1 **A novel iPSC model of Bryant-Li-Bhoj neurodevelopmental syndrome demonstrates the**
2 **role of histone H3.3 in neuronal differentiation and maturation**
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ABSTRACT

Background

Bryant-Li-Bhoj neurodevelopmental syndrome (BLBS) is neurogenetic disorder caused by

variants in *H3-3A* and *H3-3B,* the two genes that encode the histone H3.3 protein. Ninety-nine

percent of individuals with BLBS show developmental delay/intellectual disability, but the

mechanism by which variants in H3.3 result in these phenotypes is not yet understood. As a

result, only palliative interventions are available to individuals living with BLBS.

Methods

Here, we investigate how one BLBS-causative variant, *H3-3B* p.Leu48Arg (L48R), affects

neurodevelopment using an induced pluripotent stem cell (iPSC) model differentiated to 2D

neural progenitor cells (NPCs), 2D forebrain neurons (FBNs), and 3D dorsal forebrain organoids

(DFBOs). We employ a multi-omic approach in the 2D models to quantify the resulting changes

in gene expression and chromatin accessibility. We used immunofluorescence (IF) staining to

define the identities of cells in the 3D DFBOs.

Results

In the 2D systems, we found dysregulation of both gene expression and chromatin accessibility

of genes important for neuronal fate, maturation, and function in H3.3 L48R compared to

control. Our work in 3D organoids corroborates these findings, demonstrating altered

proportions of radial glia and mature neuronal cells.

Conclusions

These data provide the first mechanistic insights into the pathogenesis of BLBS from a human-

derived model of neurodevelopment, which suggest that the L48R increases *H3-3B* expression,

resulting in the hyper-deposition of H3.3 into the nucleosome which underlies changes in gene

expression and chromatin accessibility. Functionally, this causes dysregulation of cell adhesion,

neurotransmission, and the balance between excitatory and inhibitory signaling. These results

are a crucial step towards preclinical development and testing of targeted therapies for this and

related disorders.

Keywords: Histone H3.3, Mendelian neurodevelopmental disorder, chromatin, iPSC, brain

organoid, multi-omic, translational neurogenetics

BACKGROUND

Neurodevelopmental disorders (NDDs) affect 1-8% of the population and are often the result of

aberrant components of epigenetic machinery following a genetic insult in the earliest stages of

neurodevelopment[1]. Mendelian disorders of epigenetic machinery (MDEMs), caused by

germline variants in 85 genes encoding histone writers, readers, erasers, and chaperones, are

associated with a wide spectrum of NDDs, highlighting the brain's vulnerability to transcriptional

dysregulation[2]. Recently, variants in histones themselves emerged as causative in NDDs with

the identification of *de novo* germline variants in the H4 encoding gene cluster[3,4] and the H3.3-

encoding genes *H3-3A* and *H3-3B*[5–7].

Bryant-Li-Bhoj neurodevelopmental syndrome (BLBS, OMIM #619720, #619721) is an NDD

caused by heterozygous germline variants in *H3-3A* or *H3-3B*. Variants underlying BLBS occur

throughout the coding sequences of *H3-3A* and *H3-3B* and are typically observed in just one

individual[5,8]. Phenotypically, affected individuals present almost universally with neurologic and

craniofacial features. The most prevalent neurologic feature is developmental delay/intellectual

disability, which impacts 99% of published individuals with 51% of individuals exhibiting delayed

or no attainment of sitting, 79% of individuals exhibiting delayed or no attainment of independent

walking, and more than 40% of individuals not yet having attained their first word at >20

months[8]. From a neuroradiological standpoint, individuals most commonly have delayed

myelination or hypomyelination, dysgenesis of the corpus callosum, and/or dilated ventricles[9].

As some individuals age, they develop an abnormal gait or progressive gait ataxia

phenotype[5,7,8]. While no targeted therapeutics are available at this time, these

neurodegenerative phenotypes suggest that BLBS could be amenable to therapeutic

intervention to halt disease progression.

A mechanistic link has not yet been established between the physiologic function of H3.3 and its

dysregulation in BLBS. H3.3 is a replication-independent histone that packages DNA and

regulates gene expression. It is preferentially deposited by the chaperones DAXX or HIRA at

enhancers, promoters, and gene bodies[10–18]. Because its deposition is not coupled to the cell

cycle, H3.3 plays a critical epigenetic role in post-mitotic neuronal populations in the brain,

especially in regulating transcription during learning and memory[19]. During early

neurodevelopment in mice, H3.3 accounts for an estimated 31% of the total H3 pool[20]. Because

almost all neural proliferation occurs prenatally, replication-coupled deposition of H3-class

histones H3.1 and H3.2 stops during gestation, meaning H3.3 accumulates with age and

becomes the highly dominant form of H3 (>93%) in adult neurons[21]. Throughout all stages of

neurodevelopment, H3.3 plays a crucial role in establishing chromatin landscapes,

transcriptome, molecular identity, and axon connectivity in newly post-mitotic neurons[10].

The role of H3.3 in disease was first appreciated in cancer through the discovery of somatic

'oncohistone' mutations[22–24]. In *H3-3A*, p.Gly34Arg/Val mutations drive pediatric diffuse

hemispheric glioma[25], p.Lys27Met mutations drive diffuse midline gliomas[26,27], and

p.Gly34Trp/Leu mutations drive giant cell tumor of bone[28]. Distinct *H3-3B* p.Lys36Met mutations

drive chondroblastoma[28]. While extensive work has been done to elucidate the mechanism of

these somatic oncohistone mutations, we still have a limited understanding of how germline

missense perturbation of H3.3 affects neurodevelopment.

Past studies into the effects of germline missense perturbation of H3.3 utilized cells from

affected individuals, overexpression systems, and mouse models[5,6,29]. Dermal fibroblasts from

affected individuals hyper-proliferate compared to age- and sex-matched controls[5]. *In silico*

predictions of the effects of these variants on histone post translational modifications (hPTMs)

suggest that certain mutants alter phosphorylation, glycosylation, methylation, acetylation, and

ubiquitination *in cis*[7]. In mice, three different variants at the same residue (p.Gly34Arg/Val/Trp)

cause distinct developmental defects. p.Gly34Arg mice have severe neurodegeneration,

p.Gly34Trp mice have obesity and bladder obstructions, and p.Gly34Val mice have intermediate

phenotypes[29]. These models capture the same phenotypic heterogeneity recently reported

amongst individuals living with BLBS, including those who share the same causative nucleotide

level substitution[8]. These studies highlight the importance of studying individual variants, as

both affected individuals and models display variable phenotypes. Moreover, there is a gap in

knowledge as to how these variants affect human development in affected organs, most

strikingly the brain, highlighting the necessity of interrogating the effect of BLBS-causing

variants in human iPSCs.

Here, we profile the transcriptomes and chromatin accessibility changes induced by one variant

observed in our cohort, *H3-3B* p.Leu48Arg (L48R). This variant lies just beyond the N terminal

tail, in the histone core[8], a region of H3.3 that is less well studied in the context of disease. The

individual harboring the L48R variant presents with neurologic features that include

developmental delay/intellectual disability, microcephaly, hypomyelination, hypotonia that

transitioned to hypertonia, and seizures.

To elucidate how this variant affects neurodevelopment, we differentiated isogenic control and

L48R iPSCs into 2D neural progenitor cells (NPCs) and 2D forebrain neurons (FBNs). We

employed a multi-omic approach in our 2D system and identified critical genes and pathways

that affected NPC differentiation into neurons and glia. We validated our findings from 2D

cultures with 3D organoid models of the brain, which faithfully recapitulate developing

neuroectoderm with the radial organization of NPC cells into structures that recapitulate the

ventricular zone (VZ), subventricular zone (SVZ), and cortical plate (CP)[30]. This innovative

approach employing both 2D and 3D models elucidated global dysregulation in gene expression

and chromatin accessibility of genes important for cell adhesion, axon development, and

neurotransmission. Taken together, we find that H3.3 L48R perturbs neurodifferentiation and

neuronal maturation in this iPSC model of brain development. Our results lay the foundation for

future studies on BLBS and therapeutic interventions.

RESULTS

L48R variant affects iPSC differentiation into 2D neural progenitor cells (NPCs) and 2D

forebrain neurons (FBNs)

We introduced the heterozygous c.146T>G *H3-3B* Leu48Arg (L48R) variant into CHOPWT14

iPSCs (from a Hispanic 46XX donor) using CRISPR/Cas9 homology directed repair (HDR)[31]

followed by single cell clone selection and validation by Sanger sequencing (Fig. 1A, Fig. S1A-

B). To validate their pluripotency, we performed RT-qPCR for *OCT4* and *NANOG* in these

iPSCs (Fig. 1B). We did not observe significant changes in the expression of these markers

between L48R and control cells, confirming that this variant did not have a large impact on the

identity of iPSCs.

To begin delineating the effects of the H3.3 L48R variant on brain development and neuronal

function, we differentiated L48R and isogenic control iPSCs into NPCs using a dual SMAD

inhibition protocol[46]. We found that the L48R NPCs had lower expression of the NPC markers

NES (encodes Nestin) and *SOX1* than the isogenic control (Fig. 1C), indicating that this variant

affects early neuronal differentiation. Next, we differentiated the NPCs to FBNs using a protocol

that generates a mixed population of 90% forebrain-type neurons (MAP2+ and TUJ1+) with

about 10% glial cells (GFAP+) (Stem Cell Technologies #08600, #08605). We immunostained

FBNs at day 20 of maturation for the neuronal marker TUJ1 and glial marker GFAP and

observed a larger glial population in the L48R cells (Fig. S1C, D). Further staining indicated a

loss of MAP2+ neuronal extensions and decreased intensity of the glutamate transporter

VGLUT1 in the L48R FBNs compared to isogenic controls (Fig. 1D, E). We did not find a

difference between *MAP2* mRNA expression measured via RT-qPCR between the two

conditions (Fig. S1E), but we found a significant increase in *GFAP* mRNA levels in L48R FBNs

compared to isogenic controls (Fig. 1F). Taken together, we observed disruptions in the

differentiation of L48R iPSCs to NPCs, which impacted subsequent differentiation into FBNs, as

measured by decreased MAP2 staining and increased GFAP expression.

Transcriptomic changes in L48R progenitor cells affect differentiation into 2D FBNs

We performed bulk RNA-seq of iPSCs, NPCs, and FBNs to understand the global

transcriptomic changes induced by L48R at various stages of differentiation (Supplementary File

1). Principal component analysis (PCA) on the different cell types identified three distinct

clusters based on cell identity (Fig. S2A). We identified 96 genes with significantly altered

expression (p ≤ 0.05) in L48R iPSCs compared to the isogenic controls (Fig. 2A). Using an

additional threshold of absolute value log2-fold change (LFC) ≥ 1, 37 genes were significantly

upregulated, while 20 were downregulated. Using a gene ontology (GO) analysis, we found no

significantly altered pathways in the L48R iPSCs compared to isogenic controls, but did identify

the upregulation of *CDKL5* (LFC = 1.46, adjusted p-value = 6.36E-09) and *SCML2 (*LFC = 1.04,

adjusted p-value = 4.98-E07), both of which are genes important for cell cycle progression and

differentiation[47,48] (Table 1). Table 1 contains the function of these, and other genes discussed

in this work. These transcriptomic results indicate that L48R might impact the ability of iPSCs to

proliferate and differentiate into NPCs.

Nearly twice as many genes were dysregulated in L48R NPCs. Bulk RNA-seq on NPCs

identified 139 differentially expressed genes in L48R NPCs (p ≤ 0.05) compared to control

NPCs. 53 genes were upregulated (LFC ≥ 1) and 27 downregulated (LFC ≤ -1) (Fig. 2B). GO

analysis for all differentially expressed genes indicate processes like cell migration and

establishment of synapses are affected, including pathways involved in cell adhesion, synapse

organization, regulation of axonogenesis, neuron projection extension, and regulation of axon

extension (Fig. 2C, Table 1). We focused on genes comprising the cell adhesion and

axonogenesis pathways (Fig. 2D). Most genes related to these processes were upregulated in

L48R NPCs compared to controls, including several protocadherin-encoding genes, which

mediate neurite repulsion[49]. *CDH4* and *WNT7A* were downregulated, indicating an imbalance

in cell adhesion and axon development cues (Table 1).

When L48R NPCs were converted to FBNs, we observe massive transcript-level dysregulation

(773 genes up, 965 down) (Fig. 2E). *EGR1, FOSL1, JUNB,* and *NPAS4,* immediate early genes

which mediate genetic responses to environmental cues[50], were downregulated (Fig. 2E, Table

1). GO analysis identified the upregulation of terms related to synapse organization and activity,

neurotransmitter uptake, and nervous system development (Fig. S2B). It also identified terms

related to G/M cell cycle phase transition and mitotic cell cycle phase transition, which are

notable given that neurons are post-mitotic (Fig. S2B). Because these terms were enriched,

and L48R FBNs had an increase in GFAP staining, we specifically queried the expression of

astrocyte genes. We found that astrocyte-associated genes like *AQP4*, *SLC1A3,* and *SLC6A11*

are upregulated in L48R FBNs, suggesting that our mixed population of cells is skewing towards

proliferating astrocytes, as opposed to post-mitotic neurons (Fig. S2C). BrdU staining revealed

an increased staining indicative of proliferation in the L48R cells compared to controls following

FBN differentiation (Fig. S2D), further supporting that differentiation of L48R cells did not result

in the expected ratio of 90% neurons and 10% glia. When we analyzed the GO terms for down-

regulated genes in FBNs, we observed terms like wound healing, regulation of apoptotic

signaling pathway, and cellular response to external stimulus (Fig. S2E). Given the

dysregulation of fundamental pathways that we observed in NPCs and the downregulation of

immediate early genes, it is likely that the widespread dysregulation observed in the FBNs is

secondary to these primary deficits.

To identify causative genes that might affect the overall differentiation of L48R cells, we looked

for commonly dysregulated genes at the iPSC, NPC, and FBN stage (Fig. 2F). Two genes were

commonly downregulated, and 13 were upregulated in all cell types (Table 2). Restricting the

analysis to genes commonly dysregulated at the neuronal NPC and FBN stages, we identified

29 genes that were upregulated in both NPCs and FBNS, and 8 that were downregulated (Table

3). These genes were implicated in cell adhesion, a crucial process in neurodevelopment that

allows for appropriate circuit formation[51].

L48R variant increases its own gene expression and has increased protein deposition in 2D neuronal cell types

Because histones orchestrate chromatin compaction, their deposition in the nucleus affects both genome organization and gene expression. We posited that differential H3.3 deposition between L48R and control cells might underly some of the gene expression changes we observe. In addition to the gene expression changes reported above, we directly queried the altered expression of *H3-3A* and *H3-3B* in cells harboring the L48R variant. Notably, expression of *H3-3B* was significantly upregulated in NPCs (adjusted p-value = 1.58E-9), while *H3-3A* expression was not significantly affected (adjusted p-value = 0.99) (Fig. S3A). We first validated this RNA-seq result, finding that *H3-3B* mRNA levels are upregulated in NPCs, and subsequently observed the same effect in FBNs (Fig. S3B). When we performed a subcellular fractionation in NPCs, we found that H3.3 levels were slightly higher in chromatin and lower in the cytoplasm as compared to controls (Fig. S3C-D). These changes in localization could suggest that the L48R variant affects import of newly translated H3.3 into the nucleus or its incorporation into chromatin. We next stained FBNs for H3.3 to understand the deposition of H3.3 in these post-mitotic cells and quantified the corrected total cellular fluorescence of H3.3/DAPI (Fig. S3E). We observed a significant increase in this metric in L48R cells compared to control, suggesting that H3.3 is hyper-deposited.

L48R variant alters chromatin accessibility and the occupancy of transcription factors important for neuronal development in 2D models

To understand how this change in deposition affected global chromatin accessibility, we performed Assay for Transposase-Accessible Chromatin with sequencing (ATAC-seq) in two biological replicates of L48R NPCs and isogenic controls. Using DiffBind[43], we identified 350 differentially accessible sites (FDR ≤0.05, p ≤ 0.01), which were most commonly within 1kb of a promoter (40.86%) and in distal intergenic regions (21.43%) (Fig. 3A, Supplementary File 2). Of

these 350 regions, 253 were significantly more open (fold-change ≥ 1) and 97 regions were

significantly less open (fold-change ≤ -1) in the L48R NPCs compared to isogenic controls (Fig.

3B). To understand the biological pathways most affected by these chromatin accessibility

changes, we performed a GO analysis using all 350 sites. The most common terms were

related to regulating neuronal development, axonogenesis, and cell growth (Fig. 3C). *PLXNA3*,

a gene important for axon extension[52,53], had significantly more open chromatin in the L48R

NPCs compared to controls (Fig. 3D). *RBFOX1*, an RNA-binding protein that regulates neuronal

splicing and is implicated in a range of NDDs[54] had regions of more compact chromatin

compared to control (Fig. S3E). Taken together, we found changes in H3.3 deposition in

neuronal cell types harboring the L48R variant. The resulting aberrant chromatin accessibility

occurred at sites important for early neural development (*RBFOX1*) as well as later stages of

axon and synapse development (*PLXNA3*), suggesting that some genomic regions may be

improperly poised for transcription in cells that harbor the L48R variant.

Next, we interrogated how changes in chromatin accessibility affected transcription factor (TF)

occupancy. Using ATACseqTFEA[55], we performed a TF enrichment analysis and identified 64

TFs predicted to have differential occupancy between L48R and control. This analysis

generates enrichment scores; positive scores indicates that the motif(s) for a TF are enriched in

L48R cells, and negative scores indicate that the motif(s) are depleted in L48R cells. Significant

factors were called with an adjusted p-value ≤ 0.05. Of these factors, *ZNF614*, *PBX1,* and *ARX1*

had the greatest enrichment scores (increased occupancy in L48R), while *TP63* and *EMX2* had

the most negative scores (decreased occupancy in L48R) (Fig. 3E). Increased occupancy of

these TFs supports our previous data that transcription is altered, with a specific effect on

neurotransmission. Meanwhile, the factors that were depleted in L48R support the

transcriptomic data that the L48R variant impairs NPC differentiation.

We performed a GO analysis of all factors with changes in occupancy and performed a

dimensional reduction of these terms using REVIGO[36] (Fig. 3F). The terms clustered into four

groups represented by the terms: pattern specification process (cluster 1), mononuclear cell

differentiation (cluster 2), regulation of epithelial cell differentiation (cluster 3), and neural

precursor cell proliferation (cluster 4) (Fig. 3F). Every cluster contains TFs important for fate

specification in the developing nervous system. The most affected terms are important for

transcription of genes required for neural precursor cell proliferation, stem cell differentiation and

fate commitment, and forebrain development. To understand if altered TF occupancy might

account for changes in gene expression, we used TFLink[56] to find the targets of ZNF614, PBX1,

and ARX (increased occupancy) as well as TP63 and EMX2 (decreased occupancy), and

looked for changes in gene expression in our NPC RNA-seq dataset. The TFs with the greatest

number of targets affected in this dataset were *PBX1* (12 up, 5 down) and *TP63* (32 up, 19

down) (Table 4). *DPP6*, *GABRG3*, *GABRA5, CDH4, PCDHGA3, WNT7A*, and *PLXNA3*, genes

with the largest differences in expression in L48R NPCs as compared to control, are all

predicted targets of p63 regulation. While validation is required to show changes in

binding/activity of these factors, these data support that the L48R variant affects TF binding by

driving changes in chromatin accessibility, resulting in aberrant expression of genes required for

NPC differentiation into mature neurons.

Chromatin accessibility changes in L48R NPCs affect expression of genes important for

cell adhesion and neurotransmission in 2D model

We next queried the overlap between ATAC-seq and RNA-seq datasets. First, we identified six

genes that were down in both datasets (p ≤ 0.05, LFC ≤ -1) (Fig. 4A). *CDH4* was the most

downregulated gene across these datasets (Fig. 4B, Table 1). We performed RT-qPCR gene

expression analysis in iPSCs, NPCs, and FBNs to validate these results, and to understand

CDH4's expression during both development and maturation. In isogenic controls, *CDH4*

expression increased as the iPSCs were differentiated to NPCs and FBNs, but when L48R

iPSCs were differentiated to NPCs and FBNs, *CDH4* had nearly undetectable levels (Fig. 4C).

Then, we identified 27 genes that were significantly upregulated in both datasets (p ≤ 0.05, LFC

≥ 1). Notable genes include *GABRG3* and *DPP6*, two genes involved in neurotransmission (Fig.

3D, Table 1). *GABRG3* had more open chromatin at its promoter (Fig. 3E) and its expression

increased as iPSCs were differentiated to NPCs and FBNs, with a significantly greater increase

in L48R cells compared to control (Fig. 3F). A related gene, *GABRA5,* was also significantly up

in both datasets (Fig. 3D, Fig. S3F). Further, DiffBind called eight different regions of *DPP6*

more accessible in L48R NPCs: 1 exonic, 4 intronic, and 3 within 1kb of its promoter (Fig. 3G).

When we analyzed the expression of *DPP6* in iPSCs, NPCs, and FBNs, we observed a 20,000-

100,000-fold induction in L48R NPCs and FBNs (Fig. 3J). Taken together, our ATAC-seq and

RNA-seq identified a set of genes important for neurotransmission, neuronal identity, and cell

cycle progression with expression and chromatin architecture that are perturbed by the L48R

variant in NPCs. The changes in *H3-3B* expression and H3.3 deposition, coupled with altered

TF occupancy, suggest that L48R drives altered chromatin accessibility, resulting in abnormal

gene expression and subsequently affecting NPC differentiation into neurons and glia.

L48R variant affects radial glia and alters neuronal maturation in 3D dorsal forebrain

organoids

Using an orthogonal model system to further analyze the neurodevelopmental consequences of

the L48R variant, we utilized 3D dorsal forebrain organoids (DFBOs) to understand cortical

development, neuronal maturation, and organization. To study the effects of the L48R variant on

early brain development, we converted isogenic control and L48R 2D iPSCs into 3D DFBOs[45]

and analyzed them at different time points (Fig. S4A). DFBOs were collected at day 25 (D25) to

analyze the neuroepithelial expansion (NE) and at day 62 (D62) to analyze maturation. We

analyzed organoid size across stages of development and observed that L48R organoids were

larger at day 25 compared to isogenic controls, but this difference was not observable at later

time points (Fig. 4A). L48R DFBOs at D62 had fewer NE buds at their edges than isogenic

controls (Fig. S4B).

At D25 and D62, we observed autonomously organized radial glia in both sets of organoids by

staining them with SOX2 (Fig. 5B). While there was no difference in SOX2 staining at D25 (Fig

5B, C), L48R DFBOs had significantly less expression of this marker at D62 (Fig. 5B, C). We

also stained these organoids with PAX6, another radial glia marker, at D62 and observed a

decrease in this marker (Fig. S4C). Next, we stained organoids with CTIP2, a marker of

intermediate progenitor neurons. While not significant, we observed that L48R DFBOs had more

CTIP-positive cells at both time points (Fig. S4D). During neurodevelopment, radial glia

undergo both symmetric division, allowing for self-renewal, and asymmetric division, which

produce intermediate progenitor neurons[57] further supporting that the pool of radial glia are

being depleted through a skewing towards asymmetric division, leading to increased progenitors

committed to a neuronal fate. L48R DFBOs had decreased TUJ1 staining at D25, but this

difference was not present at D62 (Fig. 5B,C). This may suggest that, while increased CTIP2+

intermediate progenitor cells are available, they are less able to mature into TUJ1+ neurons

within this D25 to D62 timeframe. Since we observed dysregulation in the radial glia population,

we stained D25 and D62 organoids with SOX2 and the cell proliferation marker Ki67. We

observed fewer Ki67-positive cells at both stages, indicating a defect to the expanding NE (Fig.

5D). These results indicate that L48R radial glia may have a functional deficit that interferes with

the self-renewing symmetric division of these cells, leading to an expansion of the asymmetric-

division-derived intermediate progenitor cell population when compared to WT. This

proliferation defect likely explains our earlier observations that L48R organoids have fewer

progenitor cells as they mature (Fig. 5B, C).

To understand how the L48R variant affects neuronal maturation, we stained organoids with

mature neuronal marker MAP2, which stains the dendrites of mature post-mitotic neurons. We

stained DFBOs collected at D62 with MAP2 and observed significantly lower levels in the L48R

DFBOs (Fig. 6A). These results also validate our findings in 2D FBNs (Fig. 1D). To this point,

we identified that L48R DFBOs had fewer proliferating radial glia, an expanded pool of

intermediate progenitors, and less mature TUJ1+ neurons at D62. However, from these

experiments alone, it is not clear whether these differences in cellular composition affected the

function of these organoids. To begin to answer this question, we looked at the expression of

GABA, as our sequencing experiments elucidated an increased expression of GABA receptors

GABRG3 and *GABRA5*. We stained for GABA in D62 DFBOs and observed more GABA

staining in the L48R condition (Fig. 6B). Further, we observed significantly higher mRNA

expression of *GABRG3* in L48R DFBOs (Fig. 6C), validating our sequencing results in an

orthogonal model. Taken together, our work in DFBOs indicates that the L48R variant affect

both symmetric radial glial proliferation and asymmetric radial glia division, ultimately leading to

defects in neuronal maturation. Further, these results suggest that the L48R mutation altered

neuronal subtypes, potentially leading to an imbalance of excitatory/inhibitory signaling.

DISCUSSION

BLBS is a rare Mendelian syndrome with a mixed neurodevelopmental/neurodegenerative

phenotype for which only palliative interventions are currently available. Prior work in patient-

derived dermal fibroblasts, zebrafish, and mice have facilitated insights into the pathogenic

mechanism of this neurogenetic disorder[5,7]. However, until this work, the neurologic phenotype

of BLBS had never been interrogated in a human model of neurodevelopment. In the first

reported human iPSC-derived model of BLBS, we show that one BLBS causative variant, *H3-3B*

p.L48R, impairs neuronal differentiation and maturation in both 2D iPSC and 3D organoid

systems. We find that the identity of cells at the iPSC stage is largely unaffected by the L48R

variant (Fig. 1B), but that there are changes in cell cycle regulators and cell adhesion molecules

that affect differentiation to NPCs (Fig. 2A, Fig. S2B). NPCs have decreased expression of fate

markers like *NES* and *SOX1* (Fig. 1C), and factors important for differentiation including *CDH4,*

WNT7A and *L1CAM* (Fig. 2B-D). L48R FBNs express reduced MAP2 (Fig 1D, E) and

immediate early genes (Fig 2E) and increased astrocyte markers like *GFAP* and *AQP4* (Fig.

S2D). These results indicate that L48R specifically affects differentiation from iPSCs to NPCs

and FBNs, and results in dysfunctional neuronal populations. Disruption of these crucial

processes would have significant neurodevelopmental consequences, which may begin to

provide insight into the near-universal neurologic phenotype associated with BLBS. Further,

myelin-related anomalies account for 46% of findings on MRIs[9]. Clinical evidence coupled with

FBN data indicating increased astrocytic markers necessitate future work to understand if the

L48R variant skews progenitors towards a glial fate, or if glia outcompete neurons that are

affected by the variant.

To further interrogate the drivers of these changes in gene expression in NPCs and FBNs

harboring the L48R variant, we investigated how the expression of *H3-3B* itself was affected

and found that *H3-3B* expression was upregulated in both L48R NPCs and FBNs. There was

also increased H3.3 deposition in L48R FBNs (Fig. S3A-D). This variant's effect on its own gene

expression suggests that it might be acting through a gain of function mechanisn[58], meaning

that gene disruption therapies could be a viable therapeutic option for individuals with BLBS.

Next, we defined the chromatin landscape of L48R NPCs using ATAC-seq and identified

changes in chromatin accessibility at genomic regions important for axon guidance, neuron

projection, and synapse organization (Fig. 3C, D). We also found changes in the occupancy of

TFs that regulate processes like axon guidance and GABAergic neuron differentiation (Fig. 3E,

F). We were able to broadly define the chromatin landscape of L48R NPCs using ATAC-seq.

However, chromatin immunoprecipitation with sequencing (ChIP-seq) for H3.3 and the

distribution of active/repressive hPTMs like H3K4me3, H3K36me3, H3K27ac and H3K27me3

will provide more granular detail as to the mechanism underlying the changes in chromatin

states. These experiments could also contribute to our understanding of why germline mutations

in H3.3 cause BLBS, but somatic mutations lead to cancer. H3.3 p.Lys27Met causes a global

reduction in H3K27me2/3[59], while H3.3 p.Gly34 variants alter H3K36 and H3K27 methylation *in*

cis[60]. Given that oncohistone mutations are restricted to the H3.3 tail[24], while BLBS mutations

occur throughout the protein, it is likely that the effect of BLBS on hPTMs is more subtle than

that of p.Lys27 and p.Gly34 mutations. ChIP-seq for H3.3 would also indicate changes in

chromatin accessibility and gene expression at the sites were due directly to altered H3.3

deposition.

When integrating our multi-omic data, we found that the RNA- and ATAC-seq datasets

overlapped at a few key sites, and generally had more upregulated genes/open chromatin in

L48R NPCs compared to isogenic controls (Fig. 4D). Many genes were related to key

neurodevelopmental processes, such as cell adhesion and neurotransmission, which may

provide actionable or targetable insights into the pathogenesis of BLBS. The consistent

downregulation of *CDH4*, a gene that encodes a cadherin fundamental for cell-cell interactions

in the central nervous system, might be one of the first causes of differentiation deficits in L48R

cells. The upregulation of *DPP6* and GABA receptors *GABRG3* and *GABRA5* suggest that

L48R cells have impaired neurotransmission with decreased neuronal activity, a phenomenon

observed in other NDDs[61]. Future work is needed to functionally validate these findings in our

model. Patch clamp, multi-electrode arrays, or calcium imaging will be important to quantify the

neural activity in these cells.

Our work in 3D DFBOs recapitulated many of our findings in 2D cultures, and in what is seen

clinically in affected individuals. When we measured the size of the DFBOs as they matured, we

found that they were initially larger, and then normalized in size compared to control (Fig. 5A).

At the time of last evaluation, the individual harboring the L48R variant in the BLBS cohort had

microcephaly[5]. Interestingly, the growth phenotype of individuals with BLBS seems to evolve

over time. The first reported individual with BLBS presented with macrocephaly and overgrowth

at birth but, at re-evaluation a decade later, exhibited microcephaly and severe

undergrowth[5,8,62]. D25 L48R DFBOs seem to capture the phenotypic transition observed in

affected individuals and could be used to study the mechanism driving this phenotype.

Another significant benefit of this DFBO model is that we can interrogate the impact of the L48R

variant on multiple cell types at once. Our SOX2 and PAX6 staining show that there is a

decrease in radial glia between D25 and D62 (Fig. 5B-C, Fig. S4C). The CTIP2 staining, which

shows an increase in intermediate progenitor neurons during this same window (Fig. S4D),

suggests that this decreased in radial glia is caused by a skewing towards the asymmetric

division of radial glia, away from the expected homeostatic balance between self-renewing

symmetric division and intermediate progenitor neuron-producing asymmetric division[57]. This is

further supported by the Ki67 and TUJ1 data, which show a decrease in proliferation

accompanied by an increase in neurons between D25 and D62 (Fig. B-D). Thus, L48R cells

ultimately differentiate into similar numbers of neurons at the cost of maintaining their progenitor

identity. However, the D62 L48R neurons either have delayed maturation (Fig. 6A), potentially

because of dysregulated TF occupancy, or may be dying due to grossly dysregulated gene

expression and chromatin occupancy. Taken together, these results indicate that L48R

progenitors are less able to proliferate and differentiate into mature neurons. While these data

suggest a depletion of radial glia, they do not address the question of whether radial glia-derived

cells skew towards a non-neuronal fate, as radial glia are the progenitors for both neurons and

certain glial subtypes (astrocytes) during neurodevelopment. The exhaustion of a replicative

pool which only exists for a transient period during neurodevelopment might also explain why

the central nervous system is universally affected but other organs are not.

We concluded our analyses at day 62 of maturation, which prevented us from interrogating glial

populations, which can only be analyzed in a DFBO model beginning at differentiation day 90[63].

Given that we found increases in glial markers in the 2D FBNs, understanding the effects on glia

in a 3D context will be informative, especially in understanding if these cells are skewed towards

a non-neuronal fate. The use of cerebral organoids, which are less guided than DFBOs, would

enable the study of additional cell types that make up hippocampal and retinal regions[64].

Oligodendrocyte-containing myelin organoids (myelinoids)[65] will also be important models to

understand the myelin-related anomalies observed in many individuals affected by BLBS.

Overall, our data suggest a model by which L48R acts through a gain-of-function mechanism

leading to increased *H3-3B* expression that results in the hyper-deposition of H3.3 into the

nucleosome which underlies changes in gene expression and chromatin accessibility.

Functionally, this causes dysregulation of cell adhesion, neurotransmission, and the balance

between excitatory and inhibitory signaling. The ability to define a proposed model with

modifiable mRNA and protein level readouts, as well as functional consequences, establishes

the necessary groundwork for future studies into therapeutic interventions. Specifically, our data

shows the upregulation of two $GABA_A$ receptor encoding genes, *GABRG3* and *GABRA5,* in

L48R NPCs. If GABA-mediated dysregulation is validated in future mechanistic work to underly

disease pathogenesis, this could be targeted through the repurposing of an FDA-approved class

of $GABA_A$ receptor selective positive allosteric modular antidepressants[66]. Further, because we

found that *H3-3B* itself is upregulated, suggesting a not previously defined gain-of-function

mechanism, targeting the mutated allele with an antisense oligonucleotide (ASO) or small

interfering RNA may be a viable therapeutic. Finally, if future work identifies the dysregulation of

hPTMs, perhaps an existing FDA-approved HDAC inhibitor could be repurposed for BLBS,

which is being explored for MDEMs[2]. Our results from one model have highlighted a few

therapeutic approaches, but intense future study into the mechanism of disease and the safety

of possible interventions is needed to understand what therapeutics would be most beneficial for

individuals affected by BLBS.

There are noteworthy strengths of our approach, which leverages 2D and 3D iPSC models

coupled with sequencing and IF, but we acknowledge the limitations of this work. First, these

studies were conducted in iPSCs that were derived from a single edited clone. To address this

limitation, we performed at least two separate differentiations of iPSCs to each cell type queried;

however, the gold standard would be to validate these findings in an independently generated

cell line. Further, it is not clear if all findings from our XX (female) model would be recapitulated

in an XY (male) model. Since there is an almost even number of males and females affected by

BLBS[8], these results would be strengthened if recapitulated in both an XX and XY model

system. It is also important to note that 70 unique variants are reported to cause BLBS[8], and we

investigated the effects of only a single BLBS-causing variant. Because of the phenotypic

variability observed in affected individuals and model systems[5,8,29], future studies in isogenic cell

lines from different origins harboring additional BLBS variants will be important in assessing the

generalizability of these findings to have the greatest impact for affected individuals.

In sum, we developed and interrogated a novel model of BLBS through the generation of an

isogenic L48R iPSC line differentiated to 2D NPCs, 2D FBNs, and 3D DFBOs. These data

support a model by which the L48R variant affects the proliferation and differentiation capacity

of NPCs in both 2D and 3D models. These early deficits prevent the maturation of neurons and

may skew cells away from a neuronal fate.

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CONTRIBUTIONS

Data Collection: RA, AKS, LMB, DLC, XMW

Data Analysis: AKS, RA, ELD

Figure Generation: AKS, RA, EEL

Conceived of study: RA, AKS, EJB

Drafted the manuscript: AKS, RA, EEL

Reviewed manuscript: EEL, ELD, DLC, XMW, KJC

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DATA AVAILABILITY

The datasets generated during the current study will be available in the Gene Expression

Omnibus repository.

COMPETING INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interests.

METHODS

Maintenance, editing, and differentiation of 2D cells

iPSCs

iPSCs were edited by the CHOP iPSC core as described[31]. The cells were single cell cloned

and frozen at an early passage. Edited and isogenic control iPSCs were maintained in

mTeSR™ Plus (STEMCELL Technologies 100-02 76) on 10cm plates coated with 1ug

Matrigel® hESC-Qualified Matrix (Corning 354277) and collected at passage 30 for RNA-

sequencing.

NPCs

Cells were differentiated to NPCs using STEMdiff™ SMADi Neural Induction Kit following the

monolayer culture protocol (STEMCELL Technologies 08582). Briefly, for each well, 2 million

iPSCs were resuspended in STEMdiff™ Neural Induction Medium + SMADi + 10 µM Y-27632

and plated in each well of a 6-well plate coated with 1ug of Matrigel. Cells well given a full

medium change with STEMdiff™ Neural Induction Medium + SMADi except on days when they

were passaged (approximately every seven days). Cells were collected at passage four for

RNA-sequencing. At the end of differentiation, cells were cryopreserved in STEMdiff™ Neural

Progenitor Freezing Medium.

FBNs

NPCs were thawed and differentiated to forebrain neurons using STEMdiff™ Forebrain Neuron

Differentiation Kit (STEMCELL Technologies 08600). Briefly, NPCs were plated in PLO-Laminin

coated 6 well plates (1.25 million cells per well) in STEMdiff™ Neural Induction Medium +

SMADi, and after 24 hours, media was changed to STEMdiff™ Forebrain Neuron Differentiation

medium. Cells were cultured in the same medium until they reached 80-90% confluency and

passaged on to 12 well plates coated with PLO-laminin at a density of 175,000 cells per well in

STEMdiff™ Forebrain Neuron Maturation medium. The FBNs were matured up to three weeks.

RNA sequencing

RNA extraction, library prep & sequencing

Total RNA was extracted from iPSCs and NPCs using the Zymo Direct-zol RNA Miniprep (Cat #

R2050 or from FBNs with the Zymo Direct-zol RNA Microprep (Cat # R2062). QC was

performed using the Gx Bioanalyzer/Agilent Tapestation for traces and Qubit for concentration.

Libraries were prepared using the Illumina Stranded Total RNA Prep, Ligation with Ribo-Zero

Plus. 200ng of cDNA libraries were amplified using 12 cycles of PCR and sequenced on a

v1.5_SP (200 cycle) flow cell with the NovaSeq6000. Reads were demultiplexed using Dragen

Demultiplexing.

Data analysis

Reads were aligned to Homo_sapiens.GRCh38.cdna.all using kallisto[32](v0.50.1). Differential

expression was calculated using DeSeq2[33](v1.44.0) in R v 4.4.0 using RStudio 2024.04.1+748.

Volcano plots were made using EnhancedVolcano[34](v1.22.0). We defined genes with

significantly altered expression with an adjusted p-value ≤ 0.05 and log fold change with an

absolute value of ≥ 1. GO analyses were performed using clusterProfiler[35] (v4.12.0) using

biological pathway terms. Revigo[36] was used to summarize GO terms and these terms were

clustered using a distance matrix and hierarchical clustering. Each cluster was labeled with one

representative term, obtained by selecting the term within each cluster with the largest LogSize,

the Log10 value of the number of annotations for GO Term ID in selected species in the

European Bioinformatics Institute Gene Ontology Annotation database. The list of astrocyte

specific genes used to analyze the FBN data was obtained from PanglaoDB[37] and filtered for

human and a specificity score ≤ 0.5 (meaning that these genes are expressed in cells other than

astrocytes less than or equal to 50% of the time).

Western Blots

Histones were extracted using the Abcam Histone Extraction Kit (ab113476). Protein

concentration was quantified using the Pierce™ BCA Protein Assay Kit (A65453) and run using

the SkanIt software v6.1 by measuring the absorbance at 550nm. 2ug of histone extract was

loaded/Western. Subcellular fractionation was performed using Subcellular Protein Fractionation

Kit for Cultured Cells (Thermo # 78840) and protein quantification was performed as described

above. 21ug of cytoplasmic fraction or 3ug of chromatin fraction were separated by

electrophoresis using NuPAGE™ 4-12% Bis-Tris Protein Gel (ThermoFisher Scientific). Proteins

were transferred to a polyvinylidene difluoride (PVDF) membrane using an XCell SureLock Mini-

Cell Electrophoresis System (ThermoFisher Scientific). The membrane was blocked using 5%

dry milk in Tris-Buffered Saline (Bio Basic, Markham) with Tween-20 for 1 hour at room

temperature. After briefly rinsing with Tris-Buffered Saline (Bio Basic, Markham) with Tween-20,

the membrane was incubated overnight at 4°C with primary antibody (Table 5). The membrane

was then washed with Tris-Buffered Saline with Tween-20 and incubated in secondary antibody

diluted 1:10,000 (Goat Anti-Rabbit IgG Polyclonal from LI-COR Biosciences) for 1 hour at room

temperature. Blots were visualized using the ODYSSEY® DLx (LI-COR Biosciences) and

quantified using ImageJ.

ATAC-sequencing:

Library preparation & sequencing

ATAC-seq libraries were generated using the ATAC-seq Kit from Diagenode (Diagenode, A

Hologic Company) according to manufacturer instructions. Briefly, cells were centrifuged at 500

× g for 10 minutes using a fixed angle refrigerated centrifuge, followed by a wash with 500 µl of

cold 1x PBS and a second centrifugation at 500 × g for 10 minutes. Cells were counted and

approximately 50,000 cells were lysed using cold ATAC lysis + Digitonin (2%). Immediately after

lysis, cell nuclei were spun again at 500 × g for 10 minutes and separated from the lysis buffer.

Immediately following the nuclei extraction, the pellet was resuspended in transposase reaction

mix. The transposition reaction was carried out for 30 minutes at 37 °C. Directly following

transposition the samples were purified using the kit's provided columns. Following purification,

library fragments were amplified using 1x Amplification master mix and the following PCR

conditions: 72°C for 5 minutes, 98°C for 30 seconds, followed by thermocycling at 98°C for 10

seconds, 63°C for 30 seconds and 72°C for 1 minute for 5 cycles, in this step Unique Dual

Indexes Primer Pair were incorporated for multiplexed sequencing. To reduce amplification bias

after the first 5 cycles, qPCR was used to determine the number of PCR cycles needed to

produce the concentration required for sequencing. Each pre-amplified library was further

amplified for 6 cycles as determined by the qPCR step. Final libraries were bead purified

(Beckman Coulter), then assessed for size distribution and concentration using the Bioanalyzer

High Sensitivity DNA Kit (Agilent Technologies). The resulting libraries were pooled in equal

molarity, the pool was diluted to approximately 2 nM using 10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.5, denatured,

and loaded onto a P1-100 (2x50) flow cell on an Illumina NextSeq 6000 (Illumina, Inc.)

according to the manufacturer's instructions. De-multiplexed and adapter-trimmed sequencing

reads were generated using bcl2fastq.

Data processing and analysis

Reads were aligned to *Homo* sapiens genome build Genome Reference Consortium Human

Build 38 (GRCh38) with botwie2[38] (v2.5.4). PCR duplicates were removed using picard[39]

(v3.2.0), mitochondrial regions were removed, and blacklisted regions were identified using

ENCODE (GRCh38_unified_blacklist.bed) and removed. Peaks were called using macs3[40]

(v3.0.1) with a q-value cutoff of 0.05. Peaks were annotated using ChIPSeeker[36](v1.40.0).

DiffBind[69](v3.14.0) was used to determine differential accessibility between L48R and control

peaks and plotted using DiffBind profile plot. For transcription factor footprinting, reads were

shifted to account for the Tn5 overhang using ATACshift from deeptools[44], and motifs were

identified using ATACseqTFEA[55] with human motifs "best_curated_Human.rds". Genome

browser plots were made using IGV(v2.17.4)

qPCR validation:

Total RNA was extracted from iPSC and NPCs using the Zymo Direct-zol RNA Miniprep (Cat #

R2050 or from FBNs with the Zymo Direct-zol RNA Microprep (Cat # R2062). The concentration

was quantified using the NanoDrop 8000 UV-Vis Spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific). cDNA

was synthesized from 1ug of RNA using Superscript IV (Thermo Scientific). RT-qPCR reactions

were set up using cDNA, 2X PowerUp™ SYBR® Green Master Mix (Applied Biosystems), gene

specific primers using GAPDH as an internal control. Samples were run in a 96-well plate on the

QuantStudio™ 3 System using the Comparative Cт (ΔΔCт) method. The primers used are listed

in Table 6.

Dorsal Forebrain Organoids (DFBOs)

Forebrain organoids were generated using STEMdiff™ Dorsal Forebrain Organoid

Differentiation Kit (Cat: 08620) according to manufacturer instructions, and this protocol was

adopted from[45]. Briefly, embryoid bodies (EB) were generated in AggreWell™800 24-well plate

in a seeding medium with 10,000 cells per microwell. This method will generate 500 equalized

EBs per one well of a 24-well plate. After 24 hours, the media was changed to a Forebrain

Organoid formation medium, and the EB was maintained for five days. EBs were transferred to

ultra-low attachment 6-well plates (40 organoids per well) in organoid expansion medium.

Organoids were maintained in the same medium for a period of 25 days with frequent media

changes. After the neuroectoderm expansion, the media was changed to the Forebrain

Organoid Differentiation medium and maintained organoids until day 43 with frequent media

changes. For long-term maintenance of DFBO, the media was changed to a Forebrain Organoid

maintenance medium. For the analysis, we harvested organoids at day 25 (Neuroectoderm

expansion) and day 62 (DFBO maturation).

Embedding

Organoids were washed with D-PBS then fixed in 5mL fresh 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA)

solution and incubated overnight at 4°C. Organoids were washed in PBS-T and stored in PBS-T

at 4°C for 1 week. Organoids were then incubated in 30% sucrose solution and equilibrated

overnight at 4°C. Equilibration was complete once organoids were no longer floating in the 30%

sucrose solution. Organoids were then incubated at 37°C in porcine gelatin for 1 hour and

embedded in this solution in embedding molds. Six organoids were embedded per block and

allowed to solidify at RT and 4°C before being snap frozen in a dry ice/ethanol slurry (dry ice +

100% ethanol). Frozen samples were stored at -80°C until ready for cryosectioning.

Cryosectioning and Immunoflourescence Staining:

Blocks were removed from the -80°C freezer and allowed to equilibrate to -26°C in the cryostat

(Microm HM 505E, CHOP Pathology Core) for at least 30 minutes before sectioning. Sections

were cut at 16um using a high-profile blade (Leica Biosystems 14035838926) and mounted on

colorfrost Plus Microscope Slides (Fisher Scientific 12-550-17). Slides were stored at -80C until

staining. Slides were allowed to come to room temperature before staining. Hydrophobic

barriers were drawn around sections. Antigen retrieval using sodium citrate pH 6.0, was

performed for the CTIP2 staining. Slides were steamed in a food steamer for 20 minutes in

citrate buffer, washed with PBS-T at 37°C for 10 minutes to fully remove gelatin from slides,

blocked in a humidified chamber for 1 hour, and incubated with primary antibody overnight. The

next day, primary antibody solutions were removed, slides were washed 3 times with PBS-T

and incubated in secondary antibody at room temperature in a humified chamber for 2 hours.

After incubation, secondary antibody solution was removed, slides were washed 3 times with

PBS-T for 30 minutes, allowed to air dry for 5 minutes, then one drop of PermaFluor™ was

added to slides to add coverslip.

Image acquisition and quantification

Images for quantification were acquired using a Keyence BZ-X800 (Itasca, IL) or the Leica

STELLARIS 5 Confocal Microscope. 10x images taken of DFBOs were stitched together using

Keyence BZ-X Series Analysis Software. FIJI (v 2.14.0/1.54f) was used to quantify the fraction

of cells that were positive for cell fate markers. Images were separated by channel, converted to

binary, then particles were analyzed for each image. Corrected fluorescence was calculated by

dividing the total fluorescence of each image by the total fluorescence intensity of its respective

DAPI stain.

Statistics

Comparisons were made between Control and L48R cells. For RT-qPCR and IF, statistics were

calculated using Welch Two Sample t-test in R v 4.4.0 using RStudio 2024.04.1+748. A p-value

≤ 0.05 is denoted with *, p-value ≤ 0.01 is denoted with **, and p-value ≤ 0.001 is denoted with

***. For RNA-seq, statistics were calculated using DESeq2[33], and for ATAC-seq statistics were

calculated using DiffBind[43].

Figure Legends:

Figure 1. Generation and initial characterization of L48R 2D iPSCs, NPCs and FBNs. A) c.146T>G *H3-3B* Leu48Arg (L48R) variant was introduced to CHOPWT14 hiPSCs using CRISPR HDR. The heterozygous L48R edited cells were single cell cloned to generate a pure population of edited cells. Both L48R and isogenic control cells were differentiated into NPCs (STEMdiff™ SMADi Neural Induction Kit) and FBNs (Stem Cell Technologies STEMDiff Forebrain Neuronal Differentiation Kit). B) RT-qPCR for pluripotency markers in iPSCs and NPCs. *OCT4* p-value = 0.09808 in iPSCs*,* p-value = 0.2372 in NPCs*; NANOG* p-value = *0.143* in iPSCs, p-value = 0.00836 in NPCs*.* C) RT-qPCR gene expression analysis of NPC markers. *SOX2* iPSC p-value = 0.954, p-value = 0.02608 in NPCs. *NESTIN* p-value = 0.1357 in iPSCs, p-value = 0.09037 in NPCs. D) Immunofluorescence of FBNs stained with DAPI, MAP2 (neuronal extensions), VGLUT1 (glutamatergic neurons). E) Quantification of images in D) using FIJI. n = 10 images from 3 replicates for each condition. MAP2 p-value = 9.536e-05, VGLUT1 p-value = 6.694e-05. F) RT-qPCR for astrocyte marker *GFAP*. p-value = 1.104e-06.

Figure 2. Transcriptomic changes in L48R progenitor cells affect differentiation into FBNs. A) Volcano plot of L48R vs control iPSCs and B) NPCs. Blue dots represent downregulated genes, red = upregulated genes. Dotted horizontal line denotes an adjusted p-value of ≤ 0.01 and dotted vertical lines indicate a log2fold change (LFC) with an absolute value of ≥ 1. C) GO analysis for biological function of all significantly differentially expressed genes between L48R and control NPCs. D) Heatmap representing the Z-scored LFCs of the genes comprising cell adhesion and axonogenesis GO terms. Descriptions of function and disease association are in Table 1 for these genes. E) Volcano plot of L48R vs control FBNs. Blue dots

represent downregulated genes, red = upregulated genes. Dotted horizontal line denotes an

adjusted p-value of ≤ 0.01 and dotted vertical lines indicate a LFC with an absolute value of ≥ 1.

F) Upset plot of shared hits between the RNA-seq datasets generated in iPSCs, NPCs and

FBNs. n = 2 commonly downregulated genes, n=10 commonly upregulated genes.

Figure 3. L48R variant alters chromatin accessibility and the occupancy of transcription

factors important for neuronal development. A) Pie plot of the genomic annotations of sites

that are differentially accessible in L48R vs control NPCs (identified using DiffBind). B) Genomic

heatmap of differentially accessible sites grouped by sites that are more accessible in L48R

(top, green), and those that are less accessible in L48R NPCs (bottom, purple). C) GO

enrichment of regions with increased chromatin accessibility, annotated by nearest gene, in

L48R NPCs compared to control. D) RNA-seq (top, blue) and ATAC-seq (bottom, pink) tracks

for *PLXNA3*, an axonal gene with increased accessibility and expression in L48R compared to

control NPCs. E) Volcano plot of transcription factors with increased occupancy (red dots) or

decreased occupancy (blue dots) in L48R NPCs vs control. F) REVIGO summary of GO terms

associated with transcription factors in E) clustered by similarity.

Figure 4. Chromatin accessibility changes in L48R 2D NPCs affect expression of genes

important for cell adhesion and neurotransmission. A) Venn diagram of overlap of

significantly downregulated genes in RNA- and ATAC-seq. Six commonly downregulated genes

are listed. B) RNA-seq (top, blue) and ATAC-seq (bottom, pink) tracks for representative gene

CDH4. C) RT-qPCR validation of *CDH4* mRNA levels at different time points in differentiation

from iPSC, NPC, to FBN. ΔΔ Ct values are normalized to *GAPDH*. IPSC p-value = 9.834e-05,

NPC p-value = 0.0008733, FBN p-value = 0.001522. D) Venn diagram of overlap of significantly

upregulated genes in both datasets. 22 commonly upregulated genes are listed. E-F) RNA- and

ATAC-seq tracks + RT-qPCR validation of *GABRG3*. IPSC p-value = 0.002509, NPC p-value =

0.008845, FBN p-value = 0.02047. (G-H) RNA- and ATAC-seq tracks + RT-qPCR validation of

DPP6. iPSC p-value = 0.0001059, NPC p-value = 2.596e-05, FBN p-value = 0.005359.

Figure 5. L48R variant perturbs progenitor populations in 3D DFBOs. A) Left:

Representative images of organoids at D25, 45, and 62. Scale bar = 500um. D25 images were

taken at 10X magnification, D45 and D62 images were taken at 4x magnification, scale bar =

500µm Right: Quantification of organoid size using Qupath[67]. n = 6 control D25, n = 7 L48R

D25; n = 6 control and L48R D45; n = 15 control D60, n = 16 L48R D62. D25 p-value = 0.01684,

D48 p-value = 0.7073, D62 p-value = 0.2947. B) Organoids collected at D25 (left) and D62

(right) stained with neuronal marker TUJ1 (green), progenitor marker SOX2 (pink) and DAPI

(blue). Top = 10x magnification, bottom = 20X magnification. C) Quantification of 10x images in

B at D25 (left) and D62 (right). n = 6 organoids (D25), n = 4 organoids (D62). Each dot

represents 1 image. TUJ1 D25 p-value = 0.002887, D62 p-value = 0.5016. SOX1 D25 p-value =

0.3507, D62 p-value = 0.005652. D) Organoids stained for SOX2 (green) and proliferative

marker Ki67 (red) at both day 25 (left) and day 62 (right). The same images are shown in color

with all three markers and black and white with only Ki67.

Figure 6. L48R DFBOs have fewer mature neurons and increased GABA abundance. A)

D62 DFBOs stained with MAP2 (green) and PAX6 (red). Two representative images taken at

10X are displayed along with one representative image taken at 20X magnification. Right:

Images taken at both magnifications were quantified. Corrected total fluorescence was

calculated by dividing the fluorescence intensity of MAP2 by the fluorescence intensity of DAPI

for each image. p-value = 0.006039. B) 10X images of D62 DFBOs stained with GABA (red)

and NeuN (green). Images were quantified as described in (A). p-value = 0.03561. C) RT-qPCR

quantification of *GABRG3* levels in n = 4 DFBOs for both genotypes. p-value = 3.597e-05.

 Supplementary Figures:

Supplementary Figure 1 Characterization of 2D L48R iPSCs, NPCs and FBNs. A) Sanger

sequencing verification of isogenic control (top) and heterozygous c.146T>C edit in CHOPWT14

cells (bottom). B) Description of CHOPWT14 iPSCs. Method = reprogramming method. C) IF

analysis in FBNs of TUJ1 (neurons) and GFAP (glia) collected at day 20. D) Quantification of n

= 5 z-stacks for control, and n = 6 z-stacks for L48R FBNs. Corrected total fluorescence was

calculated by dividing the fluorescence intensity of TUJ1 and GFAP by the fluorescence

intensity of DAPI for each image. TUJ1 p-value = 0.06939, GFAP p-value = 0.159. E) RT-qPCR

analysis of *MAP2* mRNA levels in iPSCs and FBNs.   p-value = 0.4915 in iPSCs, p-value =

0.2222 in FBNs.

Supplementary Figure 2 Transcriptomic dysregulation induced by L48R variant A) PCA of

L48R and control iPSCs, NPCs and FBNS, colored by genotype. B) REVIGO summary of GO

terms associated with significantly upregulated genes in FBNs, clustered by similarity. C)

Heatmap of z-scored LFCs of astrocyte genes (from [37]). D) BrdU labeling of control and L48R

FBNs. E) GO plot of top 15 pathways downregulated in L48R FBNs compared to control FBNs.

F) GO plot of significantly dysregulated genes in both L48R NPCs and FBNs compared to

control.

Supplementary Figure 3 H3.3 deposition is altered in L48R cells, resulting in changes in

chromatin landscape. A) log2normalized counts of *H3-3B* and *H3-3B* from the NPC RNA-seq.

B) RT-qPCR analysis of *H3-3B* in iPSCs (p-value = 0.3348), NPCs (p-value = 0.04321), and

FBNs (p-value = 0.0006555). B) Western blot on nuclear extracted H3.3 and H4 as a loading

control. C) Western blot probing for H3.3 in cytoplasmic and chromatin-bound fractions. D) IF for

H3.3 and MAP2 in Control and L48R FBNs (left). Quantification of H3.3 fluorescence (right). p-

value < 2.2e-16. E) RNA- and ATAC-seq tracks for *RBFOX1*. F) log2-normalized counts for

additional genes that were affected in both ATAC- and RNA-seq. Genes to the left of the

dashed line were down and those to the right were upregulated.

Supplementary Figure 4 Cell identity analysis in 3D DFBOs corroborates 2D findings. A)

Schematic of the dorsal forebrain organoid protocol employed in this study. Organoids were

collected for sectioning at D25, and for RT-qPCR analysis and sectioning at D62. B) Images

taken at 4X magnification of control (top) and L48R (bottom) organoids at D62 showing

differences in NE buds (denoted by errors). C) IF for PAX6 (red) at D62 (top) and quantification

of corrected fluorescence intensity n = 6 organoids, control and n = 4 organoids, L48R (bottom).

p-value = 0.3291 D) CTIP2 staining at D25 and D62, along with corrected total fluorescence

quantifications of n = 6 organoids (control) or n = 4 organoids (L48R). D25 p-value = 0.1045,

D62 p-value = 0.138.

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Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure S1

Figure S2

Figure S3

Figure S4