Mitochondrial dysfunction drives a neuronal exhaustion phenotype in methylmalonic aciduria

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Abstract

Methylmalonic aciduria (MMA) is an inborn error of metabolism resulting in loss of function of the enzyme methylmalonyl-CoA mutase (MMUT). Despite acute and persistent neurological symptoms, the pathogenesis of MMA in the central nervous system is poorly understood, which has contributed to a dearth of effective brain specific treatments. Here we utilised patient-derived induced pluripotent stem cells and *in vitro* differentiation to generate a human neuronal model of MMA. We reveal strong evidence of mitochondrial dysfunction caused by deficiency of MMUT in patient neurons. By employing patch-clamp electrophysiology, targeted metabolomics, and bulk transcriptomics, we expose an altered state of excitability, which is exacerbated by application of 2-dimethyloxoglutarate, and we suggest may be connected to metabolic rewiring. Our work provides first evidence of mitochondrial driven neuronal dysfunction in MMA, which through our comprehensive characterisation of this paradigmatic model, enables first steps to identifying effective therapies.

Introduction

Mitochondrial diseases are a diverse group of genetic disorders that lead to dysfunctional mitochondria and energetic depletion. Pathogenic variants in approximately 1136 genes which encode mitochondrial-resident proteins[1], found on both nuclear and mitochondrial DNA, may cause mitochondrial diseases. Together, 23 per 100,000 people harbour pathogenic variants that have or will convey a mitochondrial disease[2]. However, the inherent clinical and genetic heterogeneity of mitochondrial diseases make them difficult to diagnose, hard to treat, and complex to study[3,4]. Nevertheless, mitochondrial diseases affecting components of oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS) or proteins proximal to the tricarboxylic acid cycle (TCA cycle) often report overlapping symptoms[5,6], particularly within the central nervous system (CNS)[7,8].

Isolated methylmalonic aciduria (MMA) is an archetypical mitochondrial disease caused by pathogenic variants leading to the absence or deficiency of the nuclear-encoded mitochondrial matrix-residing enzyme methylmalonyl-CoA mutase (MMUT; MIM #251000)[9]. It is typified by accumulation of methylmalonic acid and related compounds in blood and

urine; however, increased levels of these disease-related compounds are likely not sufficient to explain overall clinical presentation and disease progression[10,11]. Rather, reduced mitochondrial function and energy production may also be important contributors to disease progression[10,12–15]. Mitochondrial structural changes and dysfunction have been widely described in MMA[12,16,17]. Previous liver and kidney tissue models have demonstrated MMUT-deficiency causes enlarged mitochondria and altered OXPHOS activity[16,17]. The consequences of this appear to be impaired mitophagy[12] and shifted anaplerosis into the TCA cycle[10,18]. MMUT-KO cells and MMA patient fibroblasts have demonstrated a preference for reductive TCA cycle pathway, which was rescued by supplying cells with 2-dimethyloxoglutarate, an analogue of 2-oxoglutarate[10]. However, neither mitochondrial nor metabolic response to MMUT-deficiency in the CNS have been investigated due to the lack of an adequate model.

In the CNS, glutamine and glutamate have tissue-specific functions as stimulatory neuroactive molecules[19]. Additionally, mitochondria preferentially utilise OXPHOS for synaptic transmission and maintaining membrane potential through Na/K-ATPases[20–23]. Despite the clear role of neurological dysfunction in MMA and the long-term symptoms (i.e., metabolic stroke, epilepsy, optic neuropathy) invoked, no appropriate models have been employed to investigate this aspect of the disease. Such a shortfall is important because current treatments of MMA are symptomatic and do not protect against long-term CNS sequelae. Recent advances of patient-derived induced pluripotent stem cell (iPSC)-models offer an invaluable route to model neuronal dysfunction in MMA and provide valuable insights into CNS dysfunction.

In this study, we generated iPSC-derived neuronal models of MMA from variant-matched patient fibroblasts. We demonstrate that MMUT-deficient neurons have perturbed mitochondrial networks and reduced mitochondrial function. These appear to drive action potential attenuation in patient-derived neurons, potentially through reduced sodium currents. To tie metabolism to cellular function, metabolomic and transcriptomic exploration suggest altered glutamine processing, which is exacerbated by application of 2-dimethyloxoglutarate. Altogether, our results demonstrate that mitochondrial dysfunction may lead to a neuronal exhaustion-like phenotype, which may be an important component of neurological dysfunction in MMA.

Results
Generation of MMUT-deficient iPSC-derived neuronal lines
Deficiency of MMUT causes MMA, leading to biochemical alterations which drive disease pathology (Fig. 1a). Using Sendai virus based OKSM (OCT4, KLF4, SOX2, MYC) reprogramming, we generated iPSC clones from two unrelated individuals, each homozygous for the pathogenic, vitamin B_{12}/cobalamin-unresponsive[24,25] variant MMUT-p.(Asn219Tyr) (Pt1 & Pt2, $n = 2$; decimals indicate subclone, e.g. Pt1.1 is patient 1, subclone 1), and a wildtype control individual (Ct1, $n = 1$) (Fig. 1b and Supp. Fig. 1a). Isolated clones from all three iPSC lines did not retain Sendai virus markers used in ectopic pluripotency induction (Supp. Fig. 1b). These cell lines were characterised alongside a commercially available control (Ct2, $n = 1$). All four iPSC lines expressed the endogenous pluripotency markers: KLF-4, SOX2, OCT4 and NANOG, which were not found in the progenitor fibroblasts, except for KLF-4 which is natively expressed in fibroblasts (Supp. Fig. 1c). We demonstrated expression of the pluripotency markers NANOG and SSEA-4, and pan-stem cell marker SOX2, as well as the proliferative marker Ki67 (Fig. 1b), and could generate the three germ layers in all four cell lines (Fig. 1c). Comparative genomic hybridization indicated that induction of pluripotency did not generate *de novo* copy number variations between fibroblasts and their daughter iPSC clones (Supp. Fig. 2).

To evaluate whether the generated iPSC clones demonstrated MMUT deficiency, we examined MMUT protein expression by immunocytochemistry (Fig. 1d) and Western blotting analysis (Fig. 1e). Using a MMUT specific antibody (Supp. Fig. 1d and 1e), we observe a

more punctate and less intense staining pattern, which does not co-localise well with
translocase of the outer mitochondrial membrane complex subunit 20 (TOMM20) (Fig. 1d)
and we found reduced MMUT protein in lysates of patient iPSCs (Fig. 1e), consistent with
reduced enzymatic activity (2.58% of control), as demonstrated by an indirect activity assay
which monitors propionate incorporation via MMUT into the TCA cycle[26] (Fig. 1f).

To assess if MMUT deficiency affects neuronal development and function, we employed a
2D differentiation protocol that utilises dual-SMAD inhibition to generate dorsal forebrain-
enriched neuronal progenitors[27,28] (Fig. 2a). For all control and patient-derived iPSCs, we
identified successful generation of neuroectodermal Nestin- and SOX2-positive
neuroepithelium which progressively differentiated from a population including SOX2- and
PAX6-positive neural stem cells (NSC) to TUBB3 and EOMES-positive neural progenitor
cells and finally TUBB3, TBR1, MAP2, and NeuN-positive neurons (Fig. 2b). RT-qPCR
revealed that patient cells express *SOX2*, *PAX6*, and *EOMES* at days 13 and 21 *in vitro*
comparably to control cells when expression is normalized to day 0 (Fig. 2c). This suggests
they adopt cortical NSC identity at the same rate as control cell lines. Immunocytochemistry
(Fig. 2d) and Western blotting analysis (Fig. 2e) indicate MMUT protein expression is
retained in NSC and neurons (Fig. 2d), however patient-derived neurons maintain the more
punctate and less intense MMUT staining pattern and show reduced MMUT protein levels
(Fig. 2e).

Patient neurons have mitochondrial dysfunction and disrupted networks
TOMM20 is an essential mitochondrial protein often used as a proxy for mitochondrial
abundance and shape[29]. Immunocytochemistry demonstrated altered TOMM20 staining
patterns in patient-derived neurons that can be described as perinuclear and smaller (Supp.
Fig. 3a), suggestive of disrupted mitochondrial networks. This was consistently observed in
neurons derived from both patient lines, but not controls and was related to the extent to
which MMUT could be detected within individual neurons (Fig. 3a and Supp. Fig. 3b).
Investigation of spatial mitochondrial characteristics of patient neurons using TOMM20
staining revealed reduced mitochondrial volume and diameter but not sphericity (Supp. Fig.
3c,d). Further, disrupted mitochondrial networks in patient neurons appeared to impair
mitochondrial response to OXPHOS insult, as demonstrated by comparable MitoSOX
fluorescence at baseline but significantly reduced intensity after treatment with complex I
inhibitor rotenone (Supp. Fig. 3e). In patient-derived cells, we identified two apparent
populations, those expressing detectable MMUT (MMUT+) which overlapped with TOMM20,
and those without (MMUT-) (Fig. 3a,b). To investigate the functional capacity of patient
MMUT+ and MMUT- mitochondria, we used detectable fluorescence of
tetramethylrhodamine-methyl-ester (TMRM) as a measure of mitochondrial membrane
potential. We found a reduced TMRM signal in patient-derived neurons, a difference that
was exacerbated in those cells with no detectable MMUT (Fig. 3c,d). We hypothesized that
the lower TMRM signal denoted lower electron transport chain function, which we tested by
inhibiting complex I with rotenone. We found reduced TMRM fluorescence in rotenone
treated MMUT+ cells, less so in patient MMUT-, but not in control (Fig. 3d), suggesting that
MMUT deficient mitochondria have a diminished proton motive force leaving them less able
to react to events that would dissipate the membrane potential. We hypothesized that
reduced membrane potential could trigger programmed cell death. Strikingly, this was
supported by untreated patient-derived neurons having increased proportion of pro-apoptotic
cleaved Caspase 3 (Fig. 3e) as well as DAPI nuclei staining patterns consistent with
apoptotic cells (Fig. 3f and Supp. Fig. 3f).
Electrophysiological assessment reveals an exhaustion phenotype in patient-derived
neurons
In order to assess generated neurons' functional properties, we performed whole-cell
analysis on patient ($n = 132$, Pt1 & Pt2) and control ($n = 94$, Ct1 & Ct2) neurons (Supp. Tab.
1). Similar to previous reports[30], principle component analysis (PCA) of all 31 extracted

features from step current injection protocols (Supp. Tab. 2) revealed three distinct clusters
(Supp. Fig. 4a), which were further discriminated by utilizing 21 primary variables (Fig. 4a
and Supp. Fig. 4b). These clusters could be best represented as non-action potential (AP)
firing (Type 1, T1), single-AP firing (T2), and multiple AP-firing (T3) neurons (Fig. 4a,b and
Supp. Fig. 4a). They were not separated by genotype (patient vs control) (Supp. Fig. 4b), but
rather by variation within inherent electrophysiological properties, such as resting membrane
potential, input resistance, capacitance, number of APs, and AP threshold (Supp. Fig. 4c).
Unguided hierarchical clustering of 21 primary variables separated assessed neurons by T1,
T2 or T3, but not by genotype (Supp. Fig. 4d). However, we observed an apparent decrease
in T3 and corresponding increase in T2 in patient-derived neurons (Fig. 4c), suggesting that
generating successive APs may be corrupted in patient neurons.

To explore this further, we performed correlation analysis on 21 primary variables in
T3 neurons derived from patients ($n = 50$) and controls ($n = 52$) (Fig. 4d). For all cells, we
identified anticipated correlations between variables, such as AP threshold and AP full width
at half maximum (FWHM, i.e. time between slope rise and fall at half-max amplitude) with
AP amplitude (negative correlations), as well as AP amplitude with AP number and resting
membrane potential with AP FWHM (positive correlations) (Fig. 4d and Supp. Fig. 5a,b).
Striking, however, was that variables expected to correlate with AP attenuation, and found to
do so in control neurons (e.g., AP amplitude, AP threshold, and FWHM), did not correlate in
patient neurons (Fig. 4d and Supp. Fig. 5c). Closer inspection of the reduction of AP
amplitude following multiple APs (measured as the attenuation ratio), revealed a significantly
stronger loss of AP amplitude and hence enhanced attenuation in patient neurons (Fig. 4e).
This is indicative of a mitochondrial exhaustion-like phenotype, which is mirrored in Leigh
Syndrome models that lacked repetitive spiking and contained higher numbers of non-
spiking neurons[31].

To link the loss of AP amplitude over multiple firings and mitochondrial dysfunction,
we further assessed attenuation in selected cells whose mitochondrial morphology was
visualized using MitoTracker™ (Supp. Fig. 5d). Consistent with previous data (Supp. Fig.
3a-d), all control cells appeared to have intact mitochondrial networks, whereas patient-
derived cells had either intact or disrupted mitochondrial networks (Supp. Fig. 5d). Patient
cells with intact mitochondrial networks had an attenuation ratio similar to control neurons,
whereas neurons with disrupted mitochondrial networks had increased attenuation (Supp.
Fig. 5e), suggesting an association between AP exhaustion and mitochondrial dysfunction.

Depolarisations generating higher AP amplitudes are achieved by influxes of cations;
the velocity of these influxes can be calculated through the first derivative of the membrane
potential slope over time (dVdt, Fig. 4f). dVdt ratios in patient-derived neurons were
decreased compared to controls (Supp. Fig. 5f), which was driven by the depolarisation
(reported as maximum) and not repolarisation (potassium efflux, reported as minimum)
phase (Fig. 4g). In control neurons, the maximum dVdt positively correlated with the
attenuation ratio, a relationship which was lost in patient-derived neurons (Supp. Fig. 5g).
Similarly, the positive correlation of dVdt with AP number and with AP amplitude found in
control neurons was lost or reduced in patient-derived cells (Fig. 4d and Supp. Fig. 5h).
These findings suggest that patient-derived cells cannot sustain sufficient current densities
to maintain action potential firing, which may lead to the observed exhaustion-like
phenotype.

To test the hypothesis that reduced sodium currents drive these observations, we
performed additional voltage-clamp recordings on patient ($n = 92$) and control ($n = 89$)
neurons. The selected neurons contained the same patient T3 proportional decrease (Supp.
Fig. 6a), increased attenuation and decreased dVdt ratio as the overall population (Supp.
Fig. 6b). We found substantially reduced sodium current densities in patient-derived neurons
when compared to control, with peak densities reduced 5-fold in patient-derived neurons
(Fig. 4i,j; Supp. Fig. 6c-e).

Rewired glutamine-glutamate metabolism alters glutamatergic identity
We next utilised targeted metabolomics to investigate the connection between
mitochondrial dysfunction and altered neuronal excitability. MMA related metabolites,

including hydroxypropionic acid and propionyl-carnitine were elevated as expected in
patient-derived neurons, while lactate tended to be increased with methylmalonic acid and 2-
methylcitrate appearing unchanged (Fig. 5a and Supp. Fig. 7a). Despite our finding of
disturbed mitochondrial networks in patient-derived neurons, we found no difference in the
pools of the anaplerotic intermediates pyruvate, alanine, glutamine and glutamate (Supp.
Fig. 7b) as well as TCA cycle intermediates (Supp. Fig. 7c) between patient and control-
derived neurons, which is consistent with findings in patient fibroblasts[10]. This prompted us
to investigate the anaplerotic contribution to the TCA cycle from labelled glutamine (Fig. 5b).
Glutamine flows into the TCA cycle via glutamate and 2-oxoglutarate (Fig. 5b). Following
labelled glutamine supplementation, we found a high proportion of labelled glutamine, which
was reduced in glutamate and 2-oxoglutarate, but found no difference between fractional
labelling (Supp. Fig. 7d) nor pool levels (Supp. Fig. 7e) of all three intermediates between
patient and control-derived neurons. We also found no difference in the fractional
incorporation nor pool levels of measured TCA intermediates (Supp. Fig. 7f,g). However, we
did notice reduced fractional incorporation, but not pool levels, of aspartate (Fig. 5c).
Glutamine-derived aspartate can be produced via oxaloacetate by cytosolic or mitochondrial
aminotransferases, whereby the direction of the TCA cycle (oxidative or reductive)
influences the number of labelled carbons (Fig. 5b). We found the ratio of M+5 to M+4
citrate, and M+3 to M+4 malate (M+x refers to the number of carbon isotopes that are
present, where a ratio of 1 indicates equal contribution from oxidative and reductive), to be
changed in patient-derived neurons (Fig. 5d). This altered ratio is supportive of metabolic
rewiring in the sense that labelled carbons entering the TCA cycle are affected in patient-
derived cells, which is also supported by altered aspartate labelling.
We also investigated the pool sizes of glycolytic intermediates, which follows report
of increased hexoses in primary patient fibroblasts[10]. Using a targeted approach to measure
levels of specific detectable sugar phosphates[32], we identified elevated galactose-1-
phosphate, mannose-6-phosphate, and glucosamine-6-phosphate in patient-derived
neurons compared to controls (Supp. Fig. 8a). We found reduced *N*-acetyl-glucosamine-6-
phosphate and *N*-acetyl-mannosamine-6-phosphate (Supp. Fig. 8b) and elevated nucleotide
sugars GDP-fucose and GDP-mannose (Supp. Fig. 8c). We suspect this may be indicative
of a reactive shift to glycolysis, as OXPHOS in disease contexts is impaired, which is a
phenomena also described in hypoxia[33]. We found no change in other glucose or fructose
phosphate derivatives nor pentose phosphate derivates (Supp. Fig. 8a,d and Supp. Tab. 3).
Our finding of elevated galactose-1-phosphate and mannose-6-phosphate suggest glycolytic
flux is increased. Further investigation is required to determine a link between increased
glycolytic metabolites and rewired TCA cycle metabolism, as this phenomena has been
reported previously[10].
Based on the above changes, we attempted to rescue the phenotype in patient-
derived neurons using dimethyl-2-oxoglutarate (DM-2OG) a membrane permeable analogue
of the TCA cycle intermediate 2-oxoglutarate (Fig. 5e). Application of DM-2OG increased
some but not all pools of TCA cycle intermediates measured, including glutamate and
glutamine (Supp. Fig. 9a-b), and resulted in amelioration of the difference between pool
levels of hydroxypropionic acid, propionyl-carnitine, and lactate (Fig. 5f, Supp. Fig. 9c) as
well as fractional contribution into aspartate of control and patient-derived neurons and
normalisation of TCA cycle flux (Fig. 5g-i). DM-2OG supplementation increased selected
hexose phosphates but patient galactose-1-phosphate, mannose-6-phosphate, and
glucosamine-6-phosphate remained significantly increased compared to treated control
neurons (Supp. Fig. 9d). However, DM-2OG treatment reduced the difference between
patient and control *N*-acetyl-glucosamine-6-phosphate and *N*-acetyl-mannosamine-6-
phosphate (Supp. Fig. 9e), which we attribute to DM-2OG flooding the TCA cycle and
conversion of glutamine to glucosamine that then inhibits side pathways[34].
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TCA cycle rewiring impacts neuronal excitability at the synaptic level

DM-2OG altered the neuronal levels of neurotransmitter amines, such as glutamate, leading
us to investigate the effect of DM-2OG supplementation and subsequent metabolic rewiring
on electrophysiological properties. We performed current-clamp recordings on 36 neurons
with supplementation of DM-2OG between 0.1 – 6.0 mM (Supp. Fig. 10a). We found that
higher doses abolished AP firing capacity (Supp. Fig. 10a), which may be linked to
increasing hyperpolarisation and decreasing capacitance (Supp. Fig. 10b-c). Voltage-clamp
recordings on control neurons demonstrated that 1 mM and 6 mM DM-2OG reduced sodium
current densities to levels that were similar to untreated patient-derived neurons (Fig. 6a,b).
At lower doses, control but not patient-derived neurons were still able to produce APs and
maintain sodium current densities (Fig. 6a-b and Supp. Fig. 10a). We hypothesized that
patient metabolic rewiring altered neuronal function at the synaptic level. We investigated
the packaging of glutamate in the synapse through *SLC17A7*, which encodes the vesicular
glutamate transporter 1 (VGLUT1). We found a greater number of VGLUT1+ foci in patient
neurons (Supp. Fig. 10d,e), suggesting a predisposition towards glutamate excitotoxicity that
could contribute to the exhaustion phenotype, and, more generally, to the neurological
phenotype. Consequently, we recorded spontaneous excitatory postsynaptic currents of
untreated patient ($n = 46$) and control ($n = 48$) as well as 0.1mM DM-2OG treated patient (n
$= 7$) and control ($n = 8$) neuronal networks. We observed an increased charge of synaptic
events in patient-derived neurons (Fig. 6c,d). However, we did not observe difference in
event amplitude, decay kinetics, or frequency (Supp. Fig. 10f-h). The event duration (charge)
may be related to glutamate receptor subunits, which combine to form functional neuronal
glutamate receptors[35].
Given the electrophysiological and metabolic changes in patient-derived neurons, we
performed bulk transcriptomics on control and patient neurons. Analysis of the neuronal
transcriptome via PCA revealed successful separation of controls and patients based on
inherent variance (Supp. Fig. 11a). Using over-representation analysis, we found gene
networks involved in "glutamatergic synapse", "ion channel activity", and "chemical synaptic
transmission" to be differentially expressed (Fig. 6e and Supp. Fig. 11b-c). Further analysis
revealed glutamate packaging machinery (*SLC17A7*), and glutamate receptors, such as
GRM7, *GRIN3A*, *GRIA3*, *GRIA4*, to have altered expression in patient-derived neurons (Fig.
6f and Supp. Fig. 11d). We also observed several ion channel genes, including sodium
(*SCN9A*), calcium (*CACNA1H*), and potassium (*KCNH3*, *KCNN1*, *KCNIP3*) channels, to be
differentially expressed (Fig. 6f). Moreover, GAD1/2, which catalyses the production of 4-
aminobutanoate (GABA) from glutamate, depending on the supply pool size of glutamate in
the cytosol, appeared to be downregulated in patient-derived neurons (Fig. 6f).
To test if subunit composition is altered, we treated control and patient neurons with
0.1 mM DM-2OG and analysed the transcriptome. Comparison of untreated control and DM-
2OG supplemented patient-derived neurons revealed the absence of many previously
identified significantly differentially regulated synaptic related GO terms (Fig. 6g). Of
previously identified glutamatergic synapse differentially expressed genes, only GRM7,
GRIN3A, SCN9A, KCNN1, and GRIA3 were still significant (Fig. 6h). Disease-state
metabolic rewiring changes the TCA cycle, an impact that we can replicate with DM-2OG
treatment. We demonstrate DM-2OG increases metabolite pools, such as glutamate, and
these treatments recapitulate aspects of the exhaustion phenotype.
Finally, we leveraged our bulk transcriptomic data to perform RNA-seq deconvolution
protocols to achieve pseudo single-cell RNA-seq data for cell type. This analysis revealed
that the largest cellular population across all cell lines were those with excitatory neuron
cellular identity (Supp. Fig. 11e), although each population was heterogenous and also
contained inhibitory neurons and astroglia precursors, in line with the findings of the original
methods paper[27]. We were also able to extract specific gene transcripts that identify specific
cellular populations such as region-specific proliferating cells (PCNA, DCX, PAX3, PAX6,
HES6), discrete neuronal populations (SLC17A6, GAD2), and astrocytic precursor
populations (GJA1, ADGRV1) (Supp. Fig. 11f). DM-2OG was not found to have any
consistent effect on cell type across the various lines (Supp. Fig. 11e). As patient liver
biopsy had found reduced protein expression of cytochrome c oxidase (COX)[36], we report
mitochondrial COX transcripts (MT-CO1, MT-CO2, MT-CO3) are not differentially

expressed, conversely subunits COX5A and COX6B were upregulated in patient-derived
neurons (Supp. Fig. 11g).
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Discussion

In this study, we have gained insight into the conserved role of mitochondrial disruption in
MMA and uncovered an exhaustion-like phenotype in neurons affected by mitochondrial
disease. We described how mitochondrial disruption and reduced sodium current density
underlie AP attenuation. MMUT deficiency rewires neuronal metabolism and conferred a
greater demand of glutamine and aspartate to the TCA cycle, we also documented reduced
current density through modulation of synaptic ion channel dynamics. We introduce the first
in vitro human-relevant neurological model of MMA. We were able to model one common
European pathogenic variant c.655A>T. However, we were unable to generate an isogenic
control due to the genomic landscape of the mutation site. A further caveat is the use of only
two control lines, and a lack of neural cell-type characterization using single cell RNA-seq.
However, since we observed comparable rates of cortical marker adoption and gross
electrophysiological functionality of patient-derived cells were indistinguishable from control
neurons, we expect that the excitatory populations generated across conditions were
comparable. Nevertheless, we make the final note that experiments making use of
MitoTracker and TMRM were not performed with an additional cell-type specific maker, and
we therefore cannot determine exactly which cell-types are most prone to mitochondrial
dysfunction.
The occurrence of neurological symptoms despite treatment highlights the need to
explore neuronal pathomechanisms[37–43]. Our findings reinforce previous comprehensive
evidence that mitochondrial dysfunction drives pathophysiology in MMA[12,16,17]. These
evidence fit well within the current literature that describe reduced mitochondrial respiration
and/or mitochondrial ultrastructure alterations in primary patient kidney cells[12]; liver, kidney,
heart, and skeletal muscle of patients[13]; Mut$^{-/-}$ mice kidney[17] and liver[16]. Here we
demonstrate that mitochondrial dysfunction is also an important component of neuronal
pathology. Although electrophysiology has never been assessed in MMA, two separate
iPSC-derived models of the primary mitochondrial disease Leigh Syndrome demonstrate
that pathogenic variants in the electron transport chain reduced oxygen consumption[31,44].
Electrophysiological reporting was mixed, one study found SURF1 mutations reduced
sodium and potassium currents, which resulted in reduced repetitive spiking[31]. Another
paper concluded that no difference between patient and control cells' intrinsic properties
were found[44].
Although the term "attenuation" is not used in these referenced papers, it is clear that
reduced sodium currents and decreased AP amplitudes are present[31] and current-evoked
AP amplitudes decrease over time. This phenomenon is demonstrated more clearly in a
current ramp test, however both examples demonstrate an exhaustive phenotype
comparable to attenuation[44]. These findings can be related back to biophysical studies in
sodium inactivation which posit that complex gating can be tied to the specific subpopulation
of sodium channel by the incorporation of specific subunits[45]. This consideration is even
more striking when we consider our findings of differential regulation of a number of sodium
channel subunits.
Neurons have been shown to have a greater reliance on OXPHOS during AP
firing[46,47]. One route to meeting such a demand in the brain is through the oxidation of
glutamine[48–51], which is coupled to incremental glucose oxidation[51]. Derangement of
OXPHOS puts a greater reliance on glutamine and aspartate metabolism[52]. Our finding of
reduced glutamine contribution to aspartate suggests rewiring of the TCA flux[53], consistent
with reduced reliance on reductive TCA cycle flux in patient-derived neurons. This pattern is
consistent with a greater importance on anaplerotic metabolites. Elevated levels of lactate
and hexose phosphate sugars suggest glucose flowing into glycolysis may also be rewired
to side pathways[54]. Altered dependence of patient neurons on glutamine and aspartate may
feasibly lead to differential expression of glutamatergic receptor subunits. Hippocampal
neurons rapidly redistribute their glutamate receptors after glutamate and glycine
treatment[55,56], indicating that metabolic shift may be strong enough to cause the differential

expression of ionotropic glutamate receptors observed in patient neurons. Concurrently this may result in patient neurons' prolonged synaptic events or reduced ability to sustain successive action potentials. *GRIA4*, which is downregulated in patient cells, is the fastest glutamate receptor and its expression is linked to receptor kinetics[57]. GRIA4-containing AMPA receptors also appear responsive to changes in spontaneous synaptic events[58].

Previous work in our laboratory found disease-specific biochemical alterations in patient fibroblasts[10]. Crucially, our findings mirror the results from patient fibroblasts in a reduced propionate incorporation, elevated propionyl-carnitine and hydroxy-propionate, although we did not identify increased methylmalonic acid nor 2-methylcitrate. Manipulation of disease-state metabolic rewiring with DM-2OG demonstrated a rescue of disease-related metabolites but exacerbated components of the exhaustion phenotype in control-derived neurons. This suggests an association between metabolic rewiring and gene expression. Decreased measurements of *N*-acetyl-glucosamine-6-phosphate and *N*-acetyl-mannosamine-6-phosphate may link changes in the hexosamine biosynthesis pathway to altered transcription, as this pathway contributes posttranslational modifications to intracellular proteins, including glycosylation and associated transcription factors. Furthermore, the use of DM-2OG and its effect on glutamate, a neurotransmitter, evidenced these effects by abolition of AP firing capacity.

To date, great focus has been placed on the basal ganglia, due to the occurrence of bilateral lesions within the basal ganglia, we chose to focus our efforts on cortical neurons. The reasoning behind this decision was three-fold: (1) protocols to generate glutamatergic neurons of the cortical forebrain are better characterised and more sophisticated than GABAergic neurons or cholinergic interneurons of the telencephalon. (2) In individuals affected by MMA, bilateral lacunar infarctions of the basal ganglia are often reported after acute metabolic decompensation, which produces movement disorder, however other neurological symptoms such as delayed myelination, subcortical white matter changes, cortical atrophy, and brain stem and cerebellar changes are also commonly reported. From this list of symptoms, multiple cell types are affected, however no information has been published concerning which cellular populations generate these symptoms mechanistically. Moreover, whilst we and others have shown that MMUT is expressed in neurons[59], it has yet to be demonstrated to be expressed in astroglia, microglia, or oligodendrocytes, and yet is believed to be a ubiquitously expressed key enzyme in cellular metabolism. This raises the question of how MMUT is regulated at the protein level, which may account for our observation of the two populations, MMUT+ and MMUT-. It has been shown that MMA leads to aberrant post-translational modifications by methymalonylation[60]. Moreover, novel phosphorylation sites in MMUT have been identified in liver samples[61]. Future work could look to identify the phosphoproteome during mitochondrial insult to identify a regulatory framework that leads to MMUT mislocalisation. (3) In acute excitotoxicity, the primary line of investigation centres around the idea that excessive postsynaptic depolarisation leads to cellular death, which may cause lesions seen in MMA but also in diseases such as Parkinson's. However, we have no indication to believe that dopaminergic signalling is the reason behind basal ganglia lesions in MMA. Hence, excessive glutamate in the synapse from pre-synaptic cortical neurons innervating the striatum is just as likely a cause of excitotoxic cellular death and possibly cortical atrophy.

Here, we describe a mechanism of mitochondrial disruption generating reduced AP firing in patient-derived cells affected by MMA. Underlying this AP exhaustion was a reduced sodium current density, rewired glutamine metabolism, and differential glutamate receptor transcript expression. Further manipulation of glutamine metabolism reverses some of the metabolic and transcriptomic observations. More work will be required to elucidate the exact mechanism that reduces excitability in patient neurons.

Methods
Ethics statement, patients and fibroblast lines
Approval to use patient fibroblasts was granted by the Cantonal Ethics Commission of Zurich (KEK-ZH-Nr. 2014-0211, amendment PB_2020-00053). Both patient-derived fibroblast lines carried the *MMUT* homozygous pathogenic variant c.655A>T (p.Asn219Tyr),

439 confirmed by Sanger sequencing at the DNA level, and corresponding to the mut^0
440 phenotype. In addition to fibroblasts from two affected individuals (Pt1, female; Pt2, male),
441 fibroblasts from Ct1 (ATCC: CRL-2522, male) were used for iPSC generation. An additional
442 iPSC line control (Ct2, male; NHLBli003-A, RRID: CVCL_1E78) was acquired from Rutgers
443 University (RUCDR, USA) [62].

Fibroblast and HEK293T culture, and maintenance
HEK293T (ATCC: CRL-3216) and fibroblasts were cultured at 37°C and 5% CO2 in a
humidified incubator. Cells were cultured in Dulbecco's modified eagle medium (DMEM,
Gibco, Cat. 31966-047) supplemented with 10% foetal bovine serum (FBS, Gibco, Cat.
102070-106) and 1% Anti-Anti (100X, Antibiotic-Antimycotic, Gibco, Cat. 15240-062).
Passaging was performed once cells reached 80% confluency, using 0.05% Trypsin (1X,
Trypsin-EDTA, Gibco, Cat. 25300-054) and washed with Dulbecco's Phosphate Buffered
Saline (DPBS, Gibco, Cat. 14190-250). Cells were maintained frozen in liquid nitrogen in
cryopreservation medium (90% FBS (as before) and 10% DMSO (Sigma, Cat. D2438-
50ML)).

iPSC culture, differentiation, and maintenance
All cells were cultured at 37°C and 5% CO_2 in a humidified incubator. The generation of
iPSCs from fibroblasts was performed as previously described[63]. Briefly, the transduction
was performed using the CytoTune®-iPS 2.0 Sendai Reprogramming Kit (Invitrogen, Cat.
A16518) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Transduction was performed on
fibroblasts with passage numbers lower than five. Cells were plated at a density of 1×10^5
cells/well in a 12-well plate. Non-integrating Sendai virus was added to the fibroblast
medium at an MOI (ratio virus to cells) of 5 for KOS (Klf4, Oct4, Sox2) and c-Myc, and MOI 3
for Klf4. 8000 transduced fibroblasts were plated on inactivated mouse embryonic fibroblasts
(MEFs). Derived iPSCs colonies were transferred to feeder-free conditions using 1mg/mL
Collagenase type IV solution (Gibco, Cat. 17104019).
Feeder-free iPSC colonies were maintained as previously described[64] with minor
modifications. Between culturing, cells were maintained frozen in liquid nitrogen in
cryopreservation medium (90% KnockOut™ Serum Replacement, Gibco, Cat. 10828028;
10% DMSO, Sigma, Cat. D2438). Cells were cultured on 0.17 mg/well (6-well) or 0.083
mg/well (12-well) BME matrix (Cultrex® Reduced Growth Factor Basement Membrane
Extract, PathClear®, Cat. 3433-010-01) in Essential 8 medium (Gibco, Cat. A1517001)
supplemented with 100 U/mL Penicillin-Streptomycin (10'000 U/mL, Gibco, Cat. 15140122).
Passaging was performed once colonies reached 80% confluency using EZ-LiFT Stem Cell
Passaging Reagent per manufactures instructions (Sigma-Aldrich, SCM139) after which 10
µL/mL RevitaCell™ Supplement (100X, Gibco, Cat. A2644501) was applied to passaged
iPSC colonies. For neural induction, single cell passaging of iPSCs was performed using 0.5
mL or 1 mL ACCUTASE™ Cell detachment solution (1X, StemCellTechnologies, Cat.
07920) for 12-well and 6-well plates, respectively, and 2 µL/mL from 5 mM ROCK-inhibitor
Y-27632 (Dihydrochloride; Sigma-Aldrich, Cat. SCM075) was applied for single cell
passaging. Cells were inspected daily using the Leica DMIL microscope and bright-field
culturing images were taken using the Leica Application Suite (LAS) Version 2.8.1 software.

Array comparative genomic hybridization
To test the genetic integrity of fibroblast-derived iPSCs pre- and post-induction, DNA
extracts from fibroblasts and iPSCs were assessed using array comparative genomic hybrid
analysis (Cell Guidance Systems). Briefly, DNA was isolated from cell pellets using DNeasy
Blood & Tissue Kit (Qiagen, Cat. 69504) per manufacturer's instructions. All extracted DNA
had a concentration >50 ng/µl and contained more than 1 µg. Purity was measured using an
ND-1000 Spectrophotometer (NanoDrop Technologies, Inc.) and fell within A260/A230 = 1.8
– 2.2 and A260/A280 > 1.8. The array contained 754,027 distinct probes and analysis was
conducted on the Infinium Global Screening Array v3.0 platform. The genome-wide
resolution was ~200 kb. Copy number variations and loss of heterozygosity was reported in
samples when present in at least ~15 – 20% of cells. The report can be found in
Supplementary Figure 2.

Germ-layer differentiation assay

iPSCs were differentiated to the three germ layers as previously described [65,66] with minor modifications. Cells were plated onto a 12-well plate in chemically defined medium with polyvinyl alcohol (CDM-PVA: 250 mL IMDM, LifeTechnologies Cat. 21980032); 250 mL DMEM/F-12 + GlutaMAX (Gibco, Cat. 31765027); 1 mL Concentrated Lipids (Life Technologies, Cat. 11905031); 20 µL 1-Thioglycerol (Sigma, Cat. M6145-25ML); 350 µL Insulin (Sigma, Cat. I9278-5ML); 250 µL Transferrin (Sigma, Cat. 10652202001); 10 mL PVA (10 g [stock: 0.05 g/mL], (Sigma, Cat. P8136-250G) in 200 mL embryo-grade water (Sigma, Cat. W1503)). For one day CDM-PVA was supplemented with 10 ng/mL Activin (Gibco, PHC9564) and 12 ng/mL fibroblast growth factor-2 (FGF2) (Gibco, Cat. PHG0024). Thereafter, lineage specific protocols were followed, as reported below.

For endoderm, 100 ng/mL Activin, 80 ng/mL FGF2, 10 ng/mL BMP-4 (Gibco, PHC9534), 10 µM LY294002 (Gibco, Cat. PHZ1144), and 3 µM CHIR99021 (Sigma, Cat. SML1046-5MG) were supplemented in CDM-PVA medium for one day. The next day, the medium was refreshed at the same concentrations without CHIR99021. On the third day, the medium was changed to RPMI medium (500 mL RPMI1640 + GlutaMAX (LifeTechnologies, Cat. 61870010); 10 mL B27 (Gibco, Cat. 17504044); 5 mL NEAA (Gibco, Cat. 11140035); 5 mL Pen/Strep (Gibco, Cat. 15140122)) containing 100 ng/mL Activin and 80 ng/mL FGF2. On day four cells were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde (Sigma, Cat. 158127) in DPBS and were tested for markers of endoderm as described below.

For mesoderm, 100 ng/mL Activin, 20 ng/mL FGF2, 10 ng/mL BMP4, 10 µM LY294002, and 3 µM CHIR99021 was supplemented to CDM-PVA for two days, with media change each day. On day three cells were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde in DPBS and were tested for markers of mesoderm as described below.

For ectoderm, 10 nM SB431542 (Sigma, Cat. S4317-5MG), 12 ng/mL FGF2, and 150 ng/mL Noggin (Sigma, Cat. H6416-10UG) was supplemented to CDM-PVA medium for ten days, with media change each day. On day eleven cells were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde in DPBS and were tested for markers of ectoderm as described below.

To assess differentiation capacity, samples were analysed using the 3-Germ Layer Immunocytochemistry Kit (LifeTechnologies, Cat. A25538) per manufacturer's instructions. TUJ1, AFP and SMA were included in this kit but anti-FoxA2/hHNF-Abs (diluted 1:100, R&D Systems, Cat. AF2400), anti-Brachyury-Abs (diluted 1:100, R&D Systems, Cat. AF2085), and anti-Nestin-Abs (diluted 1:100, Abcam, Cat. ab22035) were also acquired.

The next day, samples were incubated with the corresponding secondary Abs, which were diluted 1:250 in 1% BSA in PBS. AFP, SMA, and TUJ1 were counter-stained with AlexaFluor488 goat anti-mouse IgG1 (Invitrogen, Cat. A25536), AlexaFluor555 goat anti-mouse IgG2a (Cat. A25533), and AlexaFluor647 donkey anti-rabbit (Invitrogen, Cat. A25537), respectively from the 3-Germ Layer Immunocytochemistry Kit. FoxA2/hHNF and Brachyury were counter-stained with mouse-anti-goat Texas Red (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Cat. sc-3916), and Nestin counter-stained with AlexaFluor 488 goat-anti mouse (Invitrogen, Cat. A21121). After the secondary Ab incubation, the samples were mounted using ProLong™ Diamond Antifade Mountant with DAPI (Invitrogen, Cat. P36971). Images were taken with the CLSM Leica SP5 resonant APD at the Center for Microscopy and Image Analysis, University of Zurich.

Mature neuronal culture

To generate neural progenitors, iPSCs were disassociated into single cells using ACCUTASE™ Cell detachment solution as described above, and seeded at high density (1×10^6 cells per well of a 12-well plate) in SMAD inhibition medium as previously described [27]. Cell counting was performed using the Countess 3 Automated Cell Counter (ThermoFisher Scientific) with trypan blue (Gibco, Cat. 15250061) staining to identify dead cells, as per manufactures instructions. Neural induction of iPSC was performed using the STEMdiff™ SMADi Neural Induction Kit (StemCellTechnologies, Cat. 08582) and protocol per manufacturer was followed[28]. Briefly, iPSCs were cultured for 8-12 days on BME matrix (as before) and passaged using 1 mg/mL Collagenase type IV solution (Gibco, Cat. 17104019) upon the appearance of neuroepithelial cells onto BME matrix coated 6-well

plates in STEMdiff™ SMADi Neural Induction medium. The next day, medium was switched to neural maintenance medium (NMM: 48.4 mL KnockOut DMEM/F12, Gibco, Cat. 12660-102; 48.5 mL Neurobasal, Gibco, Cat. 12348-017; 1 mL B-27 Supplement, Gibco, Cat. 17504-044; 500 µL N-2 Supplement, Gibco, Cat. 17502-048; 500 µL Non-essential amino acids, Gibco, Cat. 11140-050; 500 µL GlutaMAX, Gibco, Cat. 35050-061; 500 µL Penicillin-Streptomycin, Gibco, Cat. 15140-122; 90 µL 2-Mercaptoethanol, Gibco, Cat. 31350010; 25 µL Insulin solution, Sigma, Cat. I9278-5ML; as previously described[27]) and henceforth medium was refreshed daily. Upon formation of rosettes (as described in[27,67]), cultures were treated with 5 µL/mL Recombinant Human Basic Fibroblast Growth Factor (bFGF, 4 µg/mL, Gibco, Cat. PHG0024). After four consecutive days of bFGF treatment, cells were passaged with 1 mg/mL Collagenase type IV solution and transferred to BME matrix (Cultrex®) coated 6-plates. Once morphologically apparent neuronal cells (polarised with leading axon and trailing dendrite) could be seen migrating from the apical border of the rosette, cultures were passaged with ACCUTASE™ Cell detachment solution and plated onto 10 µg/mL laminin (Sigma-Aldrich, Cat. L2020) and poly-L-Lysine (Sigma-Aldrich, Cat. P6282-5MG). Cells were passaged between day 21 and 26, and either continued as neural cultures or frozen for storage. For freezing, cells were detached using ACCUTASE™ Cell detachment solution, transferred to neural freezing medium (90% NMM, 10% DMSO (Sigma, Cat. D2438), 20 ng/mL bFGF), and placed in a Mr. Frosty (Thermo Scientific, Cat. 5100-0001) at -80°C and stored long-term in liquid nitrogen, as described[27].

Neural cultures were fed daily with NMM until day 45, after which 48-hour cycles were implemented whereby every second day two thirds of the medium was removed and 2 mL NMM plus maturation supplements GDNF and BDNF (both at 20 ng/mL, StemCellTechnologies, Cat. 78058 and 78005) were supplied to neuronal cultures. In this way, neuronal cultures were maintained up to a maximum of day 120.

Mitochondrial fluorometric stains and dyes
Mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation complex I was inhibited using 1 µM rotenone (Sigma, Cat. R8875-1G) in DMSO for 30 minutes added directly to the medium. Mitochondrial membrane potential was assessed using tetramethylrhodamine-methyl-ester perchlorate (Sigma, Cat. T668) reconstituted in DMSO and supplemented at 15 nM incubated for 60 minutes. Mitochondrial superoxide production was measured using MitoSOX™ Mitochondrial Superoxide Indicators (Invitrogen, Cat. M36008) reconstituted in DMSO was supplemented at 5 µM for 15 minutes.

Electrophysiology
Cells were used for electrophysiology studies after at least 50 days *in vitro* (range: 50 – 113, mean: 73) and at least 20 days following addition of the maturation supplements GDNF and BDNF in 10 µg/mL laminin (Sigma-Aldrich, Cat. L2020) and transfer to poly-L-Lysine (Sigma-Aldrich, Cat. P6282-5MG) coated Nunc™ Cell Culture/Petri Dishes (Thermo Scientific, Cat. 150318). For treatment studies, 0.1 mM, 6 mM or 12 mM dimethyl 2-oxoglutarate (Sigma, Cat. 349631) (DM-2OG) was added for 24 hours before cell collection. For recording, iPSC-derived neurons were placed in a recording chamber and whole-cell patch-clamp recordings were performed using an EPC10 USB amplifier (HEKA). iPSC-derived neurons were bathed with extracellular solution containing (in mM) 140 NaCl, 2 $MgCl_2$, 2 $CaCl_2$, 10 HEPES, 3 KCl, 10 D-Glucose, pH 7.4 (all from Sigma). Pipette solution contained (in mM) 4 NaCl, 120 K-gluconate, 10 HEPES, 10 EGTA, 3 Mg-ATP, 0.5 $CaCl_2$, 1 $MgCl_2$ pH 7.2 (all from Sigma). Patch pipettes ~9 MOhm were pulled from borosilicate glass capillaries (Harvard Apparatus, Cat. 30-0038). Voltages were corrected for a liquid junction potential of +12 mV. Series resistance was not compensated.

We used current-clamp recordings to examine AP firing and membrane properties. Step current injection protocols (duration, 2 s; step, 5 pA; –20 to +60 pA) were applied from the neuron's resting membrane potential. Current-clamp data were filtered at 2.7 kHz and digitized with 20–100 kHz. To study whole-cell currents, voltage steps (duration, 1 s) were applied from a holding potential of –80 mV to voltages between –80 and +60 mV. Peak inward and outward currents were quantified and normalized to whole-cell capacitance to obtain current densities. Spontaneous excitatory postsynaptic currents were measured for 120 s at a holding potential of –80 mV. Voltage-clamp data were filtered at 2.9 kHz and digitized with 50 kHz.

Where described, MitoTracker™ Deep Red FM (Invitrogen, Cat. M22426) was used at 0.1 µM in NMM and provided directly to cells for 15 minutes. Thereafter, medium was aspirated, and cells washed with extracellular solution. Tested doses of MitoTracker™ Deep Red FM ≥ 1 µM were not compatible with electrophysiological recording.

Electrophysiological data were analysed with custom-written routines in IgorPro software (WaveMetrics, version 6.37) for current-clamp and voltage-clamp step protocols. Spontaneous synaptic events were analysed using miniML[68] in Python (version 3.9). Extracted data were integrated using R Studio (version 2022.12.0+353). Analysis scripts are available upon request. Electrophysiology variables and groupings made during analysis are summarised in Supplementary Tables 1 & 2.

Transcriptomics
Bulk RNA-seq was performed by Novogene from RNA extracted from liquid-nitrogen snap frozen cell pellets (DIV range: 65 – 78, mean: 75) that were lysed using QIAshredder (Qiagen, 79656) with RNA extracted using the RNeasy® Mini Kit (Qiagen, Cat. 74106). Prior to sequencing, RNA quality was assessed using an ND-1000 Spectrophotometer (NanoDrop Technologies, Inc.) to ensure sample purity was between A260/280 = 1.8-2.2 and A260/230 ≥ 1.8. Peak illustration was conducted using an Agilent 5400 and the low marker was used to calibrate the size of peaks. RNA libraries were prepared using poly(A) capture, followed by reverse transcription into cDNA. Sequencing was performed in PE150 (paired-end 150) mode on an Illumina NovaSeq 6000 at Novogene. Between 960 to 8800 ng of total RNA was provided and ≥ 20 million read pairs per sample were acquired.

Raw sequencing reads were preprocessed using the SUSHI framework [69,70], which
was developed by the Functional Genomics Center Zurich (FGCZ). Adapter sequences and
low-quality reads were trimmed off using fastp v0.02 [70]. Filtered reads were pseudo-aligned
against the reference human genome assembly GRCh38.p13 and quantified using Kallisto
v0.46.1 [71]. Differential gene expression analysis was performed between different conditions
using the R package edgeR v3.42 [72]. 21057 features were identified, and 15530 features
had counts above the threshold. $P < 0.05$ (reported as false discovery rate unless otherwise
stated, correction is done via Benjamini-Hochberg method) and one-fold change were
considered to be differentially expressed. R package clusterProfiler was used for functional
enrichment analysis based on Go terms and KEGG pathways, which utilised Over-
Representation Analysis [73].
644
Pseudo sc-RNAseq
To determine the cell type abundance, we used a deconvolution approach on the
bulk gene expression profiles of the iPSC-derived neurons collected as described in
Transcriptomics method section. We used the machine learning method CIBERSORTx[74] to
infer cell-type proportion without physical cell isolation. With CIBERSORTx[74], we created a
signature matrix of cell type identified in iPSC-derived neurons using published single-cell
RNA-sequencing data by Gutierrez-Franco *et al*[75], wherein the same iPSC differentiation
protocol was used. Using this fine single-cell annotation of iPSC-derived neurons, we could
run this digital cytometry tool on bulk transcriptomic expression to estimate cell type
abundances.
655
Metabolomics – Sugar phosphates
Polar metabolites were extracted from neuronal cells at day 60 cultured in 6-well plates,
either untreated or after 24 hours supplementation with 12 mM DM-2OG, according to the
described protocol[76]. After extraction, the metabolites were concentrated and dried via an
Alpha 3-4 LSCbasic (Martin Christ, 102394, 102395) in vacuo centrifuge with an external oil-
pump overnight at ambient temperature and stored at -80°C until analysis.
The metabolite extracts were dissolved in 100 µL of ultrapure water upon analysis,
and a volume of 8 µL per sample was injected into an Agilent 1290 ultra-high performance
liquid chromatography (UHPLC) module connect to an Agilent 6490A tandem quadrupole
(QqQ) mass spectrometer, as previously described[32]. Chromatography was performed using
a 0.25 µL/min flow rate and a gradient from 0 to 100% mobile phase B over a 25-minute total
run time. Mobile phase A (12 mM acetic acid, 10 mM tetrabutylammonium, 2 mM
acetylacetone, 3% methanol in mQ) and B (12 mM acetic acid, 10 mM tetrabutylammonium,
2 mM acetylacetone, 3% methanol, 80% acetonitrile in mQ) were used for phosphate sugar
separation. The gradient method was as follows (time: % B): 11 min: 0%; 14 min: 15%; 19
min; 40%; 20 min; 100%; 21.5 minutes 0%. The QqQ MS was operated in dynamic multiple-
reaction monitoring (MRM) mode. The list of transitions used to detect targeted compounds
is reported in Supplementary Table 3. Skyline Software (v20.2, MacCoss Lab Software) was
used for peak integration and resulting peak areas were normalized on total peak area [32].
Data processing and statistical data analysis were performed in PRISM GraphPad (v.5.03).
Technical triplicates were measured for each sample. Shapiro-Wilk test was used to assess
normality. Significance was evaluated for multiple comparison via Kruskal-Wallis test with
significance set at $p<0.05$ (without post hoc correction).
The normalization of the MS data for the TBA-based analysis was performed using
the total peak area method, by dividing the area of the peak of interest by the sum of the
areas of all peaks included in the analysis (as normalization factor), to derive relative
abundances. The resulting relative abundances of the target compounds are thus unitless
number, meaning a pure quantity without a physical unit.
This normalization method is widely used in MS-based metabolomics[32,77–80], and it is
particularly useful when the protein concentration of samples as estimation of the initial
biomass cannot be determined due to the metabolite extraction protocol employed, as in the
case of our study.

A complete list of metabolites detected, and their transition information, is available in
Supplementary Table 3.
690
Metabolomics – TCA cycle metabolites and stable isotope tracing
Treated cells were supplemented with 12 mM DM-2OG for 24 hours. Four hours before cell
collection, medium was changed to NMM without GlutaMAX™ Supplement (Gibco, Cat.
35050061) and with 4□mM [U-^{13}C] glutamine (Sigma-Aldrich, Cat. 605166). At collection,
medium was removed, coverslips quickly dipped into sterile double-distilled water at 37□°C
and quenched in 80% methanol at –20□°C. Cells were scrapped in methanol and
centrifuged at 15,000g for 15□minutes at 4□°C. Supernatants were collected, snap-frozen in
liquid nitrogen and stored at –80□°C before LC–MS analysis. Mass spectrometry
preparation and processing was performed as previously described [10].
700
Immunocytochemistry
To detect native protein markers, immunochemical assay was performed on cells grown on
glass coverslips treated with poly-L-Lysine. Depending on cell state, coverslips were also
treated with BME matrix (iPSCs, NECs, NSCs) or laminin (NPCs, Neurons). Briefly, cells
were washed with DPBS (Gibco, Cat. 14190144), and fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde
(Sigma-Aldrich, Cat. 158127) in DPBS for 15 minutes at ambient temperature. Cells were
then permeabilised for 30 minutes in 0.1% triton (diluted in DPBS), PFA was quenched
using 100 mM glycine solution for 15 minutes, and coverslips blocked in 1% BSA for 60
minutes. Both primary and secondary antibodies were diluted in 1% BSA. All solutions were
prepared in DPBS. A full list of antibodies, their sources, dilution ratios, incubation times and
manufacturers can be found in Supplementary Table 4.
712
Imaging and microscopy
Immunofluorescence images, unless otherwise stated, were taken with a DMi8 S Inverted
Microscope fitted with a DFC480 camera (Leica) and RGB filter boxes. Image acquisition
was adjusted for each fluorophore-antibody combination. All cells, unless otherwise stated,
were plated on glass coverslips (Epredia, Cat. 630-2124) treated with poly-L-Lysine (Sigma-
Aldrich, Cat. P6282-5MG) and mounted on Adhesive Microscopic Slides 25 x 75mm Menzel
(ThermoFisher, Cat. J1800AMNZ) with either ProLong™ Gold Antifade Mountant with DNA
Stain DAPI (Invitrogen, Cat. P36935) or ProLong™ Gold Antifade Mountant without DAPI
(Invitrogen, Cat. P10144).
Images were also acquired using a Leica Confocal SP8 Inverse Falcon with Power
HyD R photon detector in counting mode, and fluorophores excited using a white light laser
or photomultiplier tube with a 405 diode to excite fluorophores in the UV spectrum. Images
were acquired using an HC PL APO 63x/1,40 OIL CS2 objective (Leica) with oil immersion
liquid ("Type-F" immersion liquid, Leica). Acquisition parameters for high resolution images
and deconvolution: Z-step at 130 nm (Image slices range 18-25), Image size at 42.91 µm.
Image deconvolution was performed using Bitplane Imaris.
729
Correlation colocalization image analysis
The analysis of colocalization of the MMUT and TOMM20 channels was performed using the
Coloc 2 plugin in ImageJ. This plugin performed a spatial pixel intensity correlation, creating
a scatterplot with a linear regression fit, which indicated the degree of colocalization between
the two channels. Pearson's correlation analysis and the calculated Pearson's R coefficient
were extracted and reported, (https://imagej.net/Coloc_2 and
https://imagej.net/Colocalization_Analysis).
737
Immunoblotting
Cells were collected with Accutase or scraping, washed with DPBS, and centrifuged to
retrieve pellets. The supernatant was removed, and the remaining pellet was either used
immediately for the lysate production or stored at -80°C for a later use. The cell pellets were
resuspended in 100 µl of lysis buffer containing 150 mM NaCl (Sigma, Cat.#S7653), 50 mM
Trizma-Base (pH 8, Sigma, Cat.#T1503), 1% NP-40 (IGEPAL CA-630, Sigma, Cat.#I8896),

10% sodium deoxycholate (Sigma, Cat.#D6750) and 1% Halt™ Protease & Phosphatase
Inhibitor Cocktail (100X, Thermo Fischer Scientific, Cat.#78440) and centrifuged max speed
at 4°C for 5 minutes. The supernatant was collected in a pre-cooled microfuge tube. The
protein concentration of each sample was assessed by performing a Bradford assay (Quick
Start Bradford 1X Dye Reagent, BioRad, Cat.#5000205) and measuring the absorbance at
595 nm. The samples were prepared by adding the protein extract to a mixture of lysis buffer
and 4X Laemmli buffer (BioRad, Cat.#161-0747) with 5% β-Mercaptoethanol (Sigma,
Cat.#M6250) to obtain a total protein concentration of 1 μg/μL. The samples were incubated
at 96°C for 5 minutes, before 15 μg was loaded, alongside a molecular weight standard
(PageRulerTM Plus Prestained Protein Ladder, Thermo Fischer Scientific, Cat.#26619) on
Novex™ Tris-Glycine Mini Protein Gels, 4–20%, 1.0 mm, WedgeWell™ format (Invitrogen,
XP04200BOX) or self-cast 12% running gel (in μL: 2500 H_2O, 3000 Bis-Acrylamide (Bio-
Rad, Cat.#1610158) 30:0.8, 1875 1.5M Tris-HCl (pH 8.8), 75 10% SDS, 50 10% APS, 5
TEMED). The 10x running running buffer comprised 1.92 M glycine (PanReac AppliChem,
Cat.#A1067,1000), 250 mM Trizma-Base and 35 mM Sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS, Sigma,
Cat.#L3771), which were dissolved in double-distilled water. The gels were run at 140V until
the sample front reached the end of the gel. Proteins were transferred onto a nitrocellulose
(pore size 0.45 μm; Cytiva, Cat.#10600007) or polyvinylidene fluoride (pore size 0.22 μm,
activated in MeOH; Bio-Rad, Cat.#1620177) blotting membrane using the Trans-Blot®
TurboTM Transfer Pack in running buffer + 20% methanol with Bio-Rad standard program
(30 mins). Ponceau staining (Sigma, Cat.#P7170-1L) was performed to visualise protein
transfer. Ponceau solution was washed off with distilled water and the membrane was
blocked in blocking buffer at ambient temperature (10% 10x TBS-tween (24 g Tris base, 88
g NaCl (Sigma, Cat.#71380-1kG), in 1L distilled water neutralised to pH 7.6 with HCl) 0.2%
Tween (Sigma, Cat.#P1379-100ML), 5% milk powder (Millipore, Cat.#70166-500G)) for 1
hour. Antibody staining was performed with agitation for 2 hours in ambient conditions or
overnight at 4°C. Membranes were washed in 1xTBS-tween in between each step. Stained
protein signal was developed using Cytiva GE ECL Solution (Amersham, RPN2109) or
Clarity Max ECL solution (Bio-Rad, 1705062) on the ChemiDoc™ Touch imaging system
(Bio-Rad). A full list of antibodies, their sources, dilution ratios, incubation times and
manufacturers can be found in Supplementary Table 4. Uncropped gels can be found in
Supplementary Figure 12.
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777 **Propionate Incorporation Assay**
778 The assay to quantify propionate pathway catabolism of iPSCs was assessed according to a
779 protocol described previously[81] and included modifications as described[26].
780
Quantitative PCR
To test for incorporation of remnants of the Sendai virus, RNA was extracted from
fibroblasts, Sendai virus-positive fibroblasts and iPSCs using either the QIAamp RNA Blood
Mini Kit (QIAGEN) or Qiagen RNeasy micro kit (QIAGEN) following manufacturer's
instructions. The isolated RNA was converted into cDNA, utilizing PrimeScript™ 1st strand
cDNA Synthesis Kit (Takara, Cat.#6210A). cDNA was amplified by PCR, using Taq
Polymerase (New England Biolabs) using the primers listed in Supplementary table 5. The
PCR products were stained with EZ-Vision® One DNA Dye as Loading Buffer, 6X
(Amresco), analyzed by gel electrophoresis on a 2% agarose gel and visualized by an UV
transilluminator (Alpha Imager HP).
To test for expression of SOX2, PAX6 and EOMES, RNA was extracted from iPSC,
neuroepithelium and NSCs as described above. cDNA was synthesised from 500-3000 ng
RNA using the PrimeScriptTM II 1st Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit using a Professional TRIO
Thermocycler (Analytik Jena) following manufacturer's instructions. Real-time quantitative
PCR (RT-qPCR) consisted of 10 μL of GoTaq® qPCR Master Mix (2X, Promega,
Cat.#A600A), 5 μL diethylpyrocarbonate (DEPC BioChemica, PanReac AppliChem,
Cat.#A0881,0020) treated water and 1 μL of a 10 mM solution containing forward and
reverse primers for the genes of interest, to which 4 μL of 300-3000 ng cDNA were added.
The RT-qPCR was performed using either a LightCycler® 480 II (Roche), a 7900HT Fast

Real-Time PCR System (Applied Biosystems), or a QuantStudio™ 7 Pro Flex Real-Time
PCR System (Applied Biosystems, 4485701). In all cases the following conditions were
used: 96°C for 5 minutes, followed by 45 cycles composed of 10 seconds at 96°C and 1
minute at 60°C. Technical triplicates were performed for each sample. Data were collected
using the LightCycler® 480 Software release 1.5.0 SP4 or exported from the QuantStudio as
CSV. The relative gene expressions were normalized using the housekeeping gene β-actin
and analysed using the 2-$^{\Delta\Delta Ct}$ method [82]. Primer sequences can be found in Supplementary
Table 5.
808
809 **Statistics and Reproducibility**
810 Where necessary statistical testing is noted in the respective figure legend. Descriptive
811 values and cell sources have been included in all figure legends. All datapoints have been
812 displayed and what they represent is clearly stated.
813
Data availability
All main data supporting the findings of this study are available within the article,
Supplementary Data, and Supplementary Figures. RNA sequencing data have been
deposed in Gene Expression Omnibus under the access number GSE289294. Source data
can be found in Supplementary Data. Unprocessed blots can be found in Supplementary
Figure 12. All other data are available from the corresponding author (or other sources, as
applicable) on reasonable request.
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Acknowledgements

The authors thank Adhideb Ghosh for his assistance with transcriptomic data and Caroline
Frei for her assistance with development of R analysis script. MCSD was supported by the
FZK Fellowship of the University Children's Hospital Zurich. DSF is supported by the Swiss
National Science Foundation [310030_192505] and the University Research Priority
Program of the University of Zurich ITINERARE – Innovative Therapies in Rare Diseases.
MRB is supported by the Swiss National Science Foundation [310030_175779 and

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Author contributions
MCSD, DSF, and MRB contributed to the conception and design of the study. MCSD carried
out the experimental work contributing to the majority of the paper. MCSD and DSF
prepared
the manuscript with input from the other authors. MS generated patient-derived iPSCs. GM
performed western blots and ICC. MAG performed western blots. DPR performed
electrophysiology and ID helped with analysis and wrote some of the analysis scripts. MP
performed TCA cycle metabolomics. FC performed HexP metabolomics. BV and FvM
facilitated bulk transcriptomics and data integration. SC conducted bulk RNAseq
deconvolution. All authors contributed to the manuscript and approved the submitted
version.

1054
1055 **Competing interests**
1056 All authors declare no competing interests.

1057
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1060

Figure Caption, Main figure 1:
Generation of iPSC-derived MMUT-deficient neurons from individuals with
methylmalonic aciduria. **a**, Schematic of the affected metabolic pathway in MMUT
deficiency. Created in BioRender. **b,** Brightfield and epifluorescent acquisitions of
pluripotency (NANOG, SSEA4, SOX2) and proliferation (Ki67) markers in representative
iPSC cultures from control and patient lines. Scale, 50 µm. **c**, Ectoderm lineage indicated by
beta-tubulin III (TUJ1) and nestin (NES) positive cells after 12 days *in vitro* (DIV). Endoderm
lineage indicated by anti-α-Fetoprotein (AFP) positive cells after 4 days *in vitro* (DIV).
Mesoderm lineage indicated by alpha-smooth muscle actin (SMA) and brachyury positive
cells after 4 DIV. Scale, 10 µm. **d**, Comparison of the anti-MMUT (green) staining pattern
from representative patient fibroblast-derived iPSCs compared to controls. Representative
images come from cell line Ct1.2 and Pt1.1 For reference, anti-TOMM20, a mitochondrial
protein, is also shown (red). Scale, 50 µm. **e**, Western blotting analysis of derived iPSCs
using anti-MMUT. MMUT is anticipated at 83 kDa. The loading control ACTB is anticipated
at 42 kDa. Uncropped membranes are available in Supp. Fig. 12. **f**, Propionate incorporation
of two Ct1.1 and Ct1.2 wildtype iPSC sub-clones and Pt1 and Pt2 patient cell lines. Data
points represent independent measurements taken from 3 separate cultures per cell line.
Mean control iPSC incorporation values were 22.71 and 24.36 pmol/mg.protein/16h. Patient
iPSC incorporation values were 0.77 pmol/mg.protein/16h in Pt1 and 0.44
pmol/mg.protein/16h in Pt2. P-value was tested using Mann-Whitney U-test (**, <0.01). Error
is presented as standard deviation.
1082
Figure Caption, Main figure 2:
Derivation of cortical neurons from iPSCs affected by methylmalonic aciduria. **a**,
Schematic of the 2D neuron differentiation protocol used in this article. Created using
BioRender Forny, P. (2025) https://BioRender.com/w70y299. **b**, Staining for SSEA4 and
SOX2 at day 0 for pluripotent stem cells (iPSC). Staining for Nestin (NES) and SOX2 at day
13 for neuroepithelium. Staining for PAX6 and SOX2 at day 21 for neural stem cells (NSCs).
Staining for TUBB3 and EOMES at day 40 for cortical progenitors. Staining for TUBB3/TBR1
and MAP2/NeuN at day 50 signal postmitotic deep layer cortical neurons and pan-neuronal
molecular markers in cultures, respectively. Scale: iPSCs and neurons have 10 µm bars.
Neuroepithelium, NSC, and NPCs have 50 µm bars. **c**, RT-qPCR of SOX2, PAX6, and
EOMES in iPSCs at day 0, neuroepithelium day 13, and NSCs day 21. Datapoints are
representative of at least 3 independent experiments and error is reported as standard
deviation. Expression values are relative to measurements at day 0 for each cell line. **d,**
Immunocytochemistry of patient and control NSC and neurons. Scale, 10 µm. **e**, Western
blotting analysis of neurons using anti-MMUT. MMUT is anticipated at 83 kDa. The loading
control ACTB is anticipated at 42 kDa. Uncropped membranes are available in Supp. Fig.
12.
1100
Figure Caption, Main figure 3:
Patient neurons show mitochondrial dysfunction that overlaps with loss of MMUT
protein a, Left and middle: MMUT+ signal (green) and TOMM20+ mitochondrial signal (red).
Right: TOMM20+ signal (magenta) and colocalization with MMUT (white). Representative
images were selected from Ct1.2 and Pt1.2 cell lines. Orthogonal representative slices are
also shown. Scale is 10 µm. **b**, Pearson correlation coefficient of TOMM20+ regions of
interest (ROIs). One data point represents a Pearson's coefficient from one ROI. 3-5 ROIs
per image, total images used from control $n = 6$ (18 total ROIs) and from patient $n = 11$ (50
total ROIs). P-value determined by one-way ANOVA with multiple testing (ns, >0.05; ****,
<0.0001) Datapoints represent Ct1.2, Ct2, Pt1.1, Pt1.2, and Pt2.1. Error is plotted as min. to
max. **c**, Neuronal mitochondria stained with MMUT and TMRM (both grey). Scale is 10 µm.
Representative images were selected from Ct2, Pt1.1, and Pt2.1 **d**, TMRM+ ROIs selected
from non-overlapping confocal images. Cumulative data is representative of $n = 6$ in control
without rotenone, $n = 4$ in control with rotenone, $n = 8$ in patient without rotenone, $n = 9$ in
patient with rotenone. One datapoint represents one background/size-corrected ROI. P-

value determined by Kruskal-Wallis with multiple testing (ns, >0.05; *, <0.05; ****, <0.0001).
Datapoints represent Ct2, Pt1.1, and Pt2.1. Bar represents the median value. **e**, Western
blotting analysis of MMUT, caspase-3 (CASP3), its cleaved product, and ß-actin (ACTB) in
total cell lysate from untreated neurons. Each column represents an independent lysate.
Uncropped membranes are available in Supp. Fig. 12. **f**, Quantification of DAPI+ apoptotic
cells determined from representative, non-overlapping, epifluorescent images acquired using
a 63x objective. Images were taken of fixed untreated neurons at day 50 *in vitro.* Datapoints
in control represent Ct1.2 and Ct2, and datapoint in patient represent Pt1.1, Pt1.2, Pt2.1,
and Pt2.2. Cumulative data is representative of $n = 43$ (776 cells) in control and $n = 87$ (1317
cells) in patient images. Significance is assessed by Mann-Whitney test (****, <0.0001).
Error is standard deviation. Dunn's multiple comparisons test used in b, d.
1127
Figure Caption, Main figure 4:
Patient neurons show action potential exhaustion driven by reduced sodium currents.
a, First two dimensions (44% variance explained) of a principal component analysis of 21
measured features from patient ($n = 132$ (Pt1 n=77, Pt2 n=55)) and control ($n = 94$ (Ct1
n=59, Ct2 n=35)) neurons. Greyscale represents 3 identified neuronal types, type 1 (light
grey, T1, $n = 60$), type 2 (dark grey, T2, $n = 64$), and type 3 (black, T3, $n = 102$). **b**, Current-
clamp, representative traces from T1, T2, or T3 neurons in response to depolarizing current
injection. **c**, Proportional generation of classified neurons of control (Ct1, Ct2) and patient
(Pt1, Pt2). **d**, Correlation matrix of 21 features in patient (bottom-left, orange) and control
(top-right, blue) neurons. Positive correlations indicated by red and negative by blue.
Features with significance $P = <0.01$ are displayed on the matrix, values above are blank. **e**,
Top, overlayed traces from T3 control and patient neurons. Bottom, attenuation ratio from
102 measured T3 neurons. **f**, Phase plots of 2 overlayed single action potentials from
representative T3 control and patient neurons. **g**, Depolarisation (left, maximum dV/dt) and
repolarisation (right, minimum dV/dt) velocities. **h**, Voltage-clamp, representative overlay of
currents evoked by step to -30 or -20 mV in control and patient neurons, respectively. Inset
is an enlarged section of the initial segment. **i**, Peak control ($n = 67$) and patient ($n = 66$)
sodium current densities. **j**, Peak and steady control ($n = 67$) and patient ($n = 66$) potassium
current densities. In i-j, current densities are normalised to capacitance, and variation is SD
and present as shaded area. In e and g, datapoints represent one neuron, data are pooled
into control (2 independent lines) and patient (2 independent lines), significance is by t-test
and reported with p-value adjustment using Holm, and whiskers represent 1.5·IQR.
1150
Figure Caption, Main figure 5:
Metabolomics reveal dysregulated glutamate and glutamine neuronal metabolism. a,
Box plots of absolute ion abundance of disease-related metabolites. P-value is reported as
one-way ANOVA for hydroxypropionic acid, and unpaired t-test for propionyl-carnitine, and
lactate. **b**, Schematic of labelled ^{13}C-glutamine metabolism into the TCA cycle. Labelled
carbons = filled black circles. **c** Stacked bar chart of contribution of labelled glutamine
carbons to aspartate (left) and box plot of absolute ion abundance of aspartate pool (right).
P-value calculated via unpaired t-test. **d**, Box plot of ratio between M+5 to M+4 labelled
citrate fractions (left) and box plot of ratio between M+3 to M+4 labelled malate or aspartate
fractions (right). P-value is reported as unpaired t test. **e**, Representative schematic for the
entry of dimethyl-2-oxoglutarate (DM-2OG) into the TCA cycle and selected anaplerotic
entry points. **f**, Box plot of absolute ion abundance of propionyl-carnitine and lactate in DM-
2OG treated neurons. *P* value is reported as unpaired t test. **g**, Box plot of total fractional
contribution of carbons to untreated and DM-2OG treated neuronal abundance of aspartate.
P-value is reported as Mann-Whitney (left). **h,** Stacked bar chart of contribution of labelled
carbons to untreated and DM-2OG treated neuronal abundance of malate (left) and citrate
(right). **i,** Box plots of ratio between M+3 to M+4 labelled aspartate and malate fractions (left
and right) in DM-2OG treated neurons and box plot of ratio between M+5 to M+4 labelled
citrate fractions (middle) in DM-2OG treated neurons. In **a, c, d, f, g, h,** error = min/max (box
plot) or SD (fractional bar plot). Each datapoint represents 3 technical replicates from one

independent sample. Genotype conditions are pooled into control (blue) and patient (no
colour). In significance tests: ns = >0.05, * = <0.05, *** = <0.001, **** = <0.0001. In all
panels, control is represented by Ct1.2 and Ct2. Patient is represented by Pt1.2 and Pt2.2.
1174
Figure Caption, Main figure 6:
Metabolic rewiring affects glutamatergic synaptic transmission a, Line graph indicating
maximum current density at evoked voltages in control neurons with various DM-2OG
treatments. Datapoint represents at least 5 independent samples, error = SD represented by
shading. **b,** Line graph indicating maximum current density at evoked voltages in patient
neurons with various DM-2OG treatments. Datapoint represents at least 6 independent
samples, error = SD represented by shading. **c,** Representative averaged traces of
spontaneous synaptic currents from single control (n events = 114) or patient (n events = 36)
neurons in voltage-clamp. **d,** Box plot of spontaneous synaptic event charge of individual
neurons in voltage-clamp. P value is calculated via mann-whitney **e,** Over-representation
analysis of top 10 up and down-regulated GO terms from untreated control ($n = 5$) and
patient ($n = 6$) derived neurons. Count refers to number of contributing genes. **f,** Volcano plot
of differential regulation between untreated control ($n = 5$) and patient ($n = 6$) neurons. **g,**
Over-representation analysis of top 10 up- and down-regulated GO terms. Count refers to
number of contributing genes from untreated control ($n = 5$) and 0.1 mM DM-2OG treated
patient ($n = 4$) derived neurons. **h,** Volcano plot of differential regulation between untreated
control ($n = 5$) and 0.1mM DM-2OG treated patient ($n = 4$) neurons. In **c, d,** each datapoint
represents one independent sample. Genotypes are control (blue) and patient (orange). In **a,**
b center is the mean and error are SD. In **c, e,** colour represents P value magnitude. In **f, h,**
values are FDR, genes highlighted contribute to a top differentially regulated GO term.
Dotted lines indicate Log2 fold change of 1 and -log10 P-value of 0.01. In **d,** box plot is
median and min/max. In panels a-d, control is represented by Ct1 and Ct2, and patient is
represented by Pt1 and Pt2. In panels e-h, control is represented by Ct1.2 and Ct2, and
patient is represented by Pt1.1, Pt1.2, Pt2.1, and Pt2.2.
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