Amelioration of Brain Histone Methylopathies by Balancing a Writer-Eraser Duo KMT2A-KDM5C

Christina N. Vallianatos[1], Brynne Raines[2], Robert S. Porter[1], Michael C. Wu[3], Patricia M. Garay[1], Katie M. Collette[2], Young Ah Seo[4], Yali Dou[5], Catherine E. Keegan[1,6], Natalie Tronson[2,*], and Shigeki Iwase[1,*]

[1]Department of Human Genetics, Michigan Medicine, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI 48109

[2]Department of Psychology, College of LS&A, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI 48109

[3]Neurodigitech, LLC, San Diego, CA

[4]Department of Nutritional Sciences, School of Public Health, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI 48109

[5]Department of Pathology, Michigan Medicine, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI 48109

[6]Department of Pediatrics, Michigan Medicine, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI 48109

* Co-corresponding authors

Please address correspondence to: siwase@umich.edu and ntronson@umich.edu

Abstract

Histone H3 lysine 4 methylation (H3K4me) is extensively regulated by seven writer- and six eraser-enzymes in mammals. Nine H3K4me enzymes are associated with neurodevelopmental disorders to date, indicating their important roles in the brain. Opposing activities of writer-eraser enzymes highlight activity modulation as a therapeutic strategy. However, interplay among H3K4me enzymes in the brain remains largely unknown. Here, we show functional interactions of a writer-eraser duo, *KMT2A* and *KDM5C*, which are responsible for Wiedemann-Steiner Syndrome (WDSTS), and mental retardation X-linked syndromic Claes-Jensen type (MRXSCJ), respectively. Despite opposite enzymatic activities, the WDSTS and MRXSCJ mouse models, deficient for either *Kmt2a* or *Kdm5c*, shared similar brain transcriptomes, reduced dendritic spines, and increased aggression. Double mutation of *Kmt2a* and *Kdm5c* partially corrected altered H3K4me landscapes and transcriptomes from each single mutants, and clearly reversed dendritic morphology deficits and key behavioral traits including aggression. Thus, our study uncovers common yet mutually-suppressive aspects of WDSTS and MRXCJ and provides a proof of principle for balancing a single writer-eraser pair to ameliorate their associated disorders.

Introduction

Dysregulation of histone methylation has emerged as a major contributor of neurodevelopmental disorders (NDDs) such as autism spectrum disorder and intellectual disability (1-3). Histone methylation can be placed on a subset of lysines and arginines by histone methyltransferases (writer enzymes) and serves as a signaling platform for a variety of nuclear events including transcription (4). Reader proteins specifically recognize methylated histones, thereby converting methylation signals into higher-order chromatin structures (5). Histone methylation can be removed by a set of histone demethylases (eraser enzymes) (6). All three classes of methyl-histone regulators are heavily mutated in NDDs, indicating critical, yet poorly-understood, roles of histone methylation dynamics in brain development and function (7-9).

Histone H3 lysine 4 methylation (H3K4me) is one of the most well-characterized histone modifications. H3K4me is primarily found at transcriptionally active areas of the genome. The three states, mono-, di-, and tri-methylation (H3K4me1-3), uniquely mark gene regulatory elements and play pivotal roles in distinct steps of transcription. While H3K4me3/2 are enriched at transcriptionally-engaged promoters, H3K4me1 is a hallmark of transcriptional enhancers (10, 11). At promoters, H3K4me3 contributes to recruitment of general transcription machinery TFIID and RNA polymerase II (12, 13). H3K4me1 has been shown to tether BAF, an ATP-dependent chromatin remodeling complex, at enhancers (14).

H3K4me is extensively regulated by seven methyltransferases and six demethylases in

mammals (6). Consistent with the important roles of H3K4me in transcriptional

regulation, genomic distribution of H3K4me appears highly dynamic during brain

development (15), in which widespread gene expression changes take place.

Developmental H3K4me dynamics appears to be altered in the prefrontal cortices of

individuals with autism (16, 17). However, contributions of each of the 13 enzymes in

the dynamic H3K4me landscapes of the developing brain remains largely unknown.

Strikingly, genetic alterations in nine of the 13 H3K4me enzymes and at least two

H3K4me readers have been associated with human NDDs to date, indicating critical

roles of H3K4me balance (18) (Figure 1A). These human conditions can be collectively

referred to as brain H3K4 methylopathies and point to non-redundant yet poorly-

understood roles of these genes controlling this single post-translational modification for

faithful brain development.

As histone modifications are reversible, one can, in theory, correct an imbalance by

modulating the writers or erasers. Chemical inhibitors of histone deacetylases (HDACs)

have been successfully used to rescue phenotypes in mouse models of NDDs. HDAC

inhibitors were able to ameliorate learning disabilities in mouse models of Rubinstein-

Taybi and Kabuki syndromes, which are deficient for CREBBP or KMT2D, writer

enzymes for histone acetylation or H3K4me, respectively (19, 20). However, none of

these chemical compounds has yet been proven applicable to human NDDs. Moreover,

the HDAC inhibitors such as SAHA and AR-42 used in these studies interfere with

multiple HDACs (21), which could potentially result in widespread side effects. Given

the non-redundant roles of the H3K4me enzymes, a more specific perturbation is

desirable.

In order to achieve specific modulation of H3K4me rather than inhibiting multiple histone

modifiers in a given NDD, an important first step is to delineate functional relationships

between the H3K4 enzymes. In the present work, we focus on a pair of NDD-associated

writer/eraser enzymes: KMT2A and KDM5C. Haploinsufficiency of *KMT2A* underlies

Weidemann-Steiner Syndrome (WDSTS), characterized by developmental delay,

intellectual disability, characteristic facial features, short stature, and hypotonia (22, 23).

Loss of KDM5C function defines Mental Retardation, X-linked, syndromic, Claes Jensen

type (MRXSCJ), in which individuals display an intellectual disability syndrome with

aggression, short stature, and occasional autism comorbidity (24-27). Mouse models

have provided experimental support for causative impacts of KMT2A and KDM5C

deficiencies in impaired cognitive development. Heterozygous *Kmt2a* knockout (KO)

mice show compromised fear learning (28), and excitatory-neuron-specific *Kmt2a*

deletion similarly led to impaired learning, memory, and anxiety behaviors, as well as

altered H3K4me3 distributions and transcriptomes (29, 30). In these studies, however,

the social behavior and relevant cellular consequences of *Kmt2a* loss were not

examined. *Kdm5c*-knockout (KO) mice mimic many MRXSCJ features, including small

body size, aggressive behavior, and reduced social activity and learning (31, 32).

Kdm5c-KO neurons in the basolateral amygdala exhibit malformation of dendritic arbors

and spines along with misregulation of neurodevelopmental genes. However, the

functional relationships between KMT2A and KDM5C, e.g. how deficiencies in opposing

enzymatic activities can lead to same learning deficits, remain completely unknown.

Additionally, despite the strong association with NDDs, successful modulation of histone

methylation to restore normal brain physiology has not been reported in these or any

other animal models of histone methylopathies.

In the present work, we tested whether modulating either single H3K4me writer or

eraser can ameliorate the neurodevelopmental symptoms observed in the WDSTS and

MRXSCJ mouse models. We generated *Kmt2a*-, *Kdm5c*-double mutant (DM) mice, and

performed systematic comparisons between wild-type (WT), single mutants, and DM

mice. The results detailed below revealed common yet mutually-suppressive traits in the

two disease models, thereby providing a binary therapeutic strategy for the two

conditions.

Results

KMT2A and KDM5C co-exist broadly in the brain

We first examined expression patterns of KMT2A and KDM5C using publicly-available

resources, and found the two genes are broadly expressed throughout brain regions of

adult mice and humans (Figure S1) (33-37) (38). *Kmt2a* and *Kdm5c* are expressed at

comparable levels in all major excitatory and inhibitory neuron subtypes as well as glia

cells in mouse visual cortex (Figure S1A), and also throughout mouse brains (Figure

S1B). Consistently, developing and aging human brains express *KMT2A* and *KDM5C* at

high, steady levels (Figure S1C). Thus, both writer and eraser are co-expressed across

brain cell types, regions, and developmental stages in both human and mouse.

Generation of *Kmt2a-Kdm5c* double-mutant (DM) mice

To test genetic interaction of *Kmt2a* and *Kdm5c in vivo*, we generated *Kmt2a-Kdm5c*

double-mutant (DM) mice. Experimental mice were F1 hybrids of the two fully-congenic

laboratory mouse strains: 129S1/SvImJ $Kmt2a^{+/-}$ males (39) and C57BL/6J $Kdm5c^{+/-}$

females (31) (Figure 1B). This cross resulted in the following genotypes of male mice:

wildtype (WT); *Kmt2a* heterozygote (*Kmt2a*-HET: $Kmt2a^{+/-}$), *Kdm5c* hemizygous knock-

out (*Kdm5c*-KO: $Kdm5c^{-/y}$), and *Kmt2a-Kdm5c* double-mutant (DM: $Kmt2a^{+/-}$, $Kdm5c^{-/y}$),

thereby allowing us to perform systematic comparison between the WDSTS model

(*Kmt2a*-HET), the MRXSCJ model (*Kdm5c*-KO), and their composite (DM). We focus on

males, because MRXSCJ predominantly affects males and *Kdm5c*-heterozygous

female mice exhibit only minor cognitive deficits (32).

These mice were born at expected Mendelian ratios of 25% per genotype,

demonstrating the DM mice were not synthetic lethal (Figure 1C). Genotypes were

confirmed at RNA and DNA levels (Figure S2A-C), and protein level for KDM5C (Figure

S2D). Brain anatomy showed no gross deformities in any of the genotypes (Figure

S2E). Body weight, during the course of development and in adult, however, was

reduced in the two single mutants as well as in DM mice (Figure 1D-E). The weight

reduction was slightly more pronounced in DM compared to single mutants ($F(3,82) =$

11.76, $p < 0.001$, One-way ANOVA). Thus, loss of *Kdm5c* and *Kmt2a* heterozygosity

both led to growth retardation, which was not corrected but rather slightly exacerbated

in DM mice.

Altered H3K4me3 landscapes in WDSTS and MRXSCJ models and rescue effects

in DM

H3K4me3 is a reaction product of KMT2A-mediated methylation (40), while a substrate

for KDM5C-mediated demethylation (41, 42). We sought to determine the impact of

KMT2A- and KDM5C-deficiencies and double mutation on the H3K4me3 landscape

within the brain. We chose to examine the amygdala tissue, because it plays crucial

roles in social behavior and fear memory, which are impaired in *Kdm5c*-KO mice (31).

In Western blot analyses, global H3K4me1-3 levels were not altered dramatically in any

mutant (Figure S3A). We thus performed H3K4me3 chromatin immunoprecipitation

coupled with deep sequencing (ChIP-seq) to probe local changes genome-wide. To

assess the IP specificity, we spiked-in an array of recombinant nucleosomes carrying 15

common methylations along with DNA barcodes appended to the Widom601

nucleosome positioning sequence (43) (see Methods). The two H3K4me3 nucleosomes

dominated the Widom601-containing DNA in all IP reactions with negligible signals from

other methylation states such as H3K4me1 or H3K4me2 (Figure S3B), demonstrating a

superb specificity of the ChIP.

To obtain a global picture of H3K4me changes, we examined the H3K4me3 signals

between WT and the three mutants throughout the mouse genome partitioned into 1-

kilobase (kb) bins (Figure 2A). We found an overall similarity in H3K4me3 coverage

across *Kmt2a*-HET, *Kdm5c*-KO, and DM on a genome-wide scale, as well as at

promoter regions (Figure 2A, Figure S3C). We then broke down the genome into

promoter (± 1 kb from transcription start sites [TSS]), intergenic (between genes), and

intragenic (within a gene) regions, and asked if any areas are preferentially

dysregulated in any of the mutant animals. In WT, 61% of H3K4me3 fell within

promoters, consistent with H3K4me3 as a hallmark of promoters (11-13), while smaller

fractions, 18% and 21%, were found in intergenic or intragenic regions, respectively

(Figure S3D). This H3K4me3 distribution pattern was largely consistent across the other

genotypes (Figure S3D), except for *Kdm5c*-KO and DM amygdala which had slightly

higher proportions of intragenic (25% for both) and intergenic (30% and 29%,

respectively) methylation (Figure S3D).

Examining local differentially-methylated regions (DMRs), i.e. either hyper- or hypo-

methylated for H3K4me3 compared to WT, we found fewer DMRs in *Kmt2a*-HET

(1,940) than in *Kdm5c*-KO (11,990) (Figure 2B-G, Figure S3E-H). This difference is

likely due to the heterozygosity of *Kmt2a* which leaves one functional copy of *Kmt2a,*

versus the complete loss of *Kdm5c*. Consistently, complete loss of *Kmt2a* in

hippocampal neuronal nuclei was previously shown to reduce H3K4me3 in more than

four thousand loci (30). In the *Kmt2a*-HET amygdala, hypermethylated loci were

primarily found at intragenic regions (56%), while hypomethylated regions were found

mainly at promoters (76%, Figure 2C). *Kdm5c*-KO DMRs were biased towards an

increase in methylation signals (8,284 hypermethylated vs. 3,706 hypomethylated),

consistent with loss of a demethylase. In the *Kdm5c*-KO amygdala, the hypermethylated

loci showed a roughly even split between promoters, intragenic, and intergenic regions,

while the majority of the *Kdm5c*-KO hypomethylated regions were located at promoters

(89%, Figure 2F). Hypermethylation in non-promoter regions was also detected as an

appearance of additional H3K4me3 peaks in *Kdm5c*-KO amygdala (Figure S3D). When

we overlapped single mutant DMRs (Figure 2H), most DMRs were unique to *Kdm5c*-KO

(10,994). Interestingly, one half of the *Kmt2a*-HET DMRs overlapped with *Kdm5c*-DMRs

(Figure 2H), and most of these DMRs were largely misregulated in the same direction

between the two single mutants (Figure 2I), despite the opposing activity of this pair of

enzymes. Motif analysis identified distinct as well as common transcription factor-

binding motifs at *Kmt2a*-HET and *Kdm5c*-KO DMRs (Figure SI-J). Thus, *Kmt2a*- and

Kdm5c-deficiencies lead to both unique and common alterations in H3K4me3

landscapes.

We next asked if any of these DMRs were corrected in double mutants (DM). We

defined "rescued" regions as DMRs identified in single mutants that were no longer

categorized as a DMR in DM (therefore, no different from WT). We observed a rescue

of roughly half of single mutant DMRs in our DM animals: 42% (821/1,940) of *Kmt2a*-

HET DMRs and 54% (6,576/11,990) of *Kdm5c*-KO DMRs were not called as

differentially methylated in DM (Figures 2D, 2G, S3E-H). Representative examples of

rescued and unrescued DMRs are shown (Figure 2J-M).

Most rescued DMRs show smaller yet detectable fold changes of H3K4me3 in DM,

indicating that the rescue effect was partial (Figure 2N). If KMT2A and KDM5C simply

counteract, we should observe that hypermethylated regions in *Kdm5c*-KO are

hypomethylated in *Kmt2a*-HET, and normalized in DM. We indeed observed such cases

in a small fraction of rescued DMRs (solid bars in Figure 2N). Unexpectedly, some

regions showed reciprocal H3K4me3 changes between the single mutants in an

opposite way as expected; namely, hypomethylation in *Kdm5c*-KO and

hypermethylation in *Kmt2a*-HET (open bars in Figure 2N). The most prevalent pattern of

rescued DMRs was the hypermethylated regions of *Kdm5c*-KO that were still

moderately hypermethylated in DMs and unexpectedly in *Kmt2a*-HET as well (striped

bars in Figure 2N). Thus, simple counteractions between *Kmt2a* and *Kdm5c* are

relatively rare events, and rather deficiency of the single enzyme results in a complex

change of H3K4me3 homeostasis. Nonetheless, our analyses identified thousands of

genomic loci at which KMT2A and KDM5C fully or partially mediate aberrant H3K4me3

levels caused by loss of the opposing enzyme.

Transcriptomic similarity between WDSTS and MRXSCJ models and rescue

effects in DM

We previously showed *Kdm5c*-KO mice exhibit aberrant gene expression patterns in the

amygdala and frontal cortex (31), and the hippocampus (32). Excitatory-neuron specific

conditional *Kmt2a*-KO mice were also characterized with altered transcriptomes in the

hippocampus and cortex (29, 30). However, the global gene expression of *Kmt2a*-HET,

which is akin to the WDSTS syndrome genotypes, has not been determined. To

compare the impact of *Kmt2a*-haploinsufficiency and *Kdm5c*-KO on the transcriptome,

we performed unique molecular identifiers (UMI)-RNA-seq (44) using amygdala tissues

of adult mice across the four genotypes. To minimize the impact of PCR-derived

duplication on gene expression analysis, we used primers containing UMIs during

library amplification, and deduplicated the sequencing reads prior to analysis (see

Methods). First, we confirmed the lack or reduction of reads from *Kdm5c* exons 11 and

12 and *Kmt2a* exons 8 and 9 in the corresponding mutants (Figure S2A-B). Spike-in

RNA controls confirmed the broad dynamic range of differential gene expression

analysis (Figure S4A). The gene expression changes observed in the *Kdm5c*-KO

amygdala were similar between the present dataset and our previous dataset obtained

from a different cohort of mice (31), demonstrating the reproducibility of the UMI-RNA-

seq approach (Figure S4B).

We identified a similar number of differentially-expressed (DE) genes ($p < 0.01$) in

Kmt2a-HET (136 genes) and *Kdm5c*-KO (127 genes) compared to WT amygdala, while

DM yielded 203 DE genes (Figure 3A). In general, KMT2A acts as a transcriptional

coactivator by placing H3K4me (39, 40, 45) and KDM5C primarily suppresses

transcription by removing this mark (41), yet roles for KDM5C as a positive regulator of

transcription have also been reported (46, 47). Reminiscent of some H3K4me changes

that were similar between the single mutants (Figure 2I and 2N), examination of fold

changes of all DE genes pointed to similar transcriptome alterations in all three mutants

compared to WT (Figure 3B). Furthermore, a substantial number of DE genes overlap

among the three mutants and many of them showed changes in the same direction

between single mutants (Figures 3C, S4C-D), while no genes were reciprocally

misregulated (Figure 3D). Consistently, the single-mutant DE genes were largely

misregulated in the same direction as the other single mutant (Figure S4E-F). With

respect to the biological implications of the gene misregulation, we did not find any

conspicuous alterations of neuronal activity-dependent genes, cell-type specific

transcripts, and developmentally-regulated genes in any of the mutant DE genes

(Figure S5).

Next, we sought to test if normal expression of any individual genes was restored in

DM. To this end, we counted single-mutant DE genes that had higher p-values than a

relaxed significance threshold ($p > 0.1$) in DM vs. WT comparison; an indicator of

normal expression. We found that 33% (42/127) of *Kdm5c*-KO-DE genes and 56%

(76/136) *Kmt2a*-HET-DE genes were expressed normally in DM (highlight in Figure 3E).

The rescue effects were visible when we analyzed all single-mutant DE genes as a

group (Figure S4D). To better understand how transcriptomic similarity and rescue

effect can occur simultaneously, we plotted expression fold changes of the 118 rescued

genes (Figure 3F). We observed that rescued genes were differentially dysregulated in

single mutants, e.g. upregulated in *Kdm5c*-KO but unchanged in *Kmt2a*-HET (Figure

3F). Thus, these results indicate that the largely-separate sets of genes contribute to the

overall transcriptome similarity and the rescue effect in DM.

We then examined the relationship between the H3K4me3 landscape and transcriptome

alterations. If H3K4me3 changes drive the gene misregulation in mutants, we should be

able to observe a correlation between these two datasets. However, genes with altered

promoter-proximal H3K4me3 did not show significant changes in their expression as a

group (Figure S6A). While H3K4me3 changes are the direct molecular consequences of

KMT2A- and KDM5C-deficiency, the steady-state mRNAs we captured in our RNA-seq

approach likely involve indirect and adaptive consequences of loss of these enzyme(s),

which can lead to an underwhelming correlation between H3K4me3 and transcriptome

data. Indeed, we observed a positive correlation between intergenic H3K4me3 levels

and spurious transcripts, which are generated at these regions yet likely unstable,

therefore, can reflect transcriptional activity more reliably than steady-state mRNA

levels (Figure S6B). Such spurious intergenic transcripts were previously observed in

the *Kdm5c*-KO hippocampus (32). We also examined the H3K4me3 coverage at

promoter regions of DE genes (Figure S6C). Across the different DE gene categories,

H3K4me3 levels did not differ between genotypes, with two exceptions: *Kmt2a*-HET

down-regulated and *Kdm5c*-KO up-regulated genes showed the expected changes in

median H3K4me3 levels (Figure S6C). The correlation was also evident between

expression of rescued genes and H3K4me3 (Figure S6D). Together, these observations

indicate that H3K4me3 changes are not sufficient, yet an important contributor, for gene

misregulation in single mutants and its correction in DM.

Gene-annotation enrichment analysis of these 118 rescued genes did not yield

statistically-significant enrichment of any functional pathways, however, we were able to

separate rescued genes into specific biological pathways that could potentially be

restored in DM (Supplementary Table 1). Notably, genes that have established roles in

central nervous system development and are genetically associated with

neurodevelopmental disorders were among these restored genes in DM. These genes

include *Gnao1* (48, 49), *Bcl11b* (50), *Arnt2* (51), *Mkks* (52-55), *Arid1a* (56), *Rora* (57),

and *Sez6* (58).

Shared dendritic phenotypes in *Kmt2a*-HET and *Kdm5c*-KO were reversed in DM

Altered dendrite morphology is a hallmark of many human neurodevelopmental

disorders (NDDs), as well as animal models of NDDs (31, 59-62). We previously found

that reduced dendritic length and spine density in basolateral amygdala (BLA) neurons

of *Kdm5c*-KO adult male mice (31). Assessment of dendritic morphology in *Kmt2a*-HET

has not been reported. We performed comparative dendrite morphometry of pyramidal

neurons in the BLA using Golgi staining for the four genotypes (Figure 4). For *Kdm5c*-

KO neurons, we recapitulated our previous findings of reduced dendrite lengths (Figure

4B) (F(3,89) = 2.776; p = 0.0459; WT vs. *Kdm5c*-KO: p = 0.0341, one-way ANOVA

followed by Tukey multiple comparison tests) and lower spine density (Figure 4C)

($F(3,89) = 82.25$; $p < 0.0001$; WT vs. *Kdm5c*-KO: $p = 0.0079$). *Kmt2a*-HET neurons

looked remarkably similar to *Kdm5c*-KO (Figure 4A), exhibiting trends of reduction in

dendrite length, which was not significantly different than WT, however, was also not

different than *Kdm5c*-KO (Figure 4B) (WT vs. *Kmt2a*-HET: $p = 0.1772$; *Kdm5c*-KO vs.

Kmt2a-HET $p = 0.8906$). Similarly, spine densities of *Kmt2a*-HET neurons were

significantly lower compared to WT and not significantly different than *Kdm5c*-KO

(Figure 4C) (WT vs. *Kmt2a*-HET: $p = 0.0053$; *Kdm5c*-KO vs. *Kmt2a*-HET $p = 0.9993$).

Loss of both *Kmt2a* and *Kdm5c* together had an overall positive effect on neuron

morphology (Figure 4A). DM dendrite lengths showed trends of restoration (Figure 4B),

as they were not significantly different than WT (WT vs. DM: $p = 0.5503$), however were

also not different than *Kdm5c*-KO (*Kdm5c*-KO vs. DM: $p = 0.5341$). DM exhibited an

increase in dendritic spine density that surpassed a rescue effect (Figure 4C) (WT vs.

DM: $p < 0.0001$; *Kdm5c*-KO vs. DM: $p < 0.0001$, *Kmt2a*-HET vs. DM: $p < 0.0001$). As

morphology of dendritic spines progressively changes during synaptogenesis and

development (63) (Figure S7), we also asked whether developmental subtypes of

dendritic spines were altered in any genotype. We did not find dramatic changes in

spine morphology among the four genotypes (Figure 4D), indicating selective

requirement of *Kdm5c* and *Kmt2a* for regulation of spine numbers, but not for

morphology. Overall, we conclude that *Kmt2a*-HET and *Kdm5c*-KO share similar

dendritic morphology deficits, which are reversed in DM.

Memory alterations in *Kdm5c*-KO were reversed in DM

After observing the restorative molecular and cellular effects in DM mice, we next

sought to determine the effect of loss of *Kmt2a* and/or *Kdm5c* on mouse behaviors

through a battery of behavioral tests. In accordance with previous findings (31, 32),

Kdm5c-KO mice showed significant deficits in associative fear memory, as measured by

the contextual fear conditioning (CFC) tests (Figure 5A) (F(3,64) = 2.83, p = 0.046; WT

vs. *Kdm5c*-KO: p = 0.018). In the novel object recognition tests (NOR), where WT mice

showed preference for the new object, *Kdm5c*-KO mice tended to avoid the novel object

(Figure 5B) (F(3,64) = 3.20, p = 0.030; WT vs. *Kdm5c*-KO: p = 0.007). Homozygous

deletion of *Kmt2a* in excitatory hippocampal neurons leads to impaired fear memory in

the CFC (30), a hippocampal-dependent memory test (64). In our tests, *Kmt2a*-HET

mice showed no deficits compared to WT mice (Figure 5A-B) (CFC: p = 0.789; NOR; p

= 0.888), indicating stronger cognitive deficits in the MRXSCJ model compared to

WDSTS model mice. Importantly, DM mice also showed no differences from WT mice

(Figure 5A-B) (CFC: p = 0.246; NOR: p = 0.756), suggesting that *Kmt2a* heterozygosity

can rescue memory deficits of *Kdm5c*-KO mice. These differences in memory tasks

were not attributable to differences in locomotor activity or shock responsiveness, as

none of these parameters showed significant differences among the genotypes (Figure

5C-D).

Social behaviors are differently dysregulated in *Kmt2a*-HET, *Kdm5c*-KO, and DM

mice

In the three-chambered social interaction test (Figure 6A), we observed significant

differences between genotypes (F(3,61) = 4.314, p < 0.008). *Kmt2a*-HET mice showed

no differences from WT (p = 0.082), in accordance with previous tests in conditional

Kmt2a-KO mice (30). In contrast, *Kdm5c*-KO (p= 0.002), as previously shown (31), as

well as DM (p = 0.011) mice showed significantly less preference for the stranger

mouse compared with WT animals. These data suggest that *Kmt2a* heterozygosity does

not rescue deficits of social interaction in the *Kdm5c*-KO.

In tests of social dominance (Figure 6B), *Kmt2a*-HET mice won against WTs in 60.9% in

of the matches against WT (p = 0.091), and *Kdm5c*-KO mice won at least 68.4% of the

time (p = 0.008). Surprisingly, DM animals lost more than 80% of their bouts against WT

(p = 1.47 x 10^{-5}). Although DM mice were slightly smaller compared to single mutants

(Figure 1D), this is unlikely to drive submissive behaviors, as body mass has been

shown to have minimal impact on social hierarchy unless excess difference (> 30%) is

present between animals (65-67), which is not the case in our study (Figure 1D) (11%

Kmt2a-HET vs. WT, 17% *Kdm5c*-KO vs. WT, 25% DM vs. WT). These results

demonstrate that a significant increase of social dominance in *Kdm5c*-KO and a similar

trend in *Kmt2a*-HET are mediated by opposing enzymes.

In the resident-intruder test, we observed differences in overall aggression between

genotypes (Figure 6C) (F(4,61) = 3.015, p = 0.037), and differences across specific

types of aggressive behaviors (Figures 6D-H, S8A-E) (F(12,61) = 2.15, p = 0.015).

Specifically, we found increased darting (Figures 6D, S8A) in both *Kdm5c*-KO (p =

0.006) and *Kmt2a*-HET (p = 0.032) mice together with decreased aggression in DM

mice, which showed significantly less mounting (Figures 6E, S8B) (*cf* WT: p =0.072; *cf*

Kdm5c-KO: p = 0.019; *cf Kmt2a*-HET: p = 0.004), and chasing (Figures 6F, S8C) (*cf*

WT: p =0.027; *cf Kdm5c*-KO: p = 0.010; *cf Kmt2a*-HET: p = 0.007) than all other

genotypes. Moreover, we also observed an overall effect of genotype on submissive

behaviors of resident mice (Figure 6I) (F(3,61) = 4.071, p = 0.011). For the specific type

of submissive behaviors, DM mice exhibited significantly more cowering (Figures 6J,

S8F) compared with all other genotypes (*cf* WT : p = 0.028; cf *Kdm5c*-KO: p = 0.006; cf

Kmt2a-HET: p = 0.005), and significantly more running away (Figures 6K, S8G)

compared with *Kdm5c*-KO (p = 0.008). Importantly, the genotype effect on submissive

behaviors inversely correlated with that of aggressive behavior, reinforcing the

difference in specific behaviors rather than changes in locomotor activity.

Together, the behavioral studies revealed more pronounced deficits of *Kdm5c*-KO

animals compared to *Kmt2a*-HET mice on memory and social interaction, while *Kmt2a*-

HET and *Kdm5c*-KO mice shared increased social dominance and aggression. The

consequences of double mutations varied between the tests, with clear rescue effects

on cognitive tasks, dominant behavior, and aggression, and no effect on social

interactions. Notably, however, no behavioral traits were exacerbated in DM. These

results support the idea that the two enzymes mediate some, if not all, deficiencies

caused by writer-eraser imbalance at the behavioral level.

Discussion

Discussion

The present work represents the first genetic interactions between chromatin

modification writer and eraser enzymes *in vivo*, to our knowledge. Discovery of

chromatin-modifying enzymes in the past decades made it clear that virtually no DNA-

or histone-modifications are irreversible, and instead are subjected to dynamic

regulation by writer and eraser enzymes. The genes encoding these enzymes appear to

have undergone duplication events during evolution. Complex organisms carry a

greater number of genes that encode enzymes for single chromatin modification. For

example, only one enzyme, Set1, is responsible for H3K4 methylation in fission yeast.

In fly, three genes, *Trx*, *Trr*, and *Set1* mediate H3K4me installation, and all three genes

were duplicated in the mammalian genomes, which resulted in six SET-family H3K4

writers (68). A plethora of work has demonstrated specialized as well as redundant

roles of individual histone-modifying enzymes within a family, in broad biological

processes such as cancer and development (69). A fundamental question remained —

is there any specific writer-eraser pairing in such highly-duplicated gene families for a

single chromatin modification? Mishra *et al*. showed that KDM5A antagonizes KMT2A,

KMT2B, and KMT2D to modulate the transient site-specific DNA copy number gains in

immortalized human cells (70). Cao et al. found that failed differentiation of mouse

embryonic stem cells due to *Kmt2d* deletion can be rescued by *Kdm1a* knockdown (71).

These pioneering efforts identified functional interplay between the opposing enzymes

in vitro, however, no *in vivo* study has been reported. Thus, the present study

substantially advances our understanding of how methyl-histone writer and eraser

enzymes functionally interact during brain development and function.

Brain development is particularly relevant to the H3K4me dynamics, because a cohort

of neurodevelopmental disorders have been genetically associated with impaired

functions of these enzymes, as discussed earlier. Our work illuminates the similarities

between WDSTS and MRXSCJ model mice in gene expression and neuronal

morphological levels, although the two conditions are associated with opposing

enzymatic activities. Consistently, many symptoms are common between WDSTS and

MRXSCJ, including intellectual disability, short stature, seizures, and aggressive

behavior (23-25, 72). Thus, our work underscores a shared pathophysiology of the two

conditions. Unlike previous studies using chemical approaches that block multiple

chromatin regulators (19-21), we demonstrated that manipulation of a single enzyme,

KMT2A or KDM5C, is sufficient to reverse many neurological traits. It may not be

surprising that not all traits were reversed in DM mice, such as H3K4me3 at specific loci

(Figure 2), expression of some genes (Figure 3), and social preference (Figure 6),

because compensatory actions by remaining H3K4me-regulators may potentially

mediate these un-rescued traits. Our work opens a new avenue for future studies to

delineate the full interplay between the 13 H3K4me-regulatory enzymes throughout

brain development and function.

Increased social dominance is a novel behavioral trait we found in both WDSTS and

MRXSCJ mouse models. The amygdala is well known to mediate social behaviors (73,

74). For example, lesions of BLA result in decreased aggression-like behavior and

increased social interactions (75, 76), and changes in transcriptional regulation in BLA

are observed after social interactions (74). Decreased dendritic spine density in *Kmt2a*-

HET and *Kdm5c*-KO mice inversely correlates with increased social dominance and

aggression (Figures 4 and 6), suggesting that decreased spine density does not

represent a loss-of-function in the amygdala, and rather, may reflect a loss of inhibitory

control over the amygdala. Thus, determining the connectivity of amygdala with other

regions, including prelimbic, infralimbic, and orbitofrontal cortices (77) as well as ventral

hippocampus (73) will be critical for understanding the changes in social behaviors in

both WDSTS and MRXSCJ models.

With any therapeutic intervention, careful assessments of side effects will be inevitable.

In our work, while a substantial fraction of H3K4me3 DMRs and gene misregulation in

single mutants were corrected in DM (Figures 2 and 3), combinatorial ablation of

KMT2A and KDM5C should reduce net regulatory action over H3K4me3, which may

lead to adverse consequences. Indeed, our genomics approaches identified H3K4me3

DMRs that are unique to the DM brain, and several genes uniquely altered in DM

animals (Figure S9). It is still plausible that these gene and H3K4me3 changes in DM

can lead to phenotypic outcomes that were not examined in this study. Nevertheless,

we were encouraged that none of the neurological traits measured in this study showed

exacerbation in DM.

It is important to note that the double mutations introduced in our mice were constitutive,

and therefore a lifetime of adaptation to loss of these two major chromatin regulators

may occur from early developmental stages. A more realistic therapeutic strategy may

be acute inhibition of KDM5C and KMT2A in juvenile or mature brain. Previous work

characterizing mouse models with excitatory-neuron specific ablation of *Kdm5c* or

Kmt2a via *CamKII*-Cre found that conditional *Kmt2a* deletion led to clear learning

deficits (30), while cognitive impairments in the conditional *Kdm5c*-KO mice were much

milder than those of constitutive *Kdm5c*-KO mice (32). These results suggest a

developmental origin of phenotypes in *Kdm5c*-KO. Future investigations are needed to

address whether the effects of acute inhibition of opposing enzymes in these mouse

models can restore such neurodevelopmental deficits.

Materials & Methods

Mouse models

Kdm5c-KO mice were previously described (31). *Kmt2a*-HET mice were generated by

crossing previously-described *Kmt2a*-flox (exons 8 and 9) mice with B6.129-

Gt(ROSA)26Sor$^{tm1(cre/ERT2)Tyj}$/J-Cre mice (78). To backcross *Kmt2a$^{+/-}$* mice onto the

desired 129S1/SvImJ strain, we employed the marker assisted accelerated

backcrossing through Charles River Labs. *Kmt2a$^{+/-}$* mice were bred to the N4 generation

at minimum, where mice were >90% congenic for 129S1/SvImJ. All experimental mice

were generated as F1 generation hybrids from mating between 129S1/SvImJ *Kmt2a$^{+/-}$*

males and C57Bl/6 *Kdm5c$^{+/-}$* females: WT males (*Kmt2a$^{+/+}$, Kdm5c$^{+/y}$*); *Kdm5c*-KO

males (*Kmt2a$^{+/+}$, Kdm5c$^{-/y}$*); *Kmt2a*-HET males (*Kmt2a$^{+/-}$, Kdm5c$^{+/y}$*); and *Kdm5c-Kmt2a*-

DM males (*Kmt2a$^{+/-}$, Kdm5c$^{-/y}$*). Genotypes were confirmed using the following primers:

for *Kmt2a*, 5'-GCCAGTCAGTCCGAAAGTAC, 5'-AGGATGTTCAAAGTGCCTGC, 5'-

GCTCTAGAACTAGTGGATCCC; for *Kdm5c*, 5'-

CAGGTGGCTTACTGTGACATTGATG, 5'-TGGGTTTGAGGGATACTTTAGG, 5'-

GGTTCTCAACACTCACATAGTG.

Western blot analysis

Total proteins from adult brain tissues were subjected to Western blot analysis using in-

house anti-KDM5C (31), and anti-GAPDH antibodies (G-9, Santa Cruz). For histone

proteins, nuclei were enriched from the dounce-homogenized brain tissues using Nuclei

EZ prep Kit (Sigma, NUC-101). DNA were digested with micrococcal nuclease (MNase,

NEB) for 10 minutes at room temperature and total nuclear proteins were extracted by

boiling the samples with the SDS-PAGE sample buffer. The following antibodies were

used for Western blot analyses: anti-H3K4me3 (Abcam, ab8580), anti-H3K4me2

(Thermo, #710796), anti-H3K4me1 (Abcam, ab8895), and anti-H3 C-terminus (Millipore,

CS204377).

Brain histology

Mice were subjected to transcardial perfusion according to standard procedures. Fixed

brains were sliced on a freeze microtome, yielding 30 μm sections that were then fixed,

permeabilized, blocked, and stained with DAPI. Slides were imaged on an Olympus

SZX16 microscope, with an Olympus U-HGLGPS fluorescence source and Q Imaging

Retiga 6000 camera. Images were captured using Q-Capture Pro 7 software. Data were

collected in a blind fashion, where samples were coded and genotypes only revealed

after data collection was complete.

ChIP-seq

Brains from adult (6-8 months) male mice were microdissected to enrich for the

amygdala. N=2 animals were used for WT, and N=3 animals were used for *Kmt2a*-HET,

Kdm5c-KO, and DM as biological replicates. Nuclei were isolated using Nuclei EZ prep

Kit (Sigma, NUC-101), and counted after Trypan blue staining. 20,000 nuclei for each

replicate were subjected to MNase digestion as previously described (79). We

essentially followed the native ChIP-seq protocol (79) with two modifications. One was

to use a kit to generate sequencing libraries in one-tube reactions (NEB, E7103S).

Another modification was to spike-in the panel of synthetic nucleosomes carrying major

histone methylations (EpiCypher, SKU: 19-1001) (43). For ChIP, we used the rabbit

monoclonal H3K4me3 antibody (Thermo, clone #RM340).

Libraries were sequenced on the Illumina NextSeq 500 platform, with single-end 75

base-pair sequencing, according to standard procedures. We obtained 20 to 59 million

reads per sample. Reads were aligned to the mm10 mouse genome (Gencode) and a

custom genome containing the sequences from our standardized, synthetic

nucleosomes (EpiCypher) for normalization (80), using Bowtie allowing up to 2

mismatches. Only uniquely-mapped reads were used for analysis. Range of uniquely

mapped reads for input samples was 38-44 million reads. All IP replicates had a mean

of 9.1 million uniquely mapping reads (range: 7.4 to 13.9 million). The enrichment of

mapped synthetic spike-in nucleosomes compared to input was calculated and used as

a normalization coefficient for read depth each ChIP-seq replicate (80).

Peaks were called using MACS2 software (v 2.1.0.20140616) (81) using input BAM files

for normalization, with filters for a q-value < 0.1 and a fold enrichment greater than 1.

Differentially-methylated regions (DMRs) were called using the MACS2 bdgdiff

command with default parameters and incorporating the synthetic nucleosome

normalization into the read depth factor. Bedtools was used to calculate coverage

across individual replicates. We also used Bedtools to intersect peaks of interest with

mm10 promoters (defined here as ±1 kb from annotated transcription start site [TSS]),

intragenic regions (as defined by annotated mm10 gene bodies, but excluding the

previously defined promoter region), and intergenic regions (regions that did not overlap

with promoters or gene bodies). DMRs from single mutants (2a-HET or 5c-KO) were

considered "rescued" in DM animals if that single-mutant peak was *not* called as a DMR

in the DM analysis. For the global H3K4me3 analysis, the Bedtools multicov command

was used to calculate coverage over 1 kb windows throughout the genome, as well as

at each promoter (±1 kb from annotated TSS). HOMER (v4.10) was used to carry out

motif enrichment analysis (82). We selected the top 5 motifs, and only motifs from

known mammalian ChIP-seq experiments were represented in our data. Normalized

bam files were converted to bigwigs for visualization in the UCSC genome browser.

Genes near peaks were identified by Bedtools and RefSeq genomic accession number

were converted to official gene symbol using bioDBnet (83).

The ChIP-seq data have been deposited in NCBI's Gene Expression Omnibus (84).

Data are accessible through GEO series accession numbers: SuperSeries GSE127818,

SubSeries GSE127817, and can be accessed with secure token *ovuhykuazryxrad*.

RNA-seq

Brains from adult (3 to 6 months) male mice were microdissected to enrich for the

amygdala. N=3 animals were used per genotype. Tissue was homogenized in Tri

Reagent (Sigma). Samples were subjected to total RNA isolation, and RNA was purified

using RNEasy Mini Kit (Qiagen). ERCC spike-in RNA was added at this stage,

according to manufacturer's instructions (Life Technologies). Ribosomal RNA was

depleted using NEBNext rRNA Depletion kit (New England Biolabs). Libraries were

prepared using the Click-seq method, using primers containing unique molecular

identifiers (UMIs), as described previously (44). Multiplexed libraries were pooled in

approximately equimolar ratios and purified using Agencourt RNAClean XP beads

(Beckman Coulter).

Libraries were sequenced on the Illumina HiSeq 4000 platform, with paired-end 150

base pair reads, according to standard procedures. Reads were mapped to the mm10

mouse genome (Gencode) using STAR (v2.5.3a) (85), where only uniquely mapped

reads were used for downstream analyses. Duplicates were removed using UMI-tools

(v0.5.4) (86), and a counts file was generated using FeatureCounts (Subread v1.5.0)

(87). BAM files were converted to bigwigs using deeptools (v3.1.3) (88, 89).

Differentially expressed (DE) genes were called using DESeq2 (v1.14.1) (90, 91).

According to the previous RNA-seq study of *Kdm5c*-KO mice (31), we used $p < 0.01$ to

identify DE genes. Data analyses were performed with RStudio (v1.0.136) or GraphPad

Prism (v7.00 or 8.02) for Mac (GrapPad Software, La Jolla California USA,

www.graphpad.com). Fold change heatmaps was created using shinyheatmap on the

web (92). Cell type expression data was downloaded from the Barres lab Brain RNA-

seq Portal (93). Cell type enriched genes were determined as having > 5 FPKM in cell

type A and > 2 FPKM cell A FPKM/each other cell type FPKM. We identified 471

astrocyte (A), 629 neuron (N), 840 micorglia (M), 197 oligodendrocyte precursor (Op),

74 newly formed oligodendrocyte (On), 96 myelinating oligodendrocyte (Om), and 716

endothelial (E) cell enriched genes. Temporal expression data from human male

amygdala was downloaded from the BrainSpan Atlas of Developing Human Brain (94).

The RNA-seq data have been deposited in NCBI's Gene Expression Omnibus (84).

Data are accessible through GEO series accession numbers: SuperSeries GSE127818,

SubSeries GSE127722, and can be accessed with secure token *ovuhykuazryxrad*.

Neuronal Golgi staining and morphological analyses

Brains from adult (2-8 months) mice were dissected, and brains were incubated in a

modified Golgi-Cox solution for 2 weeks at room temperature. The remaining procedure

of Golgi immersion, cryosectioning, staining and coverslipping was performed as

described previously (95).

Morphological analyses of dendrites were carried out as described previously (95). Four

animals were used for each genotype, and pyramidal neurons in the basolateral

amygdala per animal were quantified: N=24 neurons for WT, *Kmt2a*-HET and *Kdm5c*-

KO and N=27 neurons for DM. Quantification was done using commercially available

software, NeuroLucida (v10, Microbrightfield, VT), installed on a Dell PC workstation

that controlled Zeiss Axioplan microscope with a CCD camera (1600 x 1200 pixels) and

with a motorized X, Y, and Z-focus for high-resolution image acquisition (100X oil

immersion) and quantifications. The morphological analyses included: dendritic lengths,

spine counts, and spine subtype morphology. All sample genotypes were blinded to the

analysts throughout the course of the analysis.

The criteria for selecting candidate neurons for analysis were based on: (1) visualization

of a completely filled soma with no overlap of neighboring soma and completely filled

dendrites, (2) the tapering of most distal dendrites; and (3) the visualization of the

complete 3-D profile of dendritic trees using the 3-D display of the imaging software.

For quantitative analysis of spine subtypes (thin, stubby, mushroom, filopodia and

branched spines), only spines orthogonal to the dendritic shaft were included in this

analysis, whereas spines protruding above or beneath the dendritic shaft were not

sampled. This principle remained consistent throughout the course of analysis.

After completion, the digital profile of neuron morphology was extrapolated and

transported to a multi-panel computer workstation, then quantitated using

NeuroExplorer program (Microbrightfield, VT), followed by statistical analysis (one- and

two-way ANOVAs, $p < 0.05$).

Behavioral paradigms

Prior to behavioral testing, mice were acclimated to the animal colony room for one

week single-housing in standard cages provided with lab diet and water *ad libitum*. A

12-hour light-dark cycle (7:00AM-7:00PM) was utilized with temperature and humidity

maintained at 20 ±2 ºC and >30%, respectively. The University of Michigan Committee

on the Use and Care of Animals approved all tests performed in this research. Five

tests, listed in order of testing, were performed: Novel Object Recognition (5 days),

Context Fear Conditioning (2 days), Three-Chambered Social Interaction (2 days),

Social Dominance Tube Test (3-4 days), and Resident-intruder (2-3 days). All testing

was conducted in the morning by experimenters blind to genotype. 70% ethanol was

used as a cleaning agent in every test between each trial. Data were collected in a blind

fashion, where mice were coded and genotypes only revealed after testing was

complete.

Novel Object Recognition: Mice were first habituated to testing arenas (40 x 30 x 32.5

cm^3) in three, 10 minute sessions over six consecutive days (96, 97). 24 hours later,

mice were allowed to explore on two identical objects (jar or egg, counterbalanced

across animals) for two, 10-minute trials spaced three hours apart. All animals were

returned to the arena tested 24 hours after the first training session and presented with

one training object ("familiar" object: jar or egg) and one "novel" object (egg or jar).

Exploration of the objects was defined as nose-point (sniffing) within 2 cm of the object.

Behavior was automatically measured by Ethovision XT9 software using a Euresys

Picolo U4H.264No/0 camera (Noldus, Cincinnati, OH). Preference was calculated as

the time spent exploring novel object/total time exploring both objects. One-sample t-

tests against 50% (no preference) were used to establish whether animals remembered

the original objects.

Contextual Fear Conditioning: Context fear conditioning was assessed as previously

described (98). Mice were placed into a distinct context with white walls (9 ¾ × 12 ¾ × 9

¾ in) and a 36 steel rod grid floor (1/8 in diameter; ¼ spaced apart) (Med-Associates,

St. Albans, VT) and allowed to explore for 3 minutes, followed by a 2-second 0.8 mA

shock, after which mice were immediately returned to their home cages in the colony

room. 24 hours later, mice were returned to the context and freezing behavior was

assessed with NIR camera (VID-CAM-MONO-2A) and VideoFreeze (MedAssociates, St

Albans, VT). Freezing levels were compared between genotypes using a between-

groups analysis (one-way ANOVA) with genotype as the between-subjects factor.

Three-Chambered Social Interaction: Mice were placed into a three-chambered

apparatus consisting of one central chamber (24 x 20 x 30 cm^3) and two identical side

chambers (24.5 x 20 x 30 cm^3) each with a containment enclosure (8 cm diameter; 18

cm height; grey stainless steel grid 3 mm diameter spaced 7.4 mm apart) and allowed

to habituate for 10 minutes. 24 hours later, mice were returned to the apparatus that

now included a 2-3 month old stranger male mouse (C57BL/6N) on one side of the box

("stranger"), and a toy mouse approximately same size and color as stranger mouse on

other ("toy"). Exploration of either the stranger or toy was defined as nose-point

(sniffing) within 2 cm of the enclosure and used as a measure of social interaction (99).

Behavior was automatically scored by Ethovision XT9 software as described above, and

social preference was defined as time exploring stranger/total exploration time. Social

preference was analyzed using one-sample t-tests for each genotype. A repeated

measures analysis was used for each aggression (genotype x aggression measures

ANOVA) and submissive behaviors (genotype x submissive) to analyze aggressive

behaviors.

Social Dominance Tube Test: 24 hours prior to testing, mice were habituated to the

plastic clear cylindrical tube (1.5 in diameter; 50 cm length) for 10 minutes. During test,

two mice of different genotypes were placed at opposite ends of the tube and allowed to

walk to the middle. The match concluded when the one mouse (the dominant mouse)

forced the other mouse (the submissive mouse) to retreat with all four paws outside of

the tube (a "win" for the dominant mouse) (100-102). Each mouse underwent a total of

three matches against three different opponents for counterbalancing. Videos were

recorded by Ethovision XT9 software as described above, and videos were manually

scored by trained experimenters blind to genotype. The number of "wins" was reported

as a percentage of total number of matches. Data were analyzed using an Exact

Binomial Test with 0.5 as the probability of success (win or loss).

Resident-intruder aggression: Resident-intruder tests were used to assess aggression.

Tests performed on consecutive days, where the resident mouse was exposed to an

unfamiliar intruder mouse for 15 minutes (103, 104). A trial was terminated prematurely

if blood was drawn, if an attack lasted continuously for 30 seconds, or if an intruder

showed visible signs of injury after an attack. Resident mice were assessed for active

aggression (darting, mounting, chasing/following, tail rattling, and boxing/parrying), as

well as submissive behaviors (cowering, upright, running away). Intruder mice were

assessed for passive defense (freezing, cowering, and digging). Behavior was recorded

and videos scored manually by experimenters blind to genotype. Data were analyzed

using a between groups analysis (one-way ANOVA) with genotype as the between-

subjects factor.

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Conflict of Interest

731   MCW is CEO of Neurodigitech, LLC. The other authors declare no conflict of interest.

Author Contributions

CNV, NT, and SI conceived the study and designed the experiments. YAS performed

global H3K4me3 analyses. RSP performed H3K4me3 ChIP-seq analyses. PMG

analyzed RNA-seq data for activity-dependent genes. MCW oversaw dendritic

morphometry analyses. BR and KMC performed the mouse behavioral tests under the

guidance of NT. CNV performed all other experiments and analyses. YD and CEK

provided key experimental recourse and made important intellectual contributions. All

authors contributed to the writing and editing of the manuscript.

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Figure Legends

Figure 1. The H3K4 methylopathies and generation of the *Kmt2a-Kdm5c* double-mutant (DM) mouse. (A) Histone H3 lysine 4 (H3K4me) methyltransferases (writers) and demethylases (erasers) depicted by their ability to place or remove H3K4me. Reader proteins recognizing specific H3K4me substrates (arrows) are depicted below. Genes are listed next to their associated neurodevelopmental disorder. KMT2A and KDM5C are highlighted in purple and green, respectively. WDSTS: Weideman-Steiner Syndrome; ID: intellectual disability; ASD: autism spectrum disorder, CPRF: cleft palate, psychomotor retardation, and distinctive facial features; ARID: autosomal recessive ID; MRXSCJ: mental retardation, X-linked, syndromic, Claes-Jensen type. **(B)** Mouse breeding scheme crossing congenic 129S1/SvlmJ *Kmt2a*-heterozygous males with congenic C57/Bl6 *Kdm5c*-heterozygous females, resulting in F1 generation mice. Only males were used in this study. **(C)** Numbers of male offspring across 30 litters, showing Mendelian ratios of expected genotypes. **(D)** Left panel: Body weight of adult mice > 2 months of age (mean ± SEM, ****$p < 0.0001$ in One-way ANOVA). Right panel: Difference between group means of weight (mean ± 95% confidence intervals, *$p<0.05$, **$p<0.01$, ***$p<0.001$, ****$p<0.0001$ in Tukey multiple comparison test). **(E)** Body weight tracked from birth, postnatal day 1 (P1).

Figure 2. Altered H3K4me3 landscapes in the amygdala and rescue effect in DM.
(A) H3K4me3 coverage in 2a-HET, 5c-KO, or DM compared to WT across the genome, that was partitioned into 1 kilobase (kb) bins. **(B-D)** *Kmt2a*-HET differentially-methylated

regions (DMRs), identified as peaks hypermethylated or hypomethylated compared to

WT using MACS2 (81) (q < 0.1) **(B)**, their location at promoters, within genes

(intragenic), or between genes (intergenic) **(C)**, and how many were rescued in DM **(D)**.

(E-G) *Kdm5c*-KO DMRs, identified as peaks hypermethylated or depleted compared to

WT **(E)**, their location at promoters, within genes (intragenic), or between genes

(intergenic) **(F)**, and how many were rescued in DM **(G)**. **(H)** Overlap between all

Kdm5c-KO and *Kmt2a*-HET DMRs. **(I)** Heatmap of H3K4me3 fold change relative to

WT, of 996 shared DMRs between *Kmt2a*-HET and *Kdm5c*-KO. Scale indicates log2

fold change of depleted (blue) to enriched (yellow) H3K4me3. **(J-M)** Peak track view of

two representative loci for each of the major genome areas: promoter **(J)**, intragenic **(K)**,

and intergenic **(L)** DMRs rescued in DM, or un-rescued in DM **(M)**. **(N)** Heatmap of

H3K4me3 fold change relative to WT, of 7,397 rescued DMRs. Side bars indicate

patterns of rescued regions: solid bars = hypermethylated in 5c-KO, hypomethylated in

Kmt2a-HET; open bars = hypermethylated in both *Kdm5c*-KO, and *Kmt2a*-HET; dashed

bars = hypermethylated in all *Kdm5c*-KO, *Kmt2a*-HET, and DM. Scale indicates log2

fold change of depleted (blue) to enriched (yellow) H3K4me3. We analyzed amygdala

tissue from 2 to 3 animals for each genotype (see Methods).

Figure 3. Similar transcriptomes between the *Kdm5c*-KO and *Kmt2a*-HET and

rescue effect in DM. (A) Transcriptome comparison across three mutant genotypes

relative to WT, represented as log2 mean normalized counts from DESeq2 (91).

Differentially-expressed (DE) genes were determined using a threshold of *p*-value <

0.01 as previously described (31). **(B)** Log2 fold change relative to WT, of expression of

all 466 DE genes identified (136 *Kmt2a*-HET + 127 *Kdm5c*-KO + 203 DM). Scale

indicates log2 fold change of down- (blue) to up- (yellow) regulated expression.

Histogram on scale indicates count of genes in each color category. **(C)** Overlap

between DE genes across genotypes. **(D)** Intersection of DE genes from reciprocal

categories in single mutants. **(C)** Volcano plots depicting rescue effect in DM on *Kdm5c*-

KO and *Kmt2a*-HET DE genes. DM gene expression plotted in grey, as log2 fold

change and *p*-value in DM compared to WT. Genes identified as DE in either single

mutant shown as open circles. Any of these genes that fell within the $p > 0.1$ cutoff (red

shaded box) were considered rescued in DM. Dashed line depicts $p = 0.01$ threshold for

determining DE genes. **(F)** Log2 fold change relative to WT, of expression of all 118

rescued genes. Scale indicates log2 fold change of down- (blue) to up- (yellow)

regulated expression. Histogram on scale indicates count of genes in each color

category. We analyzed amygdala tissue from 3 animals for each genotype (see

Methods).

Figure 4. Altered dendrite morphology of *Kdm5c*-KO and *Kmt2a*-HET was

reversed in DM animals. (A) Representative images of basolateral amygdala (BLA)

pyramidal neurons across all genotypes, depicting overall neuron morphology including

dendrite lengths and dendritic spines. Scale bars represent: 100μm (above, whole

neuron image), 10μm (below, spine image). **(B and C)** Left panel: Total dendrite lengths

(B) or spine density **(C)** (mean ± 95% *$p<0.05$, ****$p<0.0001$, One-way ANOVA). Right

panel: Difference between group means (mean ± 95% confidence intervals, *$p<0.05$,

$p<0.01$, ***$p<0.001$, ****$p<0.0001$ in Tukey multiple comparison test). **(D)

Quantification of spine morphology subtypes, represented as percent of total spines

counted. At least 20 neurons from 4 animals per genotype were quantified.

Figure 5. Deficit of memory-related behavior in *Kdm5c*-KO and its rescue in DM.

(A) Contextual fear conditioning test. Left panel: Freezing levels after shock on test day

(mean ± SEM, *$p < 0.05$ in One-way ANOVA). Right panel: Difference between group

means of freezing (mean ± 95% confidence intervals, *$p<0.05$ in Least Significant

Difference (LSD) test). **(B)** Novel object recognition test. Left panel: Preference for novel

versus familiar object (mean ± SEM, *$p < 0.05$ in One-way ANOVA). Right panel:

Difference between group means of freeze response (mean ± 95% confidence intervals,

*$p<0.05$ in Least Significant Difference (LSD) test). **(C)** Response to mild foot-shock

(mean ± 95% confidence intervals, no statistical significance [n.s.], One-way ANOVA).

(D) Locomotor activity (mean ± 95% confidence intervals, no statistical significance

[n.s.], One-way ANOVA). N=21 WT, N=16 *Kmt2a*-HET, N=16 *Kdm5c*-KO, and N=12

DM animals were used for all studies.

Figure 6. Differential impacts of double mutation in social behavior. (A) Three

chamber test for social interaction. Left panel: preference for stranger versus toy mouse

(mean ± SEM, **$p < 0.01$ in One-way ANOVA). Right panel: Difference between group

means of preference (mean ± 95% confidence intervals, *$p<0.05$, **$p<0.01$ in Least

Significant Difference (LSD) test). **(B)** Tube test for social dominance. Proportion of wins

in matches of each mutant versus WT. Numbers on colored bars represent total number

of wins for WT (grey, above) or each mutant (below) in every matchup. **$p<0.01$,

***$p<0.001$, Exact binomial test. **(C-L)** Resident intruder test. **(C)** Left panel: average

number of all aggressive behaviors (mean ± SEM, *$p < 0.05$ in One-way ANOVA). Right

panel: Difference between group means of aggressive behaviors (mean ± 95%

confidence intervals, *$p<0.05$ in Least Significant Difference (LSD) test). **(D-H)** Individual

aggressive behaviors (mean ± SEM, **$p < 0.01$ in One-way ANOVA). N.s. depicts no

statistical difference. **(I)** Left panel: average number of all submissive behaviors (mean ±

SEM, *$p < 0.05$ in One-way ANOVA). Right panel: Difference between group means of

submissive behaviors (mean ± 95% confidence intervals, **$p<0.01$, ***$p<0.001$ in Least

Significant Difference (LSD) test). **(J-L)** Individual submissive behaviors (mean ± SEM,

**$p < 0.01$ in One-way ANOVA). N.s. depicts no statistical difference. N=21 WT, N=16

Kmt2a-HET, N=16 *Kdm5c*-KO, and N=12 DM animals were used for all studies.

Supplementary Figure 1. Expression of KMT2A and KDM5C. (A) Expression of

Kmt2a and *Kdm5c*, from FACS-sorted single cells of mouse visual cortex, shown in

reads per kilobase of transcript per million mapped reads (RPKM). Neuronal cells:

GABAergic (GABA), Glutamatergic (Glu). Non-neuronal cells: astrocytes (A); endothelial

cells (E); microglia (M), oligodendrocyte precursor cells (OPC); oligodendrocytes (O);

smooth muscle cells (SMC). Image credit: Broad Institute "Single Cell Portal"

transcriptome of adult mouse visual cortex (38). **(B)** Expression of *Kmt2a* and *Kdm5c*

mRNA from adult mouse brain, shown in log2 of raw expression value from *in situ*

hybridization. Brain regions: Isocortex, olfactory areas (OLF), hippocampal formation

(HPF), cortical subplate (CTXsp), striatum (STR), pallidum (PAL), thalamus (TH),

hypothalamus (HY), midbrain (MB), pons (P), medulla (MY), cerebellum (CB). Image

credit: Allen Institute, Allen Mouse Brain Atlas (2004) (34). **(C)** Expression of *KMT2A*

and *KDM5C* transcripts, from developing and adult human brains, shown in RPKM.

Human development and adulthood were split into the following Periods: 1-7 fetal

development; 8-9 birth and infancy; 10-11 childhood; 12 adolescence; and 13-15

adulthood. Image credit: Human Brain Transcriptome Atlas (36, 105)

Supplementary Figure 2. Genotype confirmation and gross brain morphology of

mutant mice. (A-B) RNA-seq read coverage of *Kmt2a* **(A)** and *Kdm5c* **(B)** genes, and

targeted exons (highlight). **(C)** Genotyping using genomic DNA, confirming presence of

Kmt2a and/or *Kdm5c* deleted alleles ("del") only in appropriate genotypes. **(D)** Western

blot for KDM5C protein. Stars indicate non-specific bands present in all samples.

GAPDH shown for equal loading. **(E)** Serial brain sections 30 μm thick stained with

DAPI to mark nuclei. Sections shown at Bregma regions 1.41, 0.49, -2.15, and -2.91

mm (top to bottom). Regions highlighted: anterior forceps of the corpus callosum (fmi),

caudate putamen (CPu), corpus callosum (cc), lateral ventricle (LV), piriform cortex

(Pir), olfactory tubercle (Tu), hippocampal fields CA1 and CA2, dentate gyrus (DG),

anteromedial nucleus (AM), third ventricle (3V), substantia nigra pars reticularis (SNR).

Scale bar: 1mm.

Supplementary Figure 3. H3K4me3 in the amygdala. (A) Western blot of whole brain

lysates showing unchanged global H3K4 methylation across genotypes. Total histone

H3 was detected using an antibody recognizing the C-terminus of H3, and used as a

control for equal loading. **(B)** Validation of H3K4me3 ChIP-seq specificity. Barcode

reads originating from spike-in nucleosomes were counted. The two synthetic

nucleosomes with the H3K4me3 barcodes dominated all ChIP samples, with

H3K4me1/2 nucleosomes rarely detected. **(C)** H3K4me3 coverage in *Kmt2a*-HET,

Kdm5c-KO, or DM compared to WT at promoters (± 1 kb of transcription start sites). **(D)**

Distribution of all H3K4me3 peaks across the genome, in all genotypes. **(E-F)** Log2 fold

change of H3K4me3 coverage across genotypes relative to WT, at *Kmt2a*-HET DMRs

(E) or *Kdm5c*-KO DMRs **(F)**. Scale indicates log2 fold change of depleted (blue) to

enriched (yellow) H3K4me3. **(G-H)** H3K4me3 coverage of individual replicates at

Kmt2a-HET DMRs **(G)** or *Kdm5c*-KO DMRs **(H)** in all genotypes. Scale indicates low

(light) to high (dark) H3K4me3 coverage. **(I-J)** Top five mammalian transcription factor

motifs identified in *Kmt2a*-HET **(I)** and *Kdm5c*-KO **(J)** DMRs.

Supplementary Figure 4. Additional analyses of the RNA-seq dataset. (A) ERCC

spike-in dose-response curves in each genotype, plotting expected vs. observed

transcript counts. Each dot represents a spike-in RNA molecule. **(B)** Comparison of

mean normalized counts of *Kdm5c*-KO from present study (grey dots) with our previous

RNA-seq approach (31). Previously identified up- (yellow) and down- (blue) regulated

genes show consistent patterns in the present study. **(C)** Intersection of up- and down-

regulated DE genes across genotypes. **(D)** Fold change of DE genes across genotypes.

Boxplot features depict: box, interquartile range (IQR); line, median; whiskers,

proportion of IQR past low and high quartiles. **(E-F)** Volcano plots depicting similarity of

gene expression patterns in *Kdm5c*-KO and *Kmt2a*-HET DE genes. Genes identified as

DE in either single mutant shown as open circles. By and large, genes identified as up

(yellow) or down (blue) in one category are expressed in the same direction in the

reciprocal genotype. Dashed line depicts p = 0.01 threshold for determining DE genes.

Supplementary Figure 5. Expression of genes that are activity-dependent, cell-

type specific, or developmentally regulated, in mutant amygdala. (A-B) Expression

of activity-dependent genes, which we previously identified by nascent RNA sequencing

using cortical neurons in response to bicuculine (3,785 genes) **(A)**, or TTX (2,416

genes) **(B)** (106). Spearman Rank-order correlation test for all comparisons showed no

linear relationship between fold changes of either set of activity-dependent genes and

DE genes in the mutant transcriptomes, indicating normal expression of activity-

dependent genes in all three genotypes. **(C)** DE gene expression across cell types.

Genes enriched in seven cell types: astrocytes (A), neurons (N), microglia/macrophages

(M), oligodendrocyte precursor cells (Op), newly formed oligodendrocytes (On),

myelinating oligodendrocytes (Om), endothelial cells (E). Data were obtained from

Zhang et al. (93). None of the DE genes in the mutant amygdala show strong bias to a

particular cell type. Boxplot features depict: box, interquartile range (IQR); line, median;

whiskers, proportion of IQR past low and high quartiles. **(D-E)** We examined human

adult male amygdala gene expression over time, from embryonic to adult ages.

Preconception weeks (PCW), months (mo), years (yr). We examined trajectory of

neurogeneisis (GO:0050769) or synaptic (GO:0007268) genes throughout normal

development **(D)**. As expected, synaptic genes showed upward shift, while

neurogenesis genes exhibited downward shift in their expression during the

development. When we plotted the expression of our DE genes across genotypes

throughout normal development, we did not find noticeable trends, except that DM

down-regulated genes were more highly expressed compared to DE genes in other

genotypes **(E)**. Data credit: Allen Institute, BrainSpan Atlas of the Developing Human

Brain (2010) (94).

Supplementary Figure 6. Integrative analysis of ChIP-seq and RNA-seq (A)

Expression of genes associated with promoter- or intragenic-DMRs. **(B)** RNA-seq read

depth and H3K4me3 ChIP-seq read depth at 5c-KO intergenic DMRs, across

genotypes. **(C)** H3K4me3 coverage at promoter regions of differentially expressed (DE)

genes. **(D)** H3K4me3 coverage at promoter regions of rescued genes. Boxplot features

depict: box, interquartile range (IQR); line, median; notch, confidence interval for

median; whiskers, proportion of IQR past low and high quartiles.

Supplementary Figure 7. Schematic of dendrite spine subtype analysis. (A)

Projection image of a dendritic segment from a series of Z stack images derived from

BLA pyramidal cells. Numerical marks adjacent to corresponding spine subtypes,

represented as: 1. Filopodia, 2. Thin, 3, Stubby, 4. Mushroom, and 5. Branched

Supplementary Figure 8. Behaviors during resident-intruder test. Differences

between group means all aggressive **(A-E)** and submissive **(F-H)** behaviors (mean ±

95% confidence intervals, *$p<0.05$, **$p<0.01$ in Least Significant Difference (LSD) test).

Supplementary Figure 9. Molecular alterations unique to DM mice. (A)

Representative genome browser view of extended H3K4me3 boundary observed at

some DM DMRs. **(B)** Volcano plots depicting larger gene misregulation effects in the

DM transcriptome. Transcriptome of *Kmt2a*-HET or *Kdm5c*-KO plotted as grey dots.

Genes identified as DE in DM shown as colored open circles. A majority of these genes

fell below the line of significance in either single mutant, indicating DM leads to the

misregulation of genes that were previously not DE in either *Kmt2a*-HET or *Kdm5c*-KO.

Dashed line depicts $p = 0.01$ threshold for determining DE genes. **(C)** Fold change of

DM DE genes across genotypes. DM up- and down-regulated genes were expressed in

the same direction in each single mutant, though DM leads to a more pronounced up- or

down-regulation effect. Boxplot features depict: box, interquartile range (IQR); line,

median; whiskers, proportion of IQR past low and high quartiles.

Supplementary Table 1. Gene annotation enrichment analysis of rescued genes.

Functional annotation clustering of gene ontology biological process groups (GO:BP),

for 118 rescued genes in DM. Analysis performed by the database for annotation,

visualization and integrated discovery (DAVID).

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Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

A

WT   5c-KO

DM   2a-HET

B Total dendritic lengths

5c-KO - DM
2a-HET - DM
2a-HET - 5c-KO
WT - DM
WT - 5c-KO   *
WT - 2a-HET

Length (mm)

WT   2a-HET   5c-KO   DM

Difference between group means

C Dendritic spine density

5c-KO - DM   ****
2a-HET - DM   ****
2a-HET - 5c-KO
WT - DM   ****
WT - 5c-KO   **
WT - 2a-HET   **

Density (#/μm)

WT   2a-HET   5c-KO   DM

Difference between group means

D Spine morphology, percent of total

WT
2a-HET
5c-KO
DM

0%   20%   40%   60%   80%   100%

- Thin
- Stubby
- Mushroom
- Filopodia
- Branched

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Supplementary Figure 1

A **B**

C **D** **E**

Supplementary Figure 2

Supplementary Figure 3

Supplementary Figure 4

Supplementary Figure 5

Supplementary Figure 6

Dendritic spine subtypes

1. Filopodia
2. Thin
3. Stubby
4. Mushroom
5. Branched

Supplementary Figure 7

Resident intruder: aggressive behaviors

A — Darting
B — Mounting
C — Chasing/following
D — Tail rattling
E — Boxing/parrying

Resident intruder: submissive behaviors

F — Cowering
G — Running away
H — Upright

Supplementary Figure 8

Supplementary Figure 9