Persistent dopamine-dependent remodeling of the neural transcriptome in response to pregnancy and postpartum

Jennifer C Chan[1], Giuseppina Di Salvo[1,2], Ashley M. Cunningham[1], Sohini Dutta[1], Elizabeth Brindley[1], Benjamin H. Weekley[1], Ethan Wan[4], Cindy Zhang[1], Naguib Mechawar[5], Gustavo Turecki[5], Ian Maze[1,3,6*]

Affiliations

[1]Nash Family Department of Neuroscience, Friedman Brain Institute, Icahn School of Medicine at Mount Sinai, New York, NY, 10029, USA

[2]Department of Psychiatry and Neuropsychology, School for Mental Health and Neuroscience (MHeNs), Maastricht University, Maastricht, The Netherlands

[3]Department of Pharmacological Sciences, Icahn School of Medicine at Mount Sinai, New York, NY, 10029, USA

[4]Department of Neurobiology, University of Alabama at Birmingham, Birmingham, AL 35294, USA.

[5]Douglas Institute, Department of Psychiatry, McGill University, Montreal, QC, Canada, H4H 1R3.

[6]Howard Hughes Medical Institute, Icahn School of Medicine at Mount Sinai, New York, NY, 10029, USA

*Corresponding author
Ian Maze
Email: ian.maze@mssm.edu

ABSTRACT

Pregnancy and postpartum experiences represent transformative physiological states that impose lasting demands on the maternal body and brain, resulting in lifelong neural adaptations[1–6]. However, the precise molecular mechanisms driving these persistent alterations remain poorly understood. Here, we used brain-wide transcriptomic profiling to define the molecular landscape of parity-induced neural plasticity, identifying the dorsal hippocampal formation (dHF) as a key site of transcriptional remodeling. Combining single-cell RNA sequencing with a maternal-pup separation paradigm, we additionally demonstrated that chronic postpartum stress significantly disrupts dHF adaptations by altering dopamine dynamics, leading to changes in the dopamine-dependent histone post-translational modification – H3 dopaminylation, with further alterations in transcription, cellular plasticity, and behavior. In human dorsal subiculum, a brain structure within the dHF, we uncovered conserved patterns of parity-dependent alterations in H3 dopaminylation and transcription. We further established the sufficiency of dopamine modulation in regulating these parity-induced adaptations via chemogenetic suppression of dopamine release into the dHF, which recapitulated key epigenomic and behavioral features of parity in virgin female mice. In sum, our findings establish dopamine as a central regulator of parity-induced neuroadaptations in humans and mice, revealing a fundamental transcriptional mechanism by which female reproductive experiences remodel the brain to sustain long-term behavioral adaptations.

INTRODUCTION

Matrescence – the physical, emotional, hormonal, and social transition to motherhood – is a period of profound transformation that reshapes the maternal body and brain to support pregnancy, birth, and offspring care. While extensive research has focused on acute maternal brain processes that are essential for the onset and maintenance of parenting, precisely how brain adaptations are sustained beyond the postpartum period to persistently influence behavior remains unclear. Recent human neuroimaging studies have revealed that pregnancy experience induces long-lasting alterations in brain connectivity and structure, persisting for years or even decades following birth[1–6]. Animal models examining parity – the state of previously carrying a pregnancy to term – similarly have demonstrated persistent alterations in synaptic remodeling, cell proliferation, and behavioral outcomes[7–14]. However, the specific mechanisms within the extensive repertoire of maternal physiological changes that drive these long-lasting brain adaptations remain poorly understood.

Here, we employed brain-wide transcriptional profiling to systematically characterize the persistent impact of parity on the maternal brain in mice. These analyses surprisingly revealed the dorsal hippocampual formation (dHF) as a key site of sustained plasticity. We then leveraged single-cell RNA sequencing, Cleavage Under Targets and Release Using Nuclease followed by sequencing (CUT&RUN-seq), a postpartum stress paradigm, behavioral assays, chemogenetic approaches, and human brain tissue analyses to identify and validate a dopamine-dependent neuromodulatory process that orchestrates these sustained maternal adaptations. Importantly, these brain-wide datasets will also serve as a critical resource for future investigations into the reproductive state-dependent adaptations that contribute to matrescence.

RESULTS

Parity promotes long-lasting transcriptional and behavioral adaptations in maternal brain

To first investigate the persistent effects of female reproductive experiences in maternal brain, we established a timeline to compare primiparous dams (PP), which experienced breeding, pregnancy, parturition, lactation, and pup interactions, to age-matched virgins that lacked reproductive experiences (nulliparous, NP; **Fig. 1a**). Given that reproductive hormones return to baseline levels ~7-weeks post-conception[15], we conducted brain-wide transcriptomic profiling 4-weeks following cessation of pup rearing (i.e. 49 days postpartum; dpp), as this time point would be predicted to reflect sustained changes. Following differential expression analyses of 11 brain regions selected based on prior evidence supporting their involvement in maternal behaviors[16,17] (**Extended Data 1a**), our data revealed a wide-range in the number of differentially expressed genes (DEGs, adj. *p* < 0.05) across brain regions (**Fig. 1b, Extended Data Table 1**). These differences indicated varying levels of transcriptomic sensitivity to parity brain-wide, with few changes observed in the medial prefrontal cortex (mPFC), for example, as compared to the dHF, the region found to be most robustly regulated in our analyses.

To next assess whether these differential expression patterns could be attributed to changes in shared cell-types, we performed cell-type deconvolution using BRETIGEA, which compares whole transcriptome data to validated brain cell type-specific marker gene sets[18]. We observed changes in cell marker expression for neurons, astrocytes, microglia, oligodendrocyte precursor cells (OPCs), oligodendrocytes, and endothelial cells across brain regions, regardless of the number of DEGs (**Fig. 1c**). These data suggested that cellular changes may occur across brain regions independently of the extent of transcriptomic alterations, potentially reflecting shifts in the proportion of neurons to non-neuronal/glial cells, modifications in synaptic plasticity, or changes

in cell identity in response to prior reproductive experiences. Notably, the expression of neuronal

markers was found to be downregulated in brain regions displaying the most DEGs (**Fig. 1c**).

Furthermore, a significant inverse correlation between reduced neuronal marker expression and

the number of DEGs across all brain regions implicated changes in neuronal populations that may

underlie the observed transcriptional responses (**Fig. 1d**); note that this relationship was not

observed for other cell-types (**Extended Data 1b-f**). These findings nicely align with human

neuroimaging studies, which have reported reduced gray matter in mothers even years after birth,

a phenomenon that has been proposed to refine maternal neural circuits to optimize caregiving

behavior[1,2,4,19].

108
Based on these findings, we hypothesized that such shared neuronal marker alterations may

indicate common upstream mechanisms driving regional-specific transcriptional responses. To test

this, we first compared DEGs across brain regions to identify common gene sets that were altered

by parity status, which led to the observation that the greatest extent of overlap occurs in those

regions displaying the highest levels of transcriptional sensitivity (**Fig. 1e**). Based on these

analyses, we then grouped the 11 brain regions according to the number of DEGs, the degree of

overlap with other regions, and significant fold changes in neuronal marker expression, based on

the premise that these regions may be co-regulated to elicit convergent transcriptional responses

to parity (referred to as "high sensitivity" regions: dHF, nucleus accumbens (NAc), medial preoptic

area (mPOA), locus coeruleus (LC), ventral hippocampus (vHF)). Brain regions lacking these

criteria were classified as "low sensitivity" regions (dorsal raphe nucleus (DRN), paraventricular

nucleus of the hypothalamus (PVN), basolateral amygdala (BLA), ventral tegmental area (VTA),

olfactory bulb (OB), mPFC). Next, we explored the predicted upstream regulators of overlapping

DEGs in "High" versus "Low" sensitivity brain regions, which revealed several upstream

regulators that were grouped into common molecular classes, including hormones,

neurotransmitter/neurotrophin signaling molecules, transcriptional regulators, and others (**Fig. 1f**).

While both High and Low sensitivity regions were found to share upstream regulators within these

molecular classes, High sensitivity regions displayed greater enrichment for estrogen,

progesterone, testosterone, dopamine, and other ligands with similar receptor affinity or structural

homology. In contrast, regulators that were classified within the lipid category were uniquely

associated with Low sensitivity regions.

To further explore the regulatory networks that distinguish High versus Low sensitivity regions,

we performed weighted gene co-expression network analysis (WGCNA) across all 11 brain

regions[20], resulting in nine co-expression modules (**Fig. 1g-j**). Module-trait correlations, in which

the trait refers to a combination of group (NP *vs.* PP) and regional sensitivity (High *vs.* Low),

identified significant correlations between High sensitivity regions in PP females and the brown,

green, yellow, and magenta modules (**Fig. 1g;** henceforth labeled 'parity-sensitive modules'). We

then examined enrichment of DEGs within each module, with an extended focus on the parity-

sensitive modules. Consistent with our module-trait correlational analysis, parity-sensitive

modules displayed significant enrichment for DEGs from dHF (**Fig. 1h;** Fisher's exact tests:

brown, $p < 10^{-16}$; green, yellow, $p < 10^{-6}$), NAc (brown, green, $p < 10^{-3}$; magenta, $p < 0.01$; yellow,

$p < 0.05$), mPOA (green, $p < 0.05$; magenta, $p < 0.01$), LC (magenta, $p < 0.05$), and vHpc (magenta,

$p < 0.05$; yellow, $p < 0.01$). Functional annotation analysis of the genes from these modules

highlighted their significant enrichment in signaling pathways related to neuromodulators, such as

estrogen (yellow, brown) and dopamine (green, magenta), in agreement with our upstream

regulator analyses (**Fig. 1i, Extended Data 1k-l**). In contrast, Low sensitivity regions were

significantly associated with the black module, which was enriched for genes associated with RNA

and macromolecule processing pathways (**Fig. 1g, 1i**).

Building on these transcriptomic findings, we next investigated whether parity leads to sustained

functional alterations in PP females. To evaluate the extent of such persistence, we performed

behavioral assessments at 140 dpp, ~16-weeks after pup weaning. Behavioral tasks were selected

to specifically assess functions associated with brain regions displaying the most robust

transcriptional changes, including maternal behavior, learning, and memory. To assess maternal

behavior, we tested pup retrieval in the home cage by placing two donor pups in opposite corners

away from the nest. PP dams were observed to retrieve pups with significantly reduced latency as

compared to NP females (**Fig. 1j**), which is consistent with previous findings, though at a more

extended timepoint in our studies[21]. Next, to investigate the functional impact of dHF

transcriptional changes, we utilized a contextual fear conditioning paradigm. Female mice were

habituated to the training context before receiving five shocks (2-seconds each, 0.7 mA) with 90-

second intertrial intervals. Both NP and PP females demonstrated significant training acquisition,

as indicated by increased freezing compared to no-shock controls (**Fig. 1k**). Notably, PP females

exhibited enhanced acquisition, with significantly increased freezing observed by the third shock,

while NP females only displayed significant freezing at the fifth shock (**Fig. 1k**). During the

context test conducted 24-hours later, both groups demonstrated recall, with PP females showing

higher freezing responses than NP animals (**Fig. 1l**). Given the involvement of these brain regions

in anxiety- and depressive-like behaviors, we also assessed affective phenotypes using the open

field, light-dark box, and forced swim tests, however, no significant differences were observed

(**Extended Data 2a-h**). These results suggested that the transcriptional changes observed in parity-

sensitive brain regions may promote maternal and dHF-related behavioral outcomes, as has been

reported previously[7,10,12,14,22–28]. To account for the potential influence of estrous cycling on

behavioral changes, vaginal swabs were collected immediately following testing, and behavioral

analyses were stratified by estrous stage. No significant effects of estrous stage were observed

(**Extended Data 2i-n**), supporting parity status as the primary driver of the observed behavioral

differences.

Pregnancy and postpartum experiences promote persistent maternal neuroplasticity

Since our paradigm comparing NP *vs.* PP females could not distinguish between the discrete

reproductive event(s) that may be responsible for the sustained transcriptional alterations observed,

we next sought to isolate those key events throughout the female reproductive window. To do so,

we compared females that were successfully bred to males but did not become pregnant (Mating

Only), females that experienced pregnancy and parturition but did not transition to postpartum due

to pup removal on the day of birth (Pregnancy Only), and virgin females exposed to 21-days of

donor pup interactions (Pup Sensitized). These groups were analyzed in parallel with age-matched

NP and PP females to delineate the contributions of specific reproductive and maternal experiences

(**Fig. 2a**). Consistent with previous studies[29], four days of pup exposures sensitized virgin females

to maternal behavior, as evidenced by increased crouching over pups and decreased pup avoidance

by day 4 (**Extended Data 3a**). To determine the processes conferring sustained transcriptional

sensitivity, we focused our investigations on the dHF due to its pronounced gene expression

response to parity. When comparing NP *vs.* PP gene expression profiles, we observed that the

Pregnancy Only group most closely resembled that of the expression profile of PP females,

suggesting that pregnancy is a primary driver of dHF neuroplastic changes (**Fig. 2b, Extended**

Data 3b). However, the magnitude of fold changes did not match that of the PP group, indicating

that additional experiences, likely during postpartum, are also necessary to fully establish parity-

induced changes in the dHF.

While visualization of differential expression profiles in the Mating Only and Pup Sensitized

groups did not mimic PP changes, comparisons to NP did identify significant DEGs across all

groups, with the most substantial changes observed in the Pup Sensitized group, followed by the

Pregnancy Only, and Mating Only groups (**Extended Data 3c-e, Extended Data Table 2**).

Overlapping DEGs induced by discrete reproductive events significantly intersected with DEGs

in PP animals, suggesting that while pregnancy is the primary driver of parity-induced effects,

each reproductive event contributes, in part, to this process (**Extended Data 3f**). Next, we

overlapped DEGs from each comparison with genes from parity-sensitive modules (from **Fig. 1**).

Significant overlap was observed across all groups, with Pregnancy Only and Pup Sensitized

groups displaying the strongest enrichment, indicating that these experiences play a key role in

shaping persistent dHF alterations (**Fig. 2c**). Thus, despite the lack of similarity between the overall

expression profiles between Pup Sensitized *vs.* PP, gene expression changes induced by pup

interactions likely converge on similar regulatory networks, albeit through different DEGs, which

are critical for parity-driven transcriptional alterations. To further explore these relationships, we

performed threshold-free Rank-Rank Hypergeometric Overlap (RRHO) analyses[30], which

demonstrated transcriptional concordance across experiences, with the strongest overlap observed

in pregnancy (**Fig. 2d**). These findings suggest that reproductive exposures converge, or act

additively, to drive the full extent of brain transcriptional changes. Furthermore, comparing GO

term analyses of DEGs for each group revealed significant enrichment in overlapping biological

processes, with many related to synaptic signaling and plasticity pathways (**Fig. 2e**). Notably,

certain pathways were unique to the combination of reproductive exposures, including changes in

CREB activity, catecholamine secretion, and myelination, indicating that these regulatory processes depend on multiple reproductive events to achieve full induction (**Fig. 2e**).

Given that postpartum experiences enhanced changes that were initiated during pregnancy, we conducted a controlled time course study to examine these transcriptional dynamics across gestational and postpartum periods in age-matched females (**Fig. 2f**). Pregnancy timepoints were selected to represent the anabolic and catabolic phases of gestation, corresponding to early (7.5 days post-conception, dpc) and late (17.5 dpc) stages, respectively. Postpartum timepoints were chosen to capture the immediate effects of hormonal withdrawal following parturition (2 dpp), as well as a later stage prior to pup weaning (21 dpp). Based on the hypothesis that parity-induced transcriptional alterations are progressively enhanced across reproductive stages, we first compared DEGs at each timepoint (*vs.* NP) to genes from parity-sensitive modules identified previously. DEGs from all comparisons significantly overlapped with the brown module (**Fig. 2g, left; Extended Data Table 3**), suggesting that pathways enriched in this module are central to dHF programming. Enrichment in the green and yellow modules was predominantly found to be induced by postpartum exposures, potentially amplifying the effects of the pathways driven by the brown module (**Fig. 2g, left**). To assess the regional specificity of these dynamic changes, we analyzed bulk RNA-seq data from the vHpc, a region that displayed moderate sensitivity to parity status (**Fig. 2g, middle; Extended Data Table 4**), along with the mPFC, which exhibited few transcriptional alterations (**Fig. 2g, right; Extended Data Table 5**). These regions exhibited limited overlap of DEGs with parity-sensitive module genes, further emphasizing the specificity of the pathways that drive long-term adaptations in brain regions displaying heightened sensitivity to parity.

To then characterize cumulative transcriptional changes that occur across reproductive stages, we

performed a time course analysis using the ImpulseDE2 package to detect genes displaying

sustained or transient expression alterations[31]. This analysis revealed a prominent set of genes that

displayed persistent and progressive downregulation, with more pronounced alterations during

postpartum (**Fig. 2h**). These genes were significantly enriched for processes related to

glutamatergic synapses, dopaminergic signaling, and endocrine-related pathways (**Fig. 2i**).

Conversely, genes with persistent upregulation were found to be enriched for pathways associated

with cell junction dynamics (**Fig. 2j**), which is consistent with overall prolonged changes in

synaptic plasticity and transmission. Additionally, we identified gene sets displaying transient

alterations, including downregulation of neurogenesis-related pathways, and upregulation of

copper ion metabolism (**Fig. 2k-l**); these data are consistent with other studies reviewed here[32,33].

In total, these findings highlight postpartum as a key window for reinforcing parity-induced

alterations.

Chronic maternal stress during postpartum disrupts dHF adaptations

We next examined whether postpartum perturbations may disrupt pathways that reinforce parity-

induced alterations in dHF. As becoming a new parent represents a significant source of stress, we

implemented a maternal stress paradigm that robustly increases stress hormone levels and disrupts

key postpartum experiences, including nursing and pup interactions, from 10–20 dpp (**Fig. 3a,**

Extended Data 3g). During this period, dams were separated from their pups for 3-hours daily

and were provided with limited nesting materials until pup weaning (Stress PP). As litter size

represents a potential confounding factor, the time period selected reduces the impact of maternal

stress on pup mortality that can occur immediately following birth. By 10 dpp, pups were more

durable, as reflected by the absence of litter size differences between Control and Stress dams

(**Extended Data 3h**). Accordingly, no differences in postpartum weights were observed,

suggesting that this postpartum stress paradigm does not induce major metabolic alterations in the

dams (**Extended Data 3i**). To assess the extent of parity adaptations in Stress PP, we compared

this group to NP and Control PP animals. Principal components analysis (PCA) of dHF

transcriptional profiles revealed distinct clustering of NP and Control PP groups (reproducing our

prior analyses), while Stress PP samples were found to cluster intermediately between the two

groups (**Fig. 3b**). Similarly, hierarchical clustering of all DEGs resulted in intermingling of NP

and Stress PP samples (**Fig. 3c, Extended Data Table 6**), suggesting that postpartum stress

disrupts the extent of parity alterations in dHF. To determine whether genes induced by parity are

reversed by stress, we then compared DEGs with opposing directionality in NP *vs.* Control PP and

Control PP *vs.* Stress PP groups (**Fig. 3d**). Approximately 85% of genes altered by maternal stress

overlapped with parity-induced gene expression changes. KEGG pathway analysis of DEGs

revealed shared enrichment across several pathways in both comparisons, with maternal stress

reversing gene expression associated with long-term potentiation, dopaminergic synapses,

oxytocin signaling, and other processes (**Fig. 3e**).

280
Since our pathway analyses indicated changes in long-term potentiation, a form of neuronal

plasticity that is important for learning and memory behaviors[34], we further focused our behavioral

assessments on contextual fear conditioning. Consistent with prior results, Control PP females

exhibited enhanced acquisition and context recall, as demonstrated by significantly increased

freezing behavior compared to NP animals. In contrast, however, Stress PP females showed no

significant differences *vs.* NP mice (**Fig. 3f-g**). To further evaluate dHF-dependent function, we

next assessed behavior using the object location task. In this test, animals were initially trained by

allowing them to explore two identical objects, followed by one-hour removal from the arena.

During the test phase, one object was displaced, and the animals' ability to identify the moved

object was assessed. Given prior findings that adult females require 10 minutes of training for

reliable discrimination[35], we first used this duration to confirm that all groups could successfully

identify the moved object (**Extended Data 3j**). To next assess whether Control PP females exhibit

enhancements in this task, we reduced the training time to 5 minutes, a duration that is sufficient

for learning in adult males and preadolescent female mice, but not in adult females[35]. Under these

conditions, Control PP females retained the ability to discriminate the novel location, whereas NP

and Stress PP females did not, reflecting the same pattern observed in contextual fear conditioning,

which was not attributed to estrous stage or locomotion (**Extended Data 3k-l**).

298
299   ***Cell-type specific transcriptional alterations reveal dopaminergic modulation underlying***
300   ***maternal dHF plasticity***
301
To elucidate the mechanisms underlying parity-induced dHF plasticity, we next leveraged the

transcriptomic and behavioral signatures shared between NP and Stress PP groups. This

postpartum stress paradigm resolves key windows during which disruptions to parity adaptations

occur, thereby providing greater temporal resolution of the mechanisms required to sustain these

alterations. Building on our findings, we next performed single-nuclei (sn) RNA-sequencing on

these three groups to identify the dHF cell-types that integrate hormone and neurotransmitter

signaling to drive parity-related plasticity. Following rigorous quality control assessments to

remove confounding sources of variation, such as mitochondrial mapping percentage, doublets,

and cell-type contamination **(Extended Data 4a-f)**, we retained 109,334 nuclei for downstream

analysis (NP = 37,070; Control PP = 35,631; Stress PP = 36,633). Cell-type annotation was

performed using both manual curation and label transfer from validated hippocampal datasets from

the Broad Institute and Allen Brain Atlas[36,37]. This resulted in 16 distinct clusters (**Fig. 4a,**

Extended Data 4g-i), including excitatory neuron subtypes (dentate gyrus, CA1, CA3, subiculum,

mossy cells; 43.3% of total), GABAergic neurons (GABA.1–GABA.4; 9.1% of total), neural

progenitors (neural stem cells, radial glia-like cells; 9.7% of total), and non-neuronal/glial

populations (astrocytes, oligodendrocytes, OPCs, microglia, immune cells; 37.9% of total).

318
Since our cell-type deconvolution analyses indicated downregulation of neuronal markers, we first

assessed proportional differences across major cell-types. A Monte Carlo permutation test

confirmed significant shifts in several populations beyond random variation, with GABA.2 and

GABA.4 clusters being reduced in Control PP dHF compared to both NP and Stress PP (**Fig. 4b-**

c). We next used pseudobulk aggregation and differential expression analysis to identify DEGs

within each annotated cluster ($p < 0.05$ and logFC $> |1.5|$). We observed transcriptional changes

across both neuronal and non-neuronal subtypes, with excitatory neuron alterations predominantly

observed between NP *vs*. Control PP, particularly within the subiculum (**Fig. 4d**). This pattern

aligns nicely with enhanced contextual fear conditioning, as prior studies have implicated altered

dHF excitatory outputs in improved learning outcomes in dams[24]. In contrast, the most pronounced

neuronal changes between Control and Stress PP were observed in the GABA.2 and mossy cell

populations, alongside widespread DEGs across non-neuronal cell-types (**Fig. 4d**); note that

differential expression analysis could not be performed for the GABA.4 cluster due to insufficient

sample representation in multiple groups. GO term analysis of DEGs from cell-types displaying

proportional differences revealed significant enrichment in pathways associated with responses to

endogenous stimuli (GABA.2, GABA.1, GABA.3, OPC), cell proliferation (GABA.2, CA1,

immune cells), synaptic function (GABA.3, subiculum), and metabolic processes (Oligo.2,

GABA.1) across both comparisons (**Fig. 4e-f**).

Probing deeper into these altered cell-types, we focused on the GABA.2 cluster owing to shared

proportional and transcriptional changes observed in comparison to both NP and Stress PP groups,

which suggested a common mechanism limiting dHF plasticity. Marker gene analysis revealed

significant enrichment of dopamine receptor D1 *(Drd1)* and D2 *(Drd2)* expression within this

cluster compared to other cell-types (**Extended Data 4j**), aligning with our prior bioinformatic

analyses implicating dopaminergic regulation. To further resolve this population, we subclustered

the GABA.2 cells and identified distinct subpopulations expressing *Drd1* and *Drd2*, both of which

appeared to be altered in Control PP animals (**Fig. 4g**). In a separate cohort of mice, we validated

these changes using RNA fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH) in dorsal CA1 (**Fig. 4h-i,**

Extended Data 4k-l), where dopamine receptor-expressing interneurons have been previously

described[38,39]. While dopaminoceptive inhibitory neurons were implicated in our data**,** we

examined whether such changes extend to other dopamine-sensitive neuronal populations. RNA

FISH in the dentate gyrus, which contains excitatory *Drd1* and *Drd2*-expressing neurons (in

granule and hilar mossy cells, respectively; **Extended Data 7a**), revealed significant group

differences, alongside expected regional variations consistent with the sparser distribution of

dopamine receptor-expressing neurons in CA1[40] (**Fig. 4h-i, Extended Data 4m-n).**

354
Since these findings established dopaminergic signaling as a potential key mediator of persistent

parity-induced adaptations, this prompted us to examine whether maternal stress disrupts this

process within its defined postpartum window. Given prior evidence that acute pup separation

elevates dopamine levels in NAc[41,42], we first investigated whether a similar response occurs in

dHF. Brain tissues were collected from 10 dpp dams at baseline, 30-minutes, and 3-hours post-

separation, as well as 30-minutes post-reunion (**Fig. 4j).** We observed robust increases in

dopamine levels in both NAc and dHF during separation, with expected regional differences

reflecting the strength of innervation to these regions (**Fig. 4k**). Since acute and chronic stress

produce different biological responses and behavioral outcomes, we next assessed the impact of

repeated separation stress on dopamine modulation in these brain regions. Indeed, our data

revealed distinct dopaminergic responses following acute *vs.* chronic separations, with repeated

stress leading to loss of dopamine increases observed in response to pup separation, as well as

elevated baseline dopamine in both dHF and NAc tissues (**Fig. 4l, Extended Data 4o**). Loss of

induction following chronic stress may stem from elevated baseline levels, which facilitate

engagement of autoreceptors and negative feedback mechanisms[43]. Similarly, increased release of

dopamine in dHF tissues was not observed in NP females 30-minutes following separation from a

littermate (**Extended Data S4p**), though this likely lacks the same salience as pup separation.

These findings align with our snRNA-seq data, where decreased *Drd1/2*-expressing neurons in

Control PP may reflect an adaptation to reduced dopamine-related transcriptional activity (Figs. 2

and 3). In contrast, elevated receptor expression in NP and Stress PP animals may represent a

compensatory response to higher basal dopamine levels, as suggested by our observations

following separation stress.

377
378 ***Dopamine-dependent H3 dopaminylation enrichment is altered by parity in dHF of mice and***
379 ***humans***
380
Together, changes in dopamine modulation and gene expression in our mouse model point to a

role for dopamine-dependent epigenetic mechanisms in shaping persistent transcriptional states.

Motivated by this, we turned to a recently characterized class of histone post-translational

modifications dependent on intracellular pools of biogenic monoamines, including serotonin,

dopamine, and histamine, termed monoaminylations[44–46]. This process involves transamidation of

monoamines onto the glutamine 5 residue of histone H3 (H3Q5), a site adjacent to the canonically

permissive lysine 4 tri-methylation (H3K4me3), by tissue transglutaminase 2 (TG2)[47].

Monoaminylation at H3Q5 can coexist with H3K4me3 and is responsive to physiological and

environmental stimuli such as stress or drugs of abuse, with downstream effects on transcriptional

output[44–46,48–52]. Using our previously validated H3K4me3Q5dop antibody[45], we performed

CUT&RUN-seq to test the involvement of H3 dopaminylation in parity transcriptional

adaptations; note that this signal is lost in the absence of TG2 expression (**Extended Data Fig. 5a-**

c). Following peak calling, we found that the majority of H3K4me3Q5dop peaks annotated to

genic loci, with the majority of these peaks occurring within 2 kB of transcriptional start sites

(TSS; **Extended Data 5d-g**). In all groups, we observed that gene expression varied significantly

across quartiles of H3K4me3Q5dop enrichment, with higher signal associated with increased gene

expression (**Extended Data Fig. 5h-i**).

398
To examine group-specific changes in H3 dopaminylation, we identified differentially enriched

peaks using the DiffBind pipeline[53]. Notably, the majority of differential peaks were

downregulated in Control PP dHF compared to both NP and Stress PP groups (**Extended Data**

Fig. 5j, Extended Data Tables 7-8), consistent with prior results suggestive of reduced dopamine

tone. Integrating these peaks with DEGs from the same comparisons revealed significant overlap

between downregulated peaks and genes decreased in Control PP (**Extended Data Fig. 5k**),

implicating loss of H3 dopaminylation in the downregulation of genes modulated by parity. To

gain more resolution, we assessed H3K4me3Q5dop enrichment specifically at the TSS of parity-

regulated DEGs. Again, Control PP dHF exhibited significantly reduced signal at most loci

compared to NP and Stress PP (**Fig. 5a–b, Extended Data Fig. 5l**). Stratifying DEGs by

directionality uncovered distinct transcription factors: downregulated genes were enriched for

canonical repressors (Mbd3, Rest, Suz12), while upregulated genes were associated with ligand-

responsive nuclear receptors (Esr1, Lxr, Ppara), pointing to ligand-dependent transcriptional

programs that may compensate for reduced H3K4me3Q5dop by engaging alternate chromatin

remodeling pathways (**Fig. 5c–d**).

To assess the translational relevance of these findings, we next performed transcriptomic and

H3K4me3Q5dop profiling in human dorsal subiculum (dSub), a subregion of the dHF that serves

as its primary output and was identified in our snRNA-seq analysis as the most transcriptionally

responsive subregion to parity. Comparing age-matched NP subjects with parous subjects who had

1-2 previous births (**Extended Data Table 9**), we identified robust differential gene expression

indicative of long-lasting effects of parity in human brain (**Fig. 5e**). These transcriptional

signatures showed strong concordance with those observed in our mouse model, as determined by

comparison to NP *vs.* Control PP dSub pseudobulk expression profiles from our snRNA-seq data,

particularly for downregulated genes (**Fig. 5f**), and similarly displayed enrichment in pathways

related to extracellular matrix remodeling and metabolism (**Extended Data Fig 6a**). Furthermore,

predicted upstream transcription factor ontologies were conserved across species, with both

upregulated and downregulated DEGs in human dSub enriched for regulators similarly identified

in mouse (**Fig. 5g**). We also performed H3K4me3Q5dop CUT&RUN-seq in human dSub tissues

to associate such persistent gene expression signatures with dopamine-dependent chromatin

remodeling. Similar to our mouse tissues, we observed that the majority of H3K4me3Q5dop peaks

occurred at genic loci (**Extended Data Fig. 6b-d**), with increasing signal corresponding to

increased gene expression (**Extended Data Fig. 6e-f**). Next, we performed differential binding

analysis comparing parous and NP subjects. Consistent with our mouse findings, parous dSub

exhibited a widespread reduction in dopaminylation signal that significantly corresponded with

our DEG analysis (**Fig. 5h-i; Extended Data Fig. 6g; Extended Data Table 10**). Pathway

analysis of differentially enriched peaks revealed significant enrichment for loci involved in

maternal behavior, behavioral fear responses, hormone regulation, and dopamine transport -

processes similarly implicated in our mouse model (**Fig. 5j**). These findings suggest that parity

induces long-lasting dopamine-dependent remodeling of epigenomic programs in a region of the

human dHF, mirroring mechanisms observed in rodents.

440
441 ***Chemogenetic suppression of dopamine release into dHF recapitulates key features of***
442 ***persistent parity-induced plasticity***
443
Together, these findings point to conserved, parity-associated remodeling of dopamine-sensitive

transcriptional programs in dHF. We therefore hypothesized that persistent reductions in dopamine

tone may engage adaptive chromatin mechanisms to support enduring transcriptional and

behavioral plasticity. To assess this, we chemogenetically suppressed the dopaminergic VTA

projection to dHF by bilaterally expressing a floxed inhibitory neuronal hM4Di-DREADD fused

to mCherry (*vs.* floxed mCherry controls) in the VTA, coupled with retrograde AAVs expressing

a tyrosine hydroxylase (TH)-dependent Cre recombinase into the dHF (**Fig. 6a**). Selection of the

VTA was guided by our findings that pup separation stress drives coordinated regulation in the

dHF and NAc, along with its established role as a key upstream modulator of dopaminergic

signaling in the maternal NAc[54] (also supported by our data; **Extended Data 4q**). We validated

this approach by confirming selective mCherry expression in TH+ neurons of the VTA, as well as

reduced *Fos* expression following administration of the selective DREADD agonist

deschloroclozapine (DCZ; **Fig. 6b, Extended Data 5a-b**.) To minimize injection-related stress in

this paradigm, we sought to restrict the window of chronic DCZ administrations. Since maternal

stress from 10–20 dpp was sufficient to disrupt parity-induced plasticity, we posited that dHF

dopamine suppression during this period may correspondingly be sufficient to promote neuronal

adaptations in virgin NP (NP-mCherry, NP-hM4Di; **Fig. 6c**). As our comparisons aimed to

determine if chronic dopamine reduction in virgin females can phenocopy parity-induced

adaptations, we administered DCZ to postpartum dams in parallel (PP-mCherry, PP-hM4Di).

After confirming that our approach effectively suppressed dHF dopamine (**Fig. 6d**) – and did not

induce gross metabolic changes (**Extended Data 5c**) – we assessed behavioral outcomes 1-month

after the final DCZ injection (49 dpp). In the pup retrieval test, NP-hM4Di females exhibited

significantly reduced latency to retrieve pups compared to NP-mCherry, with no differences

observed relative to PP dams (**Fig. 6e**). Notably, while 8/13 NP-mCherry females failed to retrieve

either pup, this occurred in only 1/15 NP-hM4Di animals, comparable to PP-mCherry (0/12) and

PP-hM4di (1/11) dams. In contextual fear conditioning, NP-hM4Di females demonstrated

enhanced acquisition, mirroring the heightened learning observed in PP dams (**Fig. 6f**). In the

context recall test, NP-hM4Di females showed no significant differences from PP dams (**Extended

Data 5d**), though subtle effects were observed, suggesting that additional neuromodulatory

mechanisms may interact with dopamine to modulate the consolidation and retrieval of

conditioned fear responses underlying maternal behavioral plasticity.

Next, we examined whether such dopamine suppression influences cellular receptor expression in

the dHF. Similar to Control PP, NP-hM4Di females exhibited sustained downregulation of *Drd1*

and *Drd2* in both CA1 and dentate gyrus (**Fig. 6g-h, Extended Data 5e-h**). Next, we conducted

transcriptional profiling of the dHF in virally infected groups to assess the degree to which

dopamine suppression mirrors parity-associated gene expression patterns. Comparing NP-

mCherry *vs.* PP-mCherry expression profiles from bulk RNA-seq data, we observed an

intermediate expression pattern in NP-hM4Di dHF tissues (**Fig. 6i, Extended Data Table 11**).

RRHO analysis further supported transcriptional concordance between PP-mCherry and NP-

hM4Di groups in comparison to NP-mCherry (**Fig. 6j**). To next assess whether the long-term

transcriptional effects of prior baseline dopamine suppression align with changes in parity-

associated transcriptional programs, we compared NP-mCherry *vs.* NP-hM4Di DEGs to

previously identified parity-sensitive modules. Consistent with our behavioral findings, DEGs

from NP-hM4Di overlapped with the brown module but not other parity-sensitive modules (**Fig.**

6k), thereby highlighting a specific mechanistic contributor to behavioral adaptations within the

broader transcriptional and neuromodulatory landscape shaped by parity. Functional annotation of

these DEGs revealed enrichment in pathways governing synaptic plasticity and responses to

endogenous stimuli (**Fig. 6l**), which mirrored those found to be altered in Control PP dHF.

494
Finally, to assess whether the effects of dopamine suppression on dHF transcription are modulated

in part through H3 dopaminylation, we conducted CUT&RUN-seq targeting H3K4me3Q5dop in

virally-infected NP tissues. Examining H3K4me3Q5dop enrichment at the TSS of both parity-

regulated DEGs and genes altered between NP-mCherry and NP-hM4Di groups, we observed

significantly reduced signal at all loci examined in NP-hM4Di tissues (**Fig. 6m; Extended Data**

Fig. 7i-j). We identified significant transcription factors predicted for downregulated DEGs

between NP-mCherry and NP-hM4Di (none for upregulated DEGs), overlapping with those

observed in parous subjects in both human dSub and our mouse model (**Fig. 6n**). Overall, these

data demonstrate dopaminergic modulation as a key mechanism underlying the molecular and

functional adaptations associated with parity in the maternal brain (**Extended Data 5k**).

505
DISCUSSION

Despite decades of evidence that matrescence induces long-lasting behavioral adaptations across

species, the mechanisms underlying these phenomena remain poorly understood. Through

controlled brain-wide, time-course, and cell type-specific transcriptomic analyses – paired with

robust behavioral outputs, we identified gene networks, reproductive events, and neuromodulatory

pathways that dynamically shape regional sensitivity across pregnancy and postpartum

experiences, thereby promoting plasticity long after these stages have ended. In particular, our

study identified the dHF as a key site of sustained plasticity, consistent with its established roles

in spatial cognition, novelty detection, and sensory integration, which may bestow parous dams

with heightened sensitivity to salient environmental cues relevant for resource foraging, nest

navigation, and offspring survival[55–58]. While not traditionally considered a maternal behavior-

regulating region, the dHF integrates these salient cues to shape pup retrieval responses. Consistent

with our findings, lesion studies corroborate hippocampal involvement in pup retrieval

behavior[59,60]. Moreover, hippocampal activity modulates downstream circuits via the polysynaptic

VTA-hippocampal loop, which projects to the NAc and ventral pallidum - key regulators of pup

retrieval[58,61]. Notably, recent human studies show that maternal early life stress alters hippocampal

responses to infant cues[62,63], supporting chronic stress as a common interferer in the normal

trajectory of maternal dHF neuroadaptations. Building on this, our maternal-pup separation stress

model revealed that dopamine dynamics are essential for maintaining long-term neural and

behavioral adaptations in the maternal dHF. Indeed, in the current study we established the

necessity and sufficiency of maintaining appropriate dopamine tone for parity-related dHF

plasticity, demonstrating that chronic dopamine elevation through maternal stress, and

chemogenetic suppression within virgin dHF, bidirectionally modulate parity-related changes at

transcriptional, epigenetic, behavioral, and cellular levels. Moreover, we establish conserved

transcriptional and epigenetic changes in the human dSub, a subregion of the dHF. Such findings

implicate dopamine as a key driver of long-term maternal brain remodeling, expanding upon the

prevailing view that maternal dopamine function is solely driven by transient surges during

maternal behaviors, instead revealing a concurrent downregulation of dopamine tone in critical

regions, such as the dHF, to modulate persistent behavioral and cellular plasticity.

While our study focused largely on dopamine, it is notable that our chemogenetic manipulations

recapitulated key transcriptional and behavioral outcomes of parity, albeit not to the same extent.

This underscores dopamine as a crucial but not exclusive driver of parity-induced adaptations.

Indeed, our data also implicate hormonal contributions, including estrogen, progesterone, and

oxytocin signaling, in shaping transcriptional programming. Consistent with this, previous studies

have linked parity to estradiol-driven neuronal alterations[12], while others have demonstrated that

blocking oxytocin signaling disrupts parity-induced spatial learning enhancements[27]. These

findings suggest that parity programming arises from integration of multiple neuromodulatory

pathways to induce long-term effects. However, given that estrogen signaling during postpartum

regulates oxytocin release, which in turn modulates VTA signaling, we propose that dopamine

adaptations serve as a key downstream mechanism within a broader network driving sustained

maternal neuroplasticity[64]. Together, this work demonstrates that transient neuromodulatory

processes during pregnancy and postpartum drive lasting maternal neuroplasticity. Importantly,

this fundamental shift in brain state may interact with future experience-dependent plasticity. As

parity is implicated in both risk and resilience to brain disorders[65], future research should account

for parity status as a key variable shaping differential outcomes, particularly in its interactions with

other risk factors. In particular, our findings highlight an interplay between parity and stress, a key

risk factor for brain disorder vulnerability, in shaping maternal brain outcomes. Thus, this study

provides novel insights into the gene networks, dynamics, and neuromodulatory pathways that

drive long-lasting parity-induced adaptations, while underscoring the importance of stress

mitigation during pregnancy and postpartum.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We would like to thank members of the Maze lab for their helpful discussion on this study, and

members of the Nestler, Russo, and Kenny labs at the Icahn School of Medicine at Mount Sinai

for providing materials and/or access to behavioral equipment. We thank Dr. Min Chen, Winnie

Chen, Emma Andraka, and Rasika Iyer for experimental assistance. This work was partially

supported by grants from the National Institutes of Health: R01 MH116900 (I.M.), F32 MH126534

(J.C.C.), F31 NS132558 (A.M.C.), F99 NS139541 (A.M.C.), as well as funds from the Brain and

Behavior Research Foundation (J.C.C.), and the Howard Hughes Medical Institute (I.M.). All

schematics were created with Biorender.com.

DECLARATION OF INTEREST

567
568 The authors declare no competing interests.

569
570
571 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

572
J.C.C. and I.M. conceived of the study, designed the experiments, and interpreted the data. J.C.C.,

G.D.S., A.M.C., and S.D. performed behavioral experiments. J.C.C., G.D.S., A.M.C., and S.D.

performed surgeries. J.C.C., G.D.S., and C.Z. performed estrous cycle analyses. J.C.C., G.D.S.,

and S.D. conducted immunofluorescence and RNAscope analyses. J.C.C., G.D.S., and B.H.W.

performed molecular experiments. J.C.C. and E.A.B. performed single-cell sequencing

experiments. J.C.C., G.D.S., E.W. and B.H.W. performed bioinformatic analyses. N.M. and G.T.

provided human tissues. J.C.C. and I.M. wrote the manuscript.

580
581
582   **COMPETING INTERESTS**
583
584   The authors declare no competing interests.

585
586
Figure 1. Pregnancy and postpartum states promote lasting transcriptional and behavioral adaptations in the maternal brain. a) Experimental timeline comparing primiparous (PP) *vs.* age-matched nulliparous (NP) female mice 1-month after offspring weaning (day postpartum, 49 dpp), and behavioral outcomes at 140 dpp. **b)** Differentially expressed genes (DEGs) per brain region. Bubble size represents total number of NP *vs.* PP DEGs (adj. p < 0.05). **c)** Cell-type deconvolution of bulk RNA-seq data (NP *vs.* PP normalized surrogate proportion variables, Student's t-test with multiple comparisons correction; *FDR < 0.05, **FDR < 0.01, ***FDR < 0.001, ****FDR < 0.0001). **d)** Downregulation of neuron proportion significantly correlated with number of DEGs per brain region (R^2 = 0.4198, p = 0.0311). **e)** Overlap of DEGs across brain regions (p < 0.05; gray indicates nonsignificant overlap). **f)** Select predicted upstream regulators of overlapping DEGs across regions with high (dHF, NAc, mPOA, LC, vHF) *vs.* low (DRN, PVN, BLA, VTA, OB, mPFC) sensitivity to parity. **g)** Trait heatmap correlating gene co-expression modules (arbitrary color names, identified by weighted gene correlation network analysis) with group x brain region classification (*p < 0.05, #p < 0.1). **h)** Circos plot for gene co-expression modules, with the size and arbitrary color name of each module indicated by the arc thickness along the perimeter. Enrichment for DEGs per brain region for each module is indicated by the inner rings, with color indicating significance of overlap. **i)** Select GO Biological Processes and KEGG Pathways significantly enriched from gene co-expression modules (FDR < 0.05). **j)** PP

dams retrieved both pups significantly faster compared to NP females at 140 dpp (two-way rmANOVA, main effect of group (F(1,11) = 14.47, p = 0.0029), main effect of pup number (F(1,11) = 11.36, p = 0.0062)), with significantly reduced latency for retrieval of pup 1 (Holm-Šídák's multiple comparisons test, t(22) = 2.301, *adj. p = 0.0312) and pup 2 (Holm-Šídák's multiple comparisons test, t(22) = 4.098, ***adj. p = 0.0009). N = 6-7 animals/group. **k)** PP dams exhibited increased freezing behavior during the acquisition phase of contextual fear conditioning (two-way rmANOVA, main effect of group (F(2,21) = 4.259, p = 0.028), main effect of preshock (F(2.827, 59.36) = 26.59, p < 0.0001), interaction (F(8,84) = 5.091, p < 0.0001)), compared to no shock controls (Dunnett's multiple comparisons test, *p ≤ 0.05, **p < 0.01). **l)** During the context recall test, PP dams froze significantly more compared to NP (one-way ANOVA, F(2,22) = 18.72, p < 0.0001; Tukey's multiple comparisons test, t(22) = 3.640, *p = 0.044), with both groups demonstrating contextual learning compared to no shock controls (PP vs. NS, t(22) = 8.541, ****p < 0.0001; NP vs. NS, t(22) = 5.538, **p = 0.0021). N = 7-10 animals/group. Error bars represent mean ± SEM.

620
621
Figure 2. Parity adaptations in the dHF transcriptome integrate pregnancy and postpartum
experiences. a) Experimental design to examine the contribution of discrete female reproductive
events. **b)** Heatmap of differential expression profiles of top 500 genes, by ascending p-values,
between NP *vs.* PP (N=3-7/group). **c)** Overlap of DEGs (*vs.* NP, adj. p < 0.05) for each gene co-
expression module, with color representing extent of significance (*p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p <
0.001, ****p < 0.0001). High parity sensitivity modules are indicated in bold. **d)** Threshold-free
comparison of indicated comparisons by rank-rank hypergeometric overlap. Pixels represent the
overlap of differential expression profiles indicated, with color representing extent of significance.
The lower left and upper right quadrants represent concordant gene regulation. **e)** Shared changes
in biological processes (identified through GO term analysis) observed following individual
reproductive exposures with PP, along with processes exclusive to the combined experiences in
PP (FDR < 0.05). **f)** Experimental design to examine the trajectory of PP dHF gene expression
changes across pregnancy and postpartum periods (dpc: days post-conception; dpp: days
postpartum). **g)** Enrichment of DEGs (*vs.* NP, adj. p < 0.05) with parity-sensitive gene co-
expression modules across reproductive time points, examining extent of significant overlap in
brain regions exhibiting high (left, dHF), moderate (middle, vHF), and low (right, mPFC)
transcriptional sensitivity to parity status (*p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001, ****p < 0.0001).
N=6/group. **h)** Impulse time course analysis of dHF gene expression identified patterns of transient
vs. persistent up- and downregulation across pregnancy and postpartum (FDR < 0.05). **i-l)** Select
GO terms and KEGG pathways significantly enriched for dHF genes exhibiting patterns of **(i)**

persistent downregulation, **(j)** persistent upregulation, **(k)** transient downregulation, and **(l)**
transient upregulation across reproductive stages (FDR < 0.05).
644

645
646
Figure 3. Postpartum stress disrupts long-term maternal dHF adaptations. a) Postpartum
stress paradigm, wherein dams were provided with limited nesting and subjected to pup separation
3 hours daily between 10-20 dpp, followed by behavioral and transcriptomic assessments at 49
dpp. **b)** Principal components analysis of dHF transcriptomes, and **c)** heatmap of all significant
DEGs (adj. p < 0.05) with hierarchical clustering. **d)** Venn Diagrams showing ~20% DEGs altered
in Control PP (*vs.* NP) are significantly disrupted by postpartum stress (adj. p < 0.05). **e)** Parity-
dependent enrichment in select KEGG pathways are significantly reversed in Stress PP (FDR <
0.05). **f)** Control PP dams froze more during the acquisition phase of contextual fear conditioning
(two-way rmANOVA, main effect of group (F(2,31) = 4.662, p = 0.017), main effect of preshock
(F(3.024,93.75) = 129.8, p < 0.0001), interaction (F(8,124) = 2.406, p = 0.091)), compared to NP
and Stress PP (Tukey's multiple comparisons test, #p ≤ 0.1, *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01). **g)** During the
context recall test, NP froze significantly less than Control PP (one-way ANOVA, F(2,31) = 3.151,
p = 0.05; Tukey's multiple comparisons test, t(31) = 3.54, *p = 0.0456), but not Stress PP (ns, p >
0.05). N = 11-12 animals/group. **h)** Control PP, but not Stress PP, dams spent more time
investigating the moved object in the object location task compared to NP (one way ANOVA,

$F_{(2,30)} = 4.045$, p = 2.0278; Holm-Šídák's multiple comparisons test: NP vs. Control PP, $t_{(30)}$ =

2.764, *adj. p = 0.0288; Control PP vs. Stress PP, $t_{(30)}$ = 2.046, #adj. p < 0.1) N=10-12

animals/group. Error bars represent mean ± SEM.

666
667
Figure 4. Parity-driven dHF plasticity is suppressed by elevated dopamine signaling. a)
UMAP representation of cell clusters (109,334 total cells) from dHF tissues, colored by major cell
types (N = 6 NP, 4 Control PP, 5 Stress PP). **b, c)** Point range plots depicting significant changes
in proportions of major cell-type clusters between **(b)** NP vs. Control PP, and **(c)** Stress PP vs.
Control PP (FDR < 0.05 and |$\log_2$Differerence| > $\log_2(1.5)$). **d)** Number of DEGs observed for
each major cell-type following pseudobulk analysis (p < 0.05 and |$\log_2$(Fold Change)| > $\log_2(1.5)$).
e, f) GO term analyses (Biological Process) for DEGs identified in cell clusters with significant
proportional differences between **(e)** NP vs. Control PP, and **(f)** Stress vs. Control PP (FDR <

0.05). **g)** Subclustering of GABA.2 neuronal population revealed reductions in *Drd1* (top) and
Drd2 (bottom) expression in Control PP. **h)** Representative images of RNAScope for *Drd1* and
Drd2 mRNAs in dorsal CA1 (top) and dentate gyrus (DG, bottom). Scale bars, 50 μm. **i)**
Quantification of *Drd1* and *Drd2* mRNA puncta in CA1 and DG nuclei (two-way ANOVA, main
effect of group $(F(2,82142) = 65.81, p < 0.0001)$, main effect of gene $(F(1,82142) = 1771, p <$
$0.0001)$, interaction $(F(2,82142) = 39.99, p < 0.0001)$; Tukey's multiple comparisons test, **p <
0.01, ***$p < 0.001$, ****$p < 0.0001$). N = 5 animals/group. **j)** Experimental design of pup
separation test to examine changes in brain tissue dopamine levels. **k)** Pup separation significantly
increases dopamine levels from baseline in dHF and NAc tissues (two-way ANOVA, main effect
of time $(F(3,52) = 4.287, p = 0.0089)$, main effect of brain region $(F(1,52) = 225.7, p < 0.0001$;
interaction $(F3,52) = 1.086, p = 0.3717)$, with significant increases in dHF dopamine levels
(Dunnett's multiple comparisons test, *$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$). N = 5-9 animals/time point. **l)**
Chronic pup separations increases baseline dHF dopamine concentrations (two-way ANOVA,
interaction $(F(3,53) = 4.822, p = 0.0048$; group $(1, 53) = 1.876), p = 0.1708$, time $(3, 53) = 1.736$,
$p = 0.1706$; Tukey's multiple comparisons test, *$p < 0.05$, #$p = 0.06$). N = 5-12 animals/time point.
Error bars represent mean ± SEM.
692

Figure 5. Parity downregulates H3 dopaminylation enrichment in dHF in both human and mice. a) Heatmaps and **(b)** profiles for H3K4me3Q5dop CUT&RUN-seq enrichment for NP vs. Control PP DEGs at TSS. Plots represent merged data from N=4 animals/group. **c)** ChEA ontology analysis identified significantly enriched transcription factors (TFs; adjusted $p < 0.05$) associated with downregulated DEGs, including a greater prevalence of repressive chromatin readers compared to those predicted for upregulated DEGs. **d)** Representative genome browser tracks for differentially enriched H3K4me3Q5dop (*vs.* IgG) peaks. Each track represents merged signal for N=4 samples/group. **e)** Heatmap of differential expression profiles of top 500 genes, by ascending p-values, from bulk RNA-seq of human dorsal subiculum (dSub) brain tissue, between NP subjects experiencing 0 births (N=3) *vs.* parous subjects previously having 1-2 births (N=5). **f)** Threshold-free comparison of human dSub RNA-seq (0 *vs.* 1-2 births) and mouse dSub pseudobulk from snRNA-seq (NP *vs.* Control PP) by rank-rank hypergeometric overlap. Pixels represent the overlap of differential expression profiles indicated, with color representing extent of significance. The lower left and upper right quadrants represent concordant gene regulation. **g)** ChEA ontology analysis showing the top three significantly enriched TFs (blue font; adjusted p < 0.05) associated with downregulated and upregulated DEGs from human dSub RNA-seq data. Additional TFs conserved between human and mouse analyses are indicated by white stripes. The dotted line indicates the threshold of 1.3. **h)** Heatmaps and profiles for H3K4me3Q5dop CUT&RUN-seq enrichment for human dSub, comparing subjects with 0 *vs.* 1-2 births at differential loci ($p < 0.05$, log$_2$FoldChange $\geq$ |0.1|). Plots represent merged data from 3 NP and 5 parous subjects. **i)** Representative genome browser tracks for differentially enriched H3K4me3Q5dop (*vs.* IgG) peaks

716   from human dSub. Each track represents merged signal for N=3-5 samples/group. **j)** GO ontology
717   analysis of differential H3K4me3Q5dop loci identified top significantly enriched pathways (gray
718   bars; ranked by adjusted *p*) related to synaptic signaling, neurogenesis, and vasculature
719   development. Additional significant pathways linked to maternal behavior, fear response, and
720   dopamine transport are shown in purple.

Figure 6. Chronic dopamine suppression is sufficient to mimic persistent maternal dHF plasticity. **a)** Experimental design (left) and representative image (right) of AAV2.hSyn.DIO.mCherry targeting to VTA projection neurons following dHF injection of retrograde (rg) Cre under control of the tyrosine hydroxylase (TH) `. Scale bar, 100 μm. **b)** Representative images showing overlap of virally-induced mCherry with TH+ cells in VTA. Scale bar, 20 μm. **c)** Timeline of stereotaxic surgeries and s.c. deschloroclozapine (DCZ) injections from 10-20 dpp in NP and PP female mice, followed by experimental assessments starting at 49 dpp. **d)** Significant reduction in dHF dopamine levels following inhibition of VTA projection neurons (Student's t-test:$t(8) = 2.477$, *$p = 0.0383$). N=5/group. **e)** PP-mCherry, NP-hM4Di, and PP-hM4Di retrieved pups faster than NP-mCherry (two-way rmANOVA, main effect of group ($F(3,47) = 14.39$, $p < 0.0001$), main effect of pup number ($F(1, 47) = 18.96$, $p < 0.0001$; Sidak's multiple comparisons test, ****$p < 0.0001$, ***$p < 0.001$). N =11-15/group. Bar represents mean. **f)** PP-mCherry, NP-hM4Di, and PP-hM4Di freeze more compared to no shock controls at earlier phases of contextual fear acquisition, compared to NP-mCherry (two-way rmANOVA, main effect of group ($F(4,41) = 4.739$, $p = 0.0031$), main effect of preshock ($F(2.818,115.5) = 61.92$, $p < 0.0001$), interaction ($F(16,164) = 2.606$, $p = 0.0012$; Tukey's multiple comparisons test, *$p \leq 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$, ****$p < 0.0001$). N = 9-12/group. Error bars represent mean $\pm$ SEM. **g)** Representative images of RNAScope for *Drd1* and *Drd2* mRNAs in dorsal CA1 (top) and DG (bottom). Scale bars, 50 μm. **h)** Quantification of *Drd1* and *Drd2* mRNA puncta in CA1 and DG nuclei (two-way ANOVA, main effect of group ($F(2,33404) = 64.43$, $p < 0.0001$), main effect of gene ($F(1,33404) = 2770$, $p < 0.0001$), interaction ($F(2,33404) = 12.52$, $p = 0.0004$); Sidak's multiple comparisons test, **$p < 0.01$, ****$p < 0.0001$). N = 3 animals/group. **i)** Bulk dHF differential expression profiles of top 500 genes (by ascending p-values) between NP-mCherry and PP-mCherry. N=6/group. **j)** Threshold-free comparison by rank-rank hypergeometric overlap, showing concordant gene regulation (bottom left and upper right quadrants) between the comparisons indicated. **k)** Overlap of DEGs (NP-hM4Di vs. NP-mCherry, adj. $p < 0.05$) with gene co-expression modules (****$p < 0.0001$). High parity sensitivity modules are indicated in bold. **l)** Select GO terms and KEGG pathways significantly enriched for NP-mCherry vs. NP-hM4Di DEGs (FDR < 0.05). **m)** Heatmaps and profiles for H3K4me3Q5dop CUT&RUN-seq enrichment for NP-mCherry vs. NP-hM4Di at TSS for DEGs between NP vs. Control PP (top, blue line) and NP-mCherry vs. NP-hM4Di (bottom, red line). Plots represent merged data from N=4 animals/group. **n)** ChEA ontology analysis of downregulated DEGs identified significantly associated TFs (adjusted *p* < 0.05), paralleling patterns observed with parity in both human and mouse datasets.

757 **SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS**
758
759 Materials and Methods
760 Extended Data Figs. 1 to 7
761 Extended Data Tables 1 to 9
762

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Human subjects

Brain tissue used in this study was provided by the Douglas-Bell Canada Brain Bank (DBCBB; www.douglasbrainbank.ca; RRID:SCR_025991). Informed consent from next-of-kin was obtained for each individual included in this study. Psychological autopsies, considered the gold standard for obtaining information on deceased individuals[66,67], were conducted. Briefly, these consist of a series of proxy-based, structured interviews assessing psychopathology with next-of-kin and complemented by reviews of medical records, as previously described[66]. Groups were matched for depression diagnosis, and were otherwise neurotypical individuals who died suddenly without prolonged agonal periods and did not have evidence of axis I disorders. Groups were matched for postmortem interval (PMI), tissue pH, and RNA Integrity number. Frozen histological grade samples of gray and white matter were dissected from the subiculum by expert neuroanatomists and stored at –80 °C. Dissections were performed on 0.5 cm-thick coronal sections with the guidance of a human brain atlas[68] (see also http://www.thehumanbrain.info/brain/bn_brain_atlas/brain.html). Subiculum samples were obtained from sections equivalent to plate 43 of the atlas (level of lateral geniculate nucleus), by dissecting through the hippocampal fissure with a slight upward angle, up to the beginning of the CA1 region.

Animals

Wild-type C57BL6/J mice were purchased from Jackson Laboratories at 8-weeks old, and maintained on a 12-h/12-h light/dark cycle throughout the entirety of the experiments. Mice were provided with *ad libitum* access to water and food throughout the entirety of the experiments. All behavioral testing occurred during the animals' light cycle. Experimenters were blind to

788 experimental group, and the order of testing was counterbalanced during behavioral experiments.

789 All animal procedures were performed in accordance with NIH guidelines and with the approval

790 of the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of the Icahn School of Medicine at Mount

791 Sinai.

792
Breeding

Adult virgin female mice were pair bred in-house with age-matched males. Males were removed

after a maximum of 5 days, and pregnant females were singly-housed at least 2 days before

parturition. Pups were counted on the day of birth (0 dpp) and weaned at 21 dpp. Only dams with

litters between 4-10 pups were used for all experiments. On the day of weaning, dams were group-

housed into cages of 3-5 mice with animals of the same experimental condition. For timed

breedings, copulation plugs were checked every morning within 1-hour after lights on, where

confirmation of a plug was designated as E0.5, signaling the immediate removal of the female to

her own cage with a nestlet. Virgin NP females were age-matched for each experimental cohort.

Mating-experienced NP females were confirmed for the presence of a copulation plug. For

Pregnancy Only dams, pups were removed at 0 dpp within 3 hours after lights-on to minimize

maternal-offspring interactions. For comparison of PP dams to pup sensitized virgin females,

litters were culled to 4 pups to equate litter size with the number of pups used for each sensitized

female. In all other experiments, litters were not culled.

807
Postpartum stress paradigm

Stress PP females were subjected to limited nesting and maternal separation from 10-20 dpp, as

previously described[69–71]. On each day of separation, the entire litter was removed to a clean cage

with Sani-Chip bedding for 3-4 hours. Separations occurred during the light cycle, and the timing

varied each day to minimize predictability and acclimatization. EnviroDri nesting material was

depleted to 1/3 of control cages during the days of separation. Following pup weaning on 21 dpp,

the nesting material was restored to normal levels, and dams were group-housed into cages of 3-5

with animals of the same experimental condition.

816
Pup sensitization

Pup sensitization was conducted as previously described[22,72]. On the first day of pup sensitization,

virgin NP females were presented with four pups (postnatal day 5) from a cage consisting of a

lactating donor dam and her litter. Donor pups were exchanged for satiated pups from the same

litter every 8-12 hours for 21 days. Donor pups were weighed daily to ensure continual weight-

gain throughout the experiment, and only pups that exhibited consistent weight-gain were used.

Behavioral observations were conducted during the first four days of sensitization. Each dam was

observed for 30 minutes during the light phase for the following maternal behaviors:

licking/grooming, crouching, and nestbuilding. During these observation periods, females were

closely monitored to ensure that they did not display aggressive behavior toward the donor pups.

On the last day of sensitization, donor pups were weaned from the cage, and sensitized females

were group-housed into cages of 3-5 mice with animals of the same experimental condition.

829
Brain tissue collections

Animals were sacrificed by rapid decapitation. Whole brains were flash frozen with cold 2-

methylbutane and stored at −80°C until further processing. Flash-frozen brains were sectioned at

−20°C using a 1 mm mouse coronal brain matrix (Stoelting Co.). Tissues enriched for the brain

region of interest were micropunched using a hollow needle (Ted Pella) according to the Allen

Brain Atlas (see **Fig. S1A**).

Behavioral analyses

838 All animals (18-30 weeks, depending on the time from pup weaning) were handled for 2 minutes

839 for two consecutive days prior to initial behavioral testing. Animals were habituated to the testing

840 room for 1 hour prior to each behavioral assay. All testing occurred during the light phase.

841
Pup retrieval: All animals were individually housed for 24-hours prior to testing. Following

habituation, 2 pups from a donor litter with a lactating dam (aged 4-6 dpp) were placed in different

corners opposite to the nest in the home cage. Pup-directed interactions were recorded from above

for 15-minutes or until both pups were successfully retrieved into the nest. Retrieval latency was

calculated as [time pup was first placed into the nest by animal - time first pup was placed into the

cage by experimenter].

848
Contextual fear conditioning: On day 1, mice were habituated for 10 minutes to the testing

chamber, which consisted of a square plexiglass box with a metal grid inside a sound-attenuating

cabinet wiped with 70% ethanol (Med Associates, VT). On day 2, following a 3-minute baseline

measurement, mice were trained with five 2.0-second 0.7 mA foot shocks delivered with an

intertrial interval of 90-seconds. Testing for conditioned fear responses (freezing) for a total of 5-

minutes occurred 24-hours following training. Freezing was measured using ANY-maze software

connected to a camera positioned above the testing chamber. Freezing is expressed as a percentage

of the total test time or as a percentage of the 60-seconds prior to each shock during conditioning.

Animals with freezing levels exceeding 40% prior to the first shock were excluded to remove

potential confounding effects of heightened baseline responsivity that could interfere with

accurately assessing conditioned fear.

Open Field: Mice were placed in a 16x16 square arena under dim lighting for 5 minutes. A camera

positioned overhead recorded the total distance and time spent in the center *vs.* periphery using

Ethovision software.

Object location task: For training, animals were allowed to freely explore two identical objects

placed equidistant from adjacent corners of a 16x16 cm square arena for 5 or 10 minutes, before

being returned to the home cage. Following a 1-hour delay, the animals were returned to the arena

for testing, during which time one object was moved to the opposing corner. During the test, the

animals were allowed to freely explore the objects for 5-minutes. A camera positioned overhead

recorded time spent exploring each object using Ethovision software. The discrimination score

was calculated as [(time spent with moved object) – (time spent with unmoved object)/[(time spent

with moved object) + (time spent with unmoved object)].

Light-dark box: Anxiety-like behavior was tested in an apparatus containing two interconnected

20x20 cm compartments (Omnitech Electronics Inc.). One compartment was illuminated during

the session ("light" side), while the other was covered by an opaque black perspex lid ("dark"

side). The distance, time spent, and number of crossovers in each compartment were automatically

recorded by Fusion software during the 10-minute test.

Forced Swim Test: Mice were placed in a 4 liter glass beaker with 2 liters of room temperature

water for 8 minutes. Each session was recorded and scored by a blinded observer. The total number

of seconds that mice were immobile during the last 5 minutes of the test were recorded, as

previously described[73].

Observation of pup-directed behaviors in the home cage: Confirmation of maternal behavior in

pup sensitized females was conducted based on prior studies[74]. Animals were observed from the

first to fourth day of pup sensitization, based on published work that maternal sensitization in

C57BL6/J females occurs following 4-days of pup exposures[29,75]. Observations occurred in the

light period in the first 30-minutes after pups were placed in the cage. Each animal was scored

every 3-minutes, with the observed behavior recorded as one or more of the following categories:

nestbuilding, grooming, sniffing, crouching, nursing, eating, drinking, self-grooming, no-contact.

PP dams were scored for the first 4-days following birth (0-3 dpp) concurrently for comparison.

893
Estrous cycle testing

Vaginal samples were taken on each day of behavioral testing. 15 µL of sterile PBS was gently

pipetted into the vagina and mounted on a glass slide. Vaginal smears were stained with crystal

violet dye, washed twice with water, and cover slipped with glycerol. Three 20x images per sample

were acquired on a light microscope. Estrous stage was determined using the pretrained network

of EstrousNet[76], and confirmed afterwards by a trained experimenter based on cytology of

nucleated, cornified, or leukocytic cells.

901
Viral Transduction

Mice were anesthetized with ketamine (100mg/kg) and xylazine (10 mg/kg) i.p. and positioned in

a stereotaxic frame (Kopf instruments). Given the widespread changes in dopamine receptor

expression across dHpF subregions, we did not restrict our viral manipulations to a specific

subregion. 2 µl of retrograde AAV.rTH.PI.Cre.SV40 (titer $\geq 7\times10^{12}$ vg/mL, Addgene #107788-

AAVrg) was infused bilaterally into the dHpF at 0.2 uL/min using the following coordinates: 7°

angle; anterior-posterior (AP) -2.2 mm, medial-lateral (ML) ±2.0 mm, dorsal-ventral (DV) -2.0

mm. 1 µl of pAAV-hSyn-DIO-mCherry (titer ≥ 4×10^{12} vg/mL, Addgene #50459-AAV2) or

pAAV-hSyn-DIO-hM4D(Gi)-mCherry (titer ≥ 5×10^{12} vg/mL; Addgene #44362-AAV2) was

bilaterally infused into the VTA using the following coordinates: 7° angle; AP -3.3 mm, ML ±0.9

mm; DV -4.6 mm. Needles remained in place for 7 minutes following injection to minimize virus

diffusion. Viral validations were conducted at least 21 days post-surgery to allow for optimal viral

expression and recovery.

915
Chemogenetic manipulation

To directly manipulate dopamine signaling in dHpF, we selectively targeted the VTA-dHpF

projection during a window established as being critical for dopaminergic downregulation.

Following 7 days of recovery, surgerized female mice were randomly assigned to NP or PP groups.

PP females were pair bred with naïve male mice for a maximum of 5 days, and individually housed

prior to parturition. From 10-20 dpp, PP females were injected subcutaneously with

deschloroclozapine (DCZ, Tocris #7193) – to minimize off-target effects[77] - at 1ug/kg in 1%

DMSO or vehicle (saline). NP females were injected with DCZ concurrently. Following weaning

on 21 dpp, PP dams were group-housed with animals of the same experimental condition.

Behavioral testing occurred beginning at 28-days post-weaning (49 dpp), and brain tissues were

collected following contextual fear conditioning for further analyses.

927
RNAscope in situ hybridization and analysis

Fresh frozen brains were cut into 12-16 µm thick slices in the coronal plane with a cryostat (Leica

CM3050-S), mounted on charged Superfrost Plus microscope slides (Thermofisher #P36934), and

stored at -80°C until processing. Sections were post-fixed with 4% PFA for 1.5 hours at 4°C, and

permeabolized with hydrogen peroxide (10 minutes RT) and Protease III (30 minutes RT). The

RNAscope Multiplex Fluorescent Reagent Kit v2 (ACD Bio) was used according to

manufacturer's instructions to sequentially stain sections with the following probes: Drd1a (Mm-

Drd1a-C1, #461901) and Drd2 (Mm-Drd2-C3, #406501-C3). RNAscope probes were visualized

using TSA Vivid Fluorophores (Tocris) at 1:750 dilution. Sections were counterstained with DAPI

(ACD Bio) and mounted using ProLong Gold Antifade Mountant (Thermo). Confocal images (3

images per animal, 1024 × 1024 pixels) were acquired on a Zeiss LSM 780 upright microscope

using a 40X objective with Zen Black software, with 5x1 tiled images. Images were averaged

across 8 consecutive acquisitions at a bit depth of 16 bits, with 2 z-stacks acquired per image.

Subcellular quantification of individual puncta per 100 μm nucleus - identified by cellular

detection of DAPI staining - was performed for each maximum intensity projected image using

QuPath software (v.0.5.1)[78]. Regions of interest (CA1 and dentate gyrus) were annotated and

determined by superimposing images onto the Allen Brain Atlas.

945
Immunofluorescence and analysis

Mice were anesthetized with isoflurane and perfused with cold 1×PBS followed by 4% PFA.

Brains were post-fixed in 4% PFA overnight and then transferred to a 30% sucrose/PBS solution

for 2 days. Brains were sectioned at 40 μm thickness using a Leica CM3050-S cryostat, with serial

sections collected from the VTA. For each subject, 2–3 brain slices were blocked for 2 hours (0.1%

Triton X-100, 10% normal donkey serum), followed by overnight incubation at 4 °C with primary

antibodies: chicken anti-tyrosine hydroxylase (1:500, Aves Labs #TYH) and rabbit anti-Fos

(1:2000, Synaptic Systems #226-008). The next day, slices were incubated for 2 hours at RT with

fluorescent-conjugated secondary antibodies (donkey anti-chicken Alexa Fluor 488, Invitrogen

#A78948; donkey anti-goat Alexa Fluor 680, Invitrogen #A10043). Slices were counterstained

with DAPI (1:10000, Thermo Scientific #62248) and mounted with ProLong Gold Antifade

Mountant (Thermo Fisher #P36934). Confocal images (2-3 replicates per animal, 1024 x 1024

pixels) were acquired on a Zeiss LSM 780 upright microscope using a 40x objective with Zen

Black software. Images were averaged across 8 consecutive acquisitions at a bit depth of 16 bits.

Image analysis was conducted using FIJI software (NIH). The Fos and TH channels were

thresholded using the MaxEntropy method to define regions of interest. Following identification

of colocalized Fos+/TH+ signal, Fos intensity was measured and averaged from 4-6 images per

animal. Brightness and contast were adjusted for representative images.

964
Dopamine ELISA

Brain tissue dopamine levels were assessed in response to 3 hours of pup separation in the home

cage. Independent biological replicates were collected at each time point, with separate animals

used for each measurement. Brains were rapidly harvested (see Brain Tissue Collection, above) at

baseline (prior to pup removal, 0 min), during pup removal (30 and 180 min), and 30 min after

pups were returned to the home cage (210 min). For assessment of NP females, samples were

collected in the home cage 30-min following removal of a littermate. Equal weights of

micropunched brain tissues were homogenized in lysis buffer (0.01 N HCl, 1 mM EDTA, 4 mM

sodium metabisulfite). Tissue dopamine levels were assessed using the Dopamine (Research)

ELISA Kit (ALPCO Diagnostics) according to manufacturer's instruction.

975
976 **HPA axis assessment**

977   Plasma corticosterone levels were assessed in response to 3-hours of pup separation in the home

978   cage. Testing was initiated within 2-hours after lights on. Tail blood was collected prior to pup

979   removal (0 min), during pup removal (30 and 180 min), and 120 min after pups were returned to

980   the cage (300 min) from the same animals. Samples for control animals in the home cage, used to

981 account for the effects of handling-induced stress, were collected concurrently. Blood samples

982 were immediately mixed with 50 mM EDTA and centrifuged at 5000 rpm for 10 minutes. Plasma

983 was collected and stored at −80 °C until analysis. Corticosterone levels were quantified using a

984 Corticosterone ELISA kit (ENZO Life Sciences) according to manufacturer's instruction.

986 **Clonal *TGM2* Knockout in HeLa cells**

987 HeLa cells (ATCC, CCL-2) were cultured at 37 °C with 5% CO_2 in DMEM medium (high-glucose,

988 ThermoFisher 11965118) supplemented with 10% FBS (Sigma-Aldrich) and 500 U ml−1

989 penicillin and streptomycin. The CRISPR guide RNA targeting exon 5 of *TGM2* was purchase

990 from IDT, containing the sequence ACGCTGGGACAACAACTACG. 120 pmol of guide RNA

991 and 100 pmol of Alt-R™ S.p. Cas9 Nuclease V3 (IDT, 1081058) were premixed for 15 minutes

992 in 5 μL total (with PBS). 200k HeLa cells were washed in PBS, before resuspending in 20 μL of

993 nucleofector solution (SE Cell Line 4D-Nucleofector® X Kit S, Lonza V4XC-1032). The 5 μL

994 Cas9/sgRNA mix was added, as well as 1 μL of Alt-R Cas9 Electroporation Enhancer (IDT,

995 NC1395977), and all mixed gently. The entire mixture was transferred to a 16-well Nucleocuvette

996 strip (Lonza, PDH-2104) gently, and nucleofected using the Lonza 4D-Nucleofector® X Unit,

997 using the default settings for HeLa cells. Directly after nucleofection, 80 uL of pre-warmed culture

998 media was added to the cuvette. The entire mixture was immediately transferred to a 6 well plate

999 with 2 mL of prewarmed culture media, and incubated cultured at 37 °C with 5% CO_2 for 48 hours.

1000 Nucleofection efficiency was assessed by using a second positive control reaction with a pMax-

1001 GFP plasmid (Addgene, 177825). The pool of cells was diluted to a concentration of 1 cell per 200

1002 uL, and 100 uL aliquoted into each well of 10 96 well plates, and cultured at 37 °C with 5% CO_2.

1003 After 14 days, single-clones were identified using a light microscope. Single-clone containing

1004 wells were expanded and targeting assessed by extracting genomic DNA and performing PCR and

1005 PCR sequencing over the targeted site (Fwr: GGCTCCAGCCCCCACCATCTGCCGCAC, Rev:

1006 GCCACATAGCGCATTGAGAGTGTTGGT). PCR sequencing results were assessed using

1007 Synthego's ICE analysis. Clones which were identified as introducing premature stop codons were

1008 expanded further.

1009
Assessment of *TGM2* KO Cell Line

Western Blot for TG2: Briefly, HeLa cells were collected and lysed using high-salt buffer (20 mM

HEPES pH 7.9, 500 mM KCl, 10 mM MgCl2, and 1 % NP-40), followed by brief pulse-sonication.

100 ug of protein was run on a 4-12% Bis-Tris gel (Invitrogen, NW04122) for 45 minutes at 150V.

Protein was transferred to a 0.2 μm nitrocellulose membrane using a Trans-Blot Turbo Transfer

System (BioRad) following the manufacturers protocol. The membrane was blocked in 5% milk

in TBS for 1 hour, and primary antibody (anti-TG2, Abcam 2386, 1:500 in 1.5% milk in TBS)

overnight at 4° C. The blot was washed 3 x 15 minutes in TBS-T, and then incubated with

secondary antibody (Goat anti-Mouse IgG (H+L) Cross-Adsorbed Secondary Antibody, Alexa

Fluor™ 647, Invitrogen A-21235) at room temperature for 1 hour, followed by washing 3 x 15

minutes in TBS-T. The blot was imaged using a BioRad ChemiDoc MP, and then the blot was

stained with amido-black stain to assess total protein loading.

1022

Transamidation Activity Assay: 100 ug of HeLa extract was diluted in low-salt buffer (20 mM

HEPES pH 7.9, 150 mM KCl, 10 mM MgCl2), and 1X final transamidation assay buffer was

added (25 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8, 10 mM CaCl2, 10 mM DTT, 10 mM KCl). Biotin-cadaverine

(Millipore Sigma A5348) was added to a final concentration of 1 mM, and reactions incubated at

30° C for 2 hours. A western blot was run as described above, using a Streptavidin-Alexa Fluor™

488 Conjugate (ThermoFisher S32354) to measure incorporation of biotin-cadaverine.

1029

Statistics

Statistical analyses for behavioral and immunoassay data were conducted using Prism software

(GraphPad, v.10.4.1). Data distribution was assessed for normality. Data that met assumptions of

normality were analyzed using parametric tests, while non-normally distributed data were

analyzed using non-parametric alternatives. For experiments involving multiple conditions, one-

way or two-way ANOVAs were performed, followed by *post hoc* analyses when appropriate. For

time course analyses where multiple measurements were taken from the same animal, repeated

measures ANOVAs were performed. Two-tailed Student's t-tests were used for comparisons

between two conditions. Behavioral data derived from manual observations and pregnancy/litter

outcomes were analyzed using chi-square tests. Grubb's test (alpha = 0.05) was applied to detect

outliers where necessary. Statistical significance was defined as $p \leq 0.05$.

1041

Bulk RNA-seq and analysis

RNA isolation and library preparation: Total mRNA was extracted from frozen brain tissues after

homogenization in Trizol Reagent (Thermo Fisher) and cleaned using RNeasy Microcolumns

(Qiagen) following the manufacturer's instructions. For RNA-seq library preparation, 150 ng of

mRNA per sample was used with either the Illumina Stranded mRNA Prep Kit (Illumina,

#20040534) or the TruSeq RNA Library Prep Kit v2 (Illumina, #RS-122-2001), according to the

manufacturer's protocols. Library quality was assessed using a Qubit Fluorometer 2.0 (Thermo

Fisher) and a High Sensitivity D5000 TapeStation assay (Agilent) before sequencing on a NovaSeq

6000 or NovaSeq X system.

1051

Differential expression analysis: Raw fastq files, containing an average of 20–30 million reads per

sample, were processed for pseudoalignment and abundance quantification using Kallisto (v.

0.46.1) against the Ensembl Mus musculus reference (v. 79)[79]. To filter lowly-expressed genes,

only those with a total read count of at least 10 across all samples were retained. To account for

unwanted variation among samples within each sequencing experiment that could arise from

technical or biological factors unrelated to the conditions of interest (including litter size, estrous

stage, day of sample collection, etc.), RUVs (v1.32.0) was applied with a negative control gene set

derived from the total genes identified per sequencing experiment, after ensuring that unwanted

variation did not correlate with covariates of interest, as described previously[80,81]. Differential

expression analysis was performed using DESeq2 (v1.38.3)[82], with significant genes defined by

an adjusted p-value < 0.05. For brain-wide transcriptome comparisons in which samples were

processed across multiple sequencing runs and stemming from separate cohorts, pairwise

comparisons were performed independently for each brain region. For all other experiments, where

subjects came from the same cohort and were processed in a single sequencing run, all groups

were analyzed together to maintain consistent normalization within the experiment. Gene

expression time course analyses examining the periods before, during, and after pregnancy and

postpartum were performed on normalized count data using the ImpulseDE2 package (v0.99.10)[31]

for each brain region. Significant genes exhibiting transient regulation or monotonous changes in

expression were identified using case-only differential expression analysis, with a Q-value

threshold of 0.05.

1072
Weighted gene co-expression analysis: To identify brain-wide gene co-expression networks,

normalized count data for all brain regions were compiled and analyzed using the WGCNA

package (v1.73)[20]. Co-expression networks were constructed from the 7,500 most variable genes,

determined by ranking gene variance. A soft threshold power of 12 was identified with the

pickSoftThreshold function to ensure scale-free network properties. Modules were identified

based on dissimilarity of a signed topological overlap matrix (TOM), and named with an arbitrary

color. The "gray" module encompassed genes that did not segregate into any specific module, and

was therefore removed from further analyses. To assess the enrichment of differentially expressed

genes (DEGs) within each brain region per module, Fisher's exact tests were performed using the

fisher.test() function in R (v4.3.0). To analyze the correlation between gene modules and brain

regional sensitivity to parity, brain regions were categorized into two groups based on the top five

regions with significant DEG overlap. These regions were designated as "High Sensitivity"

regions, while all other regions were classified as "Low Sensitivity." Pearson correlation

coefficients were calculated to examine the relationship between each module and the trait

(regional sensitivity × parity status), with statistical significance determined by Student's t-tests (p

<0.05). Heatmaps were generated to visualize these module-trait correlations, and module-specific

gene lists were exported for pathway enrichment analysis.

1090
Pathway and predicted upstream regulator analyses: Functional annotation of DEGs was

conducted using ShinyGO (v0.81)[83], with all protein-coding genes in the mm10 genome used as

the background. Pathways with an FDR < 0.05 were considered significant. All significant

pathways and associated statistics are provided in the Supplementary Tables. For figures, relevant

pathways were selected from the top 10 or 1/3 of significant terms, ranked by FDR, to emphasize

processes consistent with hypotheses informed by published literature. For GO term selection,

Revigo[84] was used to reduce redundancy of overlapping GO terms when needed. Ingenuity

Pathway Analysis (IPA; Qiagen, Inc., v.01-23-01) was used to predict upstream regulators for

DEG lists[85]. For "High Sensitivity" and "Low Sensitivity" regions (see *WGCNA* section), DEGs

shared by at least two or three brain regions were extracted, irrespective of the direction of change.

The IPA software was used to identify upstream regulators associated with each DEG list, with

statistical significance defined as p < 0.05. To investigate the mechanisms underlying parity

programming of dHpF plasticity, significant upstream regulators were systematically prioritized

based on one or more of the following criteria: (1) multiple molecules involved in the same

signaling pathways (e.g., progesterone and its receptor, PGR); (2) structurally similar molecules

that engage analogous signaling cascades (e.g., levodopa and dopamine); (3) molecules known to

be influenced by reproductive exposures; (4) molecules demonstrated to play a role in hippocampal

plasticity; (5) molecules identified as significant in both "High Sensitivity" and "Low Sensitivity"

regulator lists; and (6) molecules with high statistical significance values. Following selection,

upstream regulators were categorized into general molecular classes (e.g., "Hormone,"

"Transcription Factor," "Lipid") and grouped for visualization. Data are presented as a bubble plot,

with marker shape representing number of brain regions sharing DEGs and marker size

corresponding to significance.

1114
Gene expression overlap analyses: Jaccard indices were calculated for overlapping gene lists using

the GeneOverlap package (v1.36.0)[86], with significance defined by $p < 0.05$. Fisher's exact tests

were calculated using the base *fisher.test()* function in R (v. 4.3.0) following construction of

contingency tables for each comparison. Transcriptome-wide, threshold-free gene expression

overlap was visualized using Rank-Rank Hypergeometric Overlap (RRHO) heatmaps generated

with the RRHO2 package (v1.0)[30]. Gene lists were ranked by signed p-values, calculated as the

log10-transformed nominal p-value multiplied by the sign of the fold change, without applying

differential expression thresholds.

1123
Cell-type deconvolution: Brain cell-type proportion was estimated from normalized expression

data using the BRETIGEA package (v.1.0.4)[18] with default markers. For comparisons between

groups, surrogate proportion variables were normalized using the Normalize function in Prism

(GraphPad, v. 10.4.1). Each sub column was normalized separately, with the smallest value set to

0% and the largest value set to 100%. To calculate $\log_2$(fold change) between groups, normalized

values per cell-type per group were averaged and expressed as the log2 ratio of the group means.

1130
Single nuclei RNA-seq

Nuclei isolation and library preparation: For each animal, 2 mm dHpF-enriched tissue

micropunches were collected bilaterally from consecutive 1 mm slices from -0.80 to -2.80 mm

relative to bregma for a total of 4 punches (Ted Pella). Samples were processed in batches of 4-6,

with each group represented within each batch. Nuclei were isolated using a modified version of

a sucrose density gradient isolation protocol[87]. Briefly, thawed tissues were placed in 1 mL of lysis

buffer (0.32 M sucrose, 5 mM $CaCl_2$, 3 mM magnesium acetate, 0.1 mM EDTA, 10 mM Tris-HCl

pH 8, 1 mM DTT, 0.1% Triton X-100) with 50 μL of 25 U/mL RNase inhibitor (Takara #2313B)

in a dounce homogenizer (Wheaton #357538). Homogenization was performed with 20 strokes

using a tight pestle. Another 1 mL of lysis buffer was added, followed by an additional 10 strokes.

The resulting 2 mL homogenate was transferred to a 15 mL Open-Top Thinwall Polypropylene

Tube (Beckman-Coulter #361707). The homogenizer and pestle were rinsed with 2 mL of lysis

buffer, and this wash was combined with the homogenate for a total of 4 mL. The homogenate

was carefully underlaid with 9 mL of sucrose solution (1.8 M sucrose, 3 mM magnesium acetate,

1 mM DTT, 10 mM Tris-HCl pH 8) and ultracentrifuged at 24,000 rpm for 1 hour at 4 °C using a

Sorvall™ WX+ centrifuge. After centrifugation, the supernatant and debris at the interface were

gently removed. The nuclear pellet was resuspended in 1 mL of resuspension buffer (0.02% bovine

serum albumin in DPBS with 25 μL of 25 U/mL RNase inhibitor) and incubated on ice for 10

minutes. The suspension was passed through a 35 μm nylon mesh filter (Corning #352235) into a

1.5 mL RNase/DNase-free microcentrifuge tube and centrifuged at 2600 x g for 10 minutes at 4

°C. Supernatants were discarded, and nuclei were resuspended in 200 µL of resuspension buffer.

A 10 µL aliquot of the nuclei suspension was stained with Trypan Blue to assess quality and

concentration using a Countess 3 Automated Cell Counter. Nuclei suspensions were loaded onto

a Chromium Single Cell 3′ chip (10X Genomics, v3) and processed according to the manufacturer's

protocol, targeting 10,000 nuclei. Single-nuclei libraries were generated using the 10X Chromium

Next GEM Single Cell 3′ v3.1 (Dual Index) protocol (CG000315 Rev A). Libraries were pooled,

loaded onto a single 10B 100 Cycle Flowcell, and sequenced using an Illumina NovaSeq 6000

system to generate 25-30,000 paired-end 2 × 100 bp reads.

1159
Data analysis: FastQ files were processed with the 10X Genomics Cell Ranger pipeline (v7.1.0)

to demultiplex reads, align them to the mouse genome (mm10-2020-A), remove PCR duplicates,

and generate gene expression matrices. Cell Ranger filtered outputs were analyzed using Seurat

v4.3.0[88], and mitochondrial RNA content per cell was calculated using the GRCm39 (mm10)

genome annotation and regressed out using SCTransform normalization protocol included in the

Seurat toolkit with 20 principal components (PCs) and a resolution of 0.1. To estimate ambient

RNA and correct for background contamination, the SoupX (v1.6.2) package[89] was used for each

sample using raw and filtered feature matrices from the Cell Ranger output. Heterotypic doublets

were identified and removed using DoubletFinder (v2)[90] to ensure the integrity of singlet datasets.

Filtered singlet datasets were then re-normalized and integrated using the same Seurat

SCTransform v2 workflow mentioned above. Cell clusters were annotated using a combination of

expert curation based on published marker genes[37,91–96], and label transfer from hippocampal

reference datasets, including the Allen Brain Map and Broad Institute resources[36,37]. Clusters with

contaminant cell populations expressing markers for choroid plexus (*Ttr*), ependymal (*Tmem212*),

and vascular leptomeningeal cells (*Vtn, Col1a2*) were removed from the analysis[96–99].

Additionally, as the sequential 2mm micropunches encompassed portions of cortical, thalamic and

vHpF regions, clusters characterized by enrichment of published non-dHpF neuronal markers

using Seurat's FindMarkers function (layer 5/6 cortical: *Rorb, Foxp2*[99]; ventral granule neurons:

Tox3[93]) were also removed from the analysis. Cell cluster proportion analyses were conducted

using the scProportionTest package[100], which employs a Monte Carlo permutation test to evaluate

whether observed differences result from random sampling. Proportional differences between

conditions were compared to a null distribution generated by resampling, and statistical

significance was determined by permutation-based p-values with confidence intervals estimated

via bootstrapping. Differential expression analysis was conducted using pseudobulk analysis,

where gene counts were summed across all cells within each sample for each cell type cluster using

the AggregateExpression() function. DESeq2 was then applied at the sample level to conduct

differential expression. To explore pathways underlying cluster-specific differences across

conditions, pathway analysis was conducted using ShinyGO on genes meeting the following

criteria: $\log2FC > 1.5$ and $p < 0.05$.

1189

CUT&RUN-seq

Cleavage Under Targets and Release Using Nuclease: The procedure was adapted from

established protocols[46,101]. For mouse brain tissue, two unpooled 1.5mm dHpF punches were used

for each biological replicate and split across three reactions (H3K4me3Q5ser, H3K4me3, IgG).

For human brain tissue, ~10mg of tissue dissected from individual frozen subiculum samples was

collected from each subject, and split across the indicated antibodies. Samples were dounce

homogenized in nuclear extract (NE) buffer (20mM HEPES-KOH pH 7.9, 10mM KCl, 0.5mM

spermidine, 0.1% Triton-X, 20% glycerol with protease inhibitors) and passed through a 21 gauge

needle 10x. Nuclei were pelleted at 1,100g for 5 min at 4 °C in a swinging-bucket rotor, passed

through a 40 μM strainer (pluriSelect USA), washed again in 500 μl NE buffer and counted.

BioMag Plus Concanavalin A beads (Polysciences) were prepared per reaction by washing three

times with binding buffer (20 mM HEPES-KOH pH 7.9, 10 mM KCl, 1 mM $CaCl_2$, 1 mM $MnCl_2$).

Beads (15 μl) were aliquoted into 1.7 ml DNA low-bind tubes (Eppendorf) containing 500 μl NE

buffer and 100,000 nuclei per reaction. Samples were rotated at room temperature for 10 min, then

bead-bound nuclei were washed three times with wash buffer (20 mM HEPES pH 7.5, 150 mM

NaCl, 0.1% Triton X-100, 0.1% Tween-20, 0.5 mM spermidine, 0.1% BSA, and protease

inhibitors), resuspended in 100 μl antibody buffer (wash buffer with 2 mM EDTA), and mixed.

2 μl antibodies were added to the corresponding tubes: H3K4me3 (Active Motif, 39159),

H3K4me3Q5dopaminyl (Millipore, ABE2590), or rabbit IgG (Invitrogen, 10500c). Samples were

incubated overnight at 4 °C on a rotating mixer angled upward at 20 degrees. The next day, nuclei

were washed twice with cold wash buffer, and incubated with 2.5 μl pAG-MNase (Epicypher, 15-

1016) for 1 h at 4 °C. After four washes with cold wash buffer and one with low-salt rinse buffer

(20 mM HEPES pH 7.5, 0.5 mM spermidine, 0.1% Tween-20, 0.1% Triton X-100), nuclei were

resuspended in calcium incubation buffer (3.5 mM HEPES pH 7.5, 10 mM $CaCl_2$, 0.1% Tween-

20, 0.1% Triton X-100) and placed into an ice-cold block at 4 °C. MNase digestion was stopped

by adding 100 μl of 2x Stop Buffer (340 mM NaCl, 20 mM EDTA, 5 mM EGTA, 0.1% Tween-

20, 0.1% Triton X-100, 25 μg/ml RNase A, and 0.05 ng/100 μl E. coli spike-in DNA), followed by

a 15 min incubation at 37 °C without shaking. Beads were then placed on a magnet and 200 μl of

supernatant was collected. DNA was purified using the Zymo ChIP DNA Clean & Concentrator

kit (D5205), eluted in 30 μl, and stored at −20 °C for library preparation. Libraries were generated

using the NEBNext Ultra II DNA library kit, quantified using a Qubit fluorometer with the HS

DNA kit, checked for size distribution on the Agilent TapeStation, pooled equimolarly, and

sequenced on an Illumina NovaSeq X.

1223

Data analysis: Raw fastq files were aligned to the hg19 or mm10 genome using bowtie2

(v2.5.0)[102]. Low-quality reads were filtered using Samtools (v.1.9) with a MAPQ cut-off score of

30[103]. Only unique, deduplicated reads were retained for further processing. Bigwig files were

produced using the deepTools package (v.3.5.1), using an ENCODE hg19 or mm10 v2 blacklist

file to discard regions with consistently non-specific signal, and scaled using *E. coli* spike-in

controls to normalize sequencing depth. To determine normalization factors based on *E. coli* reads,

each sample was aligned to the *E. coli* genome (MG1655), and the unique deduplicated reads were

compared across groups per antibody per experiment. The sample with the lowest number of *E.*

coli reads was determined ("minimum"), and all samples were scaled by dividing their

corresponding *E. coli* read count by this minimum number[104]. For each group, bigwig files were

merged and peak callling was conducted using MACS2 (v2.1.0) with the corresponding merged

IgG file as control, filtered for peaks with FDR < 0.05[105]. Peak annotation was conducted using

HOMER (v4.1.1)[106]. Heatmaps were made either using the DiffBind (v3.8.4) or deepTools (v3.5.5)

packages[53,107]. For deepTools, heatmaps were made by merging DEGs from RNA-seq data with

TSSs downloaded from the UCSC genome browser using the canonically annotated transcript for

each gene. Profiles were generated and statistically analyzed using the deepStats package[108] by

using the dsCompareCurves function to perform Wilcoxon Rank-sum tests per-bin. For DiffBind

analysis, heatmaps were made for peaks identified by DiffBind's differential peak algorithm,

where differential peaks were first filtered using a $\log_2$(fold change) threshold > 0.1 and defined

at $p < 0.05$, where $\log_2$(fold change) was calculated as log2(parity) − log2(NP), based on prior

empirical observations used to define thresholds for differential peaks[49]. ChEA analysis on

annotated loci was conducted using EnrichR with a significance threshold of adjusted $p < 0.05$[109].

1246
DATA AND MATERIALS AVAILABILITY

The genomics data generated in this study have been deposited in the National Center for

Biotechnology Information Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) database. We declare that the data

supporting findings for this study are available within the article and Supplementary Information.

Related data are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request. No restrictions

on data availability apply.

1253

1254

Extended Data 1: Brain-wide transcriptomic analysis of cell markers and gene expression networks. a) Brain regions selected for bulk transcriptional profiling: olfactory bulb (OB), medial prefrontal cortex (mPFC), nucleus accumbens (NAc), medial preoptic area (mPOA), paraventricular nucleus (PVN), dorsal hippocampal formation (dHF), basolateral amygdala (BLA), ventral hippocampus (vHF), ventral tegmental area (VTA), dorsal raphe nucleus (DRN), and locus coeruleus (LC). Yellow circles indicate area selected for tissue micropunching. **B-F)** Nonsignificant correlations between the fold change (NP *vs.* PP) in normalized surrogate proportion variables generated from cell-type deconvolution of bulk RNA-seq data for **B)** astrocytic, **c)** microglia, **d)** endothelial, **e)** mature oligodendrocyte, and **f)** oligodendrocyte precursor cell markers with the number of DEGs identified from each brain region. **g)** Scale independence plot for soft-threshold power selection for WGCNA analysis, illustrating the relationship between β and the scale-free topology fit index, identifying the optimal β value = 12. **h)** Mean connectivity plot illustrating the average network density for each evaluated soft-thresholding power. **i** Dendrogram of gene clustering based on topological overlap, highlighting the hierarchical clustering process used for module detection and merging of similar modules. **j)** Dendrogram of eigengene network adjacency depicting similarity of modules. **k, l)** Significantly enriched **k)** GO Biological Processes and **l)** KEGG pathways, sorted by FDR values, from module gene sets. Bars are color-coded to indicate modules. The total number of significant terms for each analysis is provided.

1274

1275
1276

Extended Data 2: Parity associated behavioral adaptations are not influenced by locomotion,
anxiety-/depressive-like behaviors, or estrous stage. a-d) In the open field test, there was no
change in total distance, time spent in the center, or latency to the center. While there was a
significant increase in time spent in corners for PP dams (Student's t-test, t(13) = 2.307, *p =
0.0382), this did not impact any other outcomes on the open field test. **e-g)** In the light-dark box,
there was no difference in time spent in lights *vs.* dark zones, latency to enter the light zone, or
transitions between zones. **h)** There was no difference in time spent immobile on the forced swim
test. **i-k)** Stratification of pup retrieval behaviors by estrous stage on the day of testing did not
reveal a significant effect of estrous stage. **l-n)** Similarly, stratification of contextual fear
conditioning outcomes did not identify a significant effect of estrous stage on acquisition or
context recall in NP or PP groups. Error bars represent mean ± SEM. N=6-11 animals/group.
1288

1289
1290
Extended Data 3: Postpartum experiences modulate the extent of parity-associated dHF
transcriptomic and behavioral adaptations. a) Pie charts showing significant shifts towards
pup-directed behaviors, representing maternal behavior initiation after four days of pup exposure
in Pup Sensitized virgin females ($\chi^2(7) = 33.52$, p = 2.11x10^{-5}). **b)** Principle components analysis
of NP *vs.* PP DEGs (adj p < 0.05) from dHF, showing the Pregnancy Only group clusters most
closely with PP. **c)** Heatmaps of all significant DEGs comparing NP *vs.* Mating only, **d)** NP *vs.*
Pregnancy only, **e)** NP *vs.* Pup sensitized dHF transcriptomes. **f)** Odds ratio analysis of DEG
overlap for all comparisons (*vs.* NP). Insert numbers indicate respective *p* values for each
association (N.S., *p* > 0.05). **g)** Pup separation increases maternal corticosterone levels over 3-
hours (RM two-way ANOVA, group: F(2,15) = 12.86, p = 0.0006, time: F(2.125, 31.87) = 2.759,

p = 0.0756, interaction: $F_{(6,45)}$ = 3.294, p = 0.009; Tukey's multiple comparisons test: Control
vs. Stress PP, **p < 0.01). N = 6 animals/group. **h)** No effect of postpartum stress on litter size. N
= 12/group. **i)** Postpartum stress did not alter maternal weights. **j)** All groups discriminated the
novel location following 10-minutes of training on the object location task (one way ANOVA,
$F_{(2,15)}$ = 0.06452, p = 0.9378) N=6 animals/group. **k)** Stratification of object location test scores
did not show a significant effect of estrous stage. **l)** There was no difference in the total distance
travelled in the open field test across groups. Error bars represent mean ± SEM.
1308

1309

1310

Extended Data 4: snRNA-seq quality control assessments, cell marker gene expression, and
postpartum dopamine modulation. Violin plots showing the **(a)** number of detected genes, **(b)**
UMI number, and **(c)** mitochondrial gene % by group following regression for mitochondrial gene
mapping. **(d-f)** Breakdown of these metrics by annotated clusters show <10% mitochondrial gene
across all cell-types, except for a minority of neural stem cells. Unsupervised clustering of snRNA-
seq data with cells colored for **(g)** neuronal, excitatory, and inhibitory markers; **(h)** hippocampal
subregional markers; and **(i)** non-neuronal markers including for glial and neural progenitor
populations. **j)** Unsupervised clustering of snRNA-seq data with cells colored for *Drd1* (left) and
Drd2 (right) expression. **k)** Quantification of *Drd1* mRNA puncta in CA1 nuclei (one-way
ANOVA, (F(2,19204) = 3.963, p = 0.019). **l)** Quantification of *Drd2* mRNA puncta in CA1 nuclei
(one-way ANOVA, (F(2,19204) = 23.16, p < 0.0001). **m)** Quantification of *Drd1* mRNA puncta
in dentate gyrus nuclei (one-way ANOVA, (F(2,21864) = 42.09, p < 0.0001). **n)** Quantification of
Drd2 mRNA puncta in dentate gyrus nuclei (one-way ANOVA, (2,21864) = 41.79, p < 0.0001).
Tukey's multiple comparisons test, *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001, ****p < 0.0001. **o)**
Chronic postpartum stress resulted in higher baseline levels of dopamine in the nucleus accumbens
(NAc; Student's t-test, t(7) = 2.568, *p = 0.0371). N= 4-5 animals/group. **p)** Dopamine response
is not induced in NP dHF 30-minutes following littermate separation (two-way ANOVA,
interaction of time x group (F(1,30) = 8.78, p = 0.0059, time (F(1,30) = 1.47, p = 0.2359, group,
(F(1,30) = 2.054, p = 0.1621); Tukey's multiple comparisons test, *p < 0.05). N = 6-11
animals/group. **q)** Dopamine levels increased during pup separation in the VTA (left y-axis), but
not in the locus coeruleus (right y-axis), resembling patterns of NAc and dHF dopamine dynamics
(two-way ANOVA, effect of brain region (F(1,46) = 32.32, p < 0.0001), time (F(3,46) = 2.311, p
= 0.0866), interaction (F(3,46) = 1.118, p = 0.1109); Dunnett's multiple comparisons test, *p <
0.05). N = 5-8 samples/group. Error bars represent mean ± SEM.

1335

1336
1337

Extended Data 5: H3K4me3Q5dop enrichment corresponds with gene expression. a,b)
Validation of TG2 knockout (KO) cell lines using **(a)** Western blot analysis to confirm the absence
of TG2 protein, and **(b)** a transamidation activity assay to show loss of biotin-cadaverine
incorporation in TG2 KO cells, indicating loss of enzymatic activity. **c)** TG2 KO results in a
selective >90% reduction of H3K4me3Q5dop enrichment (*vs.* H3K4me3 alone) at transcription
start sites (TSS) compared to WT controls. **d)** Heatmaps of H3K4me3Q5dop and IgG peak
enrichment at all enriched loci in NP dHF tissue. **e)** Distribution of H3K4me3Q5dop enrichment
occurs mainly at genic loci (83%), with **f)** overlap occurring between uniquely annotated promoter-
TSS and gene body (exon/intron) regions and **g)** ~63.4% of total signal occurring within 2kB of
the TSS. **h)** Boxplots displaying $\log_{10}$-transformed gene expression across quartiles of
H3K4me3Q5dop signal for NP (top), Control PP (middle), and Stress PP (bottom). Significant
differences were observed across bins (Kruskal–Wallis $p < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$) for each group between
each quartile. Boxes represent the interquartile range with the median indicated, and whiskers
show the rangs with outliers plotted as individual points. **i)** Scatter plots showing the correlation
between H3K4me3Q5dop CUT&RUN signal (maximum per gene) and mean gene expression
($\log_{10}$-transformed) for NP (top), Control PP (middle), and Stress PP (bottom). Significant positive
correlations were observed for each group (NP: Spearman's $\rho = 0.55$, $p < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$; Control PP:
Spearman's $\rho = 0.52$, $p < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$; Stress PP: Spearman's $\rho = 0.56$, $p < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$), indicating

that increased H3K4me3Q5dop enrichment corresponds with higher transcriptional output. **j)** Heatmaps of all differential peaks ($p < 0.05$; $\log_2$FoldChange $\geq |0.1|$) between NP/Stress PP vs., separated by directionality and centered on genomic regions to show the majority of altered peaks decrease in Control PP dHF. **k)** Odds ratio analysis of differential H3K4me3Q5dop peaks and differentially expressed genes show significant association between downregulated histone dopaminylation and gene expression changes. Insert numbers indicate respective p values for each association (N.S., $p > 0.05$). **l)** Statistical comparison of H3K4me3Q5dop profiles across groups at loci associated with DEGs. Each panel shows the $-\log_{10}$ Bonferroni-corrected p-values from bin-wise Wilcoxon rank-sum tests comparing CUT&RUN signal across ±3 kb surrounding TSSs of DEG-associated loci. Comparisons are shown for each pairwise group contrast. Gray bars indicate bins that did not reach statistical significance after multiple hypothesis correction. The orange line reflects the statistical significance of signal differences across the TSS window, with higher values indicating greater confidence in differential enrichment between groups.

1370
1371

Extended Data 6: H3K4me3Q5dop enrichment in human brain. a) Pathway analysis for DEGs of NP vs. parous human dSub tissues by directionality (padj < 0.05). **b)** Distribution of H3K4me3Q5dop enrichment occurs mainly at genic loci (75.3%), with **c)** overlap occurring between uniquely annotated promoter-TSS and gene body (exon/intron) regions, similar to in mouse dHF, and **d)** ~52.0% of total signal occurring within 2kB of the TSS. **e)** Boxplots displaying log$_{10}$-transformed gene expression across quartiles of H3K4me3Q5dop signal for NP (top) and parous subjects (bottom). Significant differences were observed across bins (Kruskal–Wallis $p < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$) for each group and between each quartile. Boxes represent the interquartile range with the median indicated, and whiskers show the rangs with outliers plotted as individual points. **f)** Scatter plots showing the correlation between H3K4me3Q5dop CUT&RUN signal (maximum per gene) and mean gene expression (log$_{10}$-transformed) for NP (top) and parous subjects (bottom). Significant positive correlations were observed for each group (NP: Spearman's $\rho = 0.41$, $p < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$; Parous: Spearman's $\rho = 0.40$, $p < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$), indicating that increased H3K4me3Q5dop enrichment corresponds with higher transcriptional output. **g)** Odds ratio analysis of differential H3K4me3Q5dop peaks and differentially expressed genes show significant association between changes in H3K4me3Q5dop signal and gene expression changes. Insert numbers indicate respective p values for each association (N.S., p > 0.05).

1389

1390

Extended Data 7: Inhibition of VTA-dHF projection mimics sustained changes in dopamine receptor dynamics. a) Representative images of c-Fos immunostaining in the VTA. Scale bars, 20 μm. **b)** Quantification of c-Fos immunoreactivity in VTA TH+ neurons (Student's t-test; t(4) = 3.299, *p = 0.03). N = 3 animals/group. **c)** Chronic DCZ injections did not alter weights at 21 dpp (two-way ANOVA; main effect of group (F(1,48) = 128, p < 0.0001), virus (F(1,48) = 0.0862, p = 0.7702); Tukey's multiple comparison's test, ****p < 0.0001). **d)** Parity induced significantly greater freezing on the context recall text in mCherry dams, with trending effects between hM4Di groups (two-way ANOVA (effect of group, (F(1,38) = 7.177, p = 0.0109, virus (F(1,38) = 1.631, p = 0.2093, Fisher's LSD, *p £ 0.05). N = 9-12/group. **e)** Quantification of *Drd1* mRNA puncta in CA1 nuclei (Student's t-test, (t(4854) = 2.249, *p = 0.00246). **f)** Quantification of *Drd2* mRNA puncta in CA1 nuclei (Student's t-test, (t(4854) = 1.502, p = 0.1132). **g)** Quantification of *Drd1* mRNA puncta in dentate gyrus nuclei (Student's t-test, (t(11946) = 3.900, ****p < 0.0001). **h)** Quantification of *Drd2* mRNA puncta in dentate gyrus nuclei (Student's t-test, (t(11946) = 6.034, ****p < 0.0001). **i, j)** Statistical comparison of H3K4me3Q5dop profiles between NP-mCherry

and NP-hM4Di at loci associated with **(i)** NP *vs.* Control PP DEGs and **(j)** NP-mCherry *vs.* NP-hM4Di DEGs. Each panel shows the $-\log_{10}$ Bonferroni-corrected *p*-values from bin-wise Wilcoxon rank-sum tests comparing CUT&RUN signal across ± 3 kb surrounding TSSs of DEG-associated loci. Comparisons are shown for each pairwise group contrast. Gray bars indicate bins that did not reach statistical significance after multiple hypothesis correction. The orange line reflects the statistical significance of signal differences across the TSS window, with higher values indicating greater confidence in differential enrichment between groups. **k)** Schematic of working model.

REFERENCES

1. Hoekzema, E. *et al.* Pregnancy leads to long-lasting changes in human brain structure. *Nature neuroscience* **20**, 287–296 (2017).
2. Martínez-García, M. *et al.* Do Pregnancy-Induced Brain Changes Reverse? The Brain of a Mother Six Years after Parturition. *Brain sciences* **11**, 168 (2021).
3. Voldsbekk, I. *et al.* A history of previous childbirths is linked to women's white matter brain age in midlife and older age. *Human Brain Mapping* **42**, 4372–4386 (2021).
4. Pritschet, L. *et al.* Neuroanatomical changes observed over the course of a human pregnancy. *Nat Neurosci* 1–8 (2024) doi:10.1038/s41593-024-01741-0.
5. de Lange, A.-M. G. *et al.* Population-based neuroimaging reveals traces of childbirth in the maternal brain. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* **116**, 22341 LP – 22346 (2019).
6. de Lange, A.-M. G. *et al.* The maternal brain: Region-specific patterns of brain aging are traceable decades after childbirth. *Human Brain Mapping* **41**, 4718–4729 (2020).
7. Pawluski, J. L. & Galea, L. A. M. Hippocampal morphology is differentially affected by reproductive experience in the mother. *Journal of neurobiology* **66**, 71–81 (2006).
8. Duarte-Guterman, P. *et al.* Cellular and molecular signatures of motherhood in the adult and ageing rat brain. *Open Biology* **13**, 230217 (2023).
9. Workman, J. L. *et al.* Parity modifies the effects of fluoxetine and corticosterone on behavior, stress reactivity, and hippocampal neurogenesis. *Neuropharmacology* **105**, 443–453 (2016).
10. Macbeth, A. H., Scharfman, H. E., Maclusky, N. J., Gautreaux, C. & Luine, V. N. Effects of multiparity on recognition memory, monoaminergic neurotransmitters, and brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF). *Hormones and behavior* **54**, 7–17 (2008).
11. Kinsley, C. H. & Lambert, K. G. Reproduction-Induced Neuroplasticity: Natural Behavioural and Neuronal Alterations Associated with the Production and Care of Offspring. *Journal of Neuroendocrinology* **20**, 515–525 (2008).
12. Barha, C. K., Lieblich, S. E., Chow, C. & Galea, L. A. M. Multiparity-induced enhancement of hippocampal neurogenesis and spatial memory depends on ovarian hormone status in middle age. *Neurobiology of Aging* **36**, 2391–2405 (2015).
13. Meurisse, M. *et al.* Estradiol receptor-α expression in hypothalamic and limbic regions of ewes is influenced by physiological state and maternal experience. *Hormones and Behavior* **48**, 34–43 (2005).
14. Love, G. *et al.* Maternal Experience Produces Long-Lasting Behavioral Modifications in the Rat. *Behavioral Neuroscience* **119**, 1084–1096 (2005).
15. Ammari, R. *et al.* Hormone-mediated neural remodeling orchestrates parenting onset during pregnancy. *Science* **382**, 76–81 (2023).
16. Leuner, B., Glasper, E. R. & Gould, E. Parenting and plasticity. *Trends in Neurosciences* **33**, 465–473 (2010).
17. Bridges, R. S. Neuroendocrine Regulation of Maternal Behavior. *Front Neuroendocrinol* **0**, 178–196 (2015).
18. McKenzie, A. T. *et al.* Brain Cell Type Specific Gene Expression and Co-expression Network Architectures. *Scientific Reports* **8**, 8868 (2018).
19. Paternina-Die, M. *et al.* Women's neuroplasticity during gestation, childbirth and postpartum. *Nat Neurosci* **27**, 319–327 (2024).

20. Langfelder, P. & Horvath, S. WGCNA: an R package for weighted correlation network
analysis. *BMC Bioinformatics* **9**, 559 (2008).
21. Bridges, R. S. Long-term effects of pregnancy and parturition upon maternal
responsiveness in the rat. *Physiology & Behavior* **14**, 245–249 (1975).
22. Pawluski, J. L., Vanderbyl, B. L., Ragan, K. & Galea, L. A. M. First reproductive
experience persistently affects spatial reference and working memory in the mother and
these effects are not due to pregnancy or 'mothering' alone. *Behavioural Brain Research*
175, 157–165 (2006).
23. Pawluski, J. L., Walker, S. K. & Galea, L. A. M. Reproductive experience differentially
affects spatial reference and working memory performance in the mother. *Horm Behav* **49**,
143–149 (2006).
24. Lemaire, V. *et al.* Motherhood-induced memory improvement persists across lifespan in
rats but is abolished by a gestational stress. *The European journal of neuroscience* **23**,
3368–3374 (2006).
25. Gatewood, J. D. *et al.* Motherhood mitigates aging-related decrements in learning and
memory and positively affects brain aging in the rat. *Brain research bulletin* **66**, 91–98
(2005).
26. Macbeth, A. H., Gautreaux, C. & Luine, V. N. Pregnant rats show enhanced spatial
memory, decreased anxiety, and altered levels of monoaminergic neurotransmitters. *Brain*
research **1241**, 136–147 (2008).
27. Tomizawa, K. *et al.* Oxytocin improves long-lasting spatial memory during motherhood
through MAP kinase cascade. *Nature Neuroscience* **6**, 384–390 (2003).
28. Paris, J. J. & Frye, C. A. Estrous cycle, pregnancy, and parity enhance performance of rats
in object recognition or object placement tasks. *Reproduction* **136**, 105–115 (2008).
29. Stolzenberg, D. S. & Rissman, E. F. Oestrogen-independent, experience-induced maternal
behaviour in female mice. *J Neuroendocrinol* **23**, 345–354 (2011).
30. Cahill, K. M., Huo, Z., Tseng, G. C., Logan, R. W. & Seney, M. L. Improved identification
of concordant and discordant gene expression signatures using an updated rank-rank
hypergeometric overlap approach. *Scientific Reports* **8**, 9588 (2018).
31. Fischer, D. S., Theis, F. J. & Yosef, N. Impulse model-based differential expression
analysis of time course sequencing data. *Nucleic Acids Research* **46**, e119 (2018).
32. McArdle, H. J. The metabolism of copper during pregnancy —a review. *Food Chemistry*
54, 79–84 (1995).
33. Leuner, B. & Sabihi, S. The birth of new neurons in the maternal brain: Hormonal
regulation and functional implications. *Frontiers in neuroendocrinology* **41**, 99–113
(2016).
34. Lynch, M. A. Long-Term Potentiation and Memory. *Physiological Reviews* **84**, 87–136
(2004).
35. Le, A. A. *et al.* Prepubescent female rodents have enhanced hippocampal LTP and learning
relative to males, reversing in adulthood as inhibition increases. *Nat Neurosci* **25**, 180–190
(2022).
36. Habib, N. *et al.* Div-Seq: Single-nucleus RNA-Seq reveals dynamics of rare adult newborn
neurons. *Science* **353**, 925–928 (2016).
37. Yao, Z. *et al.* A taxonomy of transcriptomic cell types across the isocortex and hippocampal
formation. *Cell* **184**, 3222-3241.e26 (2021).

38. Gangarossa, G. *et al.* Characterization of dopamine D1 and D2 receptor-expressing neurons
in the mouse hippocampus. *Hippocampus* **22**, 2199–2207 (2012).
39. Puighermanal, E. *et al.* Anatomical and molecular characterization of dopamine D1
receptor-expressing neurons of the mouse CA1 dorsal hippocampus. *Brain Struct Funct*
222, 1897–1911 (2017).
40. Godino, A. *et al.* Dopaminoceptive D1 and D2 neurons in ventral hippocampus arbitrate
approach and avoidance in anxiety. 2023.07.25.550554 Preprint at
https://doi.org/10.1101/2023.07.25.550554 (2023).
41. Hansen, S., Bergvall, Å. H. & Nyiredi, S. Interaction with pups enhances dopamine release
in the ventral striatum of maternal rats: A microdialysis study. *Pharmacology Biochemistry*
and Behavior **45**, 673–676 (1993).
42. Champagne, F. A. *et al.* Variations in nucleus accumbens dopamine associated with
individual differences in maternal behavior in the rat. *J Neurosci* **24**, 4113–4123 (2004).
43. Ford, C. P. The Role of D2-Autoreceptors in Regulating Dopamine Neuron Activity and
Transmission. *Neuroscience* **282**, 13–22 (2014).
44. Farrelly, L. A. *et al.* Histone serotonylation is a permissive modification that enhances
TFIID binding to H3K4me3. *Nature* **567**, 535–539 (2019).
45. Lepack, A. E. *et al.* Dopaminylation of histone H3 in ventral tegmental area regulates
cocaine seeking. *Science* **368**, 197–201 (2020).
46. Zheng, Q. *et al.* Bidirectional histone monoaminylation dynamics regulate neural
rhythmicity. *Nature* **637**, 974–982 (2025).
47. Chan, J. C. & Maze, I. Nothing Is Yet Set in (Hi)stone: Novel Post-Translational
Modifications Regulating Chromatin Function. *Trends in Biochemical Sciences* **45**, 829–
844 (2020).
48. Al-Kachak, A. *et al.* Histone serotonylation in dorsal raphe nucleus contributes to stress-
and antidepressant-mediated gene expression and behavior. *Nat Commun* **15**, 5042 (2024).
49. Chan, J. C. *et al.* Serotonin Transporter-dependent Histone Serotonylation in Placenta
Contributes to the Neurodevelopmental Transcriptome. *Journal of Molecular Biology* **436**,
168454 (2024).
50. Sardar, D. *et al.* Induction of astrocytic Slc22a3 regulates sensory processing through
histone serotonylation. *Science* **380**, (2023).
51. Stewart, A. F., Lepack, A. E., Fulton, S. L., Safovich, P. & Maze, I. Histone H3
dopaminylation in nucleus accumbens, but not medial prefrontal cortex, contributes to
cocaine-seeking following prolonged abstinence. *Mol Cell Neurosci* **125**, 103824 (2023).
52. Fulton, S. L. *et al.* Histone H3 dopaminylation in ventral tegmental area underlies heroin-
induced transcriptional and behavioral plasticity in male rats. *Neuropsychopharmacology*
47, 1776–1783 (2022).
53. Stark, R. & Brown, G. DiffBind: Differential binding analysis of ChIP-Seq peak data.
54. Shahrokh, D. K., Zhang, T.-Y., Diorio, J., Gratton, A. & Meaney, M. J. Oxytocin-
Dopamine Interactions Mediate Variations in Maternal Behavior in the Rat. *Endocrinology*
151, 2276–2286 (2010).
55. Pawluski, J. L., Lambert, K. G. & Kinsley, C. H. Neuroplasticity in the maternal
hippocampus: Relation to cognition and effects of repeated stress. *Hormones and Behavior*
77, 86–97 (2016).
56. Kinsley, C. H. *et al.* Motherhood Induces and Maintains Behavioral and Neural Plasticity
across the Lifespan in the Rat. *Arch Sex Behav* **37**, 43–56 (2008).

57.   Jeffery, K. J. Integration of the sensory inputs to place cells: What, where, why, and how? *Hippocampus* **17**, 775–785 (2007).

58.   Lisman, J. E. & Grace, A. A. The Hippocampal-VTA Loop: Controlling the Entry of Information into Long-Term Memory. *Neuron* **46**, 703–713 (2005).

59.   Kimble, D. P., Rogers, L. & Hendrickson, C. W. Hippocampal lesions disrupt maternal, not sexual, behavior in the albino rat. *Journal of Comparative and Physiological Psychology* **63**, 401–407 (1967).

60.   Terlecki, L. J. & Sainsbury, R. S. Effects of fimbria lesions on maternal behavior in the rat. *Physiology & Behavior* **21**, 89–97 (1978).

61.   Numan, M. *et al.* The effects of D1 or D2 dopamine receptor antagonism in the medial preoptic area, ventral pallidum, or nucleus accumbens on the maternal retrieval response and other aspects of maternal behavior in rats. *Behav Neurosci* **119**, 1588–1604 (2005).

62.   Neukel, C. *et al.* The maternal brain in women with a history of early-life maltreatment: an imagination-based fMRI study of conflictual versus pleasant interactions with children. *J Psychiatry Neurosci* **43**, 273–282 (2018).

63.   Kim, P. *et al.* Perceived quality of maternal care in childhood and structure and function of mothers' brain. *Dev Sci* **13**, 662–673 (2010).

64.   Champagne, F. A. & Curley, J. P. Plasticity of the Maternal Brain Across the Lifespan: Plasticity of the Maternal Brain Across the Lifespan. *New Directions for Child and Adolescent Development* **2016**, 9–21 (2016).

65.   Deems, N. P. & Leuner, B. Pregnancy, postpartum and parity: Resilience and vulnerability in brain health and disease. *Frontiers in Neuroendocrinology* **57**, 100820 (2020).

66.   Dumais, A. *et al.* Risk factors for suicide completion in major depression: a case-control study of impulsive and aggressive behaviors in men. *Am J Psychiatry* **162**, 2116–2124 (2005).

67.   Dumais, A. *et al.* Is violent method of suicide a behavioral marker of lifetime aggression? *Am J Psychiatry* **162**, 1375–1378 (2005).

68.   Mai, J. *Atlas of the Human Brain. 4th Ed.* (2016).

69.   Rice, C. J., Sandman, C. A., Lenjavi, M. R. & Baram, T. Z. A novel mouse model for acute and long-lasting consequences of early life stress. *Endocrinology* **149**, 4892–4900 (2008).

70.   Gilles, E. E., Schultz, L. & Baram, T. Z. Abnormal corticosterone regulation in an immature rat model of continuous chronic stress. *Pediatr Neurol* **15**, 114–119 (1996).

71.   Peña, C. J. *et al.* Early life stress confers lifelong stress susceptibility in mice via ventral tegmental area OTX2. *Science* **356**, 1185–1188 (2017).

72.   Fleming, A. S. & Rosenblatt, J. S. Maternal behavior in the virgin and lactating rat. *Journal of Comparative and Physiological Psychology* **86**, 957–972 (1974).

73.   Krishnan, V. *et al.* Molecular Adaptations Underlying Susceptibility and Resistance to Social Defeat in Brain Reward Regions. *Cell* **131**, 391–404 (2007).

74.   Champagne, F. A., Curley, J. P., Keverne, E. B. & Bateson, P. P. G. Natural variations in postpartum maternal care in inbred and outbred mice. *Physiology and Behavior* **91**, 325–334 (2007).

75.   Carcea, I. *et al.* Oxytocin neurons enable social transmission of maternal behaviour. *Nature* **596**, 553–557 (2021).

76.   Wolcott, N. S. *et al.* Automated classification of estrous stage in rodents using deep learning. *Sci Rep* **12**, 17685 (2022).

77.   Nagai, Y. *et al.* Deschloroclozapine, a potent and selective chemogenetic actuator enables
rapid neuronal and behavioral modulations in mice and monkeys. *Nat Neurosci* **23**, 1157–
1167 (2020).
78.   Secci, M. E., Reed, T., Quinlan, V., Gilpin, N. W. & Avegno, E. M. Quantitative Analysis
of Gene Expression in RNAscope-processed Brain Tissue. *Bio Protoc* **13**, e4580 (2023).
79.   Bray, N. L., Pimentel, H., Melsted, P. & Pachter, L. Near-optimal probabilistic RNA-seq
quantification. *Nature biotechnology* **34**, 525–527 (2016).
80.   Risso, D., Ngai, J., Speed, T. P. & Dudoit, S. Normalization of RNA-seq data using factor
analysis of control genes or samples. *Nat Biotechnol* **32**, 896–902 (2014).
81.   Peixoto, L. *et al.* How data analysis affects power, reproducibility and biological insight of
RNA-seq studies in complex datasets. *Nucleic Acids Res* **43**, 7664–7674 (2015).
82.   Love, M. I., Huber, W. & Anders, S. Moderated estimation of fold change and dispersion
for RNA-seq data with DESeq2. *Genome Biol* **15**, 550 (2014).
83.   Ge, S. X., Jung, D. & Yao, R. ShinyGO: a graphical gene-set enrichment tool for animals
and plants. *Bioinformatics* **36**, 2628–2629 (2020).
84.   Supek, F., Bošnjak, M., Škunca, N. & Šmuc, T. REVIGO Summarizes and Visualizes Long
Lists of Gene Ontology Terms. *PLOS ONE* **6**, e21800 (2011).
85.   Krämer, A., Green, J., Pollard, J., Jr & Tugendreich, S. Causal analysis approaches in
Ingenuity Pathway Analysis. *Bioinformatics* **30**, 523–530 (2014).
86.   Shen, L. GeneOverlap: An R package to test and visualize gene overlaps.
87.   Matevossian, A. & Akbarian, S. Neuronal Nuclei Isolation from Human Postmortem Brain
Tissue. *J Vis Exp* 914 (2008) doi:10.3791/914.
88.   Hao, Y. *et al.* Integrated analysis of multimodal single-cell data. *Cell* **184**, 3573-3587.e29
(2021).
89.   Young, M. D. & Behjati, S. SoupX removes ambient RNA contamination from droplet-
based single-cell RNA sequencing data. *Gigascience* **9**, giaa151 (2020).
90.   McGinnis, C. S., Murrow, L. M. & Gartner, Z. J. DoubletFinder: Doublet Detection in
Single-Cell RNA Sequencing Data Using Artificial Nearest Neighbors. *Cell systems* **8**,
329-337.e4 (2019).
91.   Artegiani, B. *et al.* A Single-Cell RNA Sequencing Study Reveals Cellular and Molecular
Dynamics of the Hippocampal Neurogenic Niche. *Cell Reports* **21**, 3271–3284 (2017).
92.   Zhou, Z., Zhi, C., Chen, D., Cai, Z. & Jiang, X. Single-nucleus RNA sequencing reveals
cell type-specific transcriptome alterations of Down syndrome hippocampus using the
Dp16 mouse model. *Genes Genomics* **45**, 1305–1315 (2023).
93.   Cembrowski, M. S., Wang, L., Sugino, K., Shields, B. C. & Spruston, N. Hipposeq: a
comprehensive RNA-seq database of gene expression in hippocampal principal neurons.
eLife **5**, e14997.
94.   Harris, K. D. *et al.* Classes and continua of hippocampal CA1 inhibitory neurons revealed
by single-cell transcriptomics. *PLoS Biol* **16**, e2006387–e2006387 (2018).
95.   Haslinger, A., Schwarz, T. J., Covic, M. & Lie, D. C. Expression of Sox11 in adult
neurogenic niches suggests a stage-specific role in adult neurogenesis. *Eur J Neurosci* **29**,
2103–2114 (2009).
96.   Bandler, R. C. *et al.* Single-cell delineation of lineage and genetic identity in the mouse
brain. *Nature* **601**, 404–409 (2022).
97.   Olney, K. C. *et al.* Widespread choroid plexus contamination in sampling and profiling of
brain tissue. *Mol Psychiatry* **27**, 1839–1847 (2022).

98.   Xiang, M. *et al.* A Single-Cell Transcriptional Roadmap of the Mouse and Human Lymph
Node Lymphatic Vasculature. *Front Cardiovasc Med* **7**, 52 (2020).
99.   Tasic, B. *et al.* Adult Mouse Cortical Cell Taxonomy by Single Cell Transcriptomics. *Nat*
Neurosci **19**, 335–346 (2016).
100. Miller, S. A. *et al.* LSD1 and aberrant DNA methylation mediate persistence of
enteroendocrine progenitors that support BRAF mutant colorectal cancer. *Cancer Res* **81**,
3791–3805 (2021).
101. Skene, P. J. & Henikoff, S. An efficient targeted nuclease strategy for high-resolution
mapping of DNA binding sites. *eLife* **6**, e21856 (2017).
102. Langmead, B. & Salzberg, S. L. Fast gapped-read alignment with Bowtie 2. *Nat Methods* **9**,
357–359 (2012).
103. Li, H. *et al.* The Sequence Alignment/Map format and SAMtools. *Bioinformatics* **25**, 2078–
2079 (2009).
104. Qasim, M. N. *et al.* Genome-wide Profiling of Transcription Factor-DNA Binding
Interactions in Candida albicans: A Comprehensive CUT&RUN Method and Data
Analysis Workflow. *Journal of Visualized Experiments (JoVE)* e63655 (2022)
doi:10.3791/63655.
105. Zhang, Y. *et al.* Model-based Analysis of ChIP-Seq (MACS). *Genome Biology* **9**, R137
(2008).
106. Heinz, S. *et al.* Simple combinations of lineage-determining transcription factors prime cis-
regulatory elements required for macrophage and B cell identities. *Mol Cell* **38**, 576–589
(2010).
107. Ramírez, F., Dündar, F., Diehl, S., Grüning, B. A. & Manke, T. deepTools: a flexible
platform for exploring deep-sequencing data. *Nucleic Acids Res* **42**, W187-191 (2014).
108. Gautier, R. gtrichard/deepStats: deepStats 0.3.1. Zenodo
https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3361799 (2019).
109. Lachmann, A. *et al.* ChEA: transcription factor regulation inferred from integrating
genome-wide ChIP-X experiments. *Bioinformatics* **26**, 2438–2444 (2010).
1671