Shared molecular consequences of epigenetic machinery disruption in neuronal
progenitors

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Abstract

The Mendelian disorders of the epigenetic machinery (MDEMs) are an emerging cause of

intellectual disability and growth abnormalities. Hippocampal neurons are a consistently

affected cell type in these disorders. To investigate the effects of epigenetic machinery (EM)

disruption in a disease-relevant context, we established a murine hippocampal

neurodifferentiation model enabling systemic knockout (KO) of multiple EM factors. We then

interrogated each EM-KO using Oxford Nanopore DNA methylation (DNAm) sequencing

and RNA sequencing. Disruption of *Kmt2a* and *Dnmt1* produced strikingly convergent gene

expression changes. However, while *Dnmt1*-KO induced extensive DNAm alterations, KO of

Kmt2a had little effect on methylation. Loss of either EM factor led to premature neuronal

differentiation, partially explaining the transcriptional convergence. The transcription factor

GSX1 emerged as a potential regulatory node, with altered methylation and expression in

Kmt2a-KO cells, and ~20% of its known targets were differentially expressed. Extending our

methylation analysis to 46 EM genes, we found that loss of DNA methyltransferases caused

the strongest DNAm changes, whereas other EM-KOs induced milder-to-no effects.

Clustering of EM factors based on promoter DNAm revealed two EM subgroups enriched for

interactions with the DNAm machinery. Allele-specific analysis identified a shared

differentially methylated region (DMR) at *Zic4* across the entire group of EM-KOs, and *Zic4*

overexpression appears to maintain the NPC state. Taken together, our results reveal both

gene-specific and convergent effects across diverse EM KOs and provide new insight into the

molecular etiology of the MDEMs.

Keywords: Epigenetics, chromatinopathies, DNA methylation machinery, intellectual

disability, Oxford Nanopore Technology, NPCs

Introduction

In the past 15 years clinicians have witnessed the rapid discovery of a group of at least 90 distinct disorders, caused mainly 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., 2024).

Another defining feature of these disorders is that the majority of them (42) have been shown to have distinct blood cell DNAm 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 several 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 is modulated by DNAm dynamics. Our approach, which allows phasing of the genomes, also highlights the considerable effect that genetic variation has on genome-wide levels of DNAm. Together, our results lay the groundwork for understanding how the epigenetic machinery (EM) 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 them 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 eight 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 profiling DNAm (ONT sequencing) or expression (Illumina RNA-seq).

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 and systematic 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 ($p <$
0.001) and 1.4% vs 4.5% for sgRNA2 ($p < 2.2e-16$); **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**). An
underestimate of the actual KO efficiency is expected for both methods due to the small
detection window (+/- 1bp around cut-site), 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 either samCRISPR or CRISPResso2.

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 individual

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

DNAm and transcriptional changes in *Dnmt1*-KO 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, we used it as a positive control for assessing the
ONT sequencing approach. We performed ONT sequencing (Simpson et al., 2017) on *Dnmt1*-
KO and scrambled controls in biological triplicates. Differential methylation analysis revealed
a global demethylation pattern in *Dnmt1*-KO cells, including 141,721 hypomethylated
differentially methylated regions (DMRs) (qval < 0.05, **Figure 2A, Supplementary Table 2**)
and a sole hypermethylated region in *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 motifs using an Analysis of Motif Enrichment (AME;
MEME-suite, mouse HOCOMOCO v11 core motifs). This analysis identified 178 known TF
binding motifs that were significantly enriched (Fisher's exact test, adjusted pval <0.05,
Figure 2D and Supplementary Table 4), including a motif for MECP2, which recruits
DNMT1 to hemi or fully methylated CpGs 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 Kabuki syndrome, another MDEM (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 (Oughtred et al., 2021) and found that of the 24 interactors
represented in the HOCOMOCO database, 14 of TFs exhibited motif enrichment in *Dnmt1*-
KO 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**). We used HOMER to annotate the *Dnmt1*-KO DMRs and found that 2,713 DEGs are associated with 26,909 DMRs (**Figure 2E, purple**). Among these were, for example, *Ppfibp1* (**Supplementary Figure 2B**), a gene 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**), previously identified 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), including for example *Zim1* (**Figure 2H).** This enrichment increased when we focused on the subset of DMR-associated DEGs (Fisher's exact test, OR = 2.13, p=0.003). While DEGs did not overlap with DMRs more frequently than other detected genes (Fisher'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.

We next examined KMT2A, a histone methyltransferase which is expected to have a more indirect influence on DNAm. 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 also perturbs DNAm in neurons, we performed ONT sequencing on *Kmt2a*-KO NPCs in replicates, which revealed only three genome-wide significant DMRs compared to controls. One of these DMRs was 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 DEGs compared to 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 significantly enriched (Fisher's exact test, OR = 1.18 and p = 0.055). To

further explore whether *Gsx1* regulation might also be influenced by other EM genes, we next

examined the *Dnmt1*-KO. While we identified two intergenic DMRs near *Gsx1* in *Dnmt1*-KO

(**Supplementary Figure 2F-G**), *Gsx1* did not exhibit corresponding transcriptional changes

in *Dnmt1*-KO. Interestingly, its downstream targets were significantly enriched amongst

Dnmt1-KO DEGs (Fisher's exact test, OR=1.16, p=0.044). Finally, unlike what was found for

the *Dnmt1*-KOs, 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, gray vertical bar) in *Dnmt1*-KOs (purple) compared to control NPCs (orange). 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, gray vertical bar) in *Dnmt1*-KOs (purple) compared to control NPCs (orange). 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, gray vertical bar) in *Dnmt1*-KOs (purple) compared to control NPCs (orange). 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. Wilcoxon-rank test shows statistical significance, p<0.0001. (J) *Gsx1* DMR (qval < 0.05, gray vertical bar) found in *Kmt2a*-KO NPCs (orange) compared to control NPCs (purple). Flanking regions of DMR are ±5kb. In x-axis, each vertical black line represents a CpG in mouse genome. (K) RNA sequencing results showing normalized *Gsx1* counts in *Kmt2a*-KOs and controls. *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ns=not significant.

Substantial convergence of gene expression changes after *Dnmt1* and *Kmt2a* disruption

Given the phenotypic overlap between multiple MDEMs, we next investigated the overlap in molecular consequences between *Kmt2a*-KOs 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 (Fisher'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 DEGs 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 suggest that disruption of *Dnmt1* and *Kmt2a* may drive cells towards premature differentiation.

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 3E**). 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 3F-G**). 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.

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). We wondered if any of these TFs can interact with both KMT2A and
DNMT1, thereby possibly explaining the overlapping expression changes. By comparing
known interactors for either protein from BioGRID, that were expressed in our system, we
found a significant overlap of 53 interactors (Fisher's exact, OR = 18.5, p<0.0001, **Figure 3I**).
Five of these had enriched motifs in the shared DEGs, most notably SP1 and E2F6 (**Figure
3H, boxes**).

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. Boxes label
shared BioGrid interactors. (I) Venn diagram showing the overlap of expressed BioGrid
interactors between KMT2A and DNMT1, Fisher's exact test OR=18.5, p <0.0001.*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 3706 and 3441 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*-KOs 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 (ORs > 2 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 genome-wide DNAm 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 compared to Day 0 mNPCs, 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**). Genome-context analysis showed 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**). However, methylation levels adjacent to these Day 6 DMRs were also lower in *Dnmt1*-KO cells, suggesting that the effects are not specific to those regions but rather a global effect. Additionally, 1,154 of the Day 6 DMRs were also identified in *Dnmt1*-KO cells (OR = 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 that they are also consistent with aspects of premature differentiation. Taken 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 Fisher's exact test shown for the overlap between *Kmt2a*-KO and *Dnmt1*-KO DEGs with NPC-Day 2 and NPC-Day 6 DEGs, with 95% confidence intervals shown. (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 shows subtle DNAm changes

We next broadened our analysis to assess DNAm abnormalities across the wider EM. 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 46 EM-KOs.

Promoter DNAm alterations depend on interactions with the DNAm machinery

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 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 (**Supplementary Figure 5C**). Hierarchical clustering of EM-KOs using the NMF-derived coefficients of latent factors 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, components of these clusters had a significant enrichment in interactions

with all the 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 groups (Clusters 1&2 and DNMT3B),

had 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 = 0.0014). These results suggest that

EM factors outside the core DNAm machinery may influence promoter DNAm through

interactions with components of the DNAm machinery.

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Figure 5: DNAm analysis of 46 EM KO genes in NPCs reveals shared promoter effects.
(A) A composite graph showing STRING interactions of EM components with enzymatic
DNAm components on top, the heatmap showing coefficient of latent factors for each EM-
KO 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 enzymatic DNAm machinery-

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, 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 haplotype-specific methylation between the two strains.

Using the control samples only, we found 1074 haplotype-specific DMRs (FWER <

0.05) (**Figure 6A, Supplementary Table 13**) (Do et al., 2016; Tycko, 2010), including one

located in the exon 4 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 mouse 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 = 1018)

contained haplotype-specific genetic variants, including insertions/deletions (indels), SNPs

and CpG changes (**Figure 6C**). This variation appeared enriched in exons, 5' UTRs, 3' UTRs,

and promoters but depleted in intergenic regions (**Supplementary Figure 6B**). Within these

DMRs we found 11285 single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs), 7836 indels, 70 insertions

and 64 breakpoints (i.e. 17.92 variants per DMR). In contrast, only about half of the ICRs

defined as DMRs (52,35%, n= 11) harbored genetic variants and these regions carried fewer

variants on average (7.57 variants per DMR). This pattern is consistent with imprinted regions

being primarily regulated epigenetically, whereas non-imprinted haplotype-specific DMRs are

more often mediated by cis-acting regulatory polymorphisms (Tycko, 2010).

To determine if the EM-clusters, identified via the NMF analysis (**Figure 5A**) yielded

any shared DMRs we performed a grouped analysis on the phased data for each of these

clusters, compared to the controls. Cluster 1 (*Chd3*, *Setd4*, *Setd1a*, *Setd1b*, *Kdm5b*, and

Kdm1a) showed a shared, FVB-specific, hypomethylated DMR, 4.6 kB upstream of the gene

Ebf1 (FWER=0.03, **Figure 6D**)*,* which encodes a transcription factor involved in early

neurogenesis (Garel et al., 1999; La Manno et al., 2021). In contrast, cluster 2 and 3 did not

yield any shared DMRs, compared to controls. Finally, we searched for DMRs associated

with our entire group of 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 6C**), 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 6D-E**), 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 6F**). Similarly, prior studies on Sotos

syndrome (Choufani et al., 2015) have reported DNAm changes in the 3' UTR of *ZIC4* (CpG

cg26386385), suggesting this region is sensitive to epigenetic regulation across multiple EM

factors. To evaluate the functional consequences of *Zic4*, we overexpressed Myc-tagged *Zic4*

in NPCs and compared with Myc-overexpression alone. The results showed reduced

expression of neuronal maturation markers (**Supplementary Figure 6G-H**), implicating ZIC4

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

maturation.

Figure 6: Haplotype-specific changes in DNAm. (A) A heatmap plot showing smoothed methylation of 1074 haplotype-specific DMRs across B6J and FVB haplotypes. Yellow and blue represent higher and lower DNAm, respectively. 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 enrichment of CpG dinucleotide mutations within the haplotype-specific DMRs compared to rest of genome. D) A line plot showing a DMR in 5' UTR of *Ebf1* between FVB haplotyped control mNPC (orange) and FVB haplotyped Cluster 1 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. T (E) A line plot showing a DMR in 3' UTR of *Zic4* between B6J haplotyped control mNPC (orange) and B6J 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. A PCA of genome-wide DNAm suggests that the second 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 observed little-to-no shared DNAm changes. This could be because of the relatively short time lapse between KO and methylation profiling in our work. Our data suggests that TFs such as GSX1, HIF, SP and the E2F family transcription factors 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*-KOs and *Dnmt1*-KOs. Similarly, SP and E2F family TF binding motifs were enriched in promoters of shared DEGs while SP1 and E2F6 specifically are known binding partners of both KMT2A and DNMT1. 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 via interactions with the TFs themselves. Importantly, some TFs such as EGR1 are known to recruit TET1, further linking transcriptional networks to active demethylation pathways (Sun et al., 2019). 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 in one of the two haplotypes. This gene is implicated both murine and human neurodevelopment and DNAm 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 this gene is not differentially expressed in our system. Nevertheless, *Zic4* is downregulated during differentiation and overexpression of *Zic4* reduced expression of markers for neuronal and glial differentiation (**Supplementary Figure 5G-H**) suggesting that it may play a role in maintaining the NPC state. It is not clear whether this gene is important in explaining the phenotypic overlap in the MDEM group, but it could have potential utility as a biomarker.

We have established a premature differentiation phenotype arising as a result of KO of either *Dnmt1* or *Kmt2a*. This is something we and others have observed as a consequence of disrupting several other EM factors. For example, a 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. Additionally, in prior work on Kabuki syndrome, another MDEM caused by mutations in *KMT2D*, 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., 2024), further suggesting that premature differentiation may represent a unifying phenotype across a subset of MDEMs. Interestingly, in our NMF analysis, KMT2A and DNMT1 clustered with EZH2, KDM6A and CREBBP, all of which have been shown to regulate neuronal stem cell maintenance and differentiation (Lei & Jiao, 2018; Pereira et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2010), and genes associated with the latent factor of this group were enriched in genes relating to neuronal differentiation (**Figure 5B**). This could suggest that even though the DNAm changes are very small, the disruption of these EM factors affects a core NPC gene network.

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 in these two EM-KOs to transcriptional changes during normal neuronal differentiation, we conclude that part of the overlap is a consequence of the premature differentiation. Nonetheless, we note that the overlap between *Dnmt1*-KO and *Kmt2a*-KO cells appears stronger than either of the overlaps with normal differentiation. Combined with the lack of methylation changes in *Kmt2a-KOs*, we have shown that the expression changes are not a consequence of DNA methylation changes and are more likely to drive this particular phenotype. 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.

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

The NPCs were isolated from an F1 hybrids of homozygous Cas9 mice (B6J and FVB). The isolation procedure was based on published protocols (Bernas et al., 2017; Rybachuk et al., 2019) with minor modifications, see Supplementary Materials for details. NPCs were grown in neuronal growth medium (NGM), which included Neurobasal medium supplemented with 1% B27 supplement (ThermoFisher, 17504044), 1% Glutamax (ThermoFisher, 35050061), 0.25% Penicillin-streptomycin (ThermoFisher, 15140122) 20 ng/ml EGF (PeproTech, AF-100-15), 20 ng/ml FGF2 (PeproTech, 100-18B) and 2 μg/ml Heparin (MP Biomedicals, 0210193125) on PDL/Laminin coated 6-well plates, and frozen down in NGM + 10% DMSO (Santa Cruz, sc-358801).

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). On 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 (sgRNAs) were designed with an online tool (https://chopchop.cbu.uib.no/) (Labun et al., 2019). Two sgRNAs, 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 (Replogle et al., 2020), each including one pair of sgRNAs (**Supplementary Table 1**) were synthesized 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 lentiviral plasmids were Sanger sequenced to confirm correct sgRNA pairs after amplification.

Cell culture

For virus production, HEK293T cells were cultured in culturing media, DMEM/F12 supplemented with GlutaMAX™ (ThermoFisher, 31331093) and 10% Fetal Bovine Serum (FBS) (ThermoFisher, 10270106). All cells were incubated at 37°C with 5% CO_2. HEK293T cells were frozen down in culture media supplemented with 10% DMSO.

Virus production and transduction on NPCs

HEK293T cells in a T75 flask were transfected to produce lentivirus. The transfection mixture contained 2.29 µg lentiviral CRISPR plasmid, 2.08 µg psPAX2 (Addgene, 12260), 0.63 µg pMD2.G (Addgene, 12259), combined with 15 µl Lipofectamine 3000 and 10 µl P3000 (ThermoFisher, L3000015), and brought to a final volume of 250 µl with Opti-MEM™ (ThermoFisher, 31985047). 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, 4× Lentivirus concentrator solution was prepared following the protocol from the MD Anderson Cancer Center Functional Genomics Core, and was used to precipitate viral particles (Kutner et al., 2009; Lo & Yee, 2007). 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 on a 6-well plate 24 h prior to transduction.

Cells were transduced with lentivirus in the presence of 3.2 μg/ml polybrene. Each lentivirus

targeted a single EM gene and 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 (ThermoFisher, A1113802) 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.

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 Kit (Zymo Research, R2062)

based on manufacturer's 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.**

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 1:100 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-Rabbit IgG, 1:15000 (LICOR, 926-32213) for 1h 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 250,000-300,000 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 Myc-tagged *Zic4* overexpression plasmid (Origene, MR216949) or the

corresponding Myc-alone 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 stranded 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 1 µg sheared genomic HMW DNA in 47 µl nuclease-free water

(ThermoFisher, Am9937) as input, followed by library preparing 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 were 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 was 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 *samCRISPR* 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 computing environment for calculating Wilson score confidence intervals

(Agresti & Coull, 1998).

Phasing of ONT data and obtaining CpG-level methylation 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 ONT 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 diversity of

both strains. 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. Guppy v6.5.7 in

MinKNOW software v23.04.5 was used to call canonical and modified bases (5mC, 5hmC)

from raw current signal files fast5/pod5. Methylation of each CpG was calculated using

modkit v0.1.2 (https://github.com/nanoporetech/modkit). Importantly, all DNAm data were

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

haplotype-specific methylation analysis.

Identification of differentially methylated regions

Methylation levels of each CpG 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 (Hansen et al., 2012) for downstream DMR analysis. To ensure

data reliability, unphased datasets retained only CpGs with $\geq 3\times$ coverage in at least 80% of

samples. For phased data, where coverage was inherently lower, CpGs with $\geq 1\times$ 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. The dmrseq controls the false discovery rate (FDR) whereas 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 ≥ 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. 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 computing environment 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*-KO 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 v1.32 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 isolation and sequencing

RNA was isolated as before using TRI Reagent and purified using ZYMO Direct-zol™ RNA Microprep Kit. RNA concentration was measured using Qubit with the Qubit RNA HS Assay Kit (ThermoFisher, Q32852), and RNA integrity was assessed with a Bioanalyzer using Agilent RNA 6000 Nano Kit (Agilent, 5067-1511) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The RNA samples wereFor *Kmt2a*-KOs 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

Illumina short-read RNA-seq (paired-end reads) with 150bp read length on average was

generated from *Dnmt1*-KO and *Kmt2a*-KO mNPCs. The libraries were sequenced at

approximately 78 million reads per 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 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. The featureCounts was utilized

to generate the gene-level count matrix with the *-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.

859 Obtaining promoters of mouse protein-coding genes for NMF analysis

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

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

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

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

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

865 Clustering of EM KOs by NMF based on promoter DNAm abnormalities

We used NMF on smoothed DNAm levels of promoters of protein-coding genes (Cemgil,

2009). CpGs with more than 3x coverage across at least more than 80% of samples were kept

in our analysis. The promoters with no retained CpGs were discarded. The number of latent

factors (parameter k) was chosen to be three based on diagnostic plots of NMF and PPI-

interactions of EM components. The brunet model in the R package nmf v0.28 was employed

in decomposition.

Inspection of STRING interactions of EM components

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. We used STRING interactions (confidence score cutoff of >0.400) (Bernas et al., 2017) to determine whether the shared impact of EM-KOs on promoter DNAm is associated with PPI-nets of EM factors with DNAm EM components.

Enrichment analysis and visualization

To test whether the number of overlapping genes between different RNA sequencing datasets was higher than expected, Fisher's exact tests were performed using the function fisher.test() in R. Shared detected genes were considered background. To test if TF 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 associated with latent factors in the NMF analysis, the 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 (https://meme-suite.org/meme/tools/ame) was used (Bailey et al., 2015; McLeay & Bailey, 2010). The top 30k most differentially methylated regions from the *Dnmt1*-KO were tested against a background that included 30k random regions from the mm10 genome that were matched in size distribution and CpG density and did not include any of the *Dnmt1*-KO DMRs

(**Supplementary Table 16**). 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. Odds ratios were calculated using the following formula:

$$OR = \frac{\%TP \times (100 - \%FP)}{\%FP \times (100 - \%TP)}$$

where TP = true positives, or positive hits in the tested sequences, and FP = false positives, or positive hits in the background sequences.

Data visualization

For scatter plots and volcano plots, the R package ggplot2 was used (Wickham, 2016). For Venn diagrams, the R package VennDiagram was used (Chen & Boutros, 2011). 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. Schematic figures were generated using BioRender.

Data availability

Illumina short-read RNA sequencing data of *Kmt2a* and *Dnmt1* KO mNPCs are deposited in GEO under accession number GSE308011. ONT long-read RNA sequencing data of murine neurodevelopmental samples is deposited in GEO under accession number GSE308012. ONT long-read WGS data of murine neurodevelopmental samples is deposited in GEO under accession number GSE308528. EM KO data is deposited in GEO under two accession numbers GSE308573 and GSE308669. All data will be publicly available upon publication.

Code availability

Source code for samCRISPR is deposited in https://github.com/kaanokay/samCRISPR. Other source codes are deposited in https://github.com/kaanokay/DNA-methylation-paper.

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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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Supplementary Table 16. A list of 30k DMRs that were used as background for motif enrichment analysis.

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).
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Representative immunofluorescence images of B6J-Kmt2a$^{+/+}$ and B6J-Kmt2a$^{+/LSL}$ P0 mNPCs, stained for DAPI (blue) and TUBB3 (yellow). (I) Quantification of % of TUBB3 positive cells in B6J-Kmt2a$^{+/+}$ and B6J-Kmt2a$^{+/LSL}$ P0 mNPCs. A student's t-test was used. *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ns=not significant.

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Supplementary Figure 4: DNA methylation changes in neurodevelopment. (A)
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Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

A Dnmt1-KO DEGs / Kmt2a-KO DEGs

2003 | **1542** | 563

OR = 11.7
pval<0.0001

B

Spearman's ρ = 0.94
p<0.0001

Dnmt1-KO DEGs Log2FC

Kmt2a-KO DEGs Log2FC

● all significant
● shared significant

C Shared upregulated genes

neuron projection development
neuron development
cellular response to oxygen-containing compound
cell adhesion
plasma membrane bounded cell projection organiz.
cell projection organization
cell-cell signaling
response to endogenous stimulus
neuron differentiation
generation of neurons
regulation of intracellular signal transduction
response to oxygen-containing compound
neurogenesis

-Log10 FDR
11.0
10.5
10.0
9.5

Enrichment ratio

D Shared downregulated genes

DNA replication
chromosome segregation
chromosome organization
mitotic cell cycle process
DNA repair
cell division
mitotic cell cycle
regulation of cell cycle process
cell cycle process
DNA metabolic process
DNA damage response
regulation of cell cycle
cell cycle

-Log10 FDR

Enrichment ratio

E

ns
*

Fold change

Control   Kmt2a-KO   Dnmt1-KO

TUBB3
VINCULIN

F

Control | *Kmt2a*-KO | *Dnmt1*-KO

DAPI
TUBB3

100µm   100µm   100µm

G

*
*

%TUBB3 positive

Control   Kmt2a-KO   Dnmt1-KO

H

-log10(adj.pval)

Sp2
E2f4
E2f1
E2f3   Klf3
Mecp2   Sp3
Ap2b   E2f6
Sp1
Sp4
Egr1
Myc
Nfib   Mycn

#Positive
1000
500

Log2(OR)

I DNMT1 interactors / KMT2A interactors

204 | **53** | 151

OR =18.5
pval<0.0001

Figure 4

Figure 5

A

B

Neuron Fate Commitment
Anterior/Posterior Pattern Specification
Canonical Wnt Signaling Pathway
Neuron Differentiation
Generation Of Neurons
Neg. Reg. Of Cell Differentiation
Central Nervous System Development
Monoatomic Cation Transmembrane Transport
Inorganic Cation Transmembrane Transport
Nervous System Development
Pos. Reg. Of Transcr. By RNA Pol II
Pos. Reg. Of DNA−templated Transcr.
Reg. Of Transcr. By RNA Pol II

C

D

Figure 6

A

B *Tet3* DMR
chr6: 83,402,149 - 83,403,051 (width = 904 bp)

Exon 4

B6 Controls
FVB Controls

C

D *Ebf1* DMR
chr11: 44,612,645 - 44,613,494 (width = 850 bp)

Controls
Cluster 1 EM-KOs

Setd1a

E *Zic4* DMR
chr9: 91,454,676 - 91,456,223 (width = 1,548 bp)

Controls
46 EM-KOs

Setd5
Kmt2a
Kdm1a
Ash1l
cg26386385

3' UTR

Supplementary Figure 1

Supplementary Figure 2

Supplementary Figure 3

Supplementary Figure 4

Supplementary Figure 5

Supplementary Figure 6

Supplementary Methods

Dissections and NPCs dissociation

On the day of birth (P0), pups were euthanized by decapitation and the brain carefully dissected out of the skull. The brain was transferred onto a tissue culture dish containing phosphate-buffered saline (PBS, pH 7.4, ThermoFisher, 10010015). Hemispheres were separated and hippocampi isolated from underlying cortex and transferred to ice-cold PBS in a 1.5 ml Eppendorf, keeping each pair separate. Each hippocampal pair was enzymatically dissociated using 0.5 ml 1% TrypLE Select Enzyme (ThermoFisher, A1217701) diluted in PBS followed by a 5 minute (m) incubation at 37°C. Hippocampi were further mechanically dissociated by pipetting 15-20x with P1000 tips (low-adhesion) and incubated for another 5m at 37°C to ensure complete dissociation. TrypLE was inactivated by adding 1 ml Neurobasal Medium. Hippocampi were dissociated further into single-cell suspension by pipetting 15-20x with P1000 then P200 tips sequentially. Cell suspension was passed through a 70 µm cell filter (Miltenyi Biotec, 130-110-916) pre-moistened with 1 ml Neurobasal Medium (ThermoFisher, 21103049) into a 15 ml Falcon tube, centrifuged at 350xg for 5 m at room temperature (RT) to isolate a cell pellet. Cell pellet was resuspended in 1 ml neuronal growth medium (NGM), which included Neurobasal medium supplemented with 1% B27 supplement (ThermoFisher, 17504044), 1% Glutamax (ThermoFisher, 35050061), 0.25% Penicillin-streptomycin (ThermoFisher, 15140122) 20 ng/ml EGF (PeproTech, AF-100-15), 20 ng/ml FGF2 (PeproTech, 100-18B) and 2 µg/ml Heparin (MP Biomedicals, 0210193125), and plated in 1 well each pair on a Matrigel-coated 12-well plate (BD Biosciences, 354234, diluted 1:100 in DMEM/F12). In addition, 10 µM ROCK inhibitor (Tocris, 1245) was added to the NGM to enhance survival for the first 24 hours. The following day, cell debris was washed off 2x with PBS and replaced with 1 ml fresh NGM. After culturing for 48 h (day 3), cells were fed by half medium exchange with replacing 0.5 ml neuronal growth medium, then followed by complete media changes every 48 h, until cells were 75-85% confluent. NPCs (passage 0) were dissociated with Accutase (Sigma-Aldrich, A6964) and seeded on pre-coated plate, including 5 µg/ml PDL (Sigma-Aldrich, P7280) overnight at RT and 5-10 µg/ml Laminin (Roche Diagnostics, 11243217001) for at least 4 h at 37°C. NPCs (passage 2) were frozen down in freezing medium (NGM supplemented with 10% DMSO (Sigma-Aldrich, D8418)), kept in -80°C freezer for a few days then moved to liquid nitrogen for long-termstorage.

ONT-DNA sequencing library construction

For sequencing we used 1µg sheared genomic HMW DNA in 47 µl nuclease-free water (ThermoFisher, Am9937) and followed the instructions from the ONT Ligation Sequencing kit V14 (ONT, SQK-LSK114) exactly. The sample was then mixed with 3.5 µl NEBnext FFPE DNA Repair Buffer (NEB, M6630), 2 µl NEBnext FFPE DNA Repair Mix (NEB, M6630), 3.5 µl Ultra II End-prep reaction buffer (NEB, E7546), and 3 µl Ultra II End-prep Enzyme Mix (NEB, E7546) in a 0.2 ml thin-walled PCR tube (Azenta, 4ti-0792). The reaction was thoroughly mixed by pipetting 15-20 times with P200 tips and incubated at 20°C for 5 m and 65°C for 5 m in a thermal cycler (ThermoFisher Scientific). Samples were transferred into 1.5 ml Eppendorf DNA LoBind tubes (Eppendorf, 30108051), and mixed with 60 µl AMPure XP Beads (AXP) to clean and size select DNA, followed by incubating on a rotator mixer at 10 rpm for 15 m at RT. Samples were kept on the magnet, supernatant was carefully pipetted off and then washed with 500 µl of fresh 80% ethanol twice for 0.5-1 m without disturbing the pellet. Samples were spun down, placed on the magnet and gently pipetted off the residual ethanol and dried for 30 s. Samples were removed from magnet, resuspended in 61 µl nuclease-free water, gently mixed by flicking the tube, incubated for 10 m at RT. Samples were pelleted on a magnet for 2 m. Then 61 µl of clear and colorless samples was obtained and moved into a clean Eppendorf DNA LoBind tube (Eppendorf, 30108051). The ligation reaction was prepared by adding reagents in the following order: 5 µl Ligation Adapter, 25 µl Ligation buffer, 60 µl samples from previous step and 10 µl NEBNext Quick T4 DNA Ligase (NEB, M0202M), followed by gently mixing and a 10 m incubation at RT. Then samples were added 40 µl AXP with gently flicking to mix and incubated on a rotator mixer at 10 rpm for 10 m at RT, followed by spinning down, pelleting on a magnetic rack for 5 m and pipetting off the supernatant. Samples next were washed twice with 250 µl Long Fragment buffer by gently flicking to resuspend the pellet, returned to the magnetic rack to form pellet for 2 m, and pipetted off supernatant. Samples were spun down, placed on the magnet, pipetted off any residual supernatant, dried for 30 s and then removed from the magnetic rack and resuspended the pellet in 25 µl Elution buffer, followed by 30 m incubation on a rotator at RT. Samples were pelleted on a magnet for 2 m and DNA samples in supernatant were transferred into clean Eppendorf DNA LoBind tubes. The concentration of samples was measured with Qubit dsDNA HS assay. The total amount of samples (10 fmol) for making library was determined by the size of samples based on an online calculator of Weight to Molar Quantity for nucleic acids (bioline). Samples for loading were prepared as follows: 100 µl sequencing buffer and 68 µl library solution and 32 µl samples (10 fmol) diluted in elution buffer.

Dissections and primary NPCs isolation

Cells were cultured in neuronal growth medium (NGM), including Neurobasal medium supplemented with 1% B27 supplement (ThermoFisher, 17504044), 1% Glutamax (ThermoFisher, 35050061), 0.25% Penicillin-streptomycin (ThermoFisher, 15140122) 20 ng/ml EGF (PeproTech, AF-100-15), 20 ng/ml FGF_2 (PeproTech, 100-18B) and 2 µg/ml Heparin (MP Biomedicals, 0210193125), and initially plated on a Matrigel-coated 12-well plate (BD Biosciences, 354234, diluted 1:100 in DMEM/F12). In addition, 10 µM ROCK inhibitor (Tocris, 1245) was used for the first 24 hours. After that medium was replaced every two days and cells grown to 60-80% confluency, before passaging using Accutase (Sigma-Aldrich, A6964). After first passage, cells were kept on pre-coated PDL/Laminin plates. After 2 passages, NPCs were frozen down in freezing medium (NGM supplemented with 10% DMSO (Sigma-Aldrich, D8418)), kept in a -80°C freezer for a few days then moved to liquid nitrogen for long-term storage. To minimize variation relating to different sex chromosome complements, we only used female NPCs. Sex was verified by isolating DNA from tails and performing sex-determining PCR (McFarlane et al., 2013) (**Supplementary Table 11**). The isolated cells express typical NPC markers (NESTIN, SOX2, **Supplementary Figure 1A**) and were cultured in B-27 medium with FGF2 and EGF which maintained them in a progenitor state until actively differentiated.

References

McFarlane, L., Truong, V., Palmer, J. S., & Wilhelm, D. (2013). Novel PCR assay for determining the genetic sex of mice. *Sex Dev*, *7*(4), 207–211. https://doi.org/10.1159/000348677