered axonal development observed upon DDX17 knockdown in mice and tadpoles, and the 14 neurological phenotype observed in patients. Whilst further work is needed, the goal of this study 15 16 is to establish DDX17 as a novel neurodevelopmental disease gene and enable identification of 17 more patients to further elucidate the genotype-phenotype relationship.

18

19 Conclusion

20 We have identified 11 patients with neurodevelopmental phenotypes harbouring monoallelic de 21 novo variants in DDX17. Functional experiments (in vitro and in vivo) show that DDX17 is 22 important in neurodevelopmental processes, in keeping with the observed human phenotype. 23 Ddx17 knockdown of newborn mice showed impaired axon outgrowth, and reduced axon 24 outgrowth and branching was observed in primary cortical neurons in vitro. The axon outgrowth 25 phenotype was replicated in crispant ddx17 tadpoles, including in a heterozygous (F₁) model. 26 Crispant and $ddx17^{+/-}$ tadpoles had clear functional neural defects and showed an impaired 27 neurobehavioral phenotype. Transcriptomic analysis further supports the role of DDX17 in 28 neurodevelopmental processes, particularly neurogenesis. These results strongly support that 29 monoallelic loss-of-function variants in DDX17 cause a neurodevelopmental phenotype.

2 Data availability

Transcriptomic data were deposited in the Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) database under the
record GSE223072. The following secure token has been created to allow review of record while
it remains in private status: wrwfgmgibzedhwx. The embargo will be released upon acceptance of
the manuscript. The published article includes all remaining data generated or analysed during this
study.

8

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14

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25

1 Competing interests

Valerio Carelli acts as consultant and investigator in clinical trials for Chiesi Pharmaceuticals
(Leber hereditary optic neuropathy), GenSIght Biologics (Leber hereditary optic neuropathy), and
Stealth BioTherapeutics (mitochondrial myopathies). Heidi Rehm received funding for rare
disease research from Illumina and Microsoft.

6

7 Supplementary material

8 Supplementary material is available at *Brain* online.

9

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- 28

1 Figure legends

Figure 1 DDX17 patient variants and photographs. (A) Photographs of patients P6, P7 and P10.
Common shared features reported between these patients include posteriorly rotated ears,
telecanthus, and depressed nasal ridge. (B) Gene ideogram, whereby variants in blue are missense,
and variants in red are loss of function.

6

Figure 2 Knockdown of Ddx17 decreases cortical axon complexity in the mouse in vivo. (A-7 F) Histochemistry of the ipsilateral or contralateral side of mice at P21 following in utero 8 9 electroporation with pLKO (A,D) or after loss of function of DDX17 (B-C and E-F) and the fluorescent protein mVenus. (G) Quantification of neuronal migration defects upon knockdown of 10 11 Ddx17. Some position was quantified on a ventricular zone to pial surface axis. Each bin represents 10% migration. Data: min, max, median, 25^{th} , and 75^{th} percentile, n = 6 sections out of 3 animals 12 (2 sections per animal). Analysis: Two-way ANOVA with multiple comparisons. *P < 0.05, **P13 < 0.01, *** P < 0.001. (H) Quantification of normalized mVenus fluorescence in layer V of the 14 ipsilateral cortex (min, max, median, 25^{th} , and 75^{th} percentile). n(pLKO = 13), n(shDDX17-1) =15 18, n(shDDX17-2) = 25. Analysis: One-way ANOVA with Dunn's multiple comparisons. ns: P > 100016 17 0.05, *P < 0.05. (I) Quantification of normalized mVenus fluorescence along a radial axis in the contralateral cortex (Average ±SEM) (H) in control condition pLKO) or after knockdown of 18 Ddx17. n(pLKO) = 13, n(shDDX17-1) = 18, n(shDDX17-2) = 25. Analysis: Two-way ANOVA. * 19 20 *P* < 0.05.

21

22 Figure 3 Ddx17 is necessary and sufficient for axon development. (A-E) Representative images 23 of mVenus expressing cortical neurons (5 DIV) in control condition (pLKO.1 scrambled or 24 pLKO.1 cloning) or after loss of function ((Ddx17-shRNA #1, Ddx17-shRNA #2, and Ddx17-25 shRNA #1+2 mix). Red star (*) point to collateral branches of the axon. (F-H) Quantification of axon length, number of collateral branches, and number of collaterals normalized by axon length 26 27 of 5 DIV neurons in the indicated conditions. Bars represent the average and 95% CI. Statistical 28 tests: Kruskal-Wallis test with Dunn's post-test (each condition compared to control condition). (I-J) Representative images of mVenus expressing cortical neurons (5 DIV) in control conditions, or 29

upon overexpression of Ddx17. Red star (*) points to branch/collateral position. (K-M)
Quantification of axon length, number of collateral branches, and number of collaterals normalized
by axon length of 5 DIV neurons in the indicated conditions. Bars represent the average and 95%
CI. Statistical tests: Kruskal-Wallis test with Dunn's post-test. (F-H) n(pLKO.1 scram.) = 279,
n(pLKO.1 clon.) = 153, n(shDDX17 #1) = 193, n(shDDX17 #2) = 115, n(shDDX17 #1+2 mix) =
120. (K-M) n(pCAG) = 168, n(pCAG-DDX17) = 134. ns: P > 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001.

7

8 Figure 4 Heterozygous $ddx17^{+/-} X$. tropicalis mutants appear morphologically normal but 9 show reduced axon outgrowth and have a working memory deficit. (A) A developmental series of wild-type X. tropicalis were fixed and underwent in situ hybridisation with a probe specific for 10 ddx17, the blue stain shows where this gene is expressed. The highest levels of ddx17 mRNA are 11 in neural tissues although it is detectable more widely. (B) Control and heterozygous mutant 12 13 embryos were fixed at the stages shown and stained for neuron bodies and axons using HNK1 monoclonal antibody. The extension of axons ventrally from the neural tube is reduced in mutants 14 at stage NF24 (4/4 embryos) although growth does continue (see stage NF26). (C) For 15 quantification of axon outgrowth, scoring was blind since it was prior to genotyping (see also 16 Supplementary Fig. 7A-B). (D) Brightfield microscopy showed no clear distinction between 17 control and mutant tadpoles across a range of stages and, when the neural tissue was labeled 18 19 transgenically this too failed to reveal any gross-morphological distinctions (see Supplementary 20 Fig. 7C). (E) Tadpoles at stage NF42, similar to those shown in D, underwent automated 21 movement analysis in a Zantiks MWP unit. In all cases the analysis was performed blind (with 22 genotyping subsequent to measurements) the black data points represent wild-type animals with 23 purple showing mutant $(ddx 17^{+/-})$ data. (F) The main change caused by heterozygous ddx 17 loss 24 of function becomes clear when working memory is tested in the free movement pattern Y-maze; 25 the mutants have lost the alternating search pattern shown by all vertebrates.

26

Figure 5 DDX17 controls the expression of genes involved in nervous system development.
(A) Western-blot showing the siRNA-mediated depletion of DDX17 protein in SH-SY5Y cells.
(B) Volcano plot showing the genes that are impacted by *DDX17* KD in SH-SY5Y cells, as predicted from the RNA-seq analysis. Significantly altered genes (downregulated in blue and

1 upregulated in red) were identified as described in the Methods section. (C) Gene ontology analysis using ShinyGO for the genes impacted by DDX17KD. Only the top 20 of the GO enriched 2 3 biological processes are shown (see Supplementary File C for the full list of enriched terms). (D) 4 Validation of the effect of DDX17 knockdown on the steady-state expression of a selection of genes. RT-qPCR data were first normalized to GAPDH mRNA level in each condition, and the 5 normalized mRNA level of each gene in the DDX17 knockdown condition was then normalized 6 to the control condition, set to 1. Data are expressed as the mean value \pm S.E.M. of independent 7 experiments (n = 3). Unpaired Student's *t*-test (*P < 0.05; **P < 0.01; ***P < 0.001). (E) 8 Correlation between the measured fold change of expression (x-axis) and the corresponding 9 10 predicted fold change value (y-axis) for the 28 genes shown in panel D.

- 11
- 12

	Predicted Loss of Function					Missense					
Patient	PI	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7	P8	P9	PI0	PII
Age	3 y 8 m	13 y	13 y 8	l7y6	l7y6	4 y	7у	15 y	16 y	l7y3	23 y
			m	m	m					m	
Sex	F	М	М	М	М	М	М	F	М	F	М
GRCh38	22:38499457_3	22:384949	22:384959	22:3849	22:384937	22:3849373	22:384950	22:384985	22:384959	22:3849	22:38506
	8499458 del	28	39 T>C	4973	17 delT	6 T>C	16 C>T	04 G>A	00 T>C	8463	32 G>T
		C>CAT		TC>T						T>C	
Variant	c.481_482 del	c.997_998	c.739-	c.953	c.1380	c.1361A	c.911G	c.608C	c.776A	c.649A	c.206C
c.NM_0063		dup	2A>G	del	del	>G	>A	>T	>G	>G	>A
86.5											
Variant	Arg161Gly fs*7	Met333lle	splicing	Arg318	Asn462	Gln454	Arg304	Pro203	Gln259	Thr217	Ala69A
p.NP_006		fs*22		His	Met	Arg	His	Leu	Arg	Ala	sp
377.2				fs*36	fs*16			-			
Macrocep	No	No	No	Yes	At	No	No	No	Yes	No	No
haly					birth						
DFF	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
Walking	24 m	18 m	16 m	I4 m	I4 m	>2 y	18 m	2 y	14 m	27 m	nd
ID	Mild-mod.	No	Mild-	Mild	Mild	nd	No	Moder	Mild	No	Moder
			mod.					ate			ate
ADHD	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	nd	No	No	Yes	nd	Yes
ASD	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	No
Language	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
GDD	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
ND	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
GMD	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
FMD	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Stereotyp y	No	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	No
Hypotonia	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No

1 Table I Core phenotypic features of cohort with heterozygous de novo variants in DDX17

2345678

Age: at the last visit, in years (y) and months (m); Sex: female (F) or male (M); GRCh38: genomic coordinates; DFF: Dysmorphic facial features; Walking: age walking independently; ID: Intellectual disability; ADHD: attention deficit hyperactivity disorder; ASD: Autism spectrum disorder; Language: delayed speech and language development; GDD: Global developmental delay; ND: Neurodevelopmental delay; GMD: Gross motor delay; FMD: Fine motor delay; A "Yes" or "No" denotes presence or absence of a feature, respectively; nd: not determined. c.NM_006386.5 and p.NP_006377.2 represent MANE transcripts. No protein consequence is available for P3 as it is a splicing variant.









165x210 mm (x DPI)

