1 Shared molecular consequences of epigenetic machinery disruption in neuronal
2 progenitors

Juan Ouyang[1μ, €], Kaan Okay[1μ], Katrín Möller[1μ], Katrín Wang[1], Stefán Pétursson[1], Tessa

Pierce[1,2], Arsalan Amirfallah[1δ], Adam Davidovich[4], Kimberley Anderson[1,3], Kasper D.

Hansen[4,5,6*], Hans Tomas Bjornsson[1,3,6*]

[1]Louma G. Laboratory of Epigenetic Research, Faculty of Medicine, University of Iceland,

Reykjavik, Iceland; [2]Caltech, California, USA; [3]Department of Genetics and Molecular

Medicine, Landspitali University Hospital, Reykjavik, Iceland; [4]Department of Biostatistics,

Johns Hopkins Bloomberg School of Public Health, Baltimore, MD USA; [5]Department of

Bioengineering, Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine, Baltimore, MD, USA;

[6]Department of Genetic Medicine, Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine, Baltimore,

MD, USA.

[μ]These authors had equal contribution

[€]Current position: Emory University, Atlanta, GA, USA.

[δ]Current position: The Blood Bank, Landspitali University Hospital, Reykjavik, Iceland.

*Corresponding authors: Hans Tomas Bjornsson, htb@hi.is and Kasper Daniel Hansen,

khansen@jhsph.edu

Abstract:

The Mendelian disorders of the epigenetic machinery (MDEMs) are an emerging cause of intellectual disability and growth abnormalities. Hippocampal neurons have been repeatedly found to be an effected cell type for these disorders. To directly probe the effect of disruption of the epigenetic machinery, we established a murine neuronal hippocampal differentiation model which allows rapid and systemic knockout (KO) of diverse epigenetic machinery (EM) factors. This system allows us to interrogate the consequences of each KO using ONT DNA methylation sequencing and RNA sequencing. Upon KO of KMT2A (a histone methyltransferase) or DNMT1 (a DNA methyltransferase), we observed a striking convergence in gene expression. In contrast, KO of DNMT1 lead to extensive changes in DNA methylation whereas KO of KMT2A had little-to-no effect on DNA methylation. In both models, KO accelerated neuronal differentiation, and the convergence in gene expression appeared linked to this differentiation state. The transcription factor GSX1 was differentially methylated, differentially expressed and ~20% of its known down-stream targets were differentially expressed genes. Extending our methylation analysis to 46 EM genes, we found that loss of DNA methyltransferases caused the most profound DNAm alterations, whereas other genes induced more subtle effects. Clustering of promoter DNAm changes revealed two EM subgroups that collectively showed a marked enrichment of interactions with the DNAm machinery. Through allele-specific phasing, we identified a differentially methylated region (DMR) at *Zic4* that was shared across the entire group of EM KOs, as well as 1074 haplotype-specific DMRs. Together, our results highlight shared mechanisms across diverse EM mutations and provide new insight into the molecular etiology of MDEMs.

Keywords: Epigenetics, chromatinopathies, histone machinery, intellectual disability, NPCs

Introduction:

The past 15 years have witnessed the rapid discovery of a group of at least 90 distinct disorders, mostly caused by heterozygous variants in the components that directly maintain epigenetic modifications. This group of disorders is described by different names including the Mendelian disorders of the epigenetic machinery (MDEMs) (Bjornsson, 2015), chromatinopathies (Ciptasari & van Bokhoven, 2020) or rare diseases of epigenetic origin (Fu et al., 2023). Despite a multitude of names, all parties agree that the disruption of these genes is likely to lead to secondary epigenetic dysfunction. Remarkably, although these genes have been associated with broad phenotypic presentations (Bjornsson, 2015), they also have some unifying disease phenotypes such as intellectual disability and growth abnormalities (Bjornsson, 2015) seen in the vast majority of patients. We have previously hypothesized that shared phenotypic abnormalities may be caused by shared epigenetic disruption. In support of this hypothesis, we have observed shared epigenomic abnormalities in three such MDEMs (Kabuki syndrome 1&2 and Rubinstein-Taybi syndromes): in blood cells for all three (Luperchio et al., 2021) and in neurons for the first two (Boukas et al., 2023).

A defining feature of these disorders is that the majority of these (42) have been shown to have distinct blood cell episignatures with diagnostic utility (Aref-Eshghi et al., 2020). Remarkably, although blood may not always be the most disease-relevant tissue, many of these disorders have shared epigenetic abnormalities (Aref-Eshghi et al., 2018). A question emerges whether such DNA methylation (DNAm) changes can be found in disease-relevant cells such as neurons and whether they can point to underlying shared pathogenic mechanisms in these disorders. Here, we have focused on a hippocampal neuronal model, given prior evidence of disruption of hippocampal neurogenesis in many of the MDEM (Carosso et al., 2019; Feng et al., 2013; Noguchi et al., 2016; Park et al., 2014; Schoof et al., 2019; Sheu et al., 2019; Syal et al., 2018; You et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2014; Zhou et al., 2016).

Recently, Oxford Nanopore Technologies (ONT) DNAm sequencing has become available, allowing the discovery of genome-wide DNAm levels and offering the possibility of phasing to look for haplotype-specific effects or effects on genomic imprinting (Gigante et al., 2019). Here, we describe a catalogue of DNAm abnormalities seen in 46 EM KOs in a single disease-relevant cell-type context, murine neuronal progenitor cells (mNPCs). Our work identifies four TFs which appear to mediate aspects of the observed chromatin abnormalities or show dysregulation secondarily to the epigenetic abnormality. This is interesting since the EM machinery in general has limited sequence preferences (Rothbart &

Strahl, 2014) and DNAm can interfere with transcription factor binding (Heberle & Bardet, 2019). Therefore, it may not be surprising that systematic KO of EM factors may reveal key TFs whose role in neuronal development are modulated by DNA methylation dynamics. Our approach, which allows phasing of the genomes, also highlights the considerable effect that genetic variation has on the extent of the observed abnormalities in either strain genome. Together, our work lays the groundwork for understanding how the epigenetic machinery helps orchestrate hippocampal neurogenesis and how disruption of this process through EM loss uniformly leads to learning and neurological defects.

Results:

Systematic KO of EM factors in a single neuronal system

To comprehensively study the role of DNAm abnormalities in EM-deficient neurons, we utilized CRISPR-Cas9 technology to knock-out (KO) EM genes in mNPCs. To obtain homogenous and efficient CRISPR-based gene KOs, we used F1 offspring from two fully sequenced mouse-strains (C57BL/6J and FVB) both expressing transgenic Cas9-GFP protein from the ROSA locus, a well-known epigenetic safe harbor region (Friedrich & Soriano, 1991; Irion et al., 2007). We isolated hippocampal mNPCs at postnatal day 0 (P0) from this F1-outcross and grew in culture media that helped maintain the mNPC state. We verified cell identities (**Supplementary Figure 1A**) prior to using these for individual EM-KO experiments using 46 dual guide-RNA (sgRNA) lentiviral plasmids (**Supplementary Table 1**), each containing two sgRNA sequences targeting the same gene. We also created 8 sgRNA plasmids with random sequences (scramble gRNAs, **Supplementary Table 1**). These guide-vectors were individually packaged and transduced using lentiviral delivery into the Cas9-expressing mNPCs (**Figure 1A**). Cells were selected for stable integration of a construct and four days after transduction, harvested for Oxford Nanopore Technologies (ONT) sequencing or RNA sequencing (see methods).

To confirm the efficiency of the KO in our system, we performed qPCR, western blot (WB), and immunofluorescence (IF) assays on individual EM-KO mNPCs. As expected, four days after transduction we routinely saw a decrease in mRNA and protein levels for individual EM KOs. As an example, we observed significant ($p < 0.05$) downregulation of *Kmt2d* and *Ezh2* at the RNA level (**Figure 1B-C**) as well as a significant ($p < 0.05$) decrease

in protein levels of CHD1, KMT2A and DNMT1 (**Figure 1D-E, Supplementary Figure 1B-**
C).

To enable accurate estimation of CRISPR KO efficiency from our ONT long-read
sequencing data, we developed *samCRISPR*, a custom pipeline designed to leverage the
unique features of this sequencing technique. This approach utilizes Minimap2 (Li, 2018) for
sequence alignment and SAMtools (Danecek et al., 2021) for downstream processing (**Figure**
1F). When we compared *samCRISPR* with *CRISPResso2* (Pinello et al., 2016), the gold
standard for estimating KO efficiency from short-read data, it yielded fewer false positive
CRISPR events on average in control samples (2.1% vs 4.9% for sgRNA1 and 1.4% vs 4.5%
for sgRNA2, $p < 0.01$; **Supplementary Figure 1D-E**). Moreover, *samCRISPR* yielded a
similar KO efficiency for each guide (39.1% vs 37.5% for sgRNA1 and 36.85% vs 35.3% for
sgRNA2; **Figure 1G, Supplementary Figure 1F-G**) across 46 EM KOs. As an example,
when we ran two replicates of *Kmt2a*-KO and two relevant controls we found almost no false
positives in the control samples, while we detected on average 40% KO efficiency for either
allele of the *Kmt2a*-KOs (**Figure 1H**). This is expected to underestimate the actual KO
efficiency in both methods, and both WB and IF showed higher KO efficiency, i.e. lower
protein expression (40-90%) in *Chd1*-, *Kmt2d*- and *Dnmt1*-KOs (**Figure 1D-E,**
Supplementary Figure 1B-C) supporting the notion that a portion of the functional variants
are not captured by the current evaluation of long range sequencing.

Figure 1: Effective CRISPR-Cas9 targeting in a disease relevant cellular system. (A)
Schematic workflow of EM-KO in mNPCs using lentiviral vectors followed by evaluation of
DNAm with ONT sequencing. (B) Gene expression changes of *Kmt2d* (p=0.0013) and (C)
Ezh2 (p=0.0229) in mNPCs after knocking out *Kmt2a* or *Ezh2* with CRISPR/Cas9 compared
with scrambled control (n=3). An unpaired t-test was used to calculate significance. (D)
Protein levels and quantification of CHD1 after knocking out *Chd1* with CRISPR/Cas9,
compared with scrambled control (n=3, p=0.0054) An unpaired t-test was used to calculate
significance. (E) Quantification *Kmt2a* mean expression per cell in *Kmt2a*-KO and scrambled
controls (n=3, p=0.0001). An unpaired t-test was used to calculate significance. (F) Schematic
of the *samCRISPR* analysis tool for KO efficiency estimation of long-read sequencing data.
(G) The KO efficiency estimation by samCRISPR method vs CRISPResso2, for each sgRNA

in 46 EM KO from ONT WGS sequencing data (Two tailed T test). (H) Bar plot showing *Kmt2a*-KOs efficiencies for sgRNA #1 and #2 in two *Kmt2a*-KOs and controls (Ctrl) calculated by samCRISPR. *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001, ns=not significant.

DNAm changes in *Dnmt1*- and *Kmt2a*-KO mNPCs

Having verified the KO efficiency of our system, we investigated if disrupting individual EM genes in our mNPCs would result in DNAm abnormalities. As *Dnmt1* encodes the key maintenance DNA methyltransferase which directly maintains DNAm, we used it as a positive control for assessing the ONT sequencing approach. We therefore performed ONT sequencing (Simpson et al., 2017) on *Dnmt1*-KO and scrambled controls in triplicate. Differential methylation analysis revealed a global demethylation pattern in *Dnmt1*-KO cells, including 141,721 hypomethylated differentially methylated regions (DMRs, see methods) (qval < 0.05, **Figure 2A, Supplementary Table 2**) and a sole hypermethylated region (*Zic1* gene body **Figure 2B**). This is consistent with prior studies showing that loss of DNMT1 in human NPCs causes global demethylation (Jonsson et al., 2019). *Dnmt1*-KO DMRs were enriched in 3´UTRs, introns, and exons but depleted in promoters, intergenic regions, and 5´UTRs (**Figure 2C, Supplementary Table 3**).

Given the extensive DNAm changes in *Dnmt1*-KO, we explored whether *Dnmt1*-KO DMRs show enrichment of TF binding factors using an Analysis of Motif Enrichment (AME; MEME-suite) to identify mouse HOCOMOCO v11 core motifs within the *Dnmt1*-KO DMRs. This led to the discovery of 178 known TF binding motifs that were significantly enriched (**Figure 2D and Supplementary Table 4**), including a motif for MECP2, consistent with the fact that DNMT1 is recruited to methylated CpGs via MECP2 for its maintenance function (Kimura & Shiota, 2003). However, we also found other noteworthy TFs, some with CpG sites in their binding motifs, such as HIF1α, AHR and ARNT, and others lacking CpGs in their motifs, including SMAD3, ESR2, NKX2-5 and STF1 (**Figure 2D, Supplementary Table 4**). Several hypoxia-related factors (HIF1α, EPAS1 and ARNT) are of particular interest given our recent discovery of dysregulated hypoxia signaling in another MDEM, Kabuki syndrome (Carosso et al., 2019). We next asked if the enrichment of TF motifs in the *Dnmt1*-KO associated DMRs could reflect known DNMT1 interaction partners. We compared these motifs with known DNMT1 interactors from BioGrid (Oughtred et al., 2021) and found that of the 24 interactors represented in the HOCOMOCO database, and 14 of TFs exhibited motif enrichment in *Dnmt1*-KO associated DMRs (**Supplementary Figure 2A**).

To investigate whether methylation changes in *Dnmt1*-KOs coincide with changes in transcription, we performed RNA-seq on *Dnmt1*-KO cells which resulted in 3,454 differentially expressed genes (DEGs) compared with controls (**Supplementary Table 5**). Of these, 2,713 DEGs were in close proximity to 26,909 DMRs (**Figure 2E, purple**). Among these were the gene *Ppfibp1* (**Supplementary Figure 2B**), encoding a factor involved in synaptic protein-protein interactions (PPIs) (Wei et al., 2011), the immediate early genes *Jun*, *Fos* and *Egr1* (**Figure 2F-G, Supplementary Figure 2C**) (Kim et al., 2018; Veyrac et al., 2014), as well as *Rora* and *Itga8* (**Supplementary Figure 2C,D**), known DNMT1 target genes (Tao et al., 2022). We also found that mouse imprinted genes (Isles, 2022) were significantly overrepresented in the *Dnmt1*-KO associated DEGs (Fisher's exact test, OR = 1.83, p=0.0118. and this enrichment was even higher when we focused only on the subset of DMR-associated DEGs (Fisher's exact test, OR = 2.13, p=0.003). This included gene such as *Zim1* (**Figure 2H**). While DEGs were not overlapping with DMRs more frequently than other detected genes (Fischer's exact test, OR = 1.07, p=0.069), DEGs carried on average more DMRs than non-DEGs (7.6 vs 6.4, respectively, Wilcoxon rank sum test, p=3.57×10^{-06} **Figure 2I**). Together, this suggests that the wide-spread methylation changes we observe after *Dnmt1*-KO have relatively little impact on gene expression at this time point in our system other than perhaps a subtle effect in intronic and intergenic regions.

We next examined KMT2A, a histone methyltransferase which is expected to have a more indirect influence on DNAm. Notably, pathogenic variants in *KMT2A* are the cause of Wiedemann-Steiner syndrome (OMIM, 605130) which has a distinct DNAm signature in peripheral blood (Foroutan et al., 2022). To investigate whether *Kmt2a* loss similarly perturbs methylation in neurons, we performed ONT sequencing on *Kmt2a*-KO NPCs in replicates, which revealed only three genome-wide significant DMRs compared to controls. One DMRs are located in the 3'UTR of the *Gsx1* gene (mm10 coordinates, meanDiff = 0.001121656, qval = 0.042, **Figure 2J**). We also performed RNA-Seq after *Kmt2a* KO and found 2105 differentially expressed genes compared with controls (**Supplementary table 6**). Among the previously identified DMRs, only one had significant changes in gene expression, *Gsx1* (**Figure 2K**). GSX1 is a TF expressed early in NPCs and is known to promote maturation in specific neuronal subtypes (Coltogirone et al., 2023; Pei et al., 2011). Notably, a prior study reported reduced H3K4me1 near this DMR in *Kmt2a* knockdown neurons derived from a mouse model (Kerimoglu et al., 2017) (**Supplementary Figure 2E**), supporting that *Gsx1* may be a direct target of KMT2A in mNPCs. We then asked if GSX1 targets were

differentially expressed in *Kmt2a*-KOs. Using the TFBS database, which predicts TF-target

gene interactions from DNA motifs and ENCODE DNase I footprints (Plaisier et al., 2016),

we identified 133 GSX1 target genes (19.2% of those expressed) that overlapped with *Kmt2a*-

KO DEGs. However, this overlap was not significant (Fischer's exact test, OR = 1.18 and p =

0.055). For the *Dnmt1*-KO experiment, GSX1 was not differentially expressed, but its

downstream targets were significantly enriched amongst differentially expressed genes

(Fisher's exact test, OR=1.16, p=0.044). Finally, unlike what was found for DNMT1, we

found no enrichment of imprinting genes in *Kmt2a*-KO (Fisher's exact test, OR = 1.23,

p=0.295). Thus, although imprinting is regulated through chromatin state, the effect is likely

EM-gene specific.

Figure 2: Extent and impact of DNA methylation changes in *Dnmt1*-KO and *Kmt2a*-KO mNPCs. (A) Enrichment heatmaps of smoothed CpG methylation across 141,722 *Dnmt1*-associated DMRs. Each horizontal line represents the average smoothed methylation profile across CpG sites within a DMR and ±5kb flanking regions. Yellow shows higher smoothed methylation but blue shows lower smoothed methylation. (B) The *Zic1* DMR (qval < 0.05) in *Dnmt1*-KOs (purple) compared to control NPCs (orange) highlighted in gray. Flanking regions of DMR are ±5kb. In x-axis, each vertical black line represents a CpG in mouse genome. (C) The enrichment analysis of the DMR distribution in *Dnmt1*-KOs, using Fisher's exact test. All categories are significantly enriched or depleted (p < 0.05). The exact value is

listed in **Supplementary Table 3**. (D) Scatter plot showing enriched TF motifs in *Dnmt1*-KO
DMRs (padj < 0.05). (E) A volcano plot showing the distribution of *Dnmt1*-KO DEGs, with
significant genes (padj<0.05) shown in dark blue, and DEGs with DMRs associated shown in
purple. (F) *Egr1* DMR (qval < 0.05) in *Dnmt1*-KOs (purple) compared to control NPCs
(orange) highlighted in gray. Flanking regions of DMR are ±5kb. In x-axis, each vertical
black line represents a CpG in mouse genome. (G) Significant upregulation of *Egr1* in
Dnmt1-KO compared to controls, p < 0.05. (H) Three *Zim1* DMRs (qval < 0.05) in *Dnmt1*-
KOs (purple) compared to control NPCs (orange) highlighted in gray. Flanking regions of
middle DMR are ±5kb. In x-axis, each vertical black line represents a CpG in mouse genome.
(I) Plot showing mean DMR numbers per gene with error bars representing standard error.
Wilxocon-rank test shows statistical significance, p<0.0001. (J) *Gsx1* DMR (FWER < 0.05)
found in *Kmt2a*-KO NPCs (orange) compared to control NPCs (purple), highlighted in gray.
Flanking regions of DMR are ±5kb. In x-axis, each vertical black line represents a CpG in
mouse genome. (K) RNA sequencing results showing of normalized *Gsx1* counts in *Kmt2a*-
KOs and controls. *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ns=not significant.

Substantial convergence of gene expression abnormalities

242   Given the phenotypic overlap between multiple MDEMs, we next investigated the

overlap in molecular consequences between *Kmt2a*- and *Dnmt1*-KOs. When we compared the

DEGs from both *Dnmt1*-KO and *Kmt2a*-KO cells, we found a substantial overlap of 1543

DEGs, including 679 upregulated and 861 downregulated genes (Fischer's exact test,

OR=11.6, p < 0.0001, **Figure 3A, Supplementary Table 7**). Moreover, gene expression

changes were highly correlated between the two datasets (Spearman's ρ = 0.94, p<0.0001,

Figure 3B), and almost all differentially expressed genes were concordant in the direction of

change. In both datasets, the upregulated genes were enriched in neuronal differentiation and

maturation GO terms (**Figure 3C, Supplementary Figure 3A-B**), while the downregulated

genes were enriched in GO terms linked to cell cycle and chromosome organization (**Figure**

3D, Supplementary Figure C-D). These patterns mirror the transcriptional profile of

differentiated cells, suggesting that premature differentiation may underlie at least part of the

observed gene expression changes.

255   To determine whether *Kmt2a*-KO and *Dnmt1*-KO mNPCs undergo premature

differentiation, we explored markers for neuronal and glial differentiation in both KOs and

scrambled control mNPCs, using WB and IF staining. WB analysis revealed a significant

increase in the neuronal marker TUBB3 in *Kmt2a*-KO mNPCs compared to controls (**Figure**

3E), whereas *Dnmt1*-KO mNPCs did not exhibit a similar change at the protein level (**Figure**

3E). No notable differences in the proliferation marker PCNA were detected in either KO

model (**Supplementary Figure 3G**). Interestingly, IF staining demonstrated a greater number

of TUBB3-positive cells in both *Kmt2a*-KO and *Dnmt1*-KO cultures, compared to scrambled

controls, along with distinct morphological changes indicative of differentiation, such as

smaller and elongated cell-bodies (**Figure 3F-G**). Increased expression of the astrocyte

marker EAAT2 was also observed in *Dnmt1*-KO cultures, whereas no significant change was

detected in *Kmt2a*-KO cells (**Supplementary Figure 3E-F**). Prior work has shown

prematurely poised neuronal enhancers in primary mNPCs from a *Kmt2a*-haploinsufficient

model, a phenotype which normalized after genetic rescue of *Kmt2a* (Reynisdottir et al.,

2024). Additionally, NPCs from this model exhibit a similar premature neuronal

differentiation phenotype as in our full KO (**Supplementary Figure 3H-I**), supporting that

this is a feature of *Kmt2a* disruption. These findings support that loss of both factors

contributes to premature differentiation of mNPCs but they differ in impact. Specifically, loss

of *Kmt2a* leads to a robust and uniform neuronal differentiation phenotype, whereas *Dnmt1*

deficiency promotes both neuronal and glial differentiation, but potentially in a more variable

manner.

For DNA methylation, we identified two intergenic DMRs near *Gsx1* in the *Dnmt1*-

KO (**Supplementary Figure 2G-H**). However, unlike *Kmt2a*-KO, *Gsx1* did not exhibit

corresponding transcriptional changes in *Dnmt1*-KO. We next asked whether the shared

DEGs were driven by common regulatory programs, using motif enrichment analysis of their

promoter regions. Analysis of Motif Enrichment (AME; MEME-suite) of promoter regions of

the shared DEGs identified common TFs in the promoter regions, including members of the

specificity protein (SP) and E2F families, notably SP2 and E2F4, both of which are known

regulators of cell cycle progression and differentiation in neuronal cells (**Figure 3H,

Supplementary Table 8)** (Liang et al., 2013; Persengiev et al., 1999).

Figure 3: Premature differentiation in *Kmt2a*-KO and *Dnmt1*-KO. (A) Venn diagram showing extensive overlap of DEGs in *Dnmt1*-KO and *Kmt2a*-KO cells compared to control NPCs, with results from Fisher's exact test (OR=11,7, p<0.001). (B) Scatter plot showing Log2FC of significant DEGs from both *Dnmt1*-KOs and *Kmt2a*-KOs in gray, and the shared significant DEGs in yellow. Spearman's correlation was calculated for the shared DEGs(R = 0.94 p-val < 0.0001). (C) GO term analysis (Biological Process) of overlapping upregulated genes, showing enrichment ratio of each GO-term on the x-axis and color depicting the FDR. (D) GO term analysis (Biological Process) of overlapping downregulated genes showing

enrichment ratio for each GO-term on the x-axis and color depicting the FDR. **(**E) WB
analysis of TUBB3 protein after knocking out *Kmt2a* (padj=0.0474) and *Dnmt1* (padj>0.05,
ns) with CRISPR/Cas9. A one-way ANOVA with Dunnett´s multiple comparisons test was
used to calculate significance. (F) Immunofluorescence staining of mNPCs after *Kmt2a*-KO
and *Dnmt1*-KO compared with controls (blue = DAPI, yellow = TUBB3, magenta = EAAT2).
(G) Quantification of the percentage of TUBB3 positive cells in *Kmt2a*-KO, *Dnmt1*-KO and
controls. A one-way ANOVA with an FDR correction was used to calculate significance. (H)
Scatter plot of TFs ranked by the number of promoters containing their binding motifs. The
odds ratio indicates motif overrepresentation in promoters of shared DEGs.*p<0.05, ns=not
significant.

Evaluation of changes that occur during normal differentiation

Given the premature differentiation observed in EM KOs, some of the expression
changes may reflect differences in cell state composition across genotypes. To explore the
extent of this in our EM KOs, we differentiated wild-type (WT) mNPCs into mixed neuronal
cultures (see methods) and demonstrated that these cultures express typical markers for
neurons and astrocytes, as well as synaptic markers at Day 6 (**Supplementary Figure 4A**).
We then performed ONT long-read RNA-Seq on mNPCs, Day 2, and Day 6 differentiating
cells (schematic in **Figure 4A**), which yielded 3,706 and 3,441 DEGs at Day 2 and Day 6,
respectively, compared with mNPCs (**Supplementary Table 9-10, Supplementary Figure
4B**). Both developmental timepoints were enriched in neurogenic and synaptic terms,
supporting neural differentiation and maturity of the culture (**Supplementary Figure 4C-D**).
Additionally, a gene-set enrichment analysis of cell-types showed significant enrichment in
cell-type markers for the three main brain-cell lineages (neurons, astrocytes and
oligodendrocytes, **Supplementary Figure 4E**) as would be expected.

To understand the extent of transcriptional changes that may be secondary to
premature differentiation in *Dnmt1* and *Kmt2a* KOs, we compared DEGs from each KO to
those identified during normal neuronal differentiation (mNPCs vs. Day 2 and Day 6).
Interestingly, DEGs from both KOs showed strong and consistent overlap with normal
differentiation associated gene expression changes (odds ratios > 4 in all comparisons, p <
0.0001, Fisher's exact test; **Figure 4B**) and displayed a linear correlation (Spearman's ρ >
0.45 for all comparisons, p < 0.0001; **Figure 4C-F**). These results suggest substantial
convergence between KO-induced and differentiation-related transcriptional programs,
consistent with a premature differentiation phenotype in EM-KOs.

To map the temporal landscape of DNAm during neuronal differentiation, we profiled genome-wide DNAm using ONT in mNPCs at Day 0, Day 2, and Day 6 of differentiation (schematic in **Figure 4A**). A principal component analysis (PCA) of DMRs showed that the developmental stage was the main driver of methylation variance, as captured by PC1 (**Supplementary Figure 4F**). While differential methylation analysis identified no significant changes at Day 2 it revealed 8,627 genome-wide significant DMRs (qval < 0.05) at Day 6 compared to Day 0 mNPCs, indicating that most DNAm remodeling occurs relatively late in differentiation (**Figure 4G, Supplementary Table 11**). Genic-context analysis indicated that, similar to *Dnmt1*-KO DMRs, on Day 6 DMRs were enriched in introns, 3' UTRs, and exons, but they were depleted in promoters, 5' UTRs, and intergenic regions (**Supplementary Figure 4G**). To assess whether the methylation dynamics observed during normal differentiation are recapitulated in the KOs, we examined the methylation state of the Day 6 DMR regions in *Dnmt1*-KO and *Kmt2a*-KO cells. *Kmt2a*-KO cells maintained a methylation profile similar to undifferentiated mNPCs at these loci, while *Dnmt1*-KO cells exhibited a methylation pattern resembling that of Day 2 neurons (**Figure 4H**). Methylation in the areas surrounding these Day 6 DMRs were also lower in *Dnmt1*-KO cells. Additionally, 1,154 of the Day 6 DMRs were also identified in *Dnmt1*-KO cells (odds ratio = 1.48, p < 2.2e-16, **Supplementary Table 12**). We conclude that the methylation changes over these Day 6 DMRs are driven by global hypomethylation in *Dnmt1*-KO cells but is also consistent with aspects of premature differentiation. Together, these results suggest that transcriptional changes precede widespread DNAm remodeling, supporting a model in which DNAm acts as a secondary layer that consolidates, rather than initiates, neurodevelopmental programs.

Figure 4: Changes observed in DNAm and gene expression during differentiation of NPCs. (A) A schematic of the neurodevelopmental model. (B) Results of Fischer's exact test shown for the overlap between *Kmt2a*-KO and *Dnmt1*-KO DEGs with NPC-Day 2 and NPC-Day 6 DEGs. (C-F) Significant Spearman correlations between DEGs of (C) *Dnmt1*-KO vs Day 2, (D) *Dnmt1*-KO vs Day 6, (E) *Kmt2a*-KO vs Day 2, (F) *Kmt2a*-KO vs Day 6. Axis represents log2(Fold change) for each dataset. (G) Day 6 DMRs are shown in mNPCs, Day 2 and Day 6 neurons. (H) Day 6 DMRs in KO and control samples. In the enriched heatmaps in (G) and (H), each line demonstrates the average smoothed methylation values across all CpGs in corresponding the DMR. DMRs were aligned at the DMR start site (start) and end site (end), ±5kb on either side. Yellow shows higher smoothed methylation but blue shows lower smoothed methylation values.

An expanded cohort of EM KOs reveals subtle DNAm changes

We next broadened our analysis to assess DNAm abnormalities across the wider

epigenetic machinery. Using ONT long-read whole genome sequencing, we profiled 44

additional EM-KO lines alongside matched scrambled controls. These data were pooled with

previously generated data from *Dnmt1*-KO and *Kmt2a*-KO, resulting in a total of 46 EM-KOs

and 16 control samples. To systematically evaluate genome-wide DNAm changes, we

partitioned the mouse genome into ~2.7 million 1 kb tiles (each containing >2 CpGs) and

compared methylation levels across groups. A PCA plot of these tiles revealed that two

known DNAm machinery components, *Dnmt1* and *Dnmt3b*, showed the most dramatic

DNAm abnormalities (**Supplementary Figure 5A**). When these two were excluded from the

analysis, *Kat6a*, *Chd5*, and *Tet1* emerged as outliers, clustering separately from the remaining

EM-KOs (**Supplementary Figure 5B**). Despite this variation, no shared DMRs were

identified across the 44 EM-KOs. Given the diverse roles of EM genes in modulating DNAm,

we hypothesized that shared DMRs may exist within specific subgroups of EM-KOs with

related molecular functions. Therefore, classifying EM genes based on regional DNAm

patterns could help uncover convergence.

Promoter DNAm alterations depend on interactions with the DNAm machinery

Promoter regions are well-established regulatory elements that are easily assigned to

the corresponding genes and involved in transcriptional control (Deaton & Bird, 2011). To

investigate whether a subset of EM-KOs exhibit similar DNAm changes at gene promoters,

we applied non-negative matrix factorization (NMF) to cluster the 46 EM-KOs based on

DNAm patterns at the promoters of 20,482 mouse protein-coding genes based on the

cophenetic distance and dispersion of latent factors (**Supplementary Figure 5C**).

Hierarchical clustering of EM-KOs using the NMF-derived coefficients further characterized

three latent factors (**Figure 5A**). Specifically, cluster 1 included *Chd3, Setd4, Setd1a, Setd1b,*

Kdm5b, and *Kdm1a*. In contrast cluster 2 included the controls and showed low coefficients in

all three latent factors. Finally, cluster 3 included the genes *Kmt2a, Dnmt1, Chd1, Kdm6a,*

Hdac6, Ezh2, and *Crebbp* and showed the highest coefficient in latent factor 2 (**Figure 5A**).

Dnmt3b-KO showed the highest coefficient in latent factor 1 and did not cluster with other

EM genes (**Figure 5A**). Interestingly, genes with the highest weight in latent factor 2 were

significantly enriched in GO terms related to generation of neurons and neurodifferentiation

(**Figure 5B**) as well as the Wnt signaling pathway (**Supplementary Figure 5D**). In contrast,

no significant enrichment in GO terms was found for the other latent factor groups.

Interestingly, in the two clusters that did not group with controls (clusters 1 and 3), nearly all the gene members (excluding SETD4) had STRING defined interactions with the maintenance methyltransferase DNMT1 (**Figure 5A**). Indeed, there was a significant enrichment in interactions with enzymatic DNAm machinery components (**Figure 5A,C**). The enrichment was strongest for the maintenance methyltransferase (DNMT1) but less so with de novo methyltransferases (**Figure 5C**). Furthermore, the same factors (Clusters 1&2 and DNMT3B), we also observed a significantly higher number of STRING interactions with other members of the DNAm machinery (n=25) (Boukas et al., 2019) compared to what was seen in cluster 2 (**Figure 5D**, one-sided Wilcoxon rank-sum test, W = 349.5, p-value = 0.001367). These results suggest that EM factors outside the core DNAm machinery may influence promoter DNAm through interactions with the maintenance methyltransferase.

Figure 5: DNAm analysis of 46 EM KO genes in NPCs reveals shared promoter effects and haplotype specific effects. (A) A composite graph showing number of interactions with DNAm enzymatic genes on top, the heatmap showing coefficient of latent factors for each EM across three latent factors. Color scale represents coefficient of each latent factor (yellow shows higher latent factor coefficient but blue shows lower latent factor coefficient). (B) Gene ontology (GO) term enrichment (Biological Process) of the genes associated with latent factor 2. Size represents the ratio of genes in the relevant GO term, color indicates the -

log10(adjusted pvalue). (C) Forest plot showing enrichment of DNAm machinery-interacting EMs in two relevant clusters compared to rest. Significance testing was done with a Fisher's exact test. Dots represent Fisher's exact test odds ratios (log$_2$ scale), with lines indicating 95% confidence intervals. Horizontal dotted red line represents statistical significance. (D) Comparison of number of STRING interactions with 25 DNAm machinery components between the clusters. A Wilcoxon rank sum test was used for significance. lf1 = latent factor 1, lf2 = latent factor 2, lf3 = latent factor 3. ***<0.001, ns=not significant.

Haplotype-specific DNAm within the context of EM KOs

We used mNPCs derived from F1 offspring of the two strains (FVB maternal × B6J paternal, **Figure 1A**). Because the C57BL/6J (B6J) and FVB mouse strains differ genetically across roughly half the genome (~50–60%), it is possible to phase this part of the genome and perform an allele-specific methylation analysis. PCA of the phased data shows the same pattern between KOs and controls as for the unphased data (**Supplementary Figure 6A**) but supports the presence of allelic-specific methylation between the two strains.

Using the control samples only, we found 1,074 haplotype-specific DMRs (FWER < 0.05) (**Figure 6A, Supplementary Table 13**) (Do et al., 2016; Tycko, 2010), including one located in the 3′ UTR of *Tet3* (**Figure 6B**). Because of the consistent parental origin of the two genomes, these DMRs should include imprinted loci. Indeed, our DMRs include 21 out of 57 known imprinted loci (**Supplementary Table 14**) (Gigante et al., 2019; Xie et al., 2012); note that imprinting is partly cell type specific. We next examined the genetic variation at these loci. As expected, we found that 95% of the haplotype-specific DMRs (n = 1,018) contained haplotype-specific genetic variants, including insertions/deletions (indels), SNPs and CpG changes (**Figure 6C**). This variation appeared enriched in exons, 5' and 3' UTRs, and promoters but depleted in intergenic regions (**Figure 6D**). Within these DMRs we found 11,285 single nucleotide polymorphisms, 7836 indels, 70 insertions and 64 breakpoints within the 1074 DMRs (i.e. 17,92/DMR). In contrast, only about half of the ICRs defined DMRs (52,35%, n=11) harbored genetic variants and these regions carried fewer variants on average (7.57 per DMR). This pattern is consistent with imprinted regions being primarily regulated epigenetically, whereas other allele-specific DMRs are more often mediated by underlying genetic variation. This pattern is consistent with imprinted regions being primarily regulated epigenetically, whereas other allele-specific DMRs are more often mediated by underlying genetic variation.

Finally, we searched for DMRs associated with our 46 EM KOs, separately on each haplotype. We found a shared hypomethylated DMR on the C57BL/6J haplotype

(FWER<0.05) and none on FVB. The DMR is located in the 3' UTR of *Zic4* (**Figure 6E,**

Supplementary Figure 6B), a TF that plays a role in cerebellar development and

malformations (Grinberg et al., 2004). Although *Zic4* was not differentially expressed in

Dnmt1-KO nor *Kmt2a*-KO mNPCs compared to scrambled controls (**Supplementary Figure**

6C-D), it was significantly downregulated (log2FC = -1.978, adjusted p-val = 0.00197) at

Day 6 compared to Day 0 mNPCs in our neurodevelopmental model (**Supplementary Figure**

6E). Similarly, prior studies (Choufani et al., 2015) have reported alterations of the 3' UTR of

ZIC4 (CpG cg26386385). Overexpression of *Zic4* in NPCs reduced expression of neuronal

maturation markers (**Supplementary Figure 6F-G**), implicating ZIC4 in maintaining the

NPC state and raising the possibility that it may act as a brake on neuronal maturation.

Figure 6: Haplotype specific changes in DNA methylation. (A) A heatmap plot showing

smoothed methylation of 1074 haplotype-specific DMRs across B6J and FVB haplotypes.

Yellow is higher methylation but blue is lower methylation. Each line in y-axis represents a

single DMR across haplotyped controls but x-axis represents haplotyped controls. B) A

haplotype specific DMR in the *Tet3* gene. C) An overrepresentation of CpG-related changes

within the haplotype specific DMRs supporting an ongoing role for DNAm in this region. D)

The localization of genetic variation within the haplotype specific DMRs.

(E) A line plot showing a DMR in 3' UTR of *Zic4* between B6 haplotyped control mNPC

(orange) and B6 haplotyped 46 EM KOs (purple). The DMR is highlighted in gray. Flanking

regions of DMR are ±5kb. In x-axis, each vertical black line represents a CpG in mouse

genome.

Discussion

Our study presents a comprehensive investigation into how EM disruption affects

DNAm and gene expression in a disease-relevant neuronal system, offering insights into the

presence and functional impact of DNAm changes beyond peripheral blood. By combining a

mNPC model with ONT sequencing, haplotype phasing, and transcriptomic profiling, we

characterized the functional consequences of 46 EM gene KOs. Disruption of DNMT1 leads

as expected to extensive changes in the DNAm. Our PCA suggests that the next largest effect

on DNAm is from DNMT3B and, interestingly, KAT6A, although more work will be needed

to map these changes genome wide. Across the 46 EM genes we profile, we observe little to

no changes. This could be because of the relatively short time lapse between knockout and

methylation profiling in our work. Our data suggests that TFs such as GSX1, EGR1, EBF1,

and E2F4 may mediate or interpret the EM-related epigenetic disruption. For instance, *Gsx1*

was differentially expressed in *Kmt2a*-deficient cells, and its target genes were enriched

among DEGs in both *Kmt2a*- and *Dnmt1*-KOs. Similarly, EGR1 and SP1 binding motifs were

enriched in DMRs or associated with downstream gene expression changes. These findings

point to a model in which the EM indirectly modulates transcriptional networks through TFs,

either by altering DNAm at TF binding sites or affecting expression of the TFs themselves.

Importantly, some TFs such as EGR1 are known to recruit TET1, further linking

transcriptional networks to active demethylation pathways. Similarly, our clustering of

promoter DNAm reveals that at least in some EM contexts, the physical interaction with the

DNAm machinery plays a role.

Interestingly, we uncovered a hypomethylated DMR in the 3' UTR of *Zic4* which was

shared across all 46 EM-KOs. This gene is implicated both murine and human

neurodevelopment and DNA methylation changes in the gene has been identified in

peripheral blood from individuals with Sotos syndrome, a neurodevelopmental disorder

caused by mutations in the epigenetic regulator *NSD1* (Choufani et al., 2015). However, the

methylation changes are modest, and the gene is not differentially expressed in our system. It

is not clear whether this gene will be important in explaining the phenotypic overlap in the

MDEM group, but it could have potential utility as a biomarker.

503   We have established a premature differentiation phenotype arising as a result of KO of

either DNMT1 or KMT2A. The recent study of KMT2A-deficient mice revealed a H3K4me1

enrichment at neuronal enhancers in undifferentiated NPCs (Reynisdottir et al., 2024),

suggesting that these enhancers show premature poising. The premature differentiation we

observed is also in line with prior work on Kabuki syndrome, another MDEM, where the

same phenotype has been reported in two disease relevant contexts (Carosso et al., 2019;

Fahrner et al., 2019). Moreover, studies of Kabuki syndrome neurons from a mouse model

have shown an overrepresentation of aging-related loci (Boukas et al., 2023), further

suggesting that premature differentiation may represent a unifying phenotype across a subset

of MDEMs.

513   Despite the modest DNAm changes, we observed an impressive convergence of

transcriptional dysregulation between DNMT1 and KMT2A, along with the aforementioned

shared cellular phenotype of premature differentiation. Comparing the transcriptional changes

to changes during normal neuronal differentiation, we conclude that part of the overlap is a

consequence of the premature differentiation, although we note that the overlap between

DNMT1 and KMT2A appears stronger than either of the overlaps with normal differentiation.

Combined with the dearth of methylation changes in KMT2A, we have shown that the

expression changes are not a consequence of DNA methylation changes. It will be interesting

and important to understand how the shared expression changes arise, and especially to

identify which epigenetic changes if any are causal. In any case, differentiation state should

be carefully considered when analyzing gene expression, since premature or altered

differentiation can be a major source of the observed changes.

525   Beyond providing mechanistic insight, this work establishes a framework for using

long-read sequencing, haplotype phasing, and transcriptomic profiling in disease-relevant

cells to dissect how epigenetic regulators act in health and disease.

Materials and methods:

Animals

B6J.129(Cg)-Gt(ROSA)26Sortm1.1(CAG-cas9*,-EGFP)Fezh/J(Strain#026179) (B6J) and

FVB.129(B6)-Gt(ROSA)26Sortm1.1(CAG-cas9*,-EGFP)Fezh/J(Strain#026558) (FVB) mice,

each carrying a heterozygous Cas9 transgene, were obtained from Jackson laboratory. Mice

were bred within their respective background strains (B6J and FVB) to generate homozygous

Cas9-expressing offspring. DNA was isolated from ear clips, and Polymerase Chain Reaction

(PCR) was used to confirm the Cas9 cassette using primers design provided by the Jackson

laboratory (**Supplementary Table 15**). All mice were kept on a 12 h dark-light cycle at room

temperature (21-23°C) with relative humidity around 40% and maintained with ad libitum

diet and water. Mouse importation and experimental protocols were in accordance with

Icelandic Food and Veterinary Authority (license no. 2208602) and accepted by National

Expert Advisory Board on Animal Welfare.

Dissections and primary NPCs isolation

543   The NPCs were isolated from an F1 incross of homozygous Cas9 mice (B6J and FVB). The

544   isolation procedure was based on published protocols (Bernas et al., 2017; Rybachuk et al.,

545   2019) with minor modifications, see Supplementary Materials for details.

Neuronal progenitor differentiation

NPCs (passage 3-4) were differentiated into mixed neuronal cultures by collecting them as

previously described, counting and seeding 150.000 cells/well on a PDL/Laminin coated 24-

well plate in 0.5ml N2-Neuronal Induction Medium (N2NIM) consisting of Neurobasal Plus

Medium (ThermoFisher, A3582901) with 1x B-27 Plus Supplement (ThermoFisher,

A3582801), 1x CultureOne Supplement (ThermoFisher, A3320201), 1x N2 Supplement

(ThermoFisher, 17502048), 0.25x Penicillin-streptomycin and 0.25x GlutaMax. This was

supplemented with 20ng/ml FGF2 and 10ng/ml BDNF (Peprotech, 450-02). At day 2 and 4,

medium was changed to N2NIM supplemented with 10ng/ml FGF2, 10ng/ml BDNF and

10ng/ml GDNF (ORF Genetics, IK0900). At Day2 and Day6 of differentiation, neuronal

cultures were collected and DNA and RNA isolated as described below.

Guide RNA design and isolation of plasmids

CRISPR/Cas9 guide RNAs (gRNAs) were designed with an online tool

(https://chopchop.cbu.uib.no/). Two gRNAs, with the highest predicted efficiency and

minimal mismatches per gene, were selected to ensure out-of-frame upon Cas9-mediated

cleavage. All sgRNAs were verified with BLAT to ensure that none target any other

sequences in either of the two genomes. Eight scrambled control sgRNA pairs (random

sequence not binding in the murine genome) were designed for controls. Lentiviral CRISPR

vectors (from (Replogle et al., 2020)), each including one pair of gRNAs (**Supplementary**

Table 1) were synthetized by Vectorbuilder. Bacterial stabs were streaked onto LB plates and

plasmids isolated using ZymoPURE II plasmid Midiprep kit (Zymo, D4201) and stored at -

20°C until needed. All 54 dual guide-RNA (sgRNA) lentiviral plasmids were Sanger

sequenced to confirm correct gRNA pairs after amplification.

Cell culture

570 For virus production, HEK293T cells were cultured in culturing media, DMEM/F12

571 supplemented with GlutaMAX™ (ThermoFisher, 31331093) and 10% Fetal Bovine Serum

572 (FBS) (ThermoFisher, 10270106). All cells were incubated at 37°C with 5% CO_2. HEK293T

573 cells were frozen down in culture media supplemented with 10% DMSO.

Virus production and transduction on NPCs

Lentivirus was generated by transfecting HEK293T cells with the CRISPR plasmid, psPAX2

(Addgene, 12260), pMD2.G (Addgene, 12259), at a 2:1:1 weight ratio, using Optimem

(ThermoFisher, 31985047) and Lipofectamine 3000 (ThermoFisher, L3000015). The

transfected HEK293T cells were cultured for 72 hours, and viral particles collected from the

medium after 48 and 72hours, passing the supernatant through a 0.45 µm syringe filter (Santa

Cruz, sc-358814) to remove cell debris. After the second collection, 4x PEG8000 virus

concentrator (Kutner et al., 2009; Lo & Yee, 2007) was used to precipitate viral particles.

Fifty µl viral aliquots were stored in -80°C until use. Transduction efficiency for each virus

was tested in NPCs at several concentrations, using serial dilutions of the virus together with

3.2ug/ml polybrene (Santa Cruz, sc-134220). Transduction efficiency was determined using

fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS) of BFP fluorescent cells in NPC cells, 48 hours

after transduction, and an efficiency of ~30% was used to conduct all experiments.

EM KO in NPCs and validation

For EM KO experiments, the NPCs were seeded 24 h prior to transduction. Each lentivirus,

targeting an individual EM gene, was transduced using 3.2 µg/ml polybrene. Non-targeting

controls were used as negative controls for viral infection and culturing effects. After 24 h,

cells were split and selected by 0.5 µg/ml puromycin for 2 days. Cells surviving puromycin

treatment were cultured for another day without puromycin to allow them to recover, then

harvested for experiments using Accutase as described above. Timing was selected based on

the fact that average protein half-life in mouse primary neurons is ~86 hours (Mathieson et al.,

2018) and for EM proteins it is considered even less (~40 hours), thus most of the EM

proteins would be expected to be degraded at the time of our evaluation. The KO efficiency

was determined by PCR, WB and immunofluorescence staining.

598   RNA isolation, cDNA synthesis and Real Time Quantification PCR (RT-qPCR)

Cultured cells were harvested and lysed in TRIzol™ Reagent (ThermoFisher, 15596018).

Total RNA was isolated using Direct-zol™ RNA Microprep (Zymo Research, R2062) based

on manufacturers protocol. The concentration and quality of RNA was evaluated with

Nanodrop (ThermoFisher). One µg total RNA was used for cDNA synthesis with High-

Capacity cDNA Reverse Transcription kit (ThermoFisher, 4368814). RT-qPCR reactions

were performed using Luna® Universal qPCR Master Mix (NEB, M3003) and a CFX384

Touch Real-Time PCR Detection System (BIO-RAD), according to manufacturer's protocol.

Any primers used are provided in **Supplementary Table 15.**

607   Protein isolation and WB

NPCs were collected using Accutase and counted with a Countess II FL Automated Cell

Counter (ThermoFisher). Cells were lysed at 15000-20000 cells/µl in 1x sample buffer

(60mM Tris HCl pH 6.8, 2% SDS, 10% Glycerol, 0.01% Bromophenol blue, 1.25% Beta-me)

supplemented with 1:100 Halt™ Protease Inhibitor Cocktail (ThermoFisher, 78437), 1:100

phosphatase inhibitor Cocktail (Cell signaling, 5870) and 1:100 PMSF Protease Inhibitor

(ThermoFisher, 36978). The lysate was heated at 95°C for 5 min and 1:1000 Benzonase

nuclease (Sigma-Aldrich, sc-202391) added to degrade genomic DNA. The lysate was

aliquoted and stored in -80°C. Western blotting was performed as has previously been

described (Mahmood & Yang, 2012), where 15-25 µg of protein was loaded per sample,

blotted onto PVDF membrane (ThermoFisher, 88520) and stained overnight using the

following primary antibodies: rabbit anti-CHD1, 1:1000 (Cell signaling, 4351), mouse anti-

ACTIN, 1:1000 (Abcam, ab8224), rabbit anti-EAAT2, 1:1200 (Abcam, ab41621), mouse

anti- beta III Tubulin, 1:800 (Abcam, ab78078), rabbit anti-DNMT1, 1:1000 (Proteintech,

24206-1-AP), mouse anti-VINCULIN, 1:1000 (Sigma, V9131), rabbit anti-Myc-Tag, 1:1000

(Cell signaling, 2272). Mouse anti-PCNA, 1:7000 (Proteintech, 60097-1-Ig) was incubated at

RT for 1.5 h. Blots were stained with secondary antibodies: Donkey anti-Mouse IgG, 1:15000

(LICOR, 926-68072), donkey anti-abbit IgG, 1:15000 (LICOR, 926-32213) for 1 h at RT.

After washing, blots were visualized with Odyssey® CLx Imager and protein quantification

was evaluated by Image J (PMC3855844).

Immunofluorescence

NPCs were cultured on PDL/Laminin-coated 8-well culture slide (Falcon, 354118) for 24-48

hours, fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA), blocked with 5% NGS in 0.1% PBS-T and

stained using primary antibodies against rabbit anti-Kmt2a, 1:200 (Cell signaling, 14197),

rabbit anti-EAAT2 1:400 (Abcam, ab41621) and mouse beta III Tubulin 1:200 (Abcam,

ab78078), overnight. The following day, cells were stained using secondary antibodies: Alexa

goat anti-rabbit 647, 1:1000 (ThermoFisher, A-21244) and Alexa goat anti-mouse 555,

1:1000 (ThermoFisher, A-32727). Cells were mounted with Fluoromount-G™ Mounting

Medium, with DAPI (ThermoFisher, 00-4959-52). Images were captured with Olympus

Confocal microscopy (Olympus Fluoroview, FV4000), processed with Fiji and quantified

with CellProfiler. Statistical analysis was done using GraphPad Prism v10.4.

Overexpression

NPCs were seeded at a density of approximately 250,000 cells per well in PDL and Laminin

coated 6-well plates, 24 hours prior to transfection. The following day, cells were co-

transfected with 2.5 µg of either the *Zic4* overexpression plasmid or the corresponding

plasmid backbone (control), along with 7.5 µl of Lipofectamine 3000, following the

manufacturer's protocol. Cells were harvested 24 hours post-transfection for downstream

analysis.

DNA sample isolation and preparation

Genomic DNA isolated from cells using Monarch® HMW DNA Extraction Kit for Cells &

Blood (NEB, T3050) followed the manufacturers protocol for DNA extraction from cells. The

concentration and quality of DNA was measured by Nanodrop (ThermoFisher) and Qubit to

quantify the precise amount of double strand DNA via Qubit dsDNA HS assay kit

(ThermoFisher, Q33231). High molecular weight (HMW) DNA was sheared to 20-30 kb to

achieve consistent size and to optimize ONT sequencing yield. HMW DNA was loaded to a

hydro-tube assembled with hydropore-syringe (Diagenode, E07010003), inserted into the

cassette, installed on a base unit and then sheared by Megaruptor® 3 (Diagenode) using the

following settings: a volume of 70 µl, a speed of 30, and a concentration of 50 ng/µl. The size

of sheared DNA was evaluated with HS Large Fragment 50 kb kit (Agilent, DNF-464-0500)

on a Fragment Analyzer, proceeded by High Sensitivity Large Fragment 50 kb Analysis

software.

ONT-DNA sequencing library construction

Library preparation for ONT-DNA sequencing used the ONT Ligation Sequencing kit V14

(ONT, SQK-LSK114), using 1µg sheared genomic HMW DNA in 47 µl nuclease-free water

(ThermoFisher, Am9937) as input, followed by priming and loading R10.4.1 flow cell (FLO-

PRO114M, ONT) on PromethION 24 sequencer following the manufacturer's instructions,

see supplementary methods for details. Nanopore sequencing was performed using the

following settings: a Run limit of 96 h, a Minimum read length of 200 bp, and Super-Accurate

Basecalling Model with 5mC and 5hmC modified base context. To increase the output, flow

cells were washed once after 22-24 h of sequencing using Flow Cell Wash kit XL (ONT,

EXP-WAS004-XL), followed by 1-1.5 h waiting time. Then priming and loading library

procedures were the same as described previously. Around 70 Gigabites estimated bases with

an average read length of 20 kb were achieved per sample.

Detection of KO efficiency from ONT sequencing data.

We developed a computational tool, *samCRISPR*, to estimate CRISPR/Cas9 KO efficiency

using ONT long-read whole-genome sequencing (WGS) data. The name "samCRISPR"

references both SAMtools, from which the mpileup format is used in KO efficiency

calculations, and CRISPR-Cas9 genome editing technology. SAMtools is used to sort, index,

and filter aligned reads, and to generate mpileup output at the target site, which provides base-

level resolution of read alignments. This output is parsed by our tool, *samCRISPR*, to identify

substitutions, insertions, and deletions based on mpileup letter codes, allowing precise

quantification of editing events and KO efficiency. The tool identifies sequencing reads that

carry CRISPR-induced events within designated target regions using the mpileup output from

SAMtools (Danecek et al., 2021) (**Figure 1F**). To eliminate the chance of counting

sequencing errors in the vicinity of target regions as actual CRISPR events, the counting of

CRISPR events was restricted to 1bp upstream and 1bp downstream of Cas9 cut sites.

CRISPR events are defined as mutations occurring within ±1 base pairs of the predicted cut

site, located 3 bp upstream of the PAM sequence. This narrow window was chosen to

minimize false positives caused by sequencing or alignment errors near Cas9 cleavage sites.

KO efficiency is calculated as the ratio of reads with CRISPR events in the target region to

the total number of reads mapped to that region. To validate samCRISPR results, KO

efficiencies for selected EM KOs were manually inspected using the Integrative Genomics

Viewer (IGV) (Robinson et al., 2011). The script accepts a BAM file, a reference FASTA,

and BED-formatted sgRNA coordinates as input, and supports batch analysis of multiple

BAM files and sgRNAs. It requires a Linux environment with SAMtools for mpileup

generation and R for computing Wilson score confidence intervals (Agresti & Coull, 1998).

The custom bash script is available at: https://github.com/kaanokay/samCRISPR. It will be

made publicly accessible upon publication of the manuscript.

Phasing of ONT data

We implemented a custom graph genome-based approach integrating both FVB and B6

genomic sequences into a unified non-linear reference. A genome graph, a structure

composed of nodes and edges, captures alternative alleles, structural variants, and indels

across multiple genomes (Liao et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2025). Unlike linear references,

genome graphs support the simultaneous representation of multiple haplotypes, making them

particularly suited for admixed or hybrid genomes. Initially, reads were aligned to the linear

B6 and FVB references to generate haplotype-specific BAM files. The genome graph was

then used to resolve homologous CpG coordinates between strains, for instance, reconciling

differences where a CpG site appears at position 6 in B6 but at position 20 in FVB. Whole-

genome alignment of hippocampal mNPC WGS data from F1 B6 × FVB crosses was

performed using MUMmer4 v4.0 (Marcais et al., 2018) to identify heterozygous variants.

Next, Jellyfish (Marcais & Kingsford, 2011) was used to enumerate all 45-mers in each

genome, which were classified into conserved nodes and variant edges. Edges shorter than 3

kb were aligned between genomes to derive CIGAR strings, enabling base-level coordinate

conversion. From these, a pseudo-hybrid intermediate genome was constructed by selecting

the longer edge between B6 and FVB, thus forming a unified coordinate system

encompassing both strains' diversity. Dorado v0.2.4 (https://software-

docs.nanoporetech.com/dorado/latest/) was used to base-call canonical and modified bases

(5mC, 5hmC) from ONT reads. Reads were aligned to both references using Minimap2 v2.26

(Li, 2018), retaining only high-confidence alignments (MAPQ > 20). Strain-specific SNPs

and alignment scores were used to assign reads to B6 or FVB haplotypes. WhatsHap v2.8

(Patterson et al., 2015) was applied for read phasing based on heterozygous variants.

Methylation calling was carried out using modkit v0.1.2

(https://github.com/nanoporetech/modkit), focusing exclusively on CpG methylation and

omitting strand-specific and non-CpG signals. Importantly, all DNAm data were projected

onto the pseudo-hybrid coordinate system, minimizing reference bias during allele-specific

methylation analysis.

Identification of differentially methylated regions

Methylation data for each sample were extracted from bedMethyl files generated by modkit,

which contain per-CpG entries detailing genomic coordinates and read counts. Each file

included approximately 21 million CpG sites. These datasets were imported into R to create

BSseq objects for downstream differentially methylated region (DMR) analysis. To ensure

data reliability, unphased datasets retained only CpGs with ≥3× coverage in at least 80% of

samples. For phased data, where coverage was inherently lower, CpGs with ≥1× coverage

across all samples were included. DMRs were identified in phased data using the bsseq 1.39.4

(Hansen et al., 2012) and unphased data using dmrseq 1.22.1 (Korthauer et al., 2019) R

packages. Dmrseq controls the false discovery rate (FDR) which bsseq controls the family-

wise error rate (FWER). For the phased data smoothing was performed separately for each

allele. Strain-specific CpGs were included during smoothing but were removed prior to DMR

identification, following previous work (Wulfridge et al., 2019). This strategy enhanced

statistical power while reducing spurious DMR detection due to strain-specific sequence

differences. DMRs were filtered using the following criteria phased analysis: ≥3 CpGs per

region, >5% mean methylation difference, and inverse CpG density ≤300 (defined as the

number of CpGs divided by the region's genomic width), unphased analysis >10% mean

methylation difference, ≥5 CpGs, and inverse CpG density ≤120. **Annotation of**

differentially methylated regions

We used annotatePeaks.pl program to annotate DMRs by using UCSC mm10 mouse

reference fasta and UCSC mm10 refGene gtf files. That program calls a separate program,

assignGenomeAnnotation, to efficiently assign DMRs to possible annotations genome wide.

By default HOMER, in case some annotation overlap, HOMER assigns a priority based on

the following: TSS (by default defined from -1kb to +100bp), TTS (by default defined from -

100 bp to +1kb), CDS Exons, 5' UTR Exons, 3' UTR Exons, introns, and intergenic.

Intergenic regions were considered either upstream (TSS) or downstream (TTS) of genes.

To annotate DMRs in phased data, a custom pipeline was employed: The UCSC mm10 GTF

file was converted to BED format using a Bash script. A Python script mapped coordinates

between the mm10 genome, and the pseudo-hybrid intermediate genome used for methylation

analysis. This allowed accurate functional annotation of DMRs in a unified coordinate space

representing both B6 and FVB haplotypes.

Enrichment analysis of DMRs in genomic features

Canonical transcripts of protein-coding genes in *Mus musculus* were downloaded from

Ensembl using the biomaRt package v2.58.2 (Durinck et al., 2005) and annotated using

GenomicFeatures package v1.54.4 (Lawrence et al., 2013) in conjunction with the UCSC

genome annotation TxDb.Mmusculus.UCSC.mm10.knownGene v3.10.0. A subset of these

genomic features was then selected to include only the canonical protein-coding transcripts.

For CpG enrichment, we used R to construct a 2×2 contingency table with the number of

CpGs for each genomic feature and DMRs. A Fisher's exact test was used to assess

enrichment.

Calculation of CpG mutation proportion in haplotype-specific DMRs

We calculated the proportion of mutated CpG dinucleotides in haplotype-specific DMRs

compared to the rest of the genome. The B6 and FVB genome were used as reference and

query for alignment in MUMmer4 (Marcais et al., 2018), respectively. A python script was

utilized to count each CpG dinucleotide mutation category from output of MUMmer4. To

visualize results, for each CpG dinucleotide mutation category, we subtracted the proportion

obtained for the rest of the genome from the proportion obtained for haplotype-specific

DMRs. These proportion differences are displayed as coefficients in the forest plot. The 95%

confidence intervals for the coefficients were derived from the output of prop.test() function

in R.

DNA methylation overlap across individual datasets

An R-based pipeline was developed to visualize DMRs between mNPCs and Day 6 neurons,

incorporating additional conditions including *Dnmt1*- and *Kmt2a*-KOs and Day 2 neurons.

Unphased DMR coordinates (from mNPC vs. Day 6 comparisons) were used to extract

methylation data from the two experiments. CpGs with zero coverage in any sample were

excluded. Remaining CpGs were smoothed with the *BSmooth()* function from the bsseq

v1.39.4 package. The *normalizeToMatrix()* function from the EnrichedHeatmap 1.32 package

was then used to map smoothed average methylation values from each group to a fixed-width

matrix centered on the extended DMR intervals (±5kb) with a 100 bp bin size, and heatmaps

were generated using the same package.

PCA plot of genome-wide DNAm

To assess global DNAm variation, the mouse genome was segmented into 1 kb non-

overlapping tiles using the *tileGenome()* function from the GenomicRanges R package. Tiles

containing more than two CpGs were retained, resulting in approximately 2.7 million

genomic tiles. A custom R function was used to generate a PCA plot based on raw genome-

wide DNAm levels across samples.

RNA sequencing

RNA isolation and sequencing

RNA was isolated as before using TRI Reagent and purified using ZYMO Direct-zol™ RNA

Microprep. For *Kmt2a*- and *Dnmt1*-KOs, the two genes were knocked out individually with a

scrambled control in 4 biological replicates each, RNA isolated and sent to Novogene Europe

for mRNA Illumina sequencing. For wild-type neurodevelopmental cells, 3 biological

replicates were isolated for each timepoint, RNA extracted and purified as before and 200ng

total RNA from each sample processed using the ONT PCR-cDNA Barcoding kit (ONT,

SQK-PCB111.24), according to the manufacturer's instructions (version v111-revG). Samples

were barcoded and pooled at equimolar ratios, then loaded onto 3x R9.4.1 flow-cells (FLO-

PRO002) and sequenced on a PromethION 24 instrument.

RNA sequencing analysis

Short-read RNA-seq used paired-end reads (150bp) produced by Illumina were sequenced at

~78 million reads/sample. Reads were aligned to the UCSC mm10 reference genome using

HISAT2 (Kim et al., 2019). Alignments with >50 mapping quality were used in featureCounts

(Liao et al., 2014) to create a gene-level count matrix. This count matrix was normalized in R

using the cpm() function from the edgeR (Robinson et al., 2010), accounting for gene lengths

and library size. Protein coding genes with >1 Counts Per Million (CPM) in at least one

sample were retained for differential expression (DE) analysis with DESeq2 (Love et al.,

2014), considering genes with an adjusted p-value <0.05 as differentially expressed. For long-

read ONT RNA-seq, libraries were sequenced with an average of ~10 million reads and a

median read length of ~1.1kb. Reads were aligned to the UCSC mm10 reference genome with

Minimap2 (Li, 2018) using -uf and -ax splice arguments. featureCounts was utilized to

generate the gene-level count matrix with its -L argument for long reads. DE analysis

followed the same procedure as for short-read data. To ensure reliability, a histogram plot of

unadjusted p-values for all genes with >1 CPM was created in R. To stabilize variance,

regularized log transformation (rlog) was applied to raw expression values of retained genes

using the DESeq2 package. PCA was performed on the transposed rlog-transformed

expression matrix using *prcomp()*, and the first two principal components (PC1 and PC2)

were visualized using ggplot2.

821　Obtaining promoters of mouse protein-coding genes

822　The *promoters()* function of the R package TxDb.Mmusculus.UCSC.mm10.knownGene v3.2

823　was utilized to fetch out UCSC mm10 coordinates of promoters. The promoter definition was

824　considered 2kb upstream and 500bp downstream of transcription start site (TSS) of canonical

825　transcript of each gene. The mouse protein coding gene list was downloaded from

826　https://ftp.ncbi.nih.gov/gene/DATA/gene_info.gz.

827　Clustering of epigenetic machinery KOs based on DNAm promoter abnormalities

828　We used NMF on smoothed DNAm levels over all promoters of protein-coding genes

829　(Cemgil, 2009). CpGs with more than 3x coverage across at least more than 80% of samples

830　were kept in our analysis. The promoters with no retained CpGs were discarded. The number

831　of latent factors was chosen to be 3 (Boukas et al., 2019). The brunet model in the R package

832　nmf v0.28 was employed in decomposition.

833　Inspection of STRING interactions of EM genes

These interactions consisted of three categories: known interactions derived from curated

databases and experimental data; predicted interactions based on gene neighborhood, gene

fusions, and co-occurrence; and other interactions inferred from text mining, co-expression,

and protein homology. To determine whether the shared impact on promoter DNAm is

associated with PPI-nets among EM) factors, and to establish a robust ranking threshold

(parameter k in NMF analysis). We examined interactions reported in the STRING database

(Bernas et al., 2017) using a confidence score cutoff of >0.400.

841　Enrichment analysis and visualization

To test whether overlapping genes between different RNA sequencing datasets was higher

than expected, Fisher's exact tests were performed using the function fisher.test() in R, using

shared detected genes as background. To test if transcription factor targets or imprinted genes

were enriched in DEGs lists, Fisher's exact tests were performed using the function

fisher.test() in R, using detected genes as background. TF target genes were obtained from

https://tfbsdb.systemsbiology.net/ (Plaisier et al., 2016) and the TFlink (https://tflink.net/

(Liska et al., 2022) databases. A list of mouse imprinted genes was obtained from the

Imprinted Gene Database (https://www.geneimprint.com/site/genes-by-

species.Mus+musculus), filtering away genes with "unknown" or "not imprinted" status.

Gene ontology analysis

To estimate enrichment in certain gene ontology (GO) terms in RNA sequencing datasets, the

Webgestalt 2024 (Elizarraras et al., 2024) webtool was used, using mouse protein-coding

genes as background. The GO term "Biological Process" was evaluated and FDR<0.05 used

to estimate significance. The top 10-15 terms were reported for each analysis. For enrichment

of certain GO terms and KEGGs pathways in genes associating with latent factors in the NMF

analysis, EnrichR (Kuleshov et al., 2016) webtool was used.

Transcription factor motif enrichment analysis

For identification of TF motif enrichment in DMRs and promoter regions, the Analysis for

Motif Enrichment (AME) tool within MEME-suite v5.5.8 was used. The top 30k most

differentially methylated regions were tested against a background that included random

regions from the mm10 that were matched in size distribution and CpG density and did not

include any of the *Dnmt1*-KO DMRs. For promoter regions of shared DEGs we obtained

mouse protein-coding promoters for canonical transcripts as described above, filtered them

for the shared DEGs and used all other protein-coding genes as a background. In both cases,

we tested against the mouse HOCOMOCO v11 core database and estimated enrichment using

a Fisher's exact test.

Data visualization

For scatter plots and volcano plots, the R package ggplot2 was used (Wickham, 2016). The

heatmaps were generated through the *pheatmap()* function of the R package pheatmap. For

individual gene expression values from RNA sequencing data, and for quantification results

from qPCR, WB and IF experiments, Graphpad Prism (v10.4) was used. Some figures were

generated using BioRender.com.

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Author contributions: H.T.B. and K.D.H. conceptualized project and supervised students.

H.T.B. received the project funding to fund the entire project; J.O., K.M., K.W., and T.P.

performed experiments. K.O., K.D.H., J.O. and K.M. analyzed the data. H.T.B., K.D.H.,

K.M., J.O. and K.O. wrote manuscript. K.A. K.W. and T.P. edited manuscript.

Declaration of interest: H.T.B. is a consultant for Mahzi therapeutics and founder of

KALDUR therapeutics.

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Supplemental figures

Supplementary Figure 1: CRISPR-Cas9 KO system evaluation. (A) IF staining of isolated mouse NPCs, staining for Nestin (green, upper) and Sox2 (magenta, lower) and DAPI (blue). (B-C) WB and quantification showing *Dnmt1*-KO and scrambled controls in triplicates. Results in (C) show DNMT1 (upper in B) normalized to VINCULIN (lower in B). A t-test was used for significance. (D) KO efficiency of sgRNA 1 in control samples across methods (two-tailed t-test). (E) KO efficiency of sgRNA 2 in control samples across methods (two tailed t-test). (F) KO efficiency of sgRNA 2 in EM KOs across methods (two-tailed t-test). (G) KO efficiency of sgRNA 1 and 2 in EM KOs using *samCRISPR*.

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Figure 1

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