Transcriptional suppression from KMT2D loss disrupts cell cycle and hypoxic responses in neurodevelopmental models of Kabuki syndrome

Giovanni A. Carosso[1,2], Leandros Boukas[1,2,3], Jonathan J. Augustin[2,4,6], Ha Nam Nguyen[5], Briana L. Winer[2], Gabrielle H. Cannon[2], Johanna D. Robertson[2], Li Zhang[2], Kasper D. Hansen[2,3], Loyal A. Goff[2,6], Hans T. Bjornsson[2,7,8,9]*

[1]Predoctoral Training Program in Human Genetics, McKusick-Nathans Institute of Genetic Medicine, Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine, Baltimore, MD, USA.
[2]McKusick-Nathans Institute of Genetic Medicine, Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine, Baltimore, MD, USA.
[3]Department of Biostatistics, Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine, Baltimore, MD, USA.
[4]Predoctoral Training Program in Biochemistry, Cellular, and Molecular Biology, Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine, Baltimore, MD, USA.
[5]Institute for Cell Engineering, Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine, Baltimore, MD, USA.
[6]Solomon H. Snyder Department of Neuroscience, Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine, Baltimore, MD, USA.
[7]Department of Pediatrics, Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine, Baltimore, MD, USA.
[8]Faculty of Medicine, School of Health Sciences, University of Iceland, Reykjavik 101, Iceland.
[9]Landspitali University Hospital, Reykjavik, 101, Iceland.
*Correspondence: hbjorns1@jhmi.edu

Abstract

Chromatin modifiers act to coordinate gene expression changes critical to neuronal differentiation from neural progenitor cells (NPCs). Histone methyltransferase KMT2D promotes transcriptional activation and its loss causes the intellectual disability disorder Kabuki syndrome 1 (KS1) in ways that are not well understood. We conducted parallel studies of proliferation, differentiation, and transcription and chromatin profiling in KMT2D-deficient human and mouse models of brain development to define KMT2D-dependent functions in neurodevelopmental contexts, including adult-born hippocampal NPCs *in vivo*. We report cell-autonomous proliferation, cell cycle progression, and survival deficits accompanied by transcriptional perturbance of oxygen-sensing, central carbon metabolism, and mRNA/protein metabolism pathways, with functional experiments demonstrating disruption of KMT2D-dependent hypoxia responses and proteasome functions. Importantly, signatures of precocious neuronal differentiation accompanied defects in NPC maintenance. Together, our findings support a model in which KMT2D loss causes transcriptional suppression of metabolic programs for NPC maintenance, resulting in exhaustion of precursors required for adult hippocampal neurogenesis.

Main

Trithorax group proteins promote chromatin accessibility by exerting antagonistic functions against Polycomb group transcriptional suppressors to favor activated gene expression states[1]. Fine-tuning of cell type transitions during neuronal development depends critically on this duality, as evidenced

by severe neurodevelopmental defects caused by variants in chromatin-modifying genes[2]. Loss-of-

function variants in genes encoding two such enzymes, lysine-specific methyltransferase 2D (KMT2D)

and X-linked lysine-specific demethylase 6A (KDM6A) cause the intellectual disability (ID) disorder

Kabuki syndrome (KS1 and KS2, respectively)[3,4]. Up to 74%[5] of cases result from mutations in *KMT2D*

(KS1), encoding a major histone H3 lysine 4 (H3K4) methyltransferase which catalyzes chromatin-

opening modifications that promote gene transcription at context-specific targets. Developmental

requirements of KMT2D in cardiac precursors[6], B cells[7,8], muscle and adipose[9], and epithelial tissues[10]

have been linked, respectively, to *KMT2D*-associated cardiac, immunologic, and oncogenic contexts[11],

yet studies into the effects of KMT2D deficiency in neurodevelopment have been limited.

We previously described a mouse model, *Kmt2d+/βgeo*, demonstrating characteristic features seen

in KS1 individuals including postnatal growth restriction, craniofacial abnormalities, and visuospatial

memory impairments associating with a paucity of adult-born neuroblasts in the hippocampal dentate

gyrus (DG)[12]. Moreover, decreased grey matter volume in the human DG was recently described in

human KS1 patients, further implicating this region in KS1-associated ID phenotypes[13]. The continual

birth and integration of new neurons makes adult neurogenesis the most potent form of lifelong plasticity

in the mammalian brain[14]. During late stages of embryonic development, a subset of multipotent neural

progenitor cells (NPCs) persists in the DG, remaining subject to an array of intrinsic and extrinsic factors

affecting NPC maintenance, i.e. self-renewal, proliferation, and differentiation, throughout adult life, and

mounting evidence tightly links metabolic rewiring[15] and hypoxic states[16] to NPC maintenance.

Understanding the role of KMT2D in these processes will be critical to development of postnatal

therapeutic interventions in KS1-associated ID. Furthermore, robust models of neurodevelopment with

consistent KS1 phenotypes are needed to appreciate the target gene- and cell type-specific impact of

KMT2D loss on brain development. Such studies have the potential to identify primary molecular

consequences of KMT2D loss and facilitate targeted disease-modifying therapeutic approaches.

Here, we report that KMT2D loss disrupts proliferation, cell cycle progression, and cell survival in

a manner consistent across mouse and human KS1 neurodevelopment models. Using single-cell

transcriptome analysis in patient iPSC-derived models, we identify preferential perturbance in early,

cycling NPCs and signatures of precocious maturation in differentiating NPCs. We then compare

transcriptional and KMT2D binding profiles to prioritize KS1-associated target genes in mouse

hippocampal cells specifically lacking KMT2D catalytic activity, identifying a perturbance of pathways

involved in oxygen-sensing, central carbon metabolism, and mRNA/protein degradation, which prompted

functional experiments demonstrating KMT2D-dependent cellular responses to hypoxia and proteasome

function. Finally, we explore relevancy of these findings *in vivo*, identifying depletion of hippocampal

NPCs accompanied by an *in vivo* cell cycle defect and overlapping transcriptional signatures in *Kmt2d-*
deficient adult mice.

Results

KS1 patient-derived cells exhibit defects in proliferation, cell cycle progression, and survival

We reprogrammed skin biopsy fibroblasts to generate induced pluripotent stem cells (iPSCs) from
a female with molecularly confirmed KS1 bearing a heterozygous *KMT2D* mutation
(c.7903C>T:p.R2635*), and characteristic KS1 features including growth retardation, facial features, and
congenital heart disease. Neuropsychological testing in a previous longitudinal study[17] of this patient had
revealed a visuospatial memory impairment similar to that described in a retrospective study of KS1
patients[12]. KS1 iPSCs (KS1-1) bearing normal 46, XX karyotype (**Supplementary Fig. 1a**) and
characteristic iPSC morphology (**Fig. 1a**) were selected for comparison against two independently
generated, previously described iPSC lines (C1-2, C3-1) from unrelated healthy controls[18]. KS1 iPSCs
were predicted to be *KMT2D* haploinsufficient due to nonsense-mediated decay (NMD), and RT-qPCR
confirmed reduced *KMT2D* mRNA with equal expression of exons upstream and downstream of the
mutation site (**Supplementary Fig. 1b, c**). Flow cytometric analyses following pulse of cell division
marker 5-ethynyl-2′-deoxyuridine (EdU) demonstrated lower proliferation rates (~25%) in KS1 iPSCs
compared to controls (**Fig. 1b**), accompanied by a shift in cell cycle occupancy (**Fig. 1c, Supplementary**
Fig. 1d) toward overrepresentation of G_2/M phase cells (24% higher in KS1) and underrepresentation of
G_0/G_1 phase cells (23% lower in KS1).

We next generated NESTIN-expressing NPCs through parallel differentiation of KS1 and control
iPSCs using an established small molecule inhibition protocol[19]. RT-qPCR confirmed *KMT2D* deficiency
in KS1 NPCs (**Supplementary Fig. 1e**), and both KS1 and control NPCs displayed normal NPC
morphology (**Fig. 1d, Supplementary Fig. 1f**). Immunostaining against histone marks in KS1 NPCs
detected significantly reduced fluorescence of open chromatin mark H3K4me2 (~65%) and increased
fluorescence of closed chromatin marks H3K27me3 (~99%) and H3K9me3 (~180%) compared to
controls (**Supplementary Fig. 1g-i**). Compared to iPSC data, KS1 NPCs relative to control showed a
markedly greater reduction in dividing cells as detected by EdU incorporation (~47%, **Fig. 1e**) as well as
fewer mitotic divisions over a 72-hour period as detected by CellTrace Violet (**Supplementary Fig. 1j**).
Unlike in iPSCs, cell cycle abnormalities were not observed in KS1 NPCs (**Fig. 1f, Supplementary Fig.**
1k) suggesting this phenotype may be cell-type dependent or lost during induced differentiation.
However, flow cytometric analysis revealed higher proportions of cell death in KS1 cells compared to
controls among both iPSCs (~130%) and NPCs (~115%) (**Fig. 1g, Supplementary Fig. 1l**).

Finally, to determine whether the cell cycle G_2/M bias in KS1 iPSCs occurs in additional KS1
patients and primary cells, we performed cell cycle analysis in primary fibroblasts from two additional
molecularly confirmed KS1 patients (KS1-2, KS1-3) in addition to KS1-1 and two additional healthy
controls. KS1 and control fibroblasts were treated with nocodazole to synchronize in G_2/M phase, and
flow cytometric DNA content analysis at 0- and 3-hours post-release demonstrated exit from G_2/M phase
among control fibroblasts, but this was markedly decreased in fibroblasts of KS1 patients (**Fig. 1h-i**).
Thus, delayed exit from G_2/M was consistent in primary cells from three independent KS1 patients.
113

Deletion of the KMT2D SET methyltransferase domain in isogenic hippocampal cells
recapitulates KS1-associated defects in proliferation, cell cycle, and survival
We selected the mouse hippocampal HT22 cell line for detailed analysis of KMT2D catalytic
function in neuronal context[20]. gDNA sequence encoding the SET methyltransferase domain was deleted
using a CRISPR-Cas9 strategy combining an upstream small guide RNA (sgRNA-1, in exon 52) with
either sgRNA-2 (exon 54) or sgRNA-3 (intron 54) to create deletions of 570 or 660 bp, respectively, as
biological replicates (**Supplementary Fig. 2a**). Targeted cells were clonally expanded for selection of
heterozygous (*Kmt2d*$^{+/\Delta}$) and homozygous (*Kmt2d*$^{\Delta/\Delta}$) mutated cell lines for comparison against the
parental wild-type line (*Kmt2d*$^{+/+}$). Editing efficiency was verified by PCR and Sanger sequencing of
genomic DNA (**Supplementary Fig. 2b-d**). For effects on expression, *Kmt2d* mRNA was analyzed by
RT-qPCR comparing exons upstream (exon 15) and within (exon 54) the deletion site (**Supplementary**
Fig. 2e), demonstrating that mRNA message of the upstream exon was unaffected, while the targeted
exon had ~50% decreased message in *Kmt2d*$^{+/\Delta}$ cells and 100% decreased message in *Kmt2d*$^{\Delta/\Delta}$ cells,
indicating deletion but not degradation of *Kmt2d* transcript. Furthermore, immunofluorescence using
KMT2D antibody with antigenicity upstream of the deletion confirmed presence of KMT2D protein in
Kmt2d$^{+/+}$ cells as well as *Kmt2d*$^{\Delta/\Delta}$ cells (**Fig. 2a**).
72 hours after equal-density plating, cell counts revealed proliferation rates ~39% lower in
Kmt2d$^{\Delta/\Delta}$ cells compared to wild-type (**Fig. 2b**), further reflected by CellTrace Violet assay measuring
less dilution of fluorescent tracer, i.e. fewer cell divisions, in *Kmt2d*$^{\Delta/\Delta}$ daughter cells compared to wild-
type over 72 hours (**Fig. 2c**, left). Importantly, genotype had no effect on parental cell uptake of the
fluorescent tracer (**Fig. 2c**, right). Cell cycle occupancy at steady-state was analyzed by flow cytometry
against marker of proliferation Ki-67 (KI67), in combination with DNA label, revealing enrichment of G_2/M
cells and paucity of G_0/G_1 phase cells among *Kmt2d*$^{\Delta/\Delta}$ cells compared to wild-type (**Fig. 2d,**
Supplementary Fig. 2f). To better characterize temporal dynamics of cell cycle progression, we
synchronized cells in G_2/M phase using nocodazole, and analyzed DNA content at various timepoints

after release (**Fig. 2e**). By 3 hours post-release, wild-type cells showed significantly greater exit from

G_2/M phase compared to $Kmt2d^{\Delta/\Delta}$ cells, with concomitant increase of G_0/G_1 phase daughter cells lasting

up to 18 hours (**Fig. 2e', e''**). Finally, detailed analysis of cell death was performed using flow cytometric

detection of fluorescence coupled to caspase-3/7-mediated substrate cleavage to label early apoptotic

cells. Compared to wild-type, the proportion of apoptotic cells was several-fold larger in both $Kmt2d^{+/\Delta}$

cells (~287%) and $Kmt2d^{\Delta/\Delta}$ cells (~478%) (**Fig. 2f**).

Findings of proliferative defects, G_2/M cell cycle delay, and increased apoptosis in $Kmt2d$-deficient

hippocampal cells upon specific disruption of the SET catalytic domain make this an attractive model for

detailed transcriptional and chromatin profiling of KMT2D function in neurodevelopmental contexts.

Transcriptional suppression of metabolic genes in cycling cells, and precocious pro-neuronal

gene expression in differentiating cells among KS1 patient-derived NPCs

To interrogate transcriptional effects of *KMT2D* loss in the context of NPC differentiation

trajectory, we performed single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq) in iPSCs and NPCs from the KS1

patient and controls (**Supplementary Fig. 3a**). We first inspected cell clusters for expression of known

iPSC or NPC markers to further verify cell identities, confirming that iPSCs displayed characteristic

expression of pluripotency markers including POU domain, class 5, transcription factor 1 (*POU5F1*)

(**Supplementary Fig. 3b**), while NPCs expressed known markers of early neural lineage including paired

box protein Pax-6 (*PAX6*) (**Supplementary Fig. 3c**). A subset of NPCs further expressed neuronal

maturation markers including tubulin beta 3 class-III (*TUBB3/TUJ1*) (**Supplementary Fig. 3d**).

Differential expression analysis in iPSCs and NPCs identified genes downregulated (down

hereafter) or upregulated (up hereafter) in KS1 patient relative to healthy controls (**Supplementary**

Figure 3e). KS1 iPSCs displayed strong transcriptional suppression among 421 significantly differentially

expressed genes (DEGs), with 372 genes (~88%) down and only 49 genes (~12%) up (**Supplementary**

Table 1). In contrast, NPCs showed less directional bias with 346 significant DEGs identified, among

which 147 genes (~42%) were down and 199 genes (~58%) were up (**Supplementary Table 2**).

Intersection of DEG lists showed that 40 genes were shared down in KS1 iPSCs and NPCs, 10 genes

were shared up, and surprisingly, 66 genes were found to be down in KS1 iPSCs yet up in KS1 NPCs

(**Supplementary Figure 3f, Supplementary Table 3**). Notably, among genes down we observed factors

important to stem cell maintenance including transcription factor SOX-2 (*SOX2*), proliferation-associated

protein 2G4 (*PA2G4*), protein lin-28 homolog A (*LIN28A*), G1/S-specific cyclin D1 (*CCND1*), and

lactadherin (*MFGE8*)[21]. 9 HOX genes, known KMT2D targets, were also down as well as

neurodevelopmental disorder-linked genes RNA-binding motif protein 8A (*RBM8A*)[22], small nuclear

ribonucloprotein-associated protein N (*SNRPN*), and necdin (*NDN*). We performed Overrepresentation Analysis (ORA) in iPSC and NPC DEG sets to interrogate enrichment of molecular pathways specifically among down or up genes (**Fig. 3a**). The strongest gene network enrichments were found to reflect those DEGs down in KS1 iPSCs, yet up in KS1 NPCs, i.e. pathways most strongly downregulated in KS1 iPSCs were the same pathways upregulated in KS1 NPCs, compared to respective controls. These networks included NMD, translation initiation, and protein targeting. In contrast, genes down in KS1 NPCs showed enrichment for chaperone-mediated protein folding, G_2/M cell cycle progression, and endoplasmic reticulum/phagosome pathways. Among shared down genes in both KS1 iPSCs and NPCs, the strongest enrichments were in target genes of the transcription factors upstream stimulatory factor 1 (USF1), regulating glucose homeostasis and hypoxia response, Myc proto-oncogene protein (MYC), and signal transducer and activator of transcription 1 (STAT1).

To better resolve transcriptional signatures of neural development, we next focused specifically on NPCs from KS1 patient and controls. We used Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection (UMAP) to visualize single cells in a manner that displays high-dimensionality data while preserving both local and global relationships[23]. Cells of both control NPC lines were tightly clustered, indicating similar expression profiles, in contrast to a distinct separation of KS1 patient cells which appears to gradually lessen in a subset (top) of cells that more closely resemble controls (**Fig. 3b**). By partitioning cells based on expression of cell cycle phase-specific genes (**Fig. 3c**) or maturation stage-specific genes (**Fig. 3d**), we defined an NPC differentiation trajectory consisting of early or cycling NPCs, transitioning NPCs, and differentiating NPCs. We determined that cycling cells comprise the vast majority of NPCs analyzed and exhibit the greatest KS1-associated expression differences (**Fig. 3d**, purple cells), while expression profiles of transitioning and differentiating NPCs show gradual convergence of gene expression (**Fig. 3d**, grey and yellow cells).

We next asked whether differences in cell cycle phase composition might account for the strong KS1-associated differential expression in this population. We analyzed cells partitioned by cycle phase to assign individual NPCs into subsets of G_1/G_0 (~55-61% of total cells), S (~20-21%), and G_2/M cells (~19-24%). As expected, S and G_2/M cells are seen less among differentiating NPCs than cycling, yet proportions did not appreciably differ by genotype, in agreement with flow cytometry data in the same cells (**Supplementary Fig. 3g**, **Fig. 1f**). Thus, cycle phase composition is unlikely to drive expression differences in this model. We next interrogated differential expression specifically in NPC subsets of G_1/G_0, S, and G_2/M cells, and observed similar proportions of KS1 up and down genes in each phase subset (55-66% and 33-35%, respectively), with 102 up and 85 down in G_1/G_0 phase cells, 28 up and 15 down in S phase cells, and 28 up and 14 down in G_2/M phase cells (**Supplementary Table 4**). Individual

205   DEGs were nearly identical in S and G_2/M phase subsets, and overlapped with DEGs from the G_1/G_0

206   phase subset. Thus, transcriptional effects in KS1 NPCs are due to gene expression differences in G_1/G_0

207   phase cells, and not from differences in cell cycle phase composition.

208   Apart from increased rates of cell death (**Fig. 1g**), another factor that could contribute to a paucity

of proliferative NPCs (**Fig. 1e**) would be precocious cell maturation resulting in depletion of cycling

precursors. To explore this in detail with scRNA-seq data, we profiled neural differentiation markers

(**Supplementary Fig. 3h**) to reveal a continuum of increasingly maturing NPCs ranging from immature

cells (*PAX6*⁺) to the most differentiated cells (*MAP2*⁺) (**Fig. 3e**). We further restricted analysis to

transitioning and differentiating NPCs, defining a trajectory that enabled parsing of cells into binned

deciles of increasing maturation (**Supplementary Fig. 3i**). Quantification of cell densities revealed strong

bias of KS1 NPCs in the most differentiated bins relative to controls (**Fig. 3f**). These transcriptional

signatures of precocious maturation were corroborated at protein level by flow cytometric analysis, finding

KS1 NPCs had increased MAP2 fluorescence and reciprocally decreased PAX6 fluorescence relative to

control (**Supplementary Fig. 3j, j'**). Finally, we analyzed DEGs specifically within cycling, transitioning,

or differentiating NPC subsets to determine if particular gene networks drive transcriptional differences

in a stage-specific manner (**Supplementary Table 4**). The most prevalent networks overall, NMD,

translation initiation, and protein targeting, were strongly enriched regardless of maturation stage (**Fig.**

3g). In contrast, DEGs in transitioning NPCs, and to a lesser extent cycling NPCs, show enrichment of

genes comprising the Notch signaling pathway including delta-like protein 3 (*DLL3*), protein jagged-1

(*JAG1*), transcription factor HES-5 (*HES5*), and *CCND1*. Cycling NPCs, but not transitioning or

differentiating NPCs, were enriched for DEGs in anaerobic glycolysis pathways including enolase 1,

(*ENO1*), pyruvate kinase PKM (*PKM*), L-lactate dehydrogenase L-chain (*LDHA*), fructose-biphosphate

aldolase A (*ALDOA*), triosephosphate isomerase (*TPI1*), and polyadenylate-binding protein 1 (*PABPC1*).

228   Together, these results link potent transcriptional effects on cellular metabolism to cell-

229   autonomous proliferation defects in KS1 patient-derived stem cell models, raising the question of whether

230   these features generalize to other independent KMT2D-deficient neuronal models.

232   **Globally suppressed transcription upon loss of the KMT2D SET methyltransferase domain, with**

233   **enrichment of KMT2D-bound genes in glycolytic and oxygen-sensing pathways**

234   We performed high-coverage RNA-seq in three biological *Kmt2d*^Δ/Δ replicates for comparison

235   against the parental *Kmt2d*^+/+ line, each in technical triplicate, followed by differential expression analysis.

236   This revealed 575 significant DEGs at a False Discovery Rate (FDR) of 0.05 in *Kmt2d*^Δ/Δ cells compared

237   to wild-type (**Fig. 4a, Supplementary Table 5**), with Principal Component Analysis (PCA) showing clear

separation of mutant libraries from wild-type (**Supplementary Fig. 4a-c**). A large majority of DEGs, ~76%, were down in *Kmt2d*[Δ/Δ] cells (436 genes), revealing strong global suppression of gene expression. The gene with highest downward fold change was the epigenetic modifier methylcytosine dioxygenase (*Tet2),* which catalyzes conversion of 5-methylcytosine to 5-hydroxymethylcytosine during active DNA demethylation, and known KMT2D target genes such as krueppel-like factor 10 (*Klf10*)[12] were also observed. ORA for gene networks enriched among *Kmt2d*[Δ/Δ] down DEGs yielded glycolysis, HIF1 signaling, Ras signaling, autophagy, BMP signaling, ERK1/ERK2 cascade, and others, while *Kmt2d*[Δ/Δ] up DEGs were enriched in fewer networks including ribosome biogenesis, poly(A) RNA binding, and Myc target genes (**Fig. 4b**). Interestingly, against a defined set of transcripts known to co-localize with translation machinery at synaptic partitions in neurons[24], *Kmt2d*[Δ/Δ] down, but not up, DEGs were highly enriched (**Supplementary Fig. 4d**).

Since KMT2D-mediated transcriptional promotion occurs in a target gene-specific manner, we reasoned that among the 575 observed *Kmt2d*[Δ/Δ] DEGs, a subset of down genes found to also bind KMT2D itself in wild-type cells would more likely represent primary transcriptional consequences of KMT2D loss, whereas other DEGs may reflect secondary effects of broader cellular perturbations. We performed chromatin immunoprecipitation and high-throughput sequencing (ChIP-seq) using KMT2D antibody in wild-type and *Kmt2d*[Δ/Δ] HT22 cells, first analyzing normal KMT2D binding in wild-type cells to yield 3,756 significant peaks (**Supplementary Fig. 4e, Supplementary Table 6**). Of these, 1,235 peaks (~33%) occur within 5 kb of gene promoters (**Supplementary Table 7**). These promoter-proximal KMT2D peaks (KMT2D-bound genes) were most enriched in mRNA 3'UTR binding, Rho GTPase signaling, nuclear factor kappa B subunit 1 (NFKB) signaling, translation elongation, oxidative stress-induced senescence, HIF1 signaling, and others (**Fig. 4c**). Finally, we intersected a list of KMT2D-bound, *Kmt2d*[Δ/Δ] DEGs to reveal just 74 such genes (**Table 1**), of which a large majority (~85% or 63 genes) were as expected downregulated (**Fig. 4d**), including insulin-like growth factor 1 (*Igf1*), fos-like antigen 2 (*Fosl2*), and at least 20 previously described KMT2D target genes in other tissues[7,25]. These 63 KMT2D-bound, *Kmt2d*[Δ/Δ] down DEGs were most significantly enriched for face morphogenesis, glycolytic process, protein kinase B signaling, hypoxia response, and cell proliferation genes, and 29 of these 63 genes are known to be HIF-regulated[26] (**Fig. 4e, Table 1**). KMT2D ChIP peaks at these genes showed clustering of KMT2D peaks on promoters (**Fig. 4f**), often overlapping CpG islands, of genes such as angiopoietin-like 4 (*Angptl4*), Cbp/p300-interacting transactivator 2 (*Cited2*), transducer of Erbb2,1 (*Tob1*), DNA damage-inducible transcript (*Ddit4*), and FOS-like antigen 2 (*Fosl2*), but also clustering at alternative transcription start sites as was observed with retinoic acid receptor alpha (*Rara*).

Noting that a disproportionately high fraction of KMT2D-bound, $Kmt2d^{\Delta/\Delta}$ down DEGs control

hypoxia response, and as the critical HIF1A stability regulator Von Hippel-Landau tumor suppressor (*Vhl*)

was also significantly down in $Kmt2d^{\Delta/\Delta}$ cells, we further interrogated oxygen-sensing transcription in both

$Kmt2d^{\Delta/\Delta}$ cells as well as KS1 patient-derived iPSCs and NPCs. Surprisingly, downregulated genes in

each model were significantly enriched for HIF1A direct targets and genes containing the hypoxia

response element (HRE) RCGTG motif, in addition to known hypoxia response genes (**Supplementary**

Fig. 4f).

Kmt2d-**dependent HIF1A regulation and transactivation, and cell survival in response to hypoxia**

Given consistent dysregulation of oxygen-sensing pathways across multiple KS1 models, we

hypothesized that *Kmt2d* deficient HT22 cells may show differential response from wild-type cells under

hypoxic conditions. To explore this, we subjected $Kmt2d^{+/+}$ cells, $Kmt2d^{+/\Delta}$ cells, and $Kmt2d^{\Delta/\Delta}$ cells to

normoxic (20% O_2) or hypoxic (1% O_2) conditions for 72 hours. RT-qPCR analysis of canonical HIF1A

transactivation targets *Vegfa, Bnip3, Ddit3, Cdkn1a,* and *Tgfb3* in wild-type cells revealed induction upon

hypoxia, whereas $Kmt2d^{+/\Delta}$ and $Kmt2d^{\Delta/\Delta}$ cells failed to induce these genes to the same levels (**Fig. 5a**).

Stabilized, or activated HIF1A undergoes nuclear translocation, so we then quantified the proportion of

cellular HIF1A fluorescence colocalizing in the nucleus under normoxic and hypoxic conditions (**Fig. 5b,**

Supplementary Fig. 5a). Paradoxically, even under normoxic conditions $Kmt2d^{\Delta/\Delta}$ cells exhibited ~1.98-

fold greater proportion (~17.5%) of nuclear HIF1A than wild-type (~8.8%), and further increased upon

hypoxic exposure (**Fig. 5c**). In $Kmt2d^{+/\Delta}$ cells, nuclear HIF1A under normoxia (~7.3%) was similar to wild-

type, but upon hypoxic exposure sharply increased to ~24.8%. Wild-type cells showed only modestly

increased nuclear HIF1A in this hypoxia paradigm, suggesting a lower threshold for hypoxic HIF1A

activation in $Kmt2d^{+/\Delta}$ cells in addition to constitutive HIF1A activation in $Kmt2d^{\Delta/\Delta}$ cells. Under normal

oxygen conditions, we confirmed over-representation in G_2/M phase of the cell cycle in $Kmt2d^{\Delta/\Delta}$ cells,

and hypoxia increased G_2/M phase occupancy in all genotypes (**Fig. 5d**). Flow cytometric quantification

of caspase-3/7 activity confirmed higher apoptotic cell proportions under normoxia in $Kmt2d^{+/\Delta}$ and

$Kmt2d^{\Delta/\Delta}$ cells compared to wild-type, and apoptotic cell numbers sharply decreased in all genotypes

under hypoxia (**Fig. 5e, e'**). In contrast, necrotic cell proportions detected by SYTOX fluorescence were

similar in all genotypes under normoxia, but under hypoxia decreased only in wild-type cells and $Kmt2d^{+/\Delta}$

cells, while marginally increasing in $Kmt2d^{\Delta/\Delta}$ cells (**Fig. 5e, 5e''**).

Comparing transcriptional data from KS1 patient cells and $Kmt2d^{\Delta/\Delta}$ mouse hippocampal cells

relative to respective healthy controls, we also noted strong enrichments of DEGs controlling mRNA and

protein metabolism including protein/nucleic acid deglycase (*PARK7*), serine-threonine protein kinase

(*PINK1*), X-box binding protein 1 (*XBP1*), ubiquitin carboxyl-terminal hydrolase 13 (*USP13*), RNA demethylase ALKBH5 (*ALKBH5*), insulin-like growth factor 2 mRNA binding protein 1 (*IGF2BP1*), and U6 small nuclear RNA (adenine-(43)-N(6))-methyltransferase (*METTL16*). Strikingly, while ~76% of all DEGs in *Kmt2d*$^{\Delta/\Delta}$ cells were downregulated, evaluation of epitranscriptome modifiers controlling mRNA metabolic rates[27–29] revealed that 22 were upregulated while only 2 were downregulated. Furthermore, mutation of a large protein such as KMT2D with over 5,500 amino acids, without proper degradation, could overwhelm proteasome function as has been described in the context of DNMT1 mutation[30]. Upon evaluation of transcripts known to undergo regulation by NMD[31], we indeed observed significant enrichment among our DEGs of NMD-regulated transcripts, as well as genes directly targeted by UPF1 for NMD degradation (**Supplementary Fig. 5b, c**). At the protein level, detection using Proteostat reagent revealed constitutive build-up of misfolded protein aggregates in *Kmt2d*$^{\Delta/\Delta}$ cells relative to wild-type, as well as in wild-type cells treated with proteasome inhibitor MG-132 as positive control, and flow cytometric analysis confirmed increased Proteostat intensity in both the *Kmt2d*$^{\Delta/\Delta}$ cells and treated positive controls (**Supplementary Fig. 5d**). Interestingly, aggregate levels were reduced after hypoxic exposure in both genotypes (**Supplementary Fig. 5d'**). Finally, we explored whether this rescue also occurred in KS1 patient fibroblasts. While flow cytometric analysis demonstrated high inter-patient variation of Proteostat fluorescence at baseline, hypoxic exposure consistently reduced Proteostat fluorescence in KS1 fibroblasts but not in controls, suggestive of genotype-dependent effects (**Supplementary Fig. 5e**).

Kmt2d-deficient mice exhibit depletion of adult-born neural precursors, with cell cycle defects and transcriptional suppression of cellular metabolic pathways

We next asked whether defects from *in vitro* KS1 models affecting proliferation, cell cycle, and survival are detectable *in vivo* in a characterized KS1 mouse model (*Kmt2d*$^{+/\beta geo}$) with heterozygous *Kmt2d* SET domain loss leading to a truncation. *Kmt2d*$^{+/\beta geo}$ mice previously were found to exhibit visuospatial memory impairments associating with reductions of DCX[+] or EdU^{+} cells in the DG[12,32], but neurogenic lineage progression has not been described in these mice.

We used immunostaining against stage-specific markers (**Fig. 6a, a'**) to compare abundance of individual DG cell precursor stages (**Supplementary Fig. 6a**) of adult mice 8 weeks old, comparing *Kmt2d*$^{+/\beta geo}$ mice to sex- and age-matched *Kmt2d*$^{+/+}$ littermates. We observe significantly fewer neural progenitors in *Kmt2d*$^{+/\beta geo}$ mice compared to *Kmt2d*$^{+/+}$ mice at all stages analyzed (**Fig. 6b**), indicating that heterozygous *Kmt2d* loss restricts normal steady states of NPCs in the hippocampus. Importantly, quiescent radial glia-like cells (qRGLs, Nestin[+]/MCM2^{-}) were ~39% less numerous in *Kmt2d*$^{+/\beta geo}$ mice compared to *Kmt2d*$^{+/+}$ mice, indicating a baseline depletion of the adult neural stem cell pool. Activated

RGLs (aRGLs, Nestin$^+$/MCM2$^+$) were ~43% less numerous compared to $Kmt2d^{+/+}$ littermates, and intermediate progenitor cells (IPCs) (Nestin$^-$/MCM2$^+$), were ~26% fewer. We confirm our prior observations[12,32] of reduced representation of neuroblasts (NBs, DCX$^+$) which were 28% decreased in $Kmt2d^{+/\beta geo}$ mice compared to $Kmt2d^{+/+}$ littermates. From these data, we then calculated a lineage progression index to approximate the expansion potential of each successive neurogenic cell type. Although $Kmt2d^{+/\beta geo}$ mice showed fewer total cells of each type at steady-state, the lineage progression index at each cell-type transition did not differ significantly in mutants, in fact appearing modestly higher at the aRGL-IPC transition in $Kmt2d^{+/\beta geo}$ mice, suggesting that cell-type transition defects are not observable at any particular stage analyzed (**Fig. 6c**).

By stratifying our analysis anatomically along the septotemporal axis of the DG, we observe that aRGL reductions in $Kmt2d^{+/\beta geo}$ mice were more pronounced in the septal DG than the temporal region (**Fig. 6d**), congruous with *in vivo* spatial memory defects previously observed[12] which have been localized to this specific DG region[33]. Because DCX$^+$ NBs characteristically migrate radially during differentiation, we compared radial distances of DCX$^+$ cell bodies from the SGZ plane and observed increased distances in $Kmt2d^{+/\beta geo}$ mice (**Supplementary Fig. 6b**). Finally, despite reductions of NPC populations in $Kmt2d^{+/\beta geo}$ mice, we observed no numeric differences among mature neurons in the DG (NEUN$^+$, **Supplementary Fig. 6c**), nor were any gross abnormalities uncovered with post-mortem MRI volumetric analysis (**Supplementary Fig. 6d, Supplementary Table 8**).

For RNA-seq analysis and cell cycle studies in $Kmt2d^{+/\beta geo}$ mice, we employed a saturating EdU pulse paradigm to label dividing cells in 8-week old mice, and sampled micro-dissected DG within 1 cell cycle (16 hours) in order to capture the full complement of adult-born, dividing NPCs (**Supplementary Fig. 6e**), then purifying EdU$^+$ nuclei by fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS) (**Fig. 6e, Supplementary Fig. 6f**). Analysis of DNA content in the EdU$^+$ population revealed enrichment in G_2/M phase and paucity of G_0/G_1 phase (**Fig. 6f**). We next performed transcriptional profiling by RNA-seq in EdU$^+$ DG nuclei, yielding 827 DEGs (**Supplementary Table 9**). Among 416 down genes in $Kmt2d^{+/\beta geo}$ nuclei, the most significant enrichments were for misfolded protein binding, TCA cycle, proteasome complex, oxygen response, poly(A) RNA-binding genes (**Fig. 6h**), including *Pink1*, *Xbp1*, *Usp13*, phosphatidylinositol-4,5-bisphosphate 3-kinase catalytic subunit alpha (*Pik3ca*), E3 ubiquitin protein ligase SMURF2 (*Smurf2*), gamma-amino butyric acid receptor-associated protein (*Gabarap*), and insulin-like growth factor-binding protein 2 (*Igfbp2*). Among 411 up genes in these nuclei were significant enrichments for translation, p53 binding, and HIF1 targets including *Pabpc1* and hypoxia-inducible factor 1A (*Hif1a*) itself. Notably, the upstream pro-apoptosis gene caspase-8 (*Casp8*) was also significantly upregulated in these $Kmt2d^{+/\beta geo}$ proliferative nuclei.

Given the observed transcriptional suppression in poly(A) RNA-binding genes, we reasoned that
improper 3'UTR-mediated mRNA metabolism could lead to accumulation of transcripts influencing NPC
maturation. Indeed, despite little overall bias in up- or downregulation among $Kmt2d^{+/\beta geo}$ proliferative
nuclei, interrogation of canonical positive regulators of neuronal differentiation revealed a marked
predominance of pro-neural transcripts upregulated, having only 3 genes down but 14 genes up,
including copine-1 (*Cpne1*), focal adhesion kinase 1 (*Ptk2*), Ras-related protein Rab-11A (*Rab11a*),
retinoblastoma-associated protein 1 (*Rb1*), and neuronal migration protein doublecortin (*Dcx*) itself.
Interestingly, in KS1 patient NPCs, *DCX* in fact was the single most significantly upregulated gene, along
with others upregulated such as nuclear receptor subfamily 2, group F, member 1 (*NR2F1*), pro-neural
transcription factor HES-1 (*HES1*), and GABAergic interneuron-promoting ladybird homeobox 1 (*LBX1*).
$Kmt2d^{\Delta/\Delta}$ hippocampal cells compared to wild-type had significantly higher transcript levels of brain-
derived neurotrophic factor (*Bdnf*) and neuron-specific microtubule element (*Tubb3/Tuj1*).

Together, *in vivo* studies of adult neurogenesis in $Kmt2d^{+/\beta geo}$ mice reveal reduced representation
of adult DG NPCs from the earliest stages, and cell cycle defects accompanied by metabolic
transcriptional features conserved both in $Kmt2d^{\Delta/\Delta}$ hippocampal cells and KS1 patient-derived stem
cells. Thus, neurodevelopmental disruptions from KMT2D deficiency observed cell-autonomously *in vitro*
are recapitulated *in vivo* in a heterogeneous adult NPC niche in KS1 mice.

Discussion

Developmental disabilities are estimated to affect nearly 2% of school-age children[34].
Improvements in genetic diagnosis have revealed a major emerging cause of ID, the Mendelian disorders
of epigenetic machinery, caused by genetic lesions in genes encoding chromatin-modifying enzymes that
lead to transcriptional perturbance through disruption of local chromatin states[2]. In KS1, mutations in the
histone methyltransferase KMT2D have phenotypic effects in multiple tissues, but neurodevelopmental
aspects are currently poorly understood. KS1 diagnoses are typically made during infancy, but the
inherent reversibility of chromatin modifications raises the possibility that a detailed understanding of
KMT2D activity in neuronal cells could identify molecular targets for postnatal interventions in KS1
patients.

Here, we report that KMT2D-deficient human and mouse NPC models, *in vitro* and *in vivo*,
demonstrate disruption of normal cell cycle progression. Previously, disrupted cell cycle progression had
been described upon KMT2D loss in cardiac precursor and B cell precursor models[6,8]. However, these
studies observed an increase in cells in G_1/G_0, and S phases with a concurrent decrease in G_2/M
compared to wildtype cells, while our findings in NPC models suggest overrepresentation of G_2/M in KS1

versus controls. Collectively, these data suggest that disruption of normal progression through the cell
cycle may be a unifying feature in KS1, given that characteristic phenotypes include congenital heart
disease, immune dysregulation, and intellectual disability[11]. These affected tissues differ in embryonic
origin, suggesting that genes important to KS1 phenotypes support basic cellular homeostatic functions
regarding housekeeping, energy production, or cell cycle progression, rather than genes with purely
tissue-specific function. Notably, Singh and colleagues[35] recently described dynamic changes in H3K4
methylation at developmental gene promoters during cell cycle progression, supporting a cycle-
dependent instructive role for chromatin modifiers in developmental lineage priming.

It is possible that differential representations of cell cycle phase in KS1 cells compared to control
could confound some of our studies, as cellular composition may artificially create or hide gene
expression changes. However, this would only be relevant for genes that show significant changes in
individual phases of the cell cycle, and a recent estimate suggested that only about 850 genes show such
characteristics[36]. Moreover, we sought to eliminate cycle-related confounders by analyzing phase-
specific gene expression in KS1 patient NPCs, but future studies might focus on purified cells from
individual cell cycle phases. KS1 NPCs, in contrast to other models, did not demonstrate a cell cycle
phenotype or strong bias toward downregulated gene expression, and while this may reflect strong
transcriptional effects induced during the *in vitro* differentiation protocol, other reasons cannot be
excluded.

We describe concordance of two additional cellular phenotypes in KMT2D-deficient NPCs:
proliferation defects and transcriptional states indicating suppression of central carbon metabolism and
oxygen sensing. We observe these phenotypes both and *in vivo* and *in vitro*, generating human and
mouse cellular KS1 models of neural disruption which may be useful for future screening of potential
therapies and testing mechanistic hypotheses, and further highlighting the utility of human-derived
models of neurodevelopment[37]. We find these phenotypes to be cell-autonomous in KMT2D-deficient
cells, suggesting that gene expression studies in these cells could yield disease-relevant KMT2D target
genes and pathways. Furthermore, these models demonstrate comparable cellular and transcriptional
phenotypes that result both from haploinsufficiency of *KMT2D* (patient iPSCs, NPCs), and variants that
more specifically target the region encoding *Kmt2d*'s methyltransferase domain (HT22 hippocampal cells,
Kmt2d$^{+/\beta geo}$ mice), indicating that loss, in either dosage or catalytic function, of KMT2D is pathogenic
independent of mutation type.

Our findings suggest that adult neurogenesis defects, which we previously described in
Kmt2d$^{+/\beta geo}$ mice compared to wild-type littermates, originate from a diminution of the RGL stem cell pool
itself rather than from stalling in particular cell type transitions. No gross changes in brain region volumes
or NEUN$^+$ mature neuron abundance in the GCL were observed. The adult DG stem cell niche coalesces

perinatally, suggesting a developmental component to the observed *in vivo Kmt2d*[+/βgeo] phenotype,
although further experiments are needed. While adult-born NPCs comprise only a small fraction of the
largely post-mitotic adult hippocampus, they uniquely display transient functions of heightened
connectivity with outsized influence on existing hippocampal circuitry[38], and further studies on the effects
of KMT2D loss on these learning-associated circuits will be required. Notably, the gene most potently
suppressed in *Kmt2d*[Δ/Δ] hippocampal cells was *Tet2*, which itself was recently shown to rescue age-
related declines in adult neurogenesis and cognition when overexpressed[39].

Genome-wide chromatin profiling revealed that cells lacking functional KMT2D methyltransferase
activity have a subset of differentially-expressed genes which are themselves KMT2D-bound,
mechanistically linking KMT2D dysfunction to the transcriptional suppression observed in each of our
neural KS1 models. We describe systematic suppression of hypoxia response pathways, and
demonstrate KMT2D-dependent differences in hypoxia response including induction of necrotic cell
death and aberrant HIF1A activation. Findings of increased HIF1A activation, yet dampened HIF1A-
responsive transcription programs in KS1 cells, are compatible with chronic HIF1A activity as a
compensatory change in response to the mutation. Future studies should interrogate differences in local
chromatin environment at critical hypoxia response genes in KS1 models, as well as any compensatory
changes emerging in response to chronic activation of HIF1A. Interestingly, at least 33 chromatin
modifiers are known to impact HIF1A-mediated transactivation, 11 of these associating with
developmental disease or cancers, yet KMT2D had not yet been implicated[40]. Two features of adult-born
hippocampal NPCs make hypoxia-responsive and metabolic transcription pathways attractive for future
studies. First, these cells develop in the SGZ niche, where a locally hypoxic microenvironment enhances
their survival[41], making them potentially more vulnerable to compromised oxygen-sensing mechanisms
as they exit this microenvironment upon migration. Second, NPC maturation is coupled to a metabolic
rewiring from glycolysis in NPCs to oxidative phosphorylation in neurons. Zheng and colleagues[15]
recently found this metabolic switch, marked by suppression of glycolytic genes (*Ldha, Hk2*), to be
essential for neuronal maturation. We observe suppression of these and related genes across KS1
models, accompanied by upregulation of pro-neural genes. Thus, future studies should determine
whether rescue of KMT2D-dependent glycolysis programs is sufficient to prevent precocious
differentiation and niche depletion in KS1 NPC models, or whether analogous metabolic defects underlie
previously described premature activation of terminal differentiation genes in *KMT2D*-deficient
keratinocytes[10].

In summary, our findings suggest that KMT2D deficiency disrupts neural development by
negatively impacting NPC maintenance programs of cell cycle progression, proliferation, and survival.

Chromatin profiling in hippocampal cells identified KMT2D-regulated gene programs transcriptionally
suppressed across KS1 model systems, identifying genes encoding critical regulators of oxygen-sensing
and central carbon metabolism, accompanied by signatures of altered mRNA/protein metabolism and
precocious neuronal differentiation. We functionally demonstrate KMT2D-dependent responses to
hypoxia, accompanied by *in vivo* demonstration of stem cell maintenance defects echoing cell cycle and
proliferation defects observed both in KMT2D-deficient hippocampal cell culture and KS1 patient-derived
neurodevelopment models. Together, our findings support a model in which KMT2D loss transcriptionally
suppresses hypoxic response programs for NPC maintenance, causing exhaustion of precursors
required for adult hippocampal neurogenesis.
478
Methods
Animals
The *Kmt2d+/βgeo* allele (MIl2Gt(RRt024)Byg) was generated by Bay Genomics (University of California)
through the random insertion of a gene trap vector. *Kmt2d+/βgeo* mice were fully backcrossed to C57Bl/6
background over 10+ generations, and are born roughly in expected Mendelian ratios when bred to wild-
type. Animals were housed in a 14-hour light/10-hour dark cycle with free access to food and water. All
experiments were performed using mouse protocols approved by the Animal Care and Use Committee
of Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine and are in accordance with National Institutes of Health
(NIH) guidelines for mouse care and handling. All experiments compare mutant mice against age- and
sex-matched wild-type littermates.
489
Patient-derived iPSCs, NPCs, and fibroblasts
Media and reagents are listed (**Table S10**). Informed consent was obtained according to institutional IRB
and ISCRO protocols approved by Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine before skin biopsy and
fibroblast culture from molecularly confirmed KS1 patients (KS1-1, KS1-2, KS1-3) of the JHU Epigenetics
and Chromatin Clinic. Patient KS1-1 was consented for stem cell derivation and cells were reprogrammed
using non-integrating Sendai virus vectors (CytoTune-iPS 2.0, ThermoFisher Scientific). 5 days post-
induction, cells were transferred to mouse embryonic fibroblast (MEF) feeder plates in iPSC media and
monitored for colony formation. 21 days post-induction, colonies were manually selected for optimal iPSC
morphology and quality for propagation. Karyotype analysis by G-banding confirmed 46, XX normal
female karyotype in KS1-1. Generation and characterization of healthy control lines (C3-1 and C1-2) has
been previously described[18]. Feeder MEFs were derived from E13.5 CF-1 mouse embryos and mitotically
inactivated by irradiation. iPSCs were enzymatically passaged every 4-8 days using collagenase and

mechanical dissociation. NPCs were induced from iPSCs as previously described[19]. Briefly, we
synergistically inhibited signaling of glycogen synthase kinase 3 (GSK3), transforming growth factor β
(TGF-β), γ-secretase, and Notch signaling pathways using small molecules CHIR99021 (4 μM),
SB431542 (3 μM), and Compound E (0.1 μM), in the presence of hLIF (10 ng/ml) and ROCK inhibitor (5
μM) for 7 days. NPCs were split with Accutase and propagated in neural induction medium in feeder-free
conditions on a Matrigel.
508

CRISPR-Cas9 deletions
Media and reagents are listed (**Table S10**). HT22 mouse hippocampal cells were obtained commercially
(MilliporeSigma) and maintained in HT22 media (DMEM with 10% FBS, pen/strep, GlutaMAX). sgRNAs
targeting two loci spanning the *Kmt2d* SET domain-encoding region, with cut sites in exon 52 and either
exon 54 or intron 54, were designed and selected for on-target activity scores >90% (crispr.mit.edu,
Table S10), and integrated into Cas9 plasmid (pSpCas9BB-2A-puro v2.0 (PX459), Addgene). Plasmids
were delivered to HT22 cells at 20% confluency using Lipofectamine 2000 according to manufacturer
protocol. After puromycin selection, heterozygous and homozygous cells were clonally expanded and
maintained in culture according to standard protocols. Targeted clone genotypes were verified by PCR
(primers listed) and Sanger sequenced at the Johns Hopkins Genetic Resources Core Facility (GRCF).
A subset of clones appearing heterozygous by PCR (upper and lower DNA bands of expected size) were
found to bear strand invasion in the upper band (**Supplementary Fig. 2.g**) and were removed from
analyses (**Fig. 2a-d**). One such line, mutant Clone 1, was thus grouped with homozygous clones 2 and
3 for analysis, as both alleles were targeted in these three clones. Subsequent functional assays were
performed using Sanger-verified heterozygous and homozygous lines. Cells were tested negative for
mycoplasma contamination.
525

RNA-seq in HT22 cells: library preparation
Cells were plated at equal density and sampled at 60% confluency. Total RNA was isolated from three
biological replicates of $Kmt2d^{\Delta/\Delta}$ clones and $Kmt2d^{+/+}$ wild-type parental cells using Direct-Zol RNA
MicroPrep (Zymo Research), and libraries were constructed in technical triplicate using NEBNext Poly(A)
Magnetic Isolation Module and NEBNext UltraII RNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina (New England BioLabs),
with size selection by AMPure XP beads (Beckman Coulter), according to manufacturer protocols. Library
quantification and quality checks were done using KAPA Library Quantification Kit for Illumina (KAPA
Biosystems), High Sensitivity DNA Kit on BioAnalyzer (Agilent), and Qubit dsDNA HS Assay (Life

Technologies). Paired end 50 bp reads were obtained for pooled libraries using Illumina HiSeq 2500 at

the JHU GRCF High Throughput Sequencing Center.

RNA-seq in HT22 cells: data analysis

Sequencing reads were pseudoaligned to the mouse reference transcriptome (GRCm38) and transcript

abundances were subsequently quantified using Salmon[42]. We then used the tximport R package[43] to

convert the transcript abundances into normalized gene-level counts, by setting the

"countsFromAbundance" parameter equal to "lengthScaledTPM". Next, we used the edgeR[44] and

limma[45] R packages to log2 transform these gene-level counts, estimate the mean-variance relationship,

and calculate weights for each observation. In order to account for the correlation between technical

replicates of the same clone when performing the differential analysis, we fit a mixed linear model, using

the function "duplicateCorrelation" from the statmod R package[46] to block on clone. The differential

analysis was then performed using the limma R package. Differentially expressed genes were called with

0.05 as the cutoff for the False Discovery Rate. When performing the principal component analysis,

transcript abundances were first converted into gene-level counts using the tximport R package, with the

"countsFromAbundance" parameter equal to "no". Then, we applied a variance stabilizing transformation

to these gene-level counts using the "vst" function from the DESeq2 R package[47] with the parameter

"blind" set to "TRUE", and subsequently estimated the principal components using the 1000 most variable

genes.

scRNA-seq: library preparation

NPCs were induced in parallel from each iPSC line (KS1-1, C1-2, C3-1) under identical conditions, and

passaged three times before sampling. iPSCs were detached from MEF feeders using collagenase (200

units/ml). iPSCs and NPCs were dissociated to single-cell suspension using Accutase. Cell counts and

viability were analyzed using Countess II Automated Cell Counter (ThermoFisher Scientific). scRNA-seq

libraries were created with Chromium Single Cell 3' Library & Gel Bead Kit v2 (10x Genomics) according

to manufacturer protocol. Targeted cell recovery for each sample was 5,000 cells. Sufficient cDNA for

library construction was achieved using 20 amplification cycles for iPSC libraries and 16 cycles for NPC

libraries. Sample indexing was achieved using 11 PCR cycles for iPSC libraries and 5 cycles for NPC

libraries. scRNA-seq libraries were sequenced using Illumina NextSeq 500.

scRNA-seq: data analysis

Sequencing output was processed through the Cell Ranger 2.1.0 preprocessing pipeline using default parameters with the exception of --expect-cells=5000 for `cellranger count` and --normalize=none for `cellranger aggr`. Reads were quantified against hg19 using the 10x reference genome and transcriptome builds (refdata-cellranger-GRCh38-1.2.0). The aggregated raw count matrix was then used as input for the Monocle2 single-cell RNAseq framework. Differential gene expression analysis was performed on all NPCs and iPSCs with respect to genotype (KS1 patient vs healthy control) and was performed using the Monocle2[48] likelihood ratio test (0.1% FDR, Monocle2 LRT, Benjamini-Hochberg corrected) with `num_genes_expressed` added as a nuisance parameter to both the full and reduced models. The directionality of the differential gene test was determined by calculating the mean gene expression across all KS1 patient-derived and healthy control cells respectively, evaluating the relative fold change. High-variance genes were selected as those with a positive residual to the estimated dispersion fit and a mean number of reads per cell >=0.0005. Cell cycle stage was determined by profiling cell cycle associated genes across all cells and assigning cell cycle state using the R/Bioconductor package scran[49]. Dimensionality reduction and visualization was performed via UMAP[23] on the log10(counts + 1) of the high variance genes in the NPC dataset. The first 10 principal components were used as input for UMAP using the default parameters of the R/CRAN package umap. Cells were assigned to clusters using Monocle2's implementation of the louvain community detection algorithm. Learned clusters were then aggregated by hand based on marker gene expression into three clusters ("Differentiating", "Transitioning", "Cycling"). Differential gene expression within clusters, and between genotypes was performed as described above. The "Differentiating" cluster was then segregated, and a smooth line was fitted using a linear regression. This line was determined to represent the direction of differentiation by examination of marker genes (Supplemental Figures 3h and 3i). The residuals of this fit were then plotted and deciles were calculated containing equal number of cells along the axis of differentiation. The number of cells in each decile was then counted with respect to genotype.

ChIP-seq: library preparation

$Kmt2d^{+/+}$ and $Kmt2d^{\Delta/\Delta}$ HT22 cells were sampled at 70% confluency and processed for pull-down with ChIP-grade KMT2D antibody (Millipore Sigma) according to ENCODE guidelines. Sonicated, reverse-crosslinked chromatin served as input control. Briefly, ~300 million cells per cell line were crosslinked in 1% formaldehyde, quenched with 0.125 M glycine, and cell lysate supernatants were collected for immediate processing or snap-frozen for storage at -80°C. Nuclei diluted in 1 ml RIPA buffer were sonicated using Bioruptor (Diagenode) for 6 cycles of 5 minutes (60 seconds on/30 seconds off) in ice-cold water bath. Supernatants containing sheared chromatin were pre-cleared with Protein A Dynabeads

(ThermoFisher Scientific) and incubated overnight at 4°C with 8 µg KMT2D antibody. ChIP DNA was

recovered by Dynabead incubation (overnight at 4°C plus 6 hours at room temperature) before 6

sequential salt washes of increasing stringency, then eluted and reverse crosslinked overnight at 65°C.

DNA was purified using DNA Clean and Concentrator (Zymo Research) and quantified using High

Sensitivity DNA Kit on BioAnalyzer (Agilent), and Qubit dsDNA HS Assay (Life Technologies). DNA

libraries were constructed using NEBNext UltraII DNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina (New England

BioLabs) and quantified using KAPA Library Quantification Kit for Illumina (KAPA Biosystems). Paired

end 75 bp reads were obtained for pooled libraries using Illumina HiSeq 2500 at the JHU GRCF High

Throughput Sequencing Center.

ChIP-seq: data analysis

Sequencing reads were aligned to the mouse reference genome (mm10) using Bowtie2[50]. Then,

duplicate reads were removed with the function MarkDuplicates from Picard

(http://broadinstitute.github.io/picard/). Peaks were subsequently called using MACS2[51], with the "keep-

dup" parameter equal to "all". After peak calling, we excluded all peaks that overlapped with blacklisted

regions provided by ENCODE (https://sites.google.com/site/anshulkundaje/projects/blacklists). To

identify genes whose promoters were bound by KMT2D, we defined promoters as 10kb regions centered

around the TSS. We obtained TSS coordinates using the "exonsBy" function from the

"TxDb.Mmusculus.UCSC.mm10.knownGene" R package (Team BC, Maintainer BP (2018).

TxDb.Mmusculus.UCSC.mm10.knownGene: Annotation package for TxDb object(s). R package version

3.4.4.), with the "by" parameter equal to "gene".

Purification of EdU+ nuclei

Mice were given 150 mg/kg EdU by intraperitoneal injection and sampled after 16 hours. Dentate gyrus

(DG) was micro-dissected in ice-cold PBS immediately following sacrifice by halothane inhalation. Total

nuclei were purified as described[52] with addition of RNase inhibitor to all buffers (**Table S10**). Briefly,

bilateral DG from individual mice were dounce-homogenized in 1 ml lysis buffer and layered above a

sucrose gradient for ultracentrifugation at 28,600 RPM for 2 hours at 4°C. Supernatant was aspirated

and nuclei were resuspended in Click-iT EdU AlexaFluor-488 Flow Cytometry Kit buffer with addition of

RNAse inhibitor, and incubated 30 minutes at room temperature. Samples were passed through 40 µm

filter, stained with 1 µg/ml DAPI, and kept on ice before sorting. Nuclear lysates processed identically

from non-EdU-injected mice served as negative controls during sorting with Beckman Coulter MoFlo Cell

Sorter as above. Cell cycle analysis by DNA content was performed with analysis gates discriminating

2N and 4N cells by DAPI fluorescence.

RNA-seq: EdU+ nuclei

Purified EdU+ nuclei from *Kmt2d+/βgeo* female mice (n=3) and sex- and age-matched littermates (n=3)

were sorted into Smart-Seq 2 lysis buffer (2 μL Smart-Seq2 lysis buffer with RNase inhibitor, 1 μL oligo-

dT primer, and 1 μL dNTPs), briefly spun by tabletop microcentrifuge, and snap-frozen on dry ice. Lysates

were stored at -80°C until cDNA conversion. Nuclei were processed according to a modified Smart-seq2

protocol[53]. Briefly, lysates were thawed to 4°C, heated to 72°C for 5 minutes, and immediately placed on

ice. Template-switching first-strand cDNA synthesis was performed using a 5'-biotinylated TSO oligo.

cDNAs were amplified using 22 cycles of KAPA HiFi PCR and 5'-biotinylated ISPCR primer. Amplified

cDNA was cleaned using 1:1 ratio of Ampure XP beads and approximately 250 pg was input to a one-

quarter-sized Nextera XT tagmentation reaction. Tagmented fragments were amplified for 20 enrichment

cycles and dual indexes were added to each well to uniquely label each library. Concentrations were

assessed with Quant-iT PicoGreen dsDNA Reagent (Invitrogen) and samples were diluted to ~2nM and

pooled. Pooled libraries were sequenced on the Illumina HiSeq 2500 platform to a target mean depth of

~8 x 105 bp paired-end fragments per cycle at the Johns Hopkins Genetic Resources Core Facility. For

all libraries, paired-end reads were aligned to the mouse reference genome (mm10) using HISAT2[54] with

default parameters except: -p 8. Aligned reads from individual samples were quantified against a

reference genome (GENCODE vM8)[55]. Quantification was performed using cuffquant with default

parameters and the following additional arguments: --no-update-check –p 8. Normalized expression

estimates across all samples were obtained using cuffnorm with default parameters[56].

RT-qPCR

Total RNA was isolated by RNeasy Mini (Qiagen) and cDNA libraries were constructed with High-

Capacity cDNA Reverse Transcription Kit (Applied Biosystems) according to manufacturer protocols.

Probes were from Taqman (ThermoFisher Scientific, **Table S10**).

Immunostaining, confocal imaging, and processing

Coronal brain sections (30 µm) through the entire dentate gyrus (every sixth slice) were maintained in

serial order. Brains were paraformaldehyde-fixed by transcardial perfusion and post-fixed in 4% PFA

overnight at 4°C before cryoprotection by sequential overnight incubations at 4°C with sucrose

concentrations of 10%, 20% and 30% in phosphate buffer. Brains were sectioned by cryostat (Leica),

directly mounted to charged slides, and stored at -80°C. Antigen retrieval (DakoCytomation) was

performed at 95°C for 20 minutes. After blocking, overnight incubation at 4°C in primary antibodies (**Table**

S10) was followed by 2-hour room temperature incubation with AlexaFluor-conjugated secondary

antibodies at 1:500 dilution. Blocking buffer of 0.1% Triton X-100 in TBS contained 6% serum matched

to the host species of secondary antibody. Tiled, z-stacked images were acquired using an inverted Zeiss

LSM780 FCS AxioObserver confocal microscope and Zen software (Zeiss) to encompass the entire GCL

area of each section using 10X, 20X, or 40X objective. Images were quantified using Imaris (BitPlane).

Cell counts for each GCL slice analyzed were corrected by the total GCL area multiplied by z-thickness

of the image, and expressed as cells/mm^3. DCX$^+$ neuroblast size and distance from SGZ plane were

measured in Fiji (NIH) by experimenters blinded to condition and genotype. iPSCs and NPCs were plated

at equal density and fixed with 4% PFA for 15 minutes at room temperature, blocked and permeabilized

with 0.25% Triton X-100 and 10% donkey serum in PBS, then stained for 1 hour at room temperature in

primary antibodies and 1 hour at room temperature in secondary antibodies. iPSC and NPC images were

acquired using EVOS FL Cell Imaging System (ThermoFisher Scientific) and analyzed using Fiji (NIH).

HT22 cells were cultured on glass coverslips and stained and imaged as above using Zeiss LSM780.

FACS and analysis

Flow cytometric analysis was carried out using FACSverse instrument and FACSsuite software (BD

Biosciences), and FACS was performed using Beckman Coulter MoFlo Cell Sorter with proper gate

settings and doublet discrimination (**Supplementary Fig. 1m**) at the Johns Hopkins Bloomberg School

of Public Health Flow Cytometry Core. Cell samples containing at least 10,000 cells were analyzed from

technical triplicate culture wells and analysis was performed in FlowJo v10 (Tree Star Inc). Feeder-free

iPSCs and NPCs, HT22 cells, or patient fibroblasts were enzymatically dissociated to single cell

suspension. For antibody staining, cells were fixed with 4% PFA for 15 minutes at room temperature,

blocked and permeabilized with 0.25% Triton X-100 and 10% donkey serum in PBS, and incubated with

primary antibody for 30 minutes at room temperature, followed by 30 minutes in secondary antibody and

5 minutes in DAPI (1 µg/ml) for DNA content. Unstained and secondary-only samples served as control.

For proliferation analysis, cells were sampled after 30-minute pulse of EdU (10 µM) using Click-iT EdU

Flow Cytometry Assay (ThermoFisher Scientific) according to manufacturer protocol. Proteostat reagent

(Enzo Life Sciences), CellTrace Violet, and CellEvent caspase-3/7 reagent (ThermoFisher Scientific)

were used according to manufacturer protocol. Proteasome inhibition was achieved using 5 µM MG-132

for 16 hours (Enzo Life Sciences). Cell cycle synchronization in HT22 cells or patient fibroblasts was

achieved by treatment with 250 ng/ml nocodazole (Sigma) for 18 hours before being released into

complete media free of nocodazole for indicated time points.

Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI)

3D T2-weighted MRI (9.4T) was performed in mouse brains following PFA perfusion-fixation by the JHU

Department of Radiology Division of MR Research. Atlas-based volumetric analysis was performed in 25

brain regions, including hippocampus and olfactory bulb. Structural and ventricular volumes were

corrected by total brain volume for analysis (DtiStudio).

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Author contributions

GAC and HTB conceived the study; GAC and HTB wrote the manuscript; GAC, HNN, GC, JDR, LZ

performed experiments; GAC, LB, JA, KDH and LG analyzed data.

Supplementary Figures
Supplementary Figure 1: iPSC and NPC validations and additional phenotyping
Supplementary Figure 2: CRISPR-targeted HT22 cells
Supplementary Figure 3: iPSC and NPC single-cell RNA-seq analysis
Supplementary Figure 4: HT22 cell RNA-seq analysis
Supplementary Figure 5: Additional functional studies of hypoxia response
Supplementary Figure 6: Additional phenotyping of $Kmt2d^{+/\beta geo}$ mice
725
Supplementary Tables
Supplementary Table 1: Differential gene expression in iPSCs (KS1 versus controls)
Supplementary Table 2: Differential gene expression in NPCs (KS1 versus controls)
Supplementary Table 3: Intersected DEG sets in iPSCs and NPCs
Supplementary Table 4: DEGs in NPCs stratified by cell cycle phase subset
Supplementary Table 5: Differential gene expression in HT22 cells ($Kmt2d^{+/+}$ versus $Kmt2d^{\Delta/\Delta}$)
Supplementary Table 6: KMT2D ChIP-seq peaks in HT22 cells $(Kmt2d^{+/+}$ cells)
Supplementary Table 7: KMT2D-bound genes in HT22 cells $(Kmt2d^{+/+}$ cells)
Supplementary Table 8: MRI volumetric comparisons in wild-type and $Kmt2d^{+/\beta geo}$ mice
Supplementary Table 9: Differential gene expression in EdU+ DG nuclei of $Kmt2d^{+/\beta geo}$ mice
Supplementary Table 10: Reagents

Fig. 1: KS1 patient-derived cells exhibit defects in proliferation, cell cycle progression, and survival

a, **b**, Representative immunostaining of iPSCs from KS1 patient (c.7903C>T:p.R2635*) and healthy controls showing normal colony morphology (**a**). Proliferative cells were pulsed with EdU for 30 minutes and quantified by flow cytometry (**b**). **c**, Cell cycle analysis in iPSCs, discriminating 2N and 4N DNA content (G_1/G_0 and G_2/M, respectively) by flow cytometry using DAPI fluorescence. **d**, Representative immunostaining of NPCs induced from iPSCs of KS1 patient and controls, showing expected morphology, NESTIN expression, and proliferative cells (EdU+). Proliferative cells were pulsed with EdU for 30 minutes and quantified by flow cytometry (**e**). **f**, Cell cycle analysis in NPCs, discriminating 2N and 4N DNA content (G_1/G_0 and G_2/M, respectively) by flow cytometry using DAPI fluorescence. **g,** Quantification of dying cells by flow cytometric scatter profiles in iPSCs and NPCs from KS1 patient and controls. **h-i**, Cell cycle analysis by flow cytometry in fibroblasts from healthy controls and KS1 patients (KS1-1, KS1-2, KS1-3) using DAPI fluorescence (**h-h'**), and quantification at 0 and 3 hours after nocodazole enrichment of G_2/M phase cells (**i**). Bars indicate mean ± SEM. Asterisks indicate significance from control mean, student's t-test (*p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001).

Fig. 2: Deletion of the KMT2D SET methyltransferase domain in isogenic hippocampal cells
recapitulates KS1-associated defects in proliferation, cell cycle, and survival

HT22 mouse hippocampal cells targeted by CRISPR-Cas9 to delete the catalytic SET domain without degradation of total *Kmt2d* transcript. **a**, Representative immunostaining confirms KMT2D protein in wild-type cells (*Kmt2d+/+*) and homozygous deletion (*Kmt2dΔ/Δ*) cell lines. **b**, Quantification of cell counts at 72 hours following equal density plating of *Kmt2d+/+* and *Kmt2dΔ/Δ* cells. **c**, Analysis of cell division with CellTrace Violet dye in *Kmt2d+/+* and *Kmt2dΔ/Δ* cells over 72 hours. Less dye dilution in daughter cells at 72 hours (i.e. higher mean fluorescence intensity) indicates fewer cell divisions. No difference in fluorescence seen at the 0-hour dye uptake control timepoint. **d**, Flow cytometric quantification of cell cycle composition at steady state in HT22 cells using flow cytometry against Ki67 and DAPI. **e**, Time course analysis of cell cycle by DNA content from 0 to 18 hours after release from G_2/M arrest with nocodazole, in *Kmt2d+/+* and *Kmt2dΔ/Δ* cells, and quantification of cells in G_1/G_0 (**e'**) and G_2/M (**e''**). **f**, Flow cytometric quantification of early apoptotic cells using fluorescence coupled to caspase-3/7-mediated peptide cleavage in *Kmt2d+/+*, *Kmt2d+/Δ*, and *Kmt2dΔ/Δ* cells. Bars indicate mean ± SEM. Asterisks indicate significance from control mean, student's t-test (*$p<0.05$, **$p<0.01$, ***$p<0.001$).

Fig. 3: Transcriptional suppression of metabolic genes in cycling cells, and precocious pro-neural gene expression in differentiating cells among KS1 patient-derived NPCs

Single-cell RNA-seq profiling in patient-derived cells. **a**, Gene networks most enriched among differentially expressed genes (DEGs) in KS1 patient iPSCs and NPCs relative to respective healthy controls, and DEGs shared in both cell types. **b**, **c**, **d**, Uniform Manifold Approximation Projection analysis of NPCs, clustered to visualize similarity of gene expression between cells. Individual NPCs identified by Patient ID barcodes (**b**) were partitioned into subsets according to cell cycle phase as defined by phase-specific transcription (**c**), and NPC maturation status as defined by stage-specific marker transcription (**d**). **e**, UMAPs annotated by expression intensities of NPC markers to reveal the maturation trajectory. Representative genes (*PAX6, HES6, DCX, MAP2*) demonstrate progression of marker intensities characteristic of neurodevelopment from early NPC (**e**) to differentiating NPC (**e'''**). **f**, Heatmap comparing density of differentiating NPCs in KS1 and controls along the maturation trajectory, using marker expression to define binned deciles from earliest (1st) to most differentiated (10th) decile. **g**, Differential gene expression in distinct NPC subsets (cycling, transitioning, and differentiating), analyzed to identify the most enriched gene networks among DEGs in each subset († FDR<0.05, †† FDR<0.01, ††† FDR<0.001).

794 **Fig. 4: Globally suppressed transcription upon loss of the KMT2D SET methyltransferase**
795 **domain, with enrichment of KMT2D-bound genes in glycolytic and oxygen-sensing pathways**
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a, **b**, RNA-seq analysis of differential expression in *Kmt2d^(Δ/Δ)* HT22 mouse hippocampal cells relative to
Kmt2d^(+/+) cells. Volcano plot illustrates skewing of DEGs (~76%) toward downregulation in *Kmt2d^(Δ/Δ)*
cells (**a**) and gene networks showing highest enrichment among DEGs down- or up-regulated in
Kmt2d^(Δ/Δ) cells relative to *Kmt2d^(+/+)* (**b**). **c-f**, ChIP-seq chromatin profiling of global KMT2D binding sites
in wild-type HT22 cells. Gene networks showing highest fold change in enrichment among genes
proximal to KMT2D peaks (<5 kb to promoter, (**c**)). Intersection of genes observed to be both KMT2D-
bound and differentially-expressed in *Kmt2d^(Δ/Δ)* cells relative to wild-type, with proportions of genes up-
and down-regulated in mutants (**d**) and gene networks showing highest enrichment among KMT2D-
bound, *Kmt2d^(Δ/Δ)* DEGs (**e**). Representative KMT2D ChIP-seq read densities at KMT2D-bound,
Kmt2d^(Δ/Δ) down-regulated genes, including oxygen-sensing pathway genes *Angptl4, Rara, Ddit4, Pkm,*
Aqp1, and *Cited2*, annotated with KMT2D binding peaks (black), RefSeq gene annotations (blue), and
CpG islands (green) (**f**) († FDR<0.05, †† FDR<0.01, ††† FDR<0.001).
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Fig. 5: *Kmt2d*-dependent HIF1A regulation and transactivation, and cell survival in response to

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Analysis of hypoxia response in *Kmt2d$^{+/+}$*, *Kmt2d$^{+/\Delta}$*, and *Kmt2d$^{\Delta/\Delta}$* cells, following 72 hours in normoxic
(20% O_2) or hypoxic (1% O_2) conditions. **a**, Fold induction of HIF1A target gene mRNA, in hypoxia
relative to normoxia, by RT-qPCR analysis (*significance from wild-type induction; negative fold
changes plotted as negative reciprocal). **b**, HIF1A nuclear colocalization analysis. Representative Z-
stacked confocal images of *Kmt2d$^{+/+}$* and *Kmt2d$^{\Delta/\Delta}$* cells under normoxic condition are shown (**b**) with
quantifications of colocalized HIF1A$^+$ and DAPI$^+$ voxels (**c**), and %G$_2$/M phase cells (**d**) in all conditions.
e, Flow cytometric quantifications of cell death, with CellEvent fluorescence detecting caspase-3/7-
mediated peptide cleavage in apoptotic cells (**e'**), and SYTOX reagent for necrotic cells (**e''**). Bars
indicate mean ± SEM, student's t-test (*p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001).
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Fig. 6: *Kmt2d*-deficient mice exhibit depletion of adult-born neural precursors, with cell cycle defects and transcriptional suppression of cellular metabolic pathways

a, **a'**, Representative immunostaining of neurogenesis markers in the dentate gyrus (DG) of adult *Kmt2d+/+* and *Kmt2dβ/geo* mice. Earliest stages of NESTIN+ radial glia-like cells (RGLs) in either quiescent (MCM2-) or activated (MCM2+) states (qRGL and aRGL, respectively), MCM2+/NESTIN- intermediate progenitor cells (IPCs) (**a**), and DCX+ neuroblasts (NBs) (**a'**). **b-d**, Quantification of qRGL, aRGL, IPC, and NB cell densities in adult *Kmt2d+/+* and *Kmt2dβ/geo* mice (**b**). Comparison of lineage progression index, an approximation of expansion potential for each cell type transition (**c**), indicates absence of genotype-associated blockages at any particular cell-type transition analyzed. **d**, Stratified quantification of aRGL density along the septotemporal axis of the DG in *Kmt2d+/+* and *Kmt2d+/βgeo* mice, indicating preferential disruption at the septal DG, a brain region linked to visuospatial memory. **e**, **f**, Flow cytometric purification of cycling nuclei from microdissected DG of *Kmt2d+/+* and *Kmt2d+/βgeo* mice sampled 16 hours after EdU pulse (**e**). Cell cycle analysis in EdU+ nuclei of G_1/G_0 and G_2/M phase using DAPI fluorescence (**f**). **g**, **h**, RNA-seq analysis of differential gene expression in purified EdU+ DG nuclei from *Kmt2d+/+* and *Kmt2dβ/geo* mice. Gene networks most enriched among DEGs down- or up-regulated in *Kmt2dβ/geo* nuclei, showing transcriptional suppression of cellular metabolic pathways and upregulation of HIF1 target genes. Bars indicate mean ± SEM. Asterisks indicate significance from control mean, student's t-test (*p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001), († FDR<0.05, †† FDR<0.01, ††† FDR<0.001).

852 **Table 1**: KMT2D-bound, *Kmt2d^Δ/Δ* down DEGs in hippocampal cells. Positive fold changes (0 to 1.1)
853 indicate genes up-regulated and KMT2D-bound. Negative fold changes (-5 to 0) indicate genes down-
854 regulated and KMT2D-bound. *previously described KMT2D target genes[7,25]
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Fold change	Number of genes	Genes
0 to 1.1	11	*Dazap1, Psmc2, Eif3b, Washc4, Ran, Lrpprc, Imp4*, Sf3a2*, Bend3, Hspd1*, Dusp4*
-1 to 0	37	*Pik3ip1*, Ssc5d, Plekha1, Tinagl1*, Slc29a1, Rras, Nudt18, Slc25a29, F3, Pgpep1, Lrrn4cl, Gpr146, Aldoa*, Dbp, Cpq, Pkm, Socs3, Map3k14*, Rdm1, Rara, Nfkbia*, Klf10*, Tob1, Irf2bp2, Fosl2, Ddit4*, Trim47, Btbd1, Plin2, Mxra8, Spg20, Cited2*, S100a11, Il34, Bnip3l*, Nfil3*, Shb*
-2 to -1	16	*Ccl9, Crip2, Msln, Cp*, Scx, Klhl30*, Vdr*, Tnfsf13, Fcgr4, Emilin1*, Oaf, Aqp1, C1qtnf1, Baalc, Macrod1, Fblim1*
-3 to -2	8	*Ly6c1, Ly6a, Lctl, Plin4, Angptl4*, Tns4, Pkp3, Igf1**
-5 to -3	2	*Gjb4*, Mfap4*

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Supplementary Fig.1: iPSC and NPC line validations and additional phenotyping

a, 46, XX normal female karyotype in KS1-1 iPSCs b, RT-qPCR analysis of *KMT2D* (exon 15) expression in KS1 iPSCs compared to two healthy control iPSC lines (C1-2 and C3-1). c, RT-qPCR demonstrating equivalent exonic ratios of KMT2D exon 15 and exon 54. d, Flow cytometric analysis of DNA content by DAPI fluorescence in iPSCs. e, RT-qPCR analysis of *KMT2D* (exon 15) expression in NPCs derived from the KS1 and control iPSC lines. f, Flow cytometric analysis of NESTIN fluorescence intensity in KS1 and control NPCs. g-i, Immunofluorescence analysis of open chromatin mark H3K4me2 (g) and closed chromatin marks H3K27me3 (h) and H3K9me3 (i) in KS1 and control NPCs. j, CellTrace Violet generational tracking showing fewer divisions (i.e. higher dye intensity) in patient-derived NPCs over 72 hours. k, Flow cytometric analysis of DNA content by DAPI fluorescence in NPCs. l, Sample flow cytometric gating for detection of scatter profiles indicative of cell death-associated cellular condensation. m, representative gating of viable cells and doublet discrimination in immunofluorescence-based flow cytometric analyses of iPSCs and NPCs.

Supplementary Fig. 2: CRISPR-targeted HT22 cells

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a, Schematic depiction of CRISPR-Cas9 strategy to delete a region spanning the *Kmt2d* SET domain in the HT22 mouse hippocampal cell line. upstream sgRNA-1 (exon 52) was combined with either sgRNA-2 (exon 54) or sgRNA-3 (intron 54) creating deletions of 570 or 660 bp, respectively. **b**, PCR with probes flanking sgRNA cut sites confirms deletion in experimental cell lines (*Kmt2d⁺/ᐞ* and *Kmt2dᐞ/ᐞ*) compared to wild-type (*Kmt2d⁺/⁺*). **c**, **d**, Sanger sequences of wild-type (*Kmt2d⁺*) and targeted (*Kmt2dᐞ*) alleles in HT22 cells, mapped to *Kmt2d* locus (mm10) on mouse chromosome 15 using UCSC Genome Browser. **e**, RT-qPCR analysis of *Kmt2d* mRNA in HT22 cell lines. Comparison of exons upstream and within the deletion site (exons 15 and 54) to demonstrate deletion, but not degradation of the *Kmt2d* transcript. **f**, Cell cycle gating in flow cytometric analysis using Ki67 and DAPI to discriminate individual stages (G₀, G₁, S, G₂, M) in *Kmt2d⁺/⁺* and *Kmt2dᐞ/ᐞ* cells. **g,** Cells bearing strand invasion in targeted alleles ("Upper" PCR band tracks mapping to plus and minus strand) were excluded from functional analyses.

Supplementary Fig. 3: iPSC and NPC single-cell RNA-seq analysis

a, t-stochastic neighbor embedding (tSNE) representation of iPSC and NPC libraries sequenced on 10XGenomics platform. Cell clusters colored by cell type and Patient ID. iPSCs and NPCs derived from patient K1-7 were excluded from downstream analysis due to abnormal karyotype. **b**, **c**, **d**, Representative tSNE of iPSC, NPC, and neuronal markers demonstrating expected cell identities and revealing a gradient of cell maturation. **e**, **f**, Proportions of DEGs down- or up-regulated in KS1 patient iPSCs or NPCs compared to respective healthy controls and DEG lists intersected for overlaps among down-regulated and up-regulated genes (**f**). **g**, Cell cycle phase proportions in cycling versus differentiating NPCs from KS1 patient and controls. **h, i,** transcriptional marker-based partitioning of NPCs into bins (deciles) of increasing maturation. **j**, Flow cytometric validation with selected markers in NPCs from KS1 patient and controls. Fluorescence intensities of early NPC marker *PAX6* (**j**) and mature NPC marker *MAP2* (**j'**) are shown.

Supplementary Fig. 4: HT22 cell RNA-seq and ChIP-seq analysis

a, P-value distribution in *Kmt2d*$^{\Delta/\Delta}$ DEGs relative to wild-type determined by RNA-seq. **b**, PCA visualizing expression differences in wild-type and *Kmt2d*$^{\Delta/\Delta}$ HT22 cells, illustrating separation of Clone 1 which bears strand invasion. **c**, MA plot illustrating relationships between average expression and log2 fold change for DEGs. **d**, Significant enrichment of *Kmt2d*$^{\Delta/\Delta}$ DEGs among published synapsed-localized transcripts[24]. **e**, KMT2D ChIP-seq analysis comparing KMT2D peak density and peak size (bp) in wild-type HT22 cells. **f**, Significant enrichments of Hypoxia Response genes, HIF1A Direct Target genes, and genes containing the Hypoxia Response Element (HRE) RCGTG motif among observed DEGs in KS1 Patient iPSCs, KS1 Patient NPCs, *Kmt2d*$^{\Delta/\Delta}$ HT22 cells, as well as genes KMT2D-bound in *Kmt2d*$^{+/+}$ HT22 cells, and KMT2D-bound, down-regulated genes in *Kmt2d*$^{\Delta/\Delta}$ HT22 cells). Fisher's Exact Test (*p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001).

Supplementary Fig. 5: Additional functional studies of hypoxia response in HT22 cells

a, Representative confocal images of *Kmt2d+/Δ, Kmt2dΔ/Δ*, and wild-type HT22 cells in normoxic and hypoxic (72 hours with 1% O_2) conditions. Immunofluorescence against HIF1A for nuclear localization studies and Proteostat for analysis of misfolded protein aggregates. **b**, **c**, Significant enrichment of NMD-regulated transcripts[31] (**b**) and direct UPF1 targets (**c**) among observed DEGs in patient-derived cells and HT22 cells. Fisher's Exact Test (*p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001). **d-e** Flow cytometric analysis of Proteostat fluorescence under normoxic or hypoxic conditions, with quantification, in HT22 cells (**d, d'**) and patient fibroblasts (**e-e'**). Bars indicate mean ± SEM. Asterisks indicate significance from wild-type mean for each condition, student's t-test (*p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001). Empty set symbol indicates significance from normoxic condition for each genotype, student's t-test (ø<0.05, øø<0.01).

938 **Supplementary Fig. 6: Additional phenotyping of *Kmt2d+/βgeo* mice**
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a, Schematic depicting marker expression during sequential stages of adult neurogenesis in the
dentate gyrus (DG). **b**, Quantification of DCX+ cell body distance from SGZ plane in 8-week-old mice.
c, Quantification of NEUN+ cells in the granule cell layer (GCL) of 8-week-old mice. **d**, Sample images
of T2-weighted MRI (9.4T) in PFA-fixed brains of female mice 4 months old. **e, e'**, Confocal images
illustrate specificity of EdU uptake in the SGZ niche of the adult DG (**e**) and purified nuclei (**e'**). **f,**
Sample FACS gating for viable nuclei and doublet discrimination during purification of cycling EdU+
nuclei purified from *Kmt2d+/+* and *Kmt2d+/βgeo* mice at 16 hours post-EdU pulse for RNA-seq and cell
cycle analysis.
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