Cell-type specialization in the brain is encoded by specific long-range chromatin topologies

Warren Winick-Ng[1,#,*], Alexander Kukalev[1,#], Izabela Harabula[1,2,#], Luna Zea Redondo[1,2,&], Dominik Szabo[1,2,&], Mandy Meijer[3], Leonid Serebreni[1,a], Yingnan Zhang[4], Simona Bianco[5], Andrea M. Chiariello[5], Ibai Irastorza-Azcarate[1], Christoph J. Thieme[1], Thomas M. Sparks[1,2], Sílvia Carvalho[1,6,7,8], Luca Fiorillo[5], Francesco Musella[5], Ehsan Irani[1,9], Elena Torlai Triglia[1,b], Aleksandra A. Kolodziejczyk[10,11,c], Andreas Abentung[12,d], Galina Apostolova[12], Eleanor J. Paul[13,e], Vedran Franke[14], Rieke Kempfer[1,2], Altuna Akalin[14], Sarah A. Teichmann[10,11], Georg Dechant[12], Mark A. Ungless[13], Mario Nicodemi[5,9], Lonnie Welch[4], Gonçalo Castelo-Branco[3,15], Ana Pombo[1,2,9,*]

[1]Epigenetic Regulation and Chromatin Architecture Group, Berlin Institute for Medical Systems Biology, Max-Delbrück Centre for Molecular Medicine, 10115 Berlin, Germany
[2]Humboldt-Universität zu Berlin, 10117 Berlin, Germany
[3]Laboratory of Molecular Neurobiology, Department of Medical Biochemistry and Biophysics, Karolinska Institutet, 17177 Stockholm, Sweden
[4]School of Electrical Engineering and Computer Science, Ohio University, 45701 Athens, OH, USA
[5]Dipartimentio di Fisica, Università di Napoli Federico II, and INFN Napoli, Complesso Universitario di Monte Sant'Angelo, 80126 Naples, Italy
[6]UCIBIO, Department of Life Sciences, NOVA School of Science and Technology, Universidade NOVA de Lisboa, 2825-149 Caparica, Portugal
[7]Instituto de Ciências Biomédicas Abel Salazar, Universidade do Porto, 4050-313 Porto, Portugal
[8]Graduate Program in Areas of Basic and Applied Biology, Universidade do Porto, 4050-313 Porto, Portugal
[9]Berlin Institute of Health, 10178 Berlin, Germany
[10]Cavendish Laboratory, University of Cambridge, JJ Thomson Ave, Cambridge CB3 0EH, UK
[11]Wellcome Sanger Institute, Wellcome Genome Campus, Hinxton, Cambridge CB10 1SA, UK
[12]Institute for Neuroscience, Medical University of Innsbruck, 6020 Innsbruck, Austria
[13]Institute of Clinical Sciences, Imperial College London, London SW7 2AZ, UK
[14]Bioinformatics and Omics Data Science Platform, Berlin Institute for Medical Systems Biology, Max-Delbrück Centre for Molecular Medicine, 10115 Berlin, Germany
[15]Ming Wai Lau Centre for Reparative Medicine, Stockholm node, Karolinska Institutet, 17177 Stockholm, Sweden

[a]current address: Research Institute of Molecular Pathology (IMP), 1030 Vienna Biocenter (VBC), Vienna, Austria
[b]current address: Broad Institute of MIT and Harvard, 02142 Cambridge, MA, USA
[c]current address: Immunology Department, Weizmann Institute of Science, 7610001 Rehovot, Israel
[d]current address: Department of Clinical and Molecular Medicine, Norwegian University of Science and Technology, 7491 Trondheim, Norway
[e]current address: Center for Developmental Neurobiology, Institute of Psychiatry, Psychology and Neuroscience, King's College London, London WC2R 2LS, UK;

MRC Center for Neurodevelopmental Disorders, King's College London, London SE1 1UL, UK

[#]These authors contributed equally to this work
[&]These authors contributed equally to this work

*Joint corresponding authors: ana.pombo@mdc-berlin.de; warren.winick-ng@mdc-berlin.de

Abstract

Neurons and oligodendrocytes are terminally differentiated cells that sustain cascades of gene activation and repression to execute highly specialized functions, while retaining homeostatic control. To study long-range chromatin folding without disturbing the native tissue environment, we developed Genome Architecture Mapping in combination with immunoselection (immunoGAM), and applied it in the adult murine brain to midbrain dopaminergic neurons (DNs), hippocampal pyramidal glutamatergic neurons (PGNs), and cortical oligodendroglia (OLGs). We find specialized 3D chromatin structures that relate with cell-type specific patterns of gene expression at multiple genomic scales. We discover extensive decondensation, or 'domain melting', at long genes (> 400kb) when they are most highly expressed and/or with high chromatin accessibility. In neurons, melting of chromatin domains most often coincides with preferential intra-chromosomal contacts. By mining the most differential contacts between specific neuron subtypes, we find genes associated with specialized functions such as addiction, synaptic plasticity and memory, which are connected by the presence of predicted binding sites for multiple neuronal transcription factors within putative regulatory regions. Lastly, sensory receptor genes are preferentially found in heterochromatic compartments in brain cells, where they establish strong contacts across tens of megabases. Overall, we uncover highly specific chromatin conformations in terminally differentiated brain cells which are tightly related with mechanisms of gene regulation and specialized cell functions.

Introduction

The study of three-dimensional (3D) chromatin organization has revealed its intrinsic association with gene regulation and cell function[1]. Genome-wide sequencing approaches such as Hi-C[2], GAM[3] and SPRITE[4] have shown that the genome is organized hierarchically, from specific promoter-enhancer contacts, to topologically associating domains (TADs), to broader compartments of open and closed chromatin (A/B compartments, respectively), up to whole chromosome territories[2-5]. Dynamic changes of chromatin organization during neuronal development have been reported using Hi-C from in-vitro differentiated neurons, from glutamatergic neurons dissociated from cortical tissue from pools of animals and FACS isolated, or from dissociated mixed cell populations from whole hippocampi[6-8].However, it has been difficult to assess the genome-wide chromatin structure of specific cell types from the brain, especially without disrupting tissue organization, and in single animals. Furthermore, large-scale changes in chromatin organisation captured by imaging approaches, such as the relocation of *Bdnf* from the nuclear periphery to the nucleoplasm interior[9], are invisible in 3C-based approaches[10]. Understanding 3D chromatin structure of specialized cell populations is of exceptional importance in the brain, where connecting disease-associated genetic variants in non-coding genomic regions with their target genes remains challenging, and where cell state and localization within the tissue can influence both transcriptional and physiological outcomes.

ImmunoGAM reveals features of 3D genome architecture in specific mouse brain cells

Here we developed immunoGAM, an extension of the Genome Architecture Mapping (GAM) technology[3] to perform genome-wide mapping of chromatin topology

in specific cell populations selected by immunostaining. GAM is a ligation-free

technology that maps 3D genome topology by extracting and sequencing the

genomic DNA content from nuclear cryosections. 3D chromatin interactions are

identified from the increased probability of co-segregation of genomic loci across a

collection of nuclear slices, each from a single nucleus. GAM was previously applied

to mouse embryonic stem cells (mESCs) and shown to capture TADs, A/B

compartments and pair-wise contacts across long genomic distances[3,11]. With

immunoGAM, we now considerably expand the scope of GAM to directly work on

selected cell types present within a complex tissue, without the need for prior

dissociation or flow sorting to isolate cell types of interest, both of which can alter cell

physiology[12], and overcoming limitations of Hi-C and SPRITE technologies.

ImmunoGAM retains the power of using very small cell numbers (~1000 cells)[3,13],

essential for studying precious biological samples from single individuals.

To explore how genome folding is related with cell specialization, we applied

immunoGAM in three specific mouse brain cell types with diverse functions (**Fig. 1a**).

We selected (1) oligodendroglia (oligodendrocytes and their precursors; OLGs) from

the somatosensory cortex, which are involved in myelination of neurons and

influence neuronal circuit formation[14]; (2) pyramidal glutamatergic neurons (PGNs)

from the *cornu ammonis 1* (CA1) region of the dorsal hippocampus, which have

specialized roles in temporal and spatial memory formation and consolidation, and

are activated intrinsically and frequently[15,16]; and (3) dopaminergic neurons (DNs)

from the ventral tegmental area of the midbrain (VTA), which are activated during

cue-guided reward-based learning[17]. Finally, we compared the immunoGAM data

from brain cell types to publicly available GAM data from mESCs[11] (see **Methods,**

Supplemental Table 1).

Figure 1. ImmunoGAM captures cell-type specific chromatin contacts in the mouse brain.

a, Immuno-GAM was applied to oligodendrocytes (OLGs), pyramidal glutamatergic neurons (PGNs), and dopaminergic neurons (DNs) (scale: 10, 100 and 10 μm, respectively). OLGs were selected based on GFP expression, PGNs using tissue morphology (dotted lines), and DNs by TH expression.

b, The immunoGAM experimental workflow. Upon transcardial perfusion with fixative, brain tissues are dissected, cryoprotected, and ultrathin cryosectioned (1). After immunodetection using cell-type specific markers (2), single nuclear profiles are laser microdissected (3), each from a single cell, and collected in groups of three, as described for multiplex-GAM[11]. After extraction of genomic DNA and sequencing (4), the frequency of co-segregation of pairs of genomic loci is used to calculate matrices of pairwise contacts, and to compare chromatin contact density, compaction, differential contacts and compartments (5). GAM data was also integrated with single-cell RNA- and ATAC-seq data.

c, Examples of contact matrices showing cell-type specific differences in local contacts for mESCs, OLGs, PGNs and DNs within a 3-Mb genomic region centered on the *Pcdh-α, -β,* and *-γ* regions. GAM matrices represent co-segregation frequencies of pairs of 50-kb genomic windows using normalized pointwise mutual information (NPMI). Dashed lines illustrate differences in contacts between α, β and γ regions for different cell types. NPMI scale bars range between 0 and the 99th percentile of NPMI values for each cell type. Contact density heatmaps represent insulation scores obtained with 100 – 1000kb square sizes. RNAseq tracks were obtained from scRNAseq the brain cell types of interest or mESCs, and converted into pseudobulk datasets. ATAC-seq tracks were obtained from scATAC-seq produced from brain tissues and converted to pseudobulk tracks for the cells of interest, or from bulk ATAC-seq from mESCs.

d, Examples of cell-type specific differences in long-range contacts within a 60-Mb genomic region in chromosome 17. Normalized PCA eigenvectors were computed from GAM

In the immunoGAM experimental pipeline, tissues were collected from fixative-

perfused animals, cryoprotected by sucrose embedding, and frozen in liquid nitrogen

(**Fig. 1b**). After cryosectioning, the thin (~220 nm) tissue slices were immunostained

with specific antibodies to detect cell markers: TH for DNs, GFP following lineage

tracing for OLGs, and nuclear pan-histone to identify morphological layer of PGNs in

the CA1. We adopted the recently described multiplex-GAM collection approach[11],

where each GAM sample contains three nuclear slices each from a single cell in the

population and collected by laser microdissection. Next, the DNA content of each

sample was extracted, amplified and sequenced. Finally, after computing positive

genomic windows (50kb) in each dataset, matrices of pairwise contacts were

computed and normalized. A detailed flowchart of GAM data collection and quality

control measures are presented in **Extended Data Fig. 1a-c, and Supplemental**

Table 2. The final GAM datasets contained nuclear slices from ~850 cells (**Extended**

Data Fig. 1d). To generate GAM contact matrices, we corrected for statistical

fluctuations in window sampling typical of GAM data using normalized pointwise

mutual information (NPMI; **Extended Data Fig. 2a**). We found that NPMI more

robustly normalizes contacts involving slightly under- or over-detected window pairs

compared with the previous GAM normalization (D-prime)[3] (**Extended Data Fig. 2b**);

all GAM datasets showed low absolute biases in GC content, mappability and

window detection frequency (**Extended Data Fig. 2b,c**).

To explore differences in chromatin contacts between cell types, we calculated

contact densities and topological domains with the insulation square method[18],

previously shown to recapitulate Hi-C-like TAD borders in GAM data[3,11]

(**Supplemental Tables 3,4**), and compartment domains associated with open

(compartment A) and closed chromatin (compartment B) by performing principal

component analyses (PCA; **Supplemental Table 5**)[3]. We started by inspecting the

contacts of the protocadherin gene cluster known to have specific 3D topologies in

neuronal committed cells[19]. The *Pcdh* cluster is a 3-Mb region on chromosome 16,

containing three clusters of cell adhesion genes (α, β, and γ), with a unique

conserved promoter which can be bound by CTCF in mESCs[20] (see **Extended Data**

Fig. 2d). In mESCs, where only the γ locus is lowly expressed, the entire *Pcdh* locus

is contained in two TADs (**Fig. 1c**), as previously described[3,20]. Visualization of

contact densities across scales (100-1000kb insulation scores) also shows that the

Pcdh locus is generally open at scales above 500kb. We find that the increased

expression of *Pcdh-α* and -β in neurons[19] and OLGs[21] is accompanied by increased

long-range contacts between with the α, β and γ loci, separated by ~1Mb (**Fig. 1c,**

see **Extended Data Fig. 2d** for biological replicates). In OLGs, additional long-range

contacts are seen between all three *Pcdh* clusters and the downstream *Fgf1* gene,

which is more highly expressed in OLGs and has important roles in myelination[22], but

not with other intervening active genes. These observations suggest that cell-type

specific gene activity can coincide with the establishment of long-range chromatin

contacts between specific genes.

ImmunoGAM data also showed striking contacts spanning tens of megabases

between clusters of *Vmn* and *Olfr genes* exclusively in brain cell types, and not in

mESCs. An example is shown on chromosome 17 where a cluster of strong contacts

connect two large regions (~3 and ~5Mb wide) separated by 35 Mb is seen in the

three brain cells but not in mESCs (**Fig. 1d**), and reproduced in independent mice

(**Extended Data Fig. 2e**). The occurrence of Mb-scale clusters of contacts coincides

with a transition between compartment A-to-B of a region containing *Vmn* genes and

which associate with a neighbouring B compartment containing *Olfr* genes (**Fig. 1d**).

Thus, application of immunoGAM directly to specific cell types in intact tissues

reveals large rearrangements of the 3D chromatin architecture, at both short- and

long-range genomic lengths. Next, we explored in more detail how genome-wide

changes in 3D genome topology at the level of domains, preferred contacts and

compartments, relate with cell-type specific patterns of gene expression.

Single-cell expression and chromatin accessibility maps for brain cells and

mESCs

To investigate how cell-type specific 3D genome topologies relate with gene

expression and chromatin accessibility, we produced and/or collected published

single-cell RNAseq and single-cell ATAC-seq from the cortex, hippocampus and

midbrain, and selected the cell populations equivalent to the cell types captured by

immuno-GAM (see **Methods, Supplemental Table 6**). We also generated scRNA-

seq and bulk ATAC-seq data from mESCs.

To obtain cell-type specific gene expression data, we analysed published

scRNA-seq datasets from the relevant tissues, from which we selected eight

subtypes of mature OLGs and OLG progenitors[23], three subtypes of PGNs from

CA1[24] and four DN subtypes from the VTA[25], together with mESC scRNA-seq data

produced here (**Extended Data Fig. 3a,b**). Separation of cell-type specific

transcriptomes into distinct clusters was visualized by Uniform Manifold

Approximation and Projection (UMAP) dimensionality reduction, and confirmed by

expression of cell-type marker genes. scRNA-seq data from mESCs was shown to

correlate with published bulk RNA-seq data[26] (**Extended Data Fig. 3c**). Cell cluster

identities were further verified by visualizing the expression of additional cell-type

marker genes on UMAPs (**Extended Data Fig. 3d-e**). Bulk gene expression values

were obtained for each cell type by pooling single-cell transcriptomes into pseudo-

bulk RNAseq datasets, where expression was defined by a threshold of regularized

log (R-log) $\geq$2.5 (see **Methods**, **Extended Data Fig**. **3f**). Bulk expression profiles of

marker genes in all cell types confirm cell-type specificity (**Extended Data Fig. 3g**).

To obtain cell-type specific chromatin accessibility data, we mined published

scATAC-seq by selecting mature OLGs from the prefrontal cortex[27], and one

population of PGNs from the CA1[28]. For DNs, we generated single-nucleus ATAC-

seq (snATAC-seq) from the VTA using single-nucleus isolation (see **Methods**). We

additionally produced bulk ATAC-seq for mESCs. All ATAC-seq data showed good

quality distribution of fragment sizes and the expected enrichment at gene start sites

(**Extended Data Fig. 3h-i**). The selection of DN-specific cell clusters from the newly-

generated snATAC-seq data in the VTA showed good quality, as assessed by the

large number of fragments per cell, the appropriate detection of reads at the

promoters of DN-expressed genes, and the enrichment for gene ontology (GO) terms

related to DN function, such as 'dopamine metabolic process' and 'locomotory

behaviour' (**Extended Data Fig. 3j-l**). Pseudo-bulk ATAC-seq datasets were derived

for each cell type by pooling single-cell accessibility maps.

Extensive reorganization of chromatin domains occurs at cell specialization

genes

We next investigated cell-type specific changes in chromatin domains,

including how preferred contacts differ between cell types at the level of TADs. For

example, we found complex and extensive changes in the contact density at a 4-Mb

region containing *Scn* genes that encode for sodium voltage-gated channel type II

subunits, expressed in brain cells at different levels during development, including

Scn2a, an autism candidate gene[29], and *Scn3a,* implicated in epilepsy[30] (**Fig**. **2a**, see

Extended Data Fig. 4a for biological PGN and DN replicates).

To explore the complex changes in domain organisation genome-wide, we

compared the position of TAD borders across cell types mapped with the insulation

score method[18] (**Fig. 2b**; 500kb insulation square). Similar numbers and lengths of

TADs were found in all cell types (n = 2209-2487, median length ~ 1Mb; **Extended**

Data Fig. 4b). TAD borders were defined as the lowest point of insulation expanded

by one genomic window on either side, to give borders 150kb wide; TAD borders

were considered to be conserved when separated by less than one genomic bin

(50kb). We found that TAD borders varied extensively between cell types (**Fig**. **2b**;

see **Extended Data Fig**. **4c** for less frequent combinations). One third of all borders

are unique to one cell type (7-10% for each cell type), and show statistically

significant lower insulation scores than in the other three cell types (**Fig. 2b**; Mann-

Whitney test for central TAD border window, p $<1.8\times10^{-7}$ for all comparisons). In

contrast, only 14% of the total set of borders is common to all cell types (for example,

only 29% of mESC TAD borders are found in brain cells), and only 8% of TAD

borders are shared between the three brain cell types. Interestingly, TAD borders

common to all cell types show significantly stronger insulation in brain cell types than

in mESCs (Mann-Whitney test for central TAD border window, p $<8.6\times10^{-10}$;

Extended Data Fig. 4d), possibly reflecting structural domain stabilization upon

terminal differentiation. TAD border conservation between PGN or DN biological

replicates was 59-65% (**Extended Data Fig. 4e**).

Figure 2. Broad remodeling of chromatin structure and domain melting of long, highly expressed, and/or highly accessible genes in the brain.

a, ImmunoGAM contact matrices show cell-type specific differences in local contacts and contact density within a 2-Mb region containing genes with cell-type specific expression, including sodium voltage-gated channel type II (*Scn*) subunit genes. Contact density maps (50-kb resolution), TAD borders, pseudo-bulk scRNAseq and scATACseq tracks are shown. Mouse replicate 1 is shown for brain cells. Scale bars range between 0 and the 99th percentile of NPMI values for each cell type.

 b, Upset plots show comparison of TAD boundaries between cell types. A total of 634 (14%) TAD borders are common to all cell types, followed by ~315-454 (7-10%) borders that are cell-type specific (for all combinations see **Extended Data Fig**. **4c**). TAD boundaries were defined using insulation square sizes of 500kb, as 150-kb genomic regions centered on lowest insulation score windows. Boundaries were considered different if separated by >50kb edge-to-edge. Cell-type specific TAD borders show low average insulation scores in the scell type where they are found, with highly significant differences at central border window with all other cell types (****$p < 1.8e-07$ for all comparisons; Mann-Whitney test).

c, Genes at cell-type specific TAD borders have enriched ontologies relevant for their cell type functions. GO terms represented are the top four enriched and one selected GO (over-representation as measured by Z-Score; permuted p-values <0.05, 2000 permutations; Z-Score >1.96).

d,e, Contact density and immunoGAM matrices for *Grik2* and *Dscam* which overlap with cell-type specific TAD borders in PGNs and DNs, respectively. A general loss of contact density, or 'melting', is seen in the cell type where these genes are most expressed.

f, The top expressing long genes have significantly lower insulation scores compared to the lowest expressed genes, at both the TSS and TES, in DNs and PGNs, while mESCs are lower at the TSS only, and OLGs show no detectable difference (*$p < 0.05$, ***$p < 0.001$, n.s. respectively; Mann-Whitney test at TSS or TES windows). Average insulation score profiles at the gene TSS or TES for genes >400kb in length, using insulation square size 500kb. The top and bottom 20% expressing genes were determined using the length-normalized number of reads covering the gene body (length-scaled RNA Reads per Million; lsRRPM).

g, Domain melting determined with the MELTRON pipeline at long genes (>400 kb, 479 genes). The distributions of insulation score values (100-1000kb squares) were compared between brain cell types and mESCs. The maximum distance between the distributions was determined using one-sided Kolmogorov-Smirnov testing and a domain melting score was calculated based on the distribution dissimilarity. Genes were considered to melt if the melting score computed across their coding region was > 5 ($p < 1 \times 10^{-5}$).

h, Melting occurs at cell-type specific genes, which have significantly higher expression than other long-genes that do not melt in the corresponding cell type. Association with high expression is most pronounced in PGNs and DNs, compared with OLGs (**$p < 0.01$, ****$p < 0.0001$; Wilcoxon rank-sum test).

i, Melting genes tend to have higher density of open chromatin regions (length-scaled ATAC-seq RPM values; lsARPM), especially in PGNs and DNs, and to a minor extent in OLGs (*$p < 0.05$, ****$p < 0.0001$; Wilcoxon rank-sum test).

As TAD formation and border reorganisation have been previously shown to contain active genes or relate with gene activation[8,31], we asked whether the rewired TAD boundaries contained expressed and/or cell type-specific genes. We found that 52-55% of boundaries specific to the brain cell types contain expressed genes respective to each cell type, with lowest frequency of 38% for mESC-specific boundaries (**Extended Data Fig. 4f**). Genes found at unique TAD boundaries are important for several cell processes, and are enriched for GO terms relevant for the

specialized functions of each cell type (**Fig. 2c, Supplemental Table 7**). For

example, PGN-specific TAD borders contain genes with roles in 'membrane

depolarization' and 'cognition', including the modulation of the response to neuronal

activation[32], while DN-specific borders contain genes important for dopaminergic

differentiation, regulation of tyrosine hydroxylase activity and dopamine synthesis,

and G-protein coupled receptor mediation of dopaminergic cell signalling[33,34].

Domain reorganization is accompanied by loss of chromatin contacts at highly

expressed genes in brain cells

We noticed that domain reorganisation is especially apparent at long genes in

both PGNs and DNs (**Fig. 2d,e**). Many neuronal genes which are involved in

specialized cell processes, such as synaptic plasticity, are often longer than 400kb,

contain several alternative promoters, and produce many isoforms due to alternative

initiation sites and complex RNA processing[35]. For example, *Grik2* is a 700kb-long

gene, which encodes for the glutamate ionotropic receptor kainate type subunit 2, an

epilepsy risk gene[36] with gain-of-function mutations in intellectual disability[37]. In

PGNs*,* the genomic region containing the *Grik2* gene undergoes a general loss of

contact density compared to mESCs, especially around the TSS and TES (**Fig. 2d**).

Similar examples are found for DNs, such as at *Dscam*, a 600kb-long gene which

encodes the Down syndrome cell adhesion molecule, and is disrupted in Down

syndrome and intellectual disability[38]. *Dscam* is highly expressed in DNs, with high

chromatin accessibility across its entire gene body (**Fig. 2e**).

To assess whether changes in contact density are related to expression of

long genes (> 400kb), we compared the average insulation score at the TSS and

TES of long genes with the highest or lowest 20% of expression levels in each cell

type (**Fig. 2f**). To capture transcriptional activity over the whole gene body, gene

expression was measured from the length-normalized number of reads covering

exons and introns (length-scaled RNA Reads per Million; lsRRPM; see **Methods**).

Highly expressed, long neuronal genes had significantly lower insulation scores at

TSSs, throughout the gene bodies, and especially at TESs in both DNs and PGNs. In

contrast, the most expressed long genes in OLGs and mESCs showed a small

increase in decondensation, only at the TSS in mESCs, without detectable insulation

loss through gene bodies or TESs.

The general loss of contact density observed by immunoGAM at highly

expressed long neuronal genes is reminiscent of the decondensation, or 'melting', of

higher-order chromatin structures observed by imaging approaches upon

transcriptional activation at fly polytene chromosome puffs[39-41], or at tandem arrays of

the mammary tumour virus (MMTV) promoter driving a *ras* reporter[42]. Such large

decondensation events have not been reported using genome-wide ligation-based

approaches such as Hi-C, possibly because they capture proximal contacts between

genomic regions without directly measuring their physical distances[13]. Approaches to

detect 'domain melting' will help identify the genes that undergo large-scale

topological changes, and their association with the highest levels of expression, while

providing additional genomic features that can inform on how disease-associated

genomic variations result in neurodevelopmental or degenerative disorders[43,44].

Detection of domain melting in long (>400kb) genes

To unbiasedly detect domain melting events at long genes genome-wide, we

devised the MELTRON pipeline to statistically detect differences in chromatin contact

density at genomic regions of interest. MELTRON calculates the differences between

cumulative probabilities of insulation scores across a range of genomic scales (100-

1000kb) in two cell types or treatments. We established a 'domain melting score', as

the significance value of the differences between the maximum distances of

cumulative probabilities between two cell types within the region of interest, here

considered the genomic regions containing long (> 400kb) genes (**Fig. 2g**). We

calculated domain melting scores for all long genes (479 genes) for all the brain cell

types in comparison to mESCs, and considered a threshold of melting score of > 5 to

define melted genes (Kolmogorov-Smirnov test between cell types, $p < 1 \times 10^{-5}$; **Fig.**

2h, **Supplemental Table 8**). We found that *Grik2* has melting scores of 12 and 26

(replicates 1 and 2, respectively) between mESCs and PGNs (**Extended Data Fig.**

5a), *Dscam* has melting scores of 38 and 50 (replicates 1 and 2, respectively)

between mESCs and DNs. We also detected domain melting between OLGs and

mESCs, for example in the *Magi2* gene with a domain melting score of 73 (**Extended**

Data Fig. 5a-b). Domain melting scores were well correlated between replicates in

both PGNs and DNs (Pearson correlation, $p < 0.0001$; **Extended Data Fig. 5c**).

Melting of long (>400kb) genes is related with high transcription and open

chromatin state

To investigate whether domain melting is broadly related with transcriptional

activity, we compared gene melting scores to transcription over the whole gene body

(calculated by lsRRPM as above; **Fig. 2h**). Genes with melting scores > 5 have

significantly higher transcription levels in all three brain cell types, compared to long

genes that are not melted, most pronounced in PGNs and DNs (Wilcoxon rank-sum

test; **Fig. 2h**, see **Extended Data Fig. 5d** for PGN and DN biological replicates). We

also investigated whether chromatin accessibility was related with domain melting

(Wilcoxon rank-sum test; **Fig. 2i**, see **Extended Data Fig. 5e** for biological

replicates). Chromatin accessibility was also calculated across the whole gene body

using the length-normalized number of reads covering both exons and introns

(length-scaled ATAC Reads per Million; lsARPM; see **Methods**). Melted genes

contain significantly higher chromatin accessibility throughout their gene bodies in all

three brain cells, compared to long genes that are not melted, especially in PGNs

and DNs (Wilcoxon rank-sum test; **Fig. 2i**).

Transcription of many long neuronal genes has been found especially

sensitive to topoisomerase inhibition in topotecan treatments of *ex-vivo* neuronal

cultures, suggesting that the high expression of long genes is especially dependent

on the resolution of topological constraints[45]. We tested whether melted genes were

amongst those shown to be topotecan sensitive, and found that half (55%) of genes

with the highest melting scores in any cell type or replicate (top 3% melting scores,

24 of 44 melted genes) were previously found to be sensitive to topoisomerase

inhibition[45], compared to only 16% of genes with intermediate melting scores (42 of

261), and 16% of the other genes tested (27 of 174; χ^2 p-value = 5.0x10^{-9}; **Extended**

Data Fig. 5f).

To understand how melting events relate with other aspects of chromatin

folding, we investigated compartment A/B transitions, and found that melting genes

often belong to compartment A in both mESCs and the associated brain cell type

(43-58%), especially when the gene is more highly transcribed in both cell types

(cluster 4, **Extended Data Fig. 5g**). We also found that melting genes in OLGs and

DNs are significantly less likely to belong to a lamina-associated or nucleolus-

associated domain (LADs or NADs, respectively) in mESCs, according to published

LAD[46] and NAD[47] mapping, though there was no association in PGNs (**Extended**

Data Fig. 5h-i). Therefore, domain melting of long genes is not trivially associated

with a transition from a heterochromatic state of long genes in compartment B, at

LADs or NADs, to an open chromatin state in compartment A, although such events

can occur at some genes, such as *Magi2* in OLGs or *Dscam* in DNs (**Supplemental**

Table 8).

Overall, we discovered that long genes in brain cell types can become highly

decondensed, or melted, when they are most highly transcribed and/or with high

chromatin accessibility. Domain melting occurs independently of compartment

transitions, in fact it is more likely to occur in genes that are upregulated in neurons,

but already present within active chromatin environments in mESCs, and not directly

associated with the nuclear lamina and the nucleolar surface.

Melting is associated with large-scale 3D chromatin reorganisation in neurons

We next examined domain melting in more detail in two neuronal genes,

Neurexin-3 (*Nrxn3*) and RNA Binding Fox-1 Homolog 1 (*Rbfox1*), both of which are

highly sensitive to topoisomerase I inhibition, which prevents resolution of

transcription-induced chromatin supercoiling[45]. *Nrxn3* is 1.54Mb long, encodes a

membrane protein involved in synaptic connections and plasticity, and for which

genetic variation is associated with alcohol dependence and autism spectrum

disorder[43,48]. In mESCs, *Nrxn3* spans two TADs with high contact density and has

barely detectable transcription and accessibility. *Nrxn3* localizes in a B compartment,

and associates with the nuclear lamina and/or the nucleolus, in mESCs (**Fig. 3a**). In

DNs, it extensively melts, throughout its gene body (melting scores of 48 and 49, in

replicates 1 and 2, respectively), is most highly transcribed and with highest

chromatin accessibility than in the other cell types analysed, and belongs to

compartment A (see **Extended Data Fig. 6a** for all cell types and replicates). The

Rbfox1 gene is 1.1 Mb long, and encodes an RNA-binding protein that regulates

alternative splicing, with mutations linked to epilepsy and autism spectrum

disorder[49,50]. In mESCs, it is found within a large domain with high contact density,

which maps within compartment A while having very low expression, low chromatin

accessibility, membership in a NAD, and partially in a LAD (**Fig. 3b**). In PGNs,

Rbfox1 undergoes extensive loss of contact density (melting scores of 65 and 39 in

replicates 1 and 2, respectively), especially within a large (~500kb) genomic region

centred on its first TSS, coinciding with its highest level of expression between cell

types, with high accessibility, and continued membership in an A compartment

(**Extended Data Fig. 6b**).

Modelling the domain melting of Nrxn3 in DNs shows extensive genome

decompaction

To better understand how the loss of domain structure could influence 3D

chromatin folding of long, highly expressed genes, we used a polymer-physics-based

approach (PRISMR)[51] to generate ensembles of 3D models of the *Nrxn3* region in

mESCs and DNs from the GAM matrices (**Fig. 3c**). 3D models were validated by

applying an "*in-silico* GAM" approach[13] by randomly sectioning each 3D model, and

reconstructing *in-silico* GAM chromatin contact matrices that closely resemble the

experimental data (Pearson r = 0.72 in mESCs, and 0.79 in DNs; **Extended Data**

Fig. 6c).

Figure 3. Extensive decondensation and re-localization of genes with melting domains.

a, GAM contact matrices show the *Nrxn3* locus, a long (1.5Mb) gene which is highly expressed and has highly accessible chromatin in DNs, but not in mESCs (50-kb resolution; chr12: 87,600,000-92,400,000). *Nrxn3* occupies two TADs with strong contacts in mESCs,

(Fig. 3 legend, cont.) which lose contact density in DNs. Compartment tracks are shown for each cell type, and lamina- and nucleolus-associated domains (LADs and NADs) for mESCs. Scale bars range between 0 and the 99th percentile of NPMI values for each cell type.

b, GAM contact matrices show the *Rbfox1* locus, a long (1.1Mb) gene, highly expressed and containing highly accessible chromatin in PGNs, but not in mESCs (50-kb resolution; chr16: 4,800,000-9,800,000). *Rbfox1* has high contact density in mESCs, which is lost in PGNs at the gene TSS, where melting occurs. Scale bars are adjusted to a range between 0 and the 99th percentile of NPMI values for each cell type.

c, Ensembles of polymer models were produced for the *Nrxn3* locus in mESCs and DNs from experimental GAM data using PRISMR modelling[51]. Colour bar shows the position of domains in DNs and are used to colour the polymers shown. In mESCs, the *Nrxn3* locus polymer shows a globular structure with subdomains that interact with one another. In DNs, the *Nrxn3* locus decondenses, especially at the green region covering the 5' end of the gene and the most decondensed domain, which becomes extended and loops away from the neighbouring regions.

d, The green domain has significantly higher gyration radii in DNs than mESCs (****p < 0.0001; Mann-Whitney test, arrows indicate where exemplar models are in the distribution; (n= 450 polymers).

e, Cryo-FISH probes were designed to cover the whole *Rbfox1* gene, or to specifically target the TSS, middle of the coding region (mid) or the end of the gene (TES; see **Supplementary Table 9** for the list of probes).

f, Cryo-FISH using the full-gene probe shows that *Rbfox1* (pseudo-coloured green) occupies small, rounded foci in mESCs, often located at the nucleolus periphery (visualised by nucleophosmin 1 immunostaining, purple). In PGNs, *Rbfox1* occupies larger and more extended foci, and relocates away from the nucleolar periphery. Scale bars, 3 μm.

g, *Rbfox1* occupies significantly larger areas in PGNs than mESCs (**p < 0.01; Mann-Whitney test; n=52 and 63, respectively; two experimental replicates). Most *Rbfox1* foci localize at the nucleolar periphery in mESCs, and away from the nucleolus in PGNs.

h, Decondensation of the *Rbfox1* gene is confirmed in cryo-FISH experiments that target TSS, Mid and TES regions. Insets show that the TSS, Mid and TES regions overlap in mESCs, whereas in PGNs they separate from one another. Scale bars, 3 μm.

i, The *Rbfox1* TSS region is significantly separated from its TES in PGNs, compared to mESCs (**p < 0.01; Mann-Whitney test).

j, The *Rbfox1* locus gains contacts with other chromosomes in PGNs, compared to mESCs. Trans-cis contact ratios were determined by the mean ratio between trans NPMI scores and cis NPMI scores (250kb genomic bins), and normalizing each ratio as a percentile for each chromosome. Inset (grey shaded region) shows a 7Mb region (Chr16: 3,000,000-10,000,000) containing the *Rbfox1* gene (blue shaded region).

k, Melting genes are more likely to gain intra-chromosomal contacts in PGNs and DNs R1, but not OLGs, compared to mESCs (***p<0.001, ****p<0.0001; Wilcoxon rank-sum test). Median trans-cis contact ratios were calculated for each gene with domain melting in DNs, PGNs, or OLGs, and compared to mESCs.

l, Non-melting genes show no preference for changes in trans-cis contact ratios between brain cells and mESCs.

m, Summary scheme representing the melting of long (>400kb) genes in neurons when they are highly transcribed and/or have open chromatin in neurons, resulting in large-scale gene decondensation. Genes with domain melting are less likely to be associated with the nucleolus or lamina in mESCs, though melting can be accompanied by re-localization away from these repressive areas (blue locus; e.g. for *Rbfox1* in PGNs). Domain melting is most likely to result in increased intra-chromosomal contacts (green locus; e.g. for *Nrxn3* in DNs), though more rarely can also become more peripheral to their chromosome (blue locus; e.g. *Rbfox1* in PGNs).

We inspected single polymer models, coloured according to the structure of

domains found in DNs, where the red and green domains correspond to the first and

second TADs that contain the *Nrxn3* gene. mESC models showed a structure

containing several globular domains which were highly intermingled, including the

green and red domains (**Supplemental movie 1**; see **Extended Data Fig. 6d** for

additional example models). In contrast, in DNs, the second green TAD, containing

the melted domain, becomes highly extended (**Supplemental movie 2**). Across the

ensemble of DN polymer models, the green melting domain shows significantly

higher gyration radii compared to the same genomic region in mESCs (450 models

were generated in each case; Mann-Whitney test, $p = 1.1 \times 10^{-92}$; **Fig**. **3c**). In contrast,

the regions upstream and downstream of the *Nrxn3* gene (grey and blue domains)

tend to condense, as seen by marked decreases in gyration radii in DNs (Mann-

Whitney test, $p < 0.0001$; **Extended Data Fig. 6e**), which can also be seen directly in

the contact matrices (**Fig. 3a**), and that may be related to transcription-induced

chromatin supercoiling induced by high *Nrxn3* transcriptional activity, and/or to

changes in gene expression in the neighbouring domains.

Single-cell imaging of Rbfox1 reveals extensive domain melting accompanied

by large-scale gene re-localization away from the nucleolar periphery

To further investigate the prevalence of domain melting across a population of

neuronal cells, we determined the folding and nuclear positioning of the *Rbfox1* gene

in mESCs and PGNs by cryo-FISH[3,52], an approach where fluorescence in-situ

hybridization is performed directly on thin cryosections obtained from cells or tissues.

For PGNs, cryo-FISH experiments were performed with the same samples as used

for immunoGAM (PGNs R1). We used FISH probes produced from 8 contiguous

bacterial artificial chromosomes (BACs) to cover the entire 1.1-Mb length of *Rbfox1*

(**Fig. 3e**; the list of probes is found in **Supplemental Table 9**). To identify the position

of nucleoli, we performed immunostaining prior to FISH, using antibodies against

nucleophosmin (NPM1), a nucleolar marker[53]. In mESCs, *Rbfox1* is seen as a small

spherical focus (**Fig. 3f**, **Extended Data Fig. 6f).** Quantitative image analysis shows

that *Rbfox1* occupies an average area of 0.44 ± 0.17 μm^2 in mESCs, and is most

often found at the nucleolar surface (59%) or at the nuclear periphery (27%; **Fig. 3g**).

In contrast, in PGNs, *Rbfox1* becomes highly decondensed and elongated, with a

significantly higher area compared to mESCs (0.59 ± 0.31 μm^2; Mann-Whitney test p

< 0.01, n=63 and 52 for mESCs and PGNS, respectively), and relocalizes to the

nucleoplasm interior (77%).

To visualize the decondensation of the *Rbfox1* gene in finer detail, we used

specific BAC probes that distinguish the TSS, middle, or the TES of the gene, and

measured the distance between the three regions. In mESCs, TSS, middle and TES

regions often overlap one another, while in PGNs each region becomes more clearly

separated and the whole gene visibly decondensed (**Fig. 3h**, **Extended Data Fig.**

6g). Remarkably, the distance between the center of mass of the TSS and TES

regions is significantly larger in PGNs compared to mESCs (**Fig. 3i**; 0.65 ± 0.41 μm

and 0.37 ± 0.22 μm, respectively; Mann-Whitney test p < 0.01; n=31 and 30 for

mESC and PGNs respectively). The increased distance between the TSS and TES

also recapitulates the marked decrease in chromatin contacts observed directly in the

GAM matrices (**Fig. 3b**).

Melting genes often show increased contacts with their own chromosome in

DNs and PGNs

The extensive changes in nuclear localization of *Rbfox1* in PGNs,

accompanied by large-scale decondensation, lead us to ask whether domain melting

is generally related with re-localization of genes to the interior of their chromosome

territory or towards contacts with other chromosomes, and how these parameters

related with a preferred LAD or NAD association in mESCs. First, we calculated a

'trans-cis contact ratio' for each 250kb window along all chromosomes (see

Methods). A higher *trans-cis* contact ratio indicates that the region is more peripheral

and establishes more contacts with other chromosomes relative to the rest of its own

chromosome. Indeed, we found that the *Rbfox1* gene in chromosome 16 has higher

median *trans-cis* values in PGNs than mESCs (97 and 9, respectively, averaged from

all 250kb windows covering *Rbfox1*), indicating that *Rbfox1* re-localizes towards its

chromosome periphery in PGNs (**Fig. 3j**). In contrast, *Nrxn3* re-localizes towards its

chromosome interior in DNs (**Extended Data Fig**. **6h**).

When we considered all melted genes, we found that they can undergo all

possible transitions in *trans-cis* ratios between mESCs and brain cells, though they

more often undergo a decrease in *trans-cis* values in DNs or PGNs (Mann-Whitney

test, $p < 0.0001$ and $p < 0.001$, respectively; **Fig. 3k**, see **Extended Data Fig. 6i-j** for

replicates), but not in OLGs. The tendency for lower trans-cis ratios in DNs and

PGNs was a feature of melting genes, and not observed at long genes that are

expressed but do not melt (**Fig. 3l**; see **Extended Data Fig. 6k** for replicates).

Interestingly, the tendency for decreased trans-cis ratios of melting genes in DNs or

PGNs was independent of NAD association in mESCs (**Extended Data Fig. 6l**), in

contrast with genes with lower trans-cis values that do not melt, which tend to be

NAD associated in mESCs (**Extended Data Fig. 6m**).

We find that the decondensation of long melting genes between mESCs and

brain cells often coincides with extensive reorganisation of their contacts with their

own and other chromosome territories, with a preference for domain melting to occur

alongside increased intra-chromosomal contacts, as seen for *Nrxn3* in DNs, but also

with increased trans-cis contacts, as observed with the *Rbfox1* gene in PGNs (**Fig.**

3m). Together, polymer modelling from GAM data and single-cell imaging highlight

that domain melting is a previously unappreciated topological feature of very long

genes, robustly captured by immunoGAM, when genes are highly expressed, or

highly accessible, in brain cell types.

Cell-type specific chromatin contacts contain binding motifs of differentially

expressed transcription factors

To explore whether the extensive rearrangements in chromatin topology found

in specialized brain cells are related with changes in the landscape of cis-regulatory

elements, we next focused on differences in specific chromatin loops between the

two neuronal cell types, PGNs and DNs. We were especially interested in finding

whether they involve differentially expressed genes and contain accessible chromatin

regions characterized by putative binding sites for neuron-specific transcription

factors (TFs). First, we determined strong differential chromatin contacts by

extracting the top 5% cell-type specific contacts[11], which occur within 5Mb and have

NPMI values above 0.15 (**Fig. 4a**). We found that each 50kb window contains only

1326 ± 881 or 1270 ± 1270 bp of accessible chromatin, in PGNs and DNs,

respectively (**Extended Data Fig. 7a**). Next, we searched accessible regions within

the top 5% differential contacts for binding motifs of TFs that are expressed in PGNs

and/or DNs (218 TFs; R-Log > 2.5 in pseudo-bulk scRNA-seq). To investigate cell-

type specific loops, we prioritized TFs that are differentially expressed between

PGNs and DNs (**Extended Data Fig. 7b, Supplemental Table 10**), and high

coverage in at least 5% of differential contacts, finding 16 DN-specific TFs and 32

PGN-specific TFs (**Extended Data Fig. 7c**). Reassuringly, many of the differentially

expressed TFs with highest coverage in differential contacts have known roles in

neuronal development, e.g. *Neurod1* and *Foxa1*[54,55] and activation, e.g. *Egr1* and

Neurod2[56,57]. We prioritized for further analyses the TF-feature pairs found in PGN or

DN differential contacts according to whether they were most enriched in each cell

type (five TF motif pairs per cell type), or with a high ability to distinguish contacts

between cell types based on Information Gain (ten TF-motif pairs; see **Extended

Data Fig. 7d** for full pipeline and criteria). This selection resulted in nineteen TF-motif

contact pairs (from 1275 possible homotypic and heterotypic combinations from

expressed TFs), which contain combinations of 14 TF motifs, with the *Neurod2-*

Neurod2 motif pair being found by both PGN enrichment and Information Gain

criteria (**Extended Data Fig. 7e**, see **Supplemental Table 11** for all TF pairs).

Figure 4. Neuron-specific genes establish PGN- and DN-specific contacts, which contain rich networks of putative TF binding sites within open chromatin regions.

a, GAM contacts from PGNs and DNs were normalized and subtracted to produce a matrix of cell-type differential contacts (differential Z-Score matrix). The top 5% differential contacts were considered within 0.05-5 Mb, and overlapped with accessible chromatin regions to identify candidate regulatory elements; these cover on average 1.3±0.9 or 1.3±1.3kb in PGNs and DNs, respectively (**Extended Data Fig**. **7a**). Next, we searched for putative transcription factor (TF) binding sites exclusively within the accessible windows. Out of 218 TFs expressed in PGNs and DNs, we focused on discovering binding sites for TFs which are *(Fig. 4 legend, cont.)* differentially expressed in PGN and DN, and which are well

represented in the differential contact windows (50 TFs; **Extended Data Fig**. **7c**). Contacts
containing pairs of TF motifs which were either enriched in PGNs or DNs (5 highest
enrichment scores in each cell type) or with the most discriminatory power (10 highest
information gain scores) were further investigated (**Extended Data Fig**. **7e**). R1, mouse
replicate 1.
b, Multiple TF feature pairs coincide in the same PGN (*left*) or DN (*right)* differential contacts.
Most abundant groups of contacts are shown for each cell type (for all combinations see
Extended Data Fig. **7f**).
c, Differential contacts with the most enriched TF feature pairs in PGNs and DNs contain
expressed genes in both contacting windows.
d, Differential contacts involving the most abundant TF feature pairs in PGNs contain
differentially expressed genes with PGN-specific roles. (*Right*) Matrix shows differential
contacts established between PGN-upregulated genes. Gene names highlighted in blue are
upregulated in PGNs; other genes are expressed.
e, Differential contacts containing the most abundant TF feature pairs in DNs also contain
differentially expressed genes with roles in DN-specific functions. (*Right*) Matrix shows
contacts between DN-upregulated genes. Gene names highlighted in green are upregulated
in DNs; other genes are expressed.
f, In DNs, the *Egr1* gene establishes weak contacts with a large downstream domain
containing expressed genes. In PGNs, *Egr1* is upregulated and shows stronger interactions
within the downstream domain. The differential contact matrix shows increased PGN-specific
contacts in the whole region surrounding *Egr1*. The *Egr1*-containing TAD (chr18: 34,650,000-
35,850,000) has multiple putative TF-binding sites found within PGN accessible regions. DNs
also contain multiple ATAC-seq peaks but many fewer TF motifs, most notably surrounding
the Egr1 gene (*grey dashed box*). Scale bars range between 0 and the 99th percentile of
NPMI values for each cell type.
g, Summary scheme representing PGN- and DN-specific contacts which contain distal genes
related to synaptic plasticity in PGNs, and drug addiction in DNs. The specific contacts are
enriched for open chromatin regions containing binding sites for TFs that are differentially
expressed in the two cell types.
664

As many of the chosen TF pairs were redundant, we next searched if they

coincided in the same differential contacts (**Fig. 4b**, full list shown in **Extended Data**

Fig. 7f). In PGNs, the most abundant sets of contacts contain putative binding sites

for *Neurod1* and/or *Neurod2* homo- and heterodimers, plus combinations of eight

different TFs: *Egr1, Etv5, Lhx2, Maz, Nr3c1, Pou3f2,* and *Ubp1*, giving a combined

total of 5572 contacts and representing the most common combinations, which we

call the *Neurod* group of contacts. In DNs, *Neurod1* and *Neurod2* appear only as

heterodimers, in a combined total of only 660 contacts with *Egr1*, *Etv5*, *Maz* and

Ubp1. Instead, the most frequent TF-motif pair in DNs, and second most in PGNs, is

a homodimer of *Ctcf* (892 and 781 contacts, respectively). In addition to its roles in

chromatin regulation[58], *Ctcf* regulates adult neuronal pathways related to learning

and memory formation[59], and is disrupted in several neurodevelopmental disorders[60].

After *Ctcf-Ctcf* contacts, the most abundant group of DN-specific contacts contain

Foxa1 heterotypic contacts with *Ctcf*, *Nr2f1* or *Nr4a1* (*Foxa1-TF* group; combined

total of 1612 contacts). All groups of TF-containing contacts span all genomic

distances considered (50kb-5Mb; **Extended Data Fig. 7g**), and capture strong

contacts compared to their surrounding (200kb) regions, or in distance-matched

random contacts (**see Methods**; **Extended Data Fig. 8a**). These strong contact

loops show similar local enrichment to those identified between *Neurod2* ChIP-seq

binding sites in neocortical PGNs[8]. We note that the selected differential contacts

rarely coincide with two TAD borders, even when considering the *Ctcf-Ctcf* contacts

(**Extended Data Fig. 8b**). The selected contacts often involve windows that belong to

A compartment in PGNs (71-73%) or DNs (56-62%), compared to all top differential

contacts (45% and 30%) or to the genome-wide distribution (44% and 45%, in PGNs

and DNs, respectively; **Extended Data Fig. 8c**).

The connectivity between multiple TF motifs in PGNs, and between *Foxa1* or

Neurod and specific TFs in DNs, could also be observed in the differential contacts

without pre-selecting specific TFs (**Extended Data Fig. 8d-e**). We built networks

based on the co-occurrence of motifs for all 50 differentially expressed TFs as nodes

in the top 5% differential contacts (as edges) of PGNs or DNs, followed by

community detection (see **Methods**, **Extended Data Fig. 8d**). In strong networks

that represent the top 20% of the total TF-containing differential contacts (i.e. with a

minimum of 15,833 and 5,400 contacts in PGNs and DNs, respectively), we find the

same strong connectivity in PGNs and DNs as in the TF motif pair analysis

(**Extended Data Fig. 8e, Supplemental Table 12**).

Cell-type specific contacts contain differentially expressed genes involved in

synaptic plasticity and addiction pathways

Next, we investigated whether the cell-type specific contacts in each of the TF-

motif groups contain genes with neuronal-specific functions. Remarkably, the TF-

motif groups contained many contacts with expressed genes in both contacting

windows (30-45% in DNs, 40-50% in PGNs), more commonly than genome-wide or

in all top 5% contacts (16% or 10-15%, respectively; **Fig. 4c**). The observed overlaps

between TF-based groups of contacts with expressed genes in both contacting

windows was highly significant (1000 random circular permutations of PGN and DN

expressed gene regions; empirical p < 0.001 in all cases; **Extended Data Fig. 8f**).

The observation that expressed genes are found in both contacting windows, for both

PGNs and DNs, suggests that exploring differential contacts containing differentially

expressed TF-motifs is a good strategy to discover cell-type specific hubs of genes

regulated by similar cohorts of TFs. Furthermore, many genes found in the TF-based

contacts are also differentially expressed (1490 and 975 genes in PGNs and DNs,

respectively, of 3537 differentially expressed genes; **Extended Data Fig. 8g**).

We next investigated whether the genes found at the specific contacts

containing open chromatin regions with binding motifs for differentially expressed TFs

have specific roles in each type of neuron. We focused on genes that are

upregulated in the cell type where they have stronger contacts. In PGN-specific

contacts, most PGN-upregulated genes are found in the *Neurod* contacts (624 of

1693 upregulated genes), with only a smaller proportion found in *Ctcf-Ctcf* contacts

(77), or sharing both groups of TFs (90; **Fig. 4d**). Each group of genes has GO terms

related to synaptic plasticity, the regulation of calcium transport, and energy

metabolism, respectively. For example, two of the PGN-upregulated genes, *Dlg4*,

important for long-term potentiation[61], and *Shisa6*, critical for preventing de-

sensitization of AMPA receptors during plasticity[62], are separated by ~3.5 Mb and

part of a hub of *Neurod* contacts that involve several other activity-related genes,

including *Map2k4*, involved in the JNK signalling pathway[63], and *Dnah9,* part of

disrupted synaptic networks in major depressive disorder and Alzheimer's

disease[64,65] (**Extended Data Fig. 8h** shows the differential contact matrix). These

results are consistent with models that invoked the role of TFs in the formation of

transcription factories or hubs[66,67].

A similar picture is found in the selected TF-group of contacts in DNs. DN-

upregulated genes are exclusive to the *Foxa1*-TF (139 of 1844 upregulated genes),

Neurod-TF (87) or *Ctcf-Ctcf* (80) contacts, with 77 genes shared in different

combinations between groups (**Fig. 4e**). Their GO terms are related to behaviour,

synaptic organization and function, with many proteins in these groups involved in

addiction pathways (e.g. nicotine and alcohol dependence). For example, *Dnm3*

encodes Dynamin-3, a scaffolding protein involved in synapse formation, is

upregulated in VTA DNs following prenatal alcohol or nicotine exposure[68] and has

altered protein expression in an alcohol dependence paradigm[69]. *Dnm3*, which

contains a melting domain in DNs (score = 36 and 31 in replicates 1 and 2,

respectively), makes *Foxa1*-TF containing contacts (separated by ~1.8Mb) with the

DN-upregulated genes *Mrps14* (a mitochondrial protein downregulated after nicotine

exposure[70]) and to *Cacynp* (a Calcyclin-binding protein upregulated following alcohol

exposure[71]). *Dmn3* also makes specific contacts between its promoter region and

Pou2f1 (separated by ~3.3Mb), which was identified as a transcription co-factor in a

model of alcohol dependence[72] (**Extended Data Fig. 8i** shows the differential contact

matrix).

Upregulation and regional condensation of the Egr1 locus in PGNs coincides

with accessible chromatin containing TF motifs specific to PGN contacts

Curiously, *Egr1*, an immediate early gene upregulated in activated neurons[56],

establishes PGN-specific contacts that contain accessible regions covered by *Egr1*

itself, together with *Neurod* motifs (**Fig. 4f**). In DNs, *Egr1* (a short 5.2kb gene) is

expressed (R-log = 6.8), and found at a TAD border with interactions with its right-

sided TAD. As expected from the frequent activation of PGNs, either stochastically or

during ongoing short-term memory formation[15,16], *Egr1* is highly upregulated (R-log =

9.5) in PGNs compared to DNs, and strikingly it gains increased contacts with the

TAD on its right (**Fig. 4f,** see **Extended Data Fig. 8j** for replicate data). Furthermore,

the general increase in PGN-specific contacts across the whole *Egr1*-containing TAD

correspond with an increased density of accessible chromatin peaks which contain

complex combinations of TF motifs belonging to the *Neurod* group of contacts,

especially at the *Egr1* gene itself (**Fig. 4f**), which also include *Ctcf* and *Lhx2*. In

contrast, in DNs, *Egr1* and the surrounding genes do not contain accessible regions

with motifs for the DN-specific contacts (e.g. *Foxa1*, *CTCF*, *Nr2f1*, *Nr4a1*). The

binding of EGR1 protein to its own promoter and surrounding region is confirmed in

published ChIP-seq data in cortex PGNs[73]. The increased regional condensation of

Egr1 when most highly transcribed has been reported in other systems, such as the

α-globin locus during erythroid lineage commitment[74], and may be a feature of

shorter genes when they become very active, and/or depend on the transcriptional

and regulatory activity of the neighbouring genomic regions.

Together, our analyses of strong differential chromatin contacts specific for

different neuron types contain putative binding sites for TFs differentially expressed

between cell-types (**Fig. 4g**). TF-motif containing contacts form inter-connected hubs

which bring together distal genes, often differentially expressed between the two

types of neurons, and involved in specialized neuronal functions, such as synaptic

plasticity in PGNs, or drug addiction in DNs. Genomic regions containing multiple TF

motifs can also lead to cell-type specific local condensation of contacts (e.g. for

Egr1), which may be important for the regulation of transcriptional levels.

Extensive A/B compartment changes occur between mESCs and brain cells,

and relate with the upregulation of neuronal genes

As a last exploration of the specialization of chromatin contacts across whole

chromosomes, we investigated large-scale changes of compartment A/B domains in

mESCs and brain cells. Comparisons of normalized compartment eigenvectors show

broad changes in A/B compartmentalization between all cell types (**Fig. 5a**, see

Extended Data Fig. 9a,b for replicates). The compartment eigenvector values are

least correlated between brain cells and mESCs, and best between neuronal

biological replicates (Pearson's correlation, **Extended Data Fig. 9c**). A large fraction

of the genome remains in compartment A (40%, 2325 windows), in contrast with a

smaller proportion remaining in compartment B (15%, 898 windows) in all cell types

(**Fig. 5b**). Next, 12% of the genome changes from compartment B in mESC to A in all

the brain cells (transition B-mESC → A-brain cells) or between compartment A in

mESCs to B in brain cells (7%, B-mESC → A-brain cells; rarer transitions are shown

in **Extended Data Fig. 9d**). The extent of compartment transitions is similar across

chromosomes, with few exceptions, such as chromosome 7 which is highest for B →

A transitions from mESCs to brain cells (**Extended Data Fig. 9e**). Regardless of the

changes in compartment membership, the mean and total genomic lengths occupied

contiguously by A or B compartments are similar across cell types (**Extended Data**

Fig. 9f).

Figure 5. Clusters of sensory receptor genes more often belong to B compartments in brain cells and establish megabase-range interactions.
a, Open and closed chromatin compartments (A and B, respectively) display different genomic distributions in mESCs, OLGs, PGNs and DNs. Mouse replicate 1 (R1) is shown.
b, Most genomic windows share membership to compartments A, followed by B, in all cell types. The most frequent compartment changes occur from compartment B in mESCs to A in all brain cells (pink box), followed by changes from A in mESCs to B in all brain cells (blue box; for all combinations see **Extended Data Fig. 9d**).
c, Top enriched (over-representation as measured by Z-Score) gene ontologies (GOs) for genes that increase expression in all brain cells relative to mESCs and move from compartment B in mESCs to compartment A in brain cells (*pink box*); and for genes that

(Fig. 5 legend, cont.) decrease expression in brain cells and move to compartment B,
compared to mESCs (*blue box*). All enriched GOs had permuted p-values = 0.
d, Top enriched GOs for genes that remain silent in all cell types but gain membership to
compartment B in brain cells. Most genes are *Olfr* and *Vmn* sensory receptor cluster genes.
A higher proportion of *Olfr* and *Vmn* genes are found in B compartments in brain cells,
compared to mESCs. All enriched GOs had permuted p-values = 0.
e, GAM contact matrices containing *Vmn* and orphan receptor genes show large patches of
strong interactions separated by 10 Mb between B compartments in OLGs, PGNs and DNs,
but not mESCs. Shaded green regions indicate interacting regions. Scale bars range
between 0 and the 99th percentile of NPMI values for each cell type.
f, GAM contact matrices show interactions between an *Olfr/Vmn* gene cluster and a second
Olfr cluster (green shaded regions) separated by 25 Mb. The contacts between the two
receptor clusters are strongest in OLGs, where the B compartment is strongest. Scale bars
range between 0 and the 99th percentile of NPMI values for each cell type.
g, Summary diagram. The 3D genome is extensively reorganized in brain cells to reflect its
gene expression specialization. (i) Contacts are rearranged at multiple scales, where
formation of new TAD borders can coincide with genes important for cell specialization in all
cell types. (ii) Domain melting occurs at very long genes which are highly transcribed and
with high chromatin accessibility in brain cells. (iii) The most specific contacts in neurons
contain complex networks of binding sites of neuron-specific transcription factors. Contacts
bridge genes expressed in the neurons where the contacts are observed, with specialized
functions, such as in synaptic plasticity (PGNs) and addiction (DNs). (iv) Finally, B
compartments contain clusters of sensory receptor genes silent in all cell types which form
strong contacts across tens of megabases.
841

To investigate how compartment transitions between mESCs and the brain

cell types relate with gene expression changes, we clustered genes according to

compartment transition and expression in each cell type. Within the regions with

transitions from B-mESC → A-brain cells, we find 335 genes which share functions

and are more strongly expressed in all the brain cell types than in mESCs (**Extended**

Data Fig. 10a). These genes have enriched GO terms such as "behaviour",

"regulation of synaptic plasticity" and "gated ion channel activity" (**Fig. 5c**). In regions

that undergo A-mESC → B-brain cells transitions, we remarkably find that most

genes are silent in all cell types (572/715 genes), and only 50 are more expressed in

mESCs (**Extended Data Fig. 10b**). Enriched GO terms for these 50 genes include

transcriptional regulation and transcription factor activity, and include many *Zfp*

genes (**Fig. 5c**), which encode zinc-finger binding proteins with roles in the

epigenetic regulation of pluripotency factors, and silencing of active genes during the

exit from pluripotency[75].

Clusters of sensory receptor genes are more strongly associated with B

compartments in brain cells and establish megabase-range interactions

We were intrigued by the large number of silent genes that undergo A-mESC to B-brain-cell transitions, enriched for sensory receptor genes such as *Vmn* (vomeronasal; 149 genes out of 572 silent genes in the group) and *Olfr* (olfactory; 179 genes), and which are most often found in gene clusters[76,77] (**Fig. 5d**). Although silent, only 35% of *Vmn* genes (104/290) and 66% of *Olfr* genes (718/1095) are associated with compartment B in mESCs, compared to 82-96% and 72-85% in brain cells, respectively (**Fig. 5d**).

We explored how the stricter compartment B association of sensory receptors in brain cells was related with chromatin contact formation in regions containing *Vmn* and *Olfr* clusters. Matrices and compartments on chromosome 7 (which contains the most *Vmn* and *Olfr* genes combined) showed that *Vmn* genes and/or *Olfr* genes are often involved in strong clusters of contacts, which can span up to 50 Mb, and are only observed in brain cells (**Fig. 5e,f**, **Extended Data Fig. 10c**). For *Olfr* clusters in **Fig. 5f**, the contacts between the two receptor clusters are stronger in OLGs where their B compartment eigenvectors are also stronger. These clusters of strong contacts are also weakly present in PGNs, but not in DNs where the second cluster is in the A compartment. The long-range clusters of contacts on chromosome 17, previously shown in **Fig. 1d,** also contain both *Vmn* and *Olfr* genes. We quantified the strength of long-range contacts between *Vmn* or *Olfr* genes at distances >3 Mb in non-adjacent compartments, by comparing the top 20% of distance-normalized Z-Scores. The brain cell types show significantly stronger long-range contacts between B-compartment regions containing *Vmn*, or to a lesser extent *Olfr* genes (**Extended Data Fig. 10d**). These results suggest that sensory genes are not only more locally

compartmentalized in heterochromatic B compartments in brain cells, but they also

form stronger contacts in 3D with other B compartments across tens of megabases,

a conformation that may be important to achieve stricter repression mechanisms in

the brain cells where these receptor genes are not expressed.

Discussion

Here, we adapted the GAM method to capture genome-wide chromatin

conformation states of selected cell populations in the mouse brain that perform

specialized functions. Using immunoGAM, we selected nuclear slices from specific

brain cells by immunofluorescence prior to laser microdissection, and characterized

the relationship between 3D chromatin organization and specialized gene expression

programs from single mice using intact tissues. We discovered dramatic

reorganization of chromatin topology which reflects cell function and specialization at

multiple genomic scales, from specific contacts to compartment changes that span

tens of megabases (**Fig. 5g**). We found extensive domain restructuring with many

TAD borders being unique to each cell type and occurring at genes relevant for brain

cell specialization. Future work with higher resolution GAM datasets will enable

further analyses of the reorganisation of domains at finer genomic scales to

investigate changes in sub-TADs, shown previously to occur following cell

commitment to neuronal lineages[78], and whether the presence of neuronal genes at

TAD borders relates with their high expression in the absence of cell division, or are

important for interactions with cis-regulatory elements and transcriptional activation.

We find that the 3D structure of very long genes (>400kb to 2.2 Mb) with

highest expression levels and/or accessible chromatin in brain cells is largely

reorganized, by extensive decondensation, or 'melting', in structures reminiscent of

fly chromatin puffs induced by heatshock[79-81]. In neurons, melted genes often show

increased contacts within their own chromosome. Single-cell imaging of *Rbfox1*

showed that its overall decondensation in PGNs is most prominent between its

transcription start and end site, also reminiscent of increased spatial distance

reported for shorter genes between their promoters and enhancers, such as *Pax6*

with its enhancers when the gene is most expressed[82], or of PARylation-dependent

decreases in *Shh*-enhancer proximity during neuronal differentiation[83]. Many long

genes are regulated in a specialized manner in terminally differentiated cells, for

example by the activity of topoisomerases[45], by long stretches of broad H3K27ac and

H3K4me1 which act as enhancer-like domains[84], by large transcription loops[85],

and/or through repressive mechanisms such as DNA methylation[86]. The regulation of

long genes is further complicated by intricate splicing dynamics[35], which require

highly adaptive responses based on neuronal activation state. In fact, for many of the

genes we highlight, including *Nrxn3*, *Rbfox1, Grik2,* and *Dscam*, genetic variants are

associated with or directly result in neuronal diseases[36-38,43-44,48-50]. Thus,

understanding how genome folding relates with the response to environmental

challenges is increasingly important to further our understanding of the mechanisms

of neurological disease.

Our results suggest that chromatin architecture could be used to make

predictions of functional or disease states in a cell type. Rich cell-type specific

networks of contacts contain expressed genes with specialized functions in neurons

and are enriched for putative binding sites for TFs expressed differentially between

the cell types analysed. Motifs for several neurodevelopmental TFs were frequent

within the accessible chromatin (ATAC-seq) peaks in the most differential contacts in

PGNs and DNs, including *Neurod1, Neurod2* and *Foxa1*. These TF motifs can

connect hubs of differentially expressed genes with specialized functions in neurons,

consistent with known roles of these TFs in adult maintenance and in the regulation

of synaptic responses[54-57]. DN-specific loops contained heterotypic *Foxa1* or

Neurod1/2 binding motifs, present in contact hubs containing genes related to the

response to drug exposure and addiction paradigms. DNs in the midbrain VTA are

the first cells in the brain to respond to a range of addictive substances, including

ethanol, amphetamines, nicotine and cocaine[87,88]. Therefore, future studies will be

important to understand the relationship between DN-specific chromatin landscapes,

disease-associated genetic variation and the regulation of these critical genes, with

potential implications for the onset of addiction.

In contrast with DNs, the PGN-specific contacts were enriched in complex

combinations of putative TF binding motifs, which connect hubs of differentially

expressed genes with roles in synaptic plasticity. PGNs frequently respond to

environmental cues during long-term potentiation (LTP) or depression (LTD), either

by external stimuli or by stochastic and intrinsic activation[15,16]. Strikingly, PGN-

specific contacts at the *Egr1* gene, involved in the early activation of LTP, were also

marked by accessible sites containing its own binding motifs, suggesting

mechanisms of self-activation by which expression of a TF increases contacts of the

TF with other regions containing its own binding sites. For example, positive

feedback loops of BDNF self-signalling at local synapses have been proposed as a

mechanism of LTP induction[89]. Finally, predictive polymer modelling has shown that

transcription factor binding can result in the self-assembly of specialized clusters

reminiscent of nucleoplasmic transcription factories[66,67]. Together with reports that *de*

novo chromatin looping can accompany transcriptional activation[7], our work suggests

that coordinated transcription-factor binding at apparent distant locations in the linear

genomic scale, but in close contact due to the 3D chromatin landscape, may be

critical for LTP induction.

We observed that highly repressed *Olfr* and *Vmn* genes are found in B

compartment regions in brain cells, which form strong cis-contacts tens of mega-

bases away. These strong B compartment contacts were especially noteworthy, as

Olfr genes can have non-sensory organ functions in neurons related to specificity of

neuronal activation[90]. *Olfr* genes are highly repressed in mature olfactory sensory

neurons, where they form a large inter-chromosomal hub to regulate specificity of

single *Olfr* gene activation[91,92]. Long-range interactions between *Olfr* genes were

independently found in CpG-poor regions of adult cortical neurons[93]. Our results

expand and complement these observations, highlighting that long-range

mechanisms of *Olfr* repression may also reflect their specialized roles in different cell

types of the brain. Tighter B compartmentalization of *Vmn* and *Olfr* genes may be

important for their repression in the brain cell types, as *Olfr* genes have been

reported to be stochastically activated and mis-expressed in cortical PGNs, in several

neurodegenerative diseases[90].

Finally, our work shows that immunoGAM is uniquely positioned to probe

questions related to cell state and specialized function within the brain or in other

complex tissues, as local tissue structure is maintained. ImmunoGAM has the

potential to be applied in multiple cell types within the same tissue while retaining the

geographic positions of each cell, a prospect that can further deepen our

understanding of coordinated interactions between cells in complex diseases. As

immunoGAM requires only small cell numbers to capture complex differences in

genomic topology (~1000 cells), from single individuals, it may also have prognostic

value in highly precious clinical patient samples, and to provide critical insights into

the etiology and progression of neurological disease. Collectively, our work revealed

that cell specialization in the brain and chromatin structure are intimately linked at

multiple genomic scales.

References

1. Jung, I., *et al.* A compendium of promoter-centered long-range chromatin interactions in the human genome. *Nat. Genet.* **51**, 1442-1449 (2019).

2. Rao, S.S., *et al.* A 3D map of the human genome at kilobase resolution reveals principles of chromatin looping. *Cell* **159**, 1665-1680 (2014).

3. Beagrie, R.A., *et al.* Complex multi-enhancer contacts captured by genome architecture mapping. *Nature* **543**, 519-524 (2017).

4. Quinodoz, S.A., *et al.* Higher-Order Inter-chromosomal Hubs Shape 3D Genome Organization in the Nucleus. *Cell* **174**, 744-757 (2018).

5. Dixon, J.R., *et al.* Chromatin architecture reorganization during stem cell differentiation. *Nature* **518**, 331-336 (2015).

6. Fraser, J., *et al.* Hierarchical folding and reorganization of chromosomes are linked to transcriptional changes in cellular differentiation. *Mol. Syst. Biol.* **11**, 852 (2015).

7. Beagan, J.A., *et al.* Three-dimensional genome restructuring across timescales of activity-induced neuronal gene expression. *Nat. Neurosci.* **23**, 707-717 (2020).

8. Bonev, B., *et al.* Multiscale 3D Genome Rewiring during Mouse Neural Development. *Cell* **171**, 557-572 (2017).

9. Walczak, A., *et al.* Novel higher-order epigenetic regulation of the Bdnf gene upon seizures. *J. Neurosci.* **33**, 2507-2511 (2013).

10. Harabula, A., & Pombo, A. The dynamics of chromatin architecture in brain development and function. *Curr. Opin. Genet. Dev.* **67**, 84-93 (2021).

11. Beagrie, R.A., *et al.* Multiplex-GAM: genome-wide identification of chromatin contacts yields insights not captured by Hi-C. Preprint at *BioRxiv* https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.07.31.230284 (2021).

12. Van den Brink, S.C., *et al.* Single-cell sequencing reveals dissociation-induced gene expression in tissue subpopulations. *Nat. Methods* **14**, 935-936 (2017).

13. Fiorillo, L., *et al.* Comparison of the Hi-C, GAM and SPRITE methods by use of polymer models of chromatin. *Nature Methods* **18**, 482-490 (2021).

14. Huges, E.G., Orthmann-Murphy, J.L., Langseth, A.J., & Bergles, D.E. Myelin remodeling through experience-dependent oligodendrogenesis in the adult somatosensory cortex. *Nat. Neurosci.* **21**, 696-706 (2018).

15. Stackman Jr., R.W., Cohen, S.J., Lora, J.C., & Rios, L.M. Temporal inactivation reveals that the CA1 region of the mouse dorsal hippocampus

1040   plays an equivalent role in the retrieval of long-term object memory and spatial
1041   memory. *Neurobiol. Learn. Mem.* **133**, 118-128 (2016).
1042

1043 16. Combe, C.L., Canavier, C.C., & Gasparini, S. Intrinsic Mechanisms of
1044   Frequency Selectivity in the Proximal Dendrites of CA1 Pyramidal Neurons. *J.*
1045   *Neurosci.* **38**, 8110-8127 (2018).
1046

1047 17. Keiflin, R., & Janak, P.H. Dopamine Prediction Errors in Reward Learning and
1048   Addiction: From Theory to Neural Circuitry. *Neuron* **88**, 247-263 (2015).
1049

1050 18. Crane, E., *et al.* Condensin-Driven Remodeling of X-Chromosome Topology
1051   during Dosage Compensation. *Nature* **523**, 240-244 (2015).
1052

1053 19. Hirayama, T., Tarusawa, E., Yoshimura, Y., Galjart, N., & Takeshi, Y. CTCF is
1054   required for neural development and stochastic expression of clustered Pcdh
1055   genes in neurons. *Cell Rep.* **2**, 345-357 (2012).
1056

1057 20. Monahan, K., *et al.* Role of CCCTC binding factor (CTCF) and cohesin in the
1058   generation of single-cell diversity of protocadherin-α gene expression. *Proc.*
1059   *Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **23**, 9125-9130 (2012).
1060

1061 21. Yu, Y., Suo, L., & Wu, Q. Protocadherin α gene cluster is required for
1062   myelination and oligodendrocyte development. *Zoological Research.* **33**, 362-
1063   366 (2012).
1064

1065 22. Furusho, M., Dupree, J.L., Nave, K-A., & Bansal, R. Fibroblast Growth Factor
1066   Receptor Signaling in Oligodendrocytes Regulates Myelin Sheath Thickness.
1067   *J. Neurosci.* **32**, 6631-6641 (2012).
1068

1069 23. Marques, S., *et al.* Oligodendrocyte heterogeneity in the mouse juvenile and
1070   adult central nervous system. *Science* **352**, 1326-1329 (2016).
1071

1072 24. Zeisel, A., *et al.* Brain structure. Cell types in the mouse cortex and
1073   hippocampus revealed by single-cell RNA-seq. *Science* **347**, 1138-142 (2015).
1074

1075 25. La Manno, G., *et al.* Molecular Diversity of Midbrain Development in Mouse,
1076   Human, and Stem Cells. *Cell* **167**, 566-580 (2016).
1077

1078 26. Ferrai, C., et al. RNA polymerase II primes Polycomb-repressed
1079   developmental genes throughout terminal neuronal differentiation. *Mol. Syst.*
1080   *Biol.* **13**, 946 (2017).
1081

1082 27. Cusanovich, D.A., *et al.* A Single-Cell Atlas of In Vivo Mammalian Chromatin
1083   Accessibility. *Cell* **174**, 1309-1324 (2018).
1084

1085 28. Sinnamon, J.R., *et al.* The accessible chromatin landscape of the murine
1086   hippocampus at single-cell resolution. *Genome Res.* **29**, 857-869 (2019).
1087

1088 29. Ben-Shalom, R., *et al.* Opposing Effects on Na$_v$1.2 Function Underlie
1089   Differences Between SCN2A Variants Observed in Individuals With Autism
1090   Spectrum Disorder or Infantile Seizures. *Biol. Psychiatry* **82**, 224-232 (2017).

1091

1092   30. Lamar, T., *et al. SCN3A* deficiency associated with increased seizure
1093   susceptibility. *Neurobiol. Dis.* **102**, 38-48 (2017).

1094

1095   31. Wang, Q., Sun, Q., Czajkowsky, D.M., & Shao, Z. Sub-kb Hi-C in D.
1096   melanogaster reveals conserved characteristics of TADs between insect and
1097   mammalian cells. *Nat. Commun.* **9**, 188 (2018).

1098

1099   32. Petrovic, M.M., *et al.* Metabotropic action of postsynaptic kainate receptors
1100   triggers hippocampal long-term potentiation. *Nature Neurosci.* **20**, 529-529
1101   (2017).

1102

1103   33. Zhang, D., *et al.* Protein kinase C delta negatively regulates tyrosine
1104   hydroxylase activity and dopamine synthesis by enhancing protein
1105   phosphatase-2A activity in dopaminergic neurons. *J. Neurosci.* **16**, 5349-5362
1106   (2007).

1107

1108   34. Xu, Y., & Fisher, G.J. Receptor type protein tyrosine phosphatases (RPTPs) –
1109   roles in signal transduction and human disease. *J. Cell Commun. Signal.* **6**,
1110   125-138 (2012).

1111

1112   35. Ray, T.A., *et al.* Comprehensive identification of mRNA isoforms reveals the
1113   diversity of neural cell-surface molecules with roles in retinal development and
1114   disease. *Nat. Commun.* **11**, 3328 (2020).

1115

1116   36. Xiong, S., Wang, Y., Li, H., & Zhang, X. Interaction among GRIK2 gene on
1117   epilepsy susceptibility in Chinese children. *Acta Neurol. Scand.* **139**, 540-545
1118   (2019).

1119

1120   37. Guzmán, Y.F., *et al.* A gain-of-function mutation in the *GRIK2* gene causes
1121   neurodevelopmental deficits. *Neurol. Genet.* **3**, e129 (2017).

1122

1123   38. Guidi, S., *et al.* Neurogenesis impairment and increased cell death reduce
1124   total neuron number in the hippocampal region of fetuses with Down
1125   syndrome. *Brain Pathol.* **18**, 180-197 (2008).

1126

1127   39. Zuckerkandl, E. Gene control in eukaryotes and the c-value paradox "excess"
1128   DNA as an impediment to transcription of coding sequences. *J. Mol. Evol.* **9**,
1129   73-104 (1976).

1130

1131   40. Nechaev, S., *et al.* Global Analysis of Short RNAs Reveals Widespread
1132   Promoter-Proximal Stalling and Arrest of Pol II in Drosophila. *Science* **327**,
1133   335-338 (2012).

1134

1135   41. Boldyreva, L.V., *et al.* Protein and Genetic Composition of Four Chromatin
1136   Types in Drosophila melanogaster Cell Lines. *Curr. Genomics* **18**, 214-226
1137   (2017).

1138

1139   42. Müller, W.G., Walker, D., Hafer, G.L., & McNally, J.G. Large-scale chromatin
1140   decondensation and recondensation regulated by transcription from a natural
1141   promoter. *J. Cell Biol.* **154**, 33-48 (2001).

43. Vaags, A.K., *et al.* Rare Deletions at the Neurexin 3 Locus in Autism Spectrum Disorder. *Am. J. Hum. Genet.* **90**, 133-141 (2012).

44. Martinez-Mir, A., *et al.* Genetic study of neurexin and neuroligin genes in Alzheimer's disease. *J. Alzheimers Dis.* **35**, 403-412 (2013).

45. King, I.F., *et al.* Topoisomerases facilitate transcription of long genes linked to autism. *Nature* **501**, 58-62 (2013).

46. Peric-Hupkes, D., *et al.* Molecular Maps of the Reorganization of Genome-Nuclear Lamina Interactions during Differentiation. *Mol. Cell* **38**, 603-613 (2010).

47. Bizhanova, A., Yan, A., Yu, J., Zhu, L.J., & Kaufman, P.D. Distinct features of nucleolus-associated domains in mouse embryonic stem cells. *Chromosoma* **129**, 121-139 (2020).

48. Hishimoto, A., *et al.* Neurexin 3 polymorphisms are associated with alcohol dependence and altered expression of specific isoforms. *Hum. Mol. Genet.* **16**, 2880-2891 (2007).

49. Lee, J-A., *et al.* Cytoplasmic Rbfox1 regulates the expression of synaptic and autism-related genes. *Neuron* **89**, 113-128 (2016).

50. Lal, D., *et al.* Extending the phenotypic spectrum of RBFOX1 deletions: Sporadic focal epilepsy. *Epilepsia* **56**, e129-133 (2015).

51. Bianco, S., *et al.* Polymer physics predicts the effects of structural variants on chromatin architecture. *Nat Genet.* **50**, 662-667 (2018).

52. Branco, M.R., & Pombo, A. Intermingling of Chromosome Territories in Interphase Suggests Role in Translocations and Transcription-Dependent Associations. *PLoS Biol.* **4**, e138 (2006).

53. Valdez, B.C., *et al.* Identification of the Nuclear and Nucleolar Localization Signals of the Protein p120. *J. Biol. Chem.* **269**, 23776-23783 (1994).

54. Pristerà, A., *et al.* Transcription factors FOXA1 and FOXA2 maintain dopaminergic neuronal properties and control feeding behavior in adult mice. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **112**, E4929-E4938 (2015).

55. Pataskar, A, *et al.* NeuroD1 reprograms chromatin and transcription factor landscapes to induce the neuronal program. *EMBO J.* **35**, 24-45 (2015).

56. Duclot, F., & Kabbaj, M. The Role of Early Growth Response 1 (EGR1) in Brain Plasticity and Neuropsychiatric Disorders. *Front. Behav. Neurosci.* **11**, 35 (2017).

57. Wilke, S.A., *et al.* NeuroD2 regulates the development of hippocampal mossy fiber synapses. *Neural Dev.* **7**, 9 (2012).

58. Barrington, C., *et al.* Enhancer accessibility and CTCF occupancy underlie asymmetric TAD architecture and cell type specific genome topology. *Nat. Commun.* **10**, 2908 (2019).

59. Sams, D.S., *et al.* Neuronal CTCF Is Necessary for Basal and Experience-Dependent Gene Regulation, Memory Formation, and Genomic Structure of BDNF and Arc. *Cell Rep.* **17**, 2418-2430 (2016).

60. Konrad, E.D.H., *et al.* CTCF variants in 39 individuals with a variable neurodevelopmental disorder broaden the mutational and clinical spectrum. *Genet. Med.* **21**, 2723-2733.

61. Bustos, F.J., *et al.* Epigenetic editing of the Dlg4/PSD95 gene improves cognition in aged and Alzheimer's disease mice. *Brain* **140**, 3252-3268 (2017).

62. Klaassen, R.V., *et al.* Shisa6 traps AMPA receptors at postsynaptic sites and prevents their desensitization during synaptic activity. *Nat. Commun.* **7**, 10682 (2016).

63. Coffey, E.T. Nuclear and cytosolic JNK signalling in neurons. *Nat. Rev. Neurosci.* **15**, 285-299 (2014).

64. Yoshino, Y., Roy, B., Kumar, N., Mukhtar, M.S., & Dwivedi, Y. Molecular pathology associated with altered synaptic transcriptome in the dorsolateral prefrontal cortex of depressed subjects. *Transl. Psychiatry* **11**. 73 (2021).

65. Li, P., *et al.* Epigenetic dysregulation of enhancers in neurons is associated with Alzheimer's disease pathology and cognitive symptoms. *Nat. Commun.* **10**, 2246 (2019).

66. Brackley, C.A., Johnson, J., Kelly, S., Cook, P.R., & Marenduzzo, D. Simulated binding of transcription factors to active and inactive regions folds human chromosomes into loops, rosettes and topological domains. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **44**, 3503-3512 (2016).

67. Brackley, C.A., *et al.* Ephemeral Protein Binding to DNA Shapes Stable Nuclear Bodies and Chromatin Domains. *Biophys. J.* **112**, 1085-1093 (2017).

68. Kazemi, T., *et al.* Investigating the influence of perinatal nicotine and alcohol exposure on the genetic profiles of dopaminergic neurons in the VTA using miRNA–mRNA analysis. *Sci. Rep.* **10**, 15016 (2020).

69. Gorini, G., Roberts, A.J., & Mayfield, R.D. Neurobiological Signatures of Alcohol Dependence Revealed by Protein Profiling. *PLoS One* **8**, e82656 (2013).

70. Wang, J., *et al.* Genome-Wide Expression Analysis Reveals Diverse Effects of Acute Nicotine Exposure on Neuronal Function-Related Genes and Pathways. *Front. Psychiatry* **2**, 5 (2011).

71. Bell, R.L., *et al.* Gene expression changes in the nucleus accumbens of alcohol-preferring rats following chronic ethanol consumption. *Pharmacol. Biochem. Behav.* **94**, 131-147 (2010).

72. Repunte-Canonigo, V., *et al.* Identifying candidate drivers of alcohol dependence-induced excessive drinking by assembly and interrogation of brain-specific regulatory networks. *Genome Biol.* **16**, 68 (2015).

73. Sun, Z., *et al.* EGR1 recruits TET1 to shape the brain methylome during development and upon neuronal activity. *Nat. Commun.* **10**, 3892 (2019).

74. Oudelaar, A.M., *et al.* Dynamics of the 4D genome during in vivo lineage specification and differentiation. *Nat. Commun.* **11**, 2722 (2020).

75. Kwak, S., *et al.* Zinc finger proteins orchestrate active gene silencing during embryonic stem cell differentiation. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **46**, 6592-6607 (2018).

76. Magklara, A., *et al.* An epigenetic signature for monoallelic olfactory receptor expression. *Cell* **145**, 555-570 (2011).

77. Kambere, M.B. & Lane, R.P. Co-regulation of a large and rapidly evolving repertoire of odorant receptor genes. *BMC Neurosci.* **8 Suppl 3**, S2 (2007).

78. Phillips-Cremins, J.E., *et al.* Architectural protein subclasses shape 3-D organization of genomes during lineage commitment. *Cell* **153**, 1281-1295 (2013).

79. Ashburner, M., & Bonner, J.J. The induction of gene activity in drosophila by heat shock. *Cell* **17**, 241-254 (1979).

80. Lis, J.T., Simon, J.A., & Sutton, C.A. New heat shock puffs and β=galactosidase activity resulting from transformation of Drosophila with an *hsp70-lacZ* hybrid gene. *Cell* **35**, 403-410 (1983).

81. Berman, B.P., *et al.* Computational identification of developmental enhancers: conservation and function of transcription factor binding-site clusters in *Drosophila melanogaster* and *Drosophila pseudoobscura*. *Genome Biol.* **5**, R61 (2004).

82. Buckle, A., Brackley, C.A., Boyle, S., Marenduzzo, D., & Gilbert, N. Polymer Simulations of Heteromorphic Chromatin Predict the 3D Folding of Complex Genomic Loci. *Mol. Cell* **72**, 786-797 (2018).

83. Benabdallah, N.S., *et al.* Decreased Enhancer-Promoter Proximity Accompanying Enhancer Activation. *Mol. Cell* **76**, 473-484 (2019).

84. Zhao, Y.T., *et al.* Long genes linked to autism spectrum disorders harbor broad enhancer-like chromatin domains. *Genome Res.* **28**, 933-942 (2018).

85. Leidescher, S., *et al.* Spatial organisation of transcribed eukaryotic genes. Preprint at *BioRxiv* https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.05.20.106591 (2021).

86. Gabel, H.W., *et al.* Disruption of DNA-methylation-dependent long gene repression in Rett syndrome. *Nature* **522**, 89-93 (2015).

87. Lüscher, C., & Ungless M. The mechanistic classification of addictive drugs. *PLoS Med.* **3**, e437 (2006).

88. Lüscher, C., & Malenka R.C. Drug-evoked synaptic plasticity in addiction: from molecular changes to circuit remodeling. *Neuron* **69**, 650-663 (2011).

89. Hao, L., Yang, Z., & Lei, J. Underlying Mechanisms of Cooperativity, Input Specificity, and Associativity of Long-Term Potentiation Through a Positive Feedback of Local Protein Synthesis. *Front. Comput. Neurosci.* **12**, 25 (2018).

90. Ansoleaga, B., *et al.* Dysregulation of brain olfactory and taste receptors in AD, PSP and CJD, and AD-related model. *Neuroscience* **248**, 369-382 (2013).

91. Monahan, K., *et al.* Cooperative interactions enable singular olfactory receptor expression in mouse olfactory neurons. *Elife* **6**, e28620 (2017).

92. Monahan, K., Horta, A. & Lomvardas, S. LHX2- and LDB1-mediated trans interactions regulate olfactory receptor choice. *Nature* **565**, 448-453 (2018).

93. Tan, L., *et al.* Changes in genome architecture and transcriptional dynamics progress independently of sensory experience during post-natal brain development. *Cell* **184**, 741-758 (2021).

94. Sawamoto, K., et al. Generation of dopaminergic neurons in the adult brain from mesencephalic precursor cells labeled with a nestin-GFP transgene. *J. Neurosci.* **21**, 3895-3903 (2001).

95. Matsushita, N., et al. Dynamics of tyrosine hydroxylase promoter activity during midbrain dopaminergic neuron development. *J. Neurochem.* **82**, 295-304 (2002).

96. Falcão, A.M., et al. Disease-specific oligodendrocyte lineage cells arise in multiple sclerosis. *Nat. Medicine* **24**, 1837-1844 (2018).

97. Matsuoka, T., et al. Neural crest origins of the neck and shoulder. *Nature* **436**, 347-355 (2005).

98. Sousa, V.H., et al. Characterization of Nkx6-2-derived neocortical interneuron lineages. *Cereb. Cortex* **19** Suppl 1, i1-10 (2009).

99. Jaitner, C., et al. Satb2 determines miRNA expression and long-term memory in the adult central nervous system. *Elife* **5**, e17361 (2016).

100. Langmead, B. & Salzberg, S.L. Fast gapped-read alignment with Bowtie 2. *Nat. Methods* **9**, 357-359 (2012).

101. Quinlan, A.R. & Hall, I.M. BEDTools: a flexible suite of utilities for comparing genomic features. *Bioinformatics* **26**, 841-842 (2010).

102. Lex, A., *et al.* UpSet: Visualization of Intersecting Sets. *IEEE Trans. Vis. Comput. Graph.* **20**, 1983-1992 (2014).

103. Ying, Q.L., Stavridis, M., Griffiths, D., Li, M. & Smith, A. Conversion of embryonic stem cells into neuroectodermal precursors in adherent monoculture. *Nat Biotechnol.* **21**, 183-186 (2003).

104. Kolodziejczyk, A.A., *et al.* Single Cell RNA-Sequencing of Pluripotent States Unlocks Modular Transcriptional Variation. *Cell Stem Cell* **17**, 471-485 (2015).

105. Dobin, A., *et al.* STAR: ultrafast universal RNA-seq aligner. *Bioinformatics* **29**, 15-21 (2013).

106. Li, B. & Dewey, C.N. RSEM: accurate transcript quantification from RNA-Seq data with or without a reference genome. *BMC Bioinformatics* **12**, 323 (2011).

107. Aronesty, E. ea-utils: Command-line tools for processing biological sequencing data. *The open bioinformatics journal* http://code.google.com/p/ea-utils: **7**, 602 (2011).

108. Kar, G., *et al.* Flipping between Polycomb repressed and active transcriptional states introduces noise in gene expression. *Nat. Commun.* **8**, 36 (2017).

109. Macosko, E.Z., *et al.* Highly Parallel Genome-wide Expression Profiling of Individual Cells Using Nanoliter Droplets. *Cell* **161**, 1202-1214 (2015).

110. McInnes, L., Healy, J., Saul, N. & Großberger, L. UMAP: Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection. *The Journal of Open Source Software* doi: 10.21105/joss.00861.

111. Li, H., *et al.* The Sequence Alignment/Map format and SAMtools. *Bioinformatics* **25**, 2078-2079 (2009).

112. Ramirez, F., *et al.* deepTools2: a next generation web server for deep-sequencing data analysis. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **44**, W160-165 (2016).

113. Love, M.I., Huber, W. & Anders, S. Moderated estimation of fold change and dispersion for RNA-seq data with DESeq2. *Genome Biol.* **15**, 550 (2014).

114. Picelli, S., *et al.* Tn5 transposase and tagmentation procedures for massively scaled sequencing projects. *Genome Res* **24**, 2033-2040 (2014).

115. Corces, M.R., *et al.* An improved ATAC-seq protocol reduces background and enables interrogation of frozen tissues. *Nat. Methods* **14**, 959-962 (2017).

116. Tarasov, A., Vilella, A.J., Cuppen, E., Nijman, I.J., & Prins, P. Sambamba: fast processing of NGS alignment formats. *Bioinformatics* **31**, 2032-2034 (2015).

117. Granja, J.M., *et al.* ArchR is a scalable software package for integrative single-cell chromatin accessibility analysis. *Nat. Genet.* **53**, 403-411 (2021).

118. Zambon, A.C., *et al.* GO-Elite: a flexible solution for pathway and ontology over-representation. *Bioinformatics* **28**, 2209-2210 (2012).

119. Barbieri, M. *et al.* Complexity of chromatin folding is captured by the strings and binders switch model. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* **109**, 16173–16178 (2012).

120. Chiariello, A. M., Annunziatella, C., Bianco, S., Esposito, A. & Nicodemi, M. Polymer physics of chromosome large-scale 3D organisation. *Sci. Rep.* **6**, 29775 (2016).

121. Fiorillo, L. *et al.* Inference of chromosome 3D structures from GAM data by a physics computational approach. *Methods* S1046-2023(18)30485-7. (2019).

122. Plimpton, S. Fast parallel algorithms for short-range molecular dynamics. *J. Comput. Phys.* **117**, 1–19 (1995).

123. Kremer, K. & Grest, G. S. Dynamics of entangled linear polymer melts: A molecular-dynamics simulation. *J. Chem. Phys.* **92**, 5057–5086 (1990).

124. Schindelin, J., *et al.* Fiji: an open-source platform for biological-image analysis. *Nat. Methods* **9**, 676-682 (2012).

125. Kulakovskiy, I.V., *et al.* HOCOMOCO: towards a complete collection of transcription factor binding models for human and mouse via large-scale ChIP-Seq analysis. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **46**, D252-D259 (2018).

126. *Discovering Knowledge in Data*. D.R. Larose and C.D. Larose. Wiley, Haboken, New Jersey (2014).

127. Traag, V.A., Waltmann, L., & van Eck, N.J. From Louvain to Leiden: guaranteeing well-connected communities. *Sci. Rep.* **9**, 5233 (2019).

128. Kelly, S.T. leiden: R implementation of the Leiden algorithm. R package version 0.3.3, https://github.com/TomKellyGenetics/leiden (2019).

Acknowledgments

The authors thank Sheila Q. Xie and Azhaar Ashraf for help processing midbrain samples, Marek Bartosovic for help with manuscript revisions, Michael Gotthardt for providing animals and Rene Jüttner for help with dissections of midbrain samples for the snATAC-seq, Catherine Baugher for developing the TF motif analysis pipeline, and the Pombo lab members for helpful discussions. We thank Caroline Braeuning of the Scientific Genomics Platform for scientific and technical support, and Anja Schütz and her team of the Protein Production and Characterization Platform, both at the Max Delbrück Center for Molecular Medicine in the Helmholtz Association, Berlin. We thank Andrew Adey, who kindly provided a bam file for the published PGN scATAC-seq analysis.

AP and AA acknowledge support from the Helmholtz Association (Germany). AP and MN acknowledge support from the National Institutes of Health Common Fund 4D Nucleome Program grants U54DK107977 and 1UM1HG011585, and the Berlin Institute of Health (BIH). AP and LZR acknowledge support by the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (DFG; German Research Foundation) International Research Training Group (IRTG2403). AP acknowledges support from the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (DFG; German Research Foundation) under Germany's Excellence Strategy – EXC-2049 – 390688087. GCB acknowledges European Union Horizon 2020/European Research Council Consolidator Grant (EPIScOPE no. 681893), Swedish Research Council (no. 2015-03558; 2019-01360), Swedish Brain Foundation (no. FO2017-0075), Knut and Alice Wallenberg Foundation (grant 2019-0107), The Swedish Society for Medical Research (SSMF, grant JUB2019), Ming Wai Lau Centre for Reparative Medicine and Karolinska Institutet. GD and GA acknowledge support from the Austrian FWF through DK W1206 "Signal Processing in Neurons" and SFB F44 "Cell Signaling in Chronic CNS Disorders", P25014-B24.

MAU acknowledges funding by the Medical Research Council (UK) (U120085816)

and a Royal Society University Research Fellowship. MN thanks support from

CINECA ISCRA Grant HP10CYFPS5 and HP10CRTY8P, by computer resources at

INFN and Scope at the University of Naples (MN). LW acknowledges the support of

Ohio University's GERB program. IH was supported by a Boehringer Ingelheim

Fonds PhD fellowship, and ETT by an EMBO short-term fellowship (ASTF 336-

2015). II-A was supported by a Long-Term Fellowship from the Federation of

European Biochemical Societies (FEBS). SC is a GABBA PhD fellow supported by

the FCT (Fundação para a Ciência e Tecnologia; PD/BD/135453/2017).

1478

Author Contributions

AP designed the concept for this work; WWN, MM, AA, EJP and AP collected animal

tissues; IH, WWN, LS, AK, MM, and RK produced GAM datasets; IH, LS, AK, WWN,

and MM optimised the experimental immunoGAM protocol; WWN, AK, CJT, II-A, EI

and TMS developed computational pipelines for bioinformatics and QC analyses of

GAM data; AK and II-A performed QC analyses of GAM data; TMS developed the

NPMI normalization of GAM data and performed bias analysis; WWN, AK and DS

performed bioinformatics analyses of GAM data; DS developed the domain melting

analysis, with consultation from CJT; DS devised the MELTRON pipeline and

performed the domain melting analysis of GAM data; DS developed the trans-cis

ratio analysis; CJT and WWN developed the differential contact analysis; WWN

performed differential contact analysis; YZ performed TF motif finding enrichment,

network, and community analyses in differential contacts; WWN performed post-hoc

analyses of TF motif enrichment in differential contacts; ETT performed mESC

culture experiments; ETT and AAK produced single-cell RNAseq data; LZR and DS

performed RNA-seq analysis; LZR performed differential gene expression analysis;

LZR optimised the single-nucleus ATAC-seq protocol, produced and analyzed bulk and single-cell ATAC-seq data; SB optimized polymer modeling and performed PRISMR analysis; SB and AMC produced models for polymer modeling; AMC performed statistical analyses of polymer models; LF and FM performed in-silico GAM experiments; IH and SC performed and analyzed fluorescence *in-situ* hybridization (FISH) experiments; WWN, DS, IH, LZR, YZ, AK, TMS, SB, AMC, and MM produced the final data plots; SAT supervised scRNA-seq experiments; MM, GA, GD, MU and GCB supervised animal tissue collection and provided animal samples; AP supervised GAM experiments and bioinformatics analyses, cryo-FISH experiments and analysis, and ATAC-seq experiments and analysis; VF, AP, and AA supervised the scRNA-seq analysis; MN supervised the polymer modeling and in-silico GAM; LW supervised the TF motif and network analyses; WWN, AP, AK, IH, DS, LZR, LW, YZ, GCB, MM, SB, AMC, and MN contributed to the interpretation of the results; WWN wrote the first draft of the manuscript; WWN designed the figures and illustrations, with contributions from AP, DS and IH; WWN, AP, AK, IH, DS, LZR, YZ, LW, GCB, SC, SB, and AMC wrote the manuscript. All authors provided critical feedback and helped revise the manuscript. The authors consider WWN, AK and IH to have contributed equally to this work. The authors also consider LZR and DS to have contributed equally to this work.

Competing interests

1519 AP and MN hold a patent on 'Genome Architecture Mapping': Pombo, A., Edwards,

1520 P. A. W., Nicodemi, M., Beagrie, R. A. & Scialdone, A. Patent PCT/EP2015/079413

1521 (2015).

1522
1523 **Materials & Correspondence**

1524 Correspondence and material requests should be addressed to ana.pombo@mdc-

1525 berlin.de or warren.winick-ng@mdc-berlin.de

1526

Methods

Animal maintenance

Collection of GAM data from dopaminergic neurons was performed using one C57Bl/6NCrl (RRID: IMSR_CR:027; WT) mouse which were purchased from Charles River, and from one TH-GFP (B6.Cg-Tg(TH-GFP)21-31/C57B6) mouse, obtained as previously described[94,95]. All procedures involving WT and TH-GFP animals were approved by the Imperial College London's Animal Welfare and Ethical Review Body. Adult male mice of age 2–3 months were used. All mice had access to food and water *ad libitum* and were kept on a 12 h:12 h day/night cycle. C57Bl/6NCrl and TH-GFP mice received an intraperitoneal (IP) injection of saline 14 days or 24 h prior to the tissue collection, respectively, and they were part of a larger experiment for a different study. Collection of single-nucleus ATAC-seq (snATAC-seq) data from midbrain VTA was performed using male C57Bl/6Nl (RRID: IMSR_CR:027; WT) mice, ages 7 and 9 weeks, which were a kind gift from Michael Gotthardt. All procedures involving mice for snATAC-seq approved by the regulations of local animal care committee (LAGeSo, Berlin, Germany) and the animal welfare officers of the Max Delbrück Center for Molecular Medicine (MDC

Collection of GAM data from somatosensory oligodendrocyte cells was performed using Sox10::Cre-RCE::loxP-EGFP[96] animals which were obtained by crossing Sox10::Cre animals[97] on a C57BL/6j genetic background with RCE::loxP-EGFP animals[98] on a C57BL/6xCD1 mixed genetic background, both available at The Jackson Laboratories. The Cre allele was maintained in hemizygosity while the reporter allele was maintained in hemi- or homozygosity. Experimental procedures for Sox10::Cre-RCE::loxP-EGFP animals were performed following the European directive 2010/63/EU, local Swedish directive L150/SJVFS/2019:9, Saknr L150 and Karolinska Institutet complementary guidelines for procurement and use of laboratory animals, Dnr 1937/03-640. The procedures described were approved by the local committee for ethical experiments on laboratory animals in Sweden (Stockholms Norra Djurförsöksetiska nämnd), lic.nr. 130/15. One male mouse was sacrificed at P21. Mice were housed to a maximum number of 5 per cage in individually ventilated cages with the following light/dark cycle: dawn 6:00-7:00, daylight 7:00-18:00, dusk 18:00-19:00, night 19:00-6:00.

Collection of GAM data from hippocampal CA1 pyramidal glutamatergic neurons was performed using two 19 week-old male *Satb2^flox/flox* mice. C57Bl/6NCrl (RRID: IMSR_CR:027; WT) mice were purchased from Charles River, Satb2^flox/flox mice that carry the floxed exon 4 have been previously described[99]. The experimental procedures were done according to the Austrian Animal Experimentation Ethics Board (Bundesministerium für Wissenschaft und Verkehr, Kommission für Tierversuchsangelegenheiten). All mice had access to food and water ad libitum and were kept on a 12 h:12 h day/night cycle.

Tissue fixation and preparation

WT, TH-GFP, and *Satb2*[flox/flox] mice were anaesthetised under isoflurane (4

%), given a lethal IP injection of pentobarbital (0.08 µl; 100 mg/ml; Euthatal), and

transcardially perfused with 50 ml of ice-cold phosphate buffered saline (PBS)

followed by 50-100 ml of 4% depolymerised paraformaldehyde (PFA; Electron

microscopy grade, methanol free) in 250 mM HEPES-NaOH (pH 7.4-7.6).

Sox10::Cre-RCE::loxP-EGFP animals were sacrificed with a ketaminol/xylazine

intraperitoneal injection followed by transcardial perfusion with 20 ml PBS and 20 ml

4% PFA in 250 mM HEPES (pH 7.4-7.6). From C57Bl/6NCrl or TH-GFP mice, brains

were removed and the tissue containing the VTA were dissected from each

hemisphere at room temperature, and quickly transferred to fixative. For *Satb2*[flox/flox]

mice, the CA1 field hippocampus was dissected from each hemisphere at room

temperature. For Sox10Cre/RCE mice, brain tissue containing the somatosensory

cortex was dissected at room temperature. Following dissection, tissue blocks were

placed in 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) in 250 mM HEPES-NaOH (pH 7.4-7.6) for

post-fixation at 4°C for 1 h. Brains were then placed in 8% PFA in 250mM HEPES

and incubated at 4°C for 2-3 h. Tissue blocks were then placed in 1% PFA in 250

mM HEPES and kept at 4°C until tissue was prepared for cryopreservation (up to 5

days, with daily solution changes).

1589

Cryoblock preparation and cryosectioning

Fixed tissue samples from different brain regions were further dissected to

produce ~1.5x3 mm tissue samples suitable for Tokuyasu cryosectioning[3] (**Extended**

Data Fig. 1a), at room temperature in 1% PFA in 250 mM HEPES. For the

hippocampus, the dorsal CA1 region was further isolated. Approximately 1-3 mm x 1-

3 mm blocks were dissected from all brain regions and were further incubated in 4%

PFA in 250 mM HEPES at 4°C for 1 h. The fixed tissue was transferred to 2.1 M

sucrose in PBS and embedded 16-24 h, at 4°C, positioned at the top of copper stub

holders suitable for ultracryomicrotomy and frozen in liquid nitrogen. Cryopreserved

tissue samples are kept indefinitely immersed under liquid nitrogen.

1600

Frozen tissue blocks were cryosectioned with a Ultracryomicrotome (Leica

Biosystems, EM UC7), with an approximate thickness of 220-230nm[3]. Cryosections

were captured in drops of 2.1 M sucrose in PBS solution suspended in a copper wire

loop and transferred to 10 mm glass coverslips for confocal imaging, or onto a 4.0

µm polyethylene naphthalate (PEN; Leica Microsystems, 11600289) membrane on

metal framed slides for laser microdissection.

1607

Immunofluorescence detection of GAM samples for confocal microscopy

For confocal imaging, cryosections were incubated in sheep anti-tyrosine

hydroxylase (TH, 1:500; Pel Freez Arkansas LLC, Cat#P60101-0), mouse anti-pan-

histone H11-4 (1:500; Merck, Cat#MAB3422) or chicken anti-GFP (1:500; Abcam

Cat#ab13970) followed by donkey anti-sheep or goat anti-chicken IgG conjugated

with AlexaFluor-488 (for TH and GFP; Invitrogen) or donkey anti-mouse IgG

conjugated with AlexaFluor-555 or AlexaFluor-488 (for pan-histone; Invitrogen).

1615

For PGNs, cryosections were washed (3x, 30 min total) in PBS, permeabilized
(5 min) in 0.3% Triton X-100 in PBS (v/v) and incubated (2 h, room temperature) in
blocking solution (1% BSA (w/v), 5% FBS (w/v, GibcoTM Cat#10270), 0.05% Triton
X-100 (v/v) in PBS). After incubation (overnight, 4°C) with primary antibody in
blocking solution, the cryosections were washed (3-5x; 30 min) in 0.025% Triton X-
100 in PBS (v/v) and immunolabeled (1 h, room temperature) with secondary
antibodies in blocking solution, followed by 3 (15 min) washes in PBS. Cryosections
were then counterstained (5 min) with 0.5 µg/ml 4',6'-diamino-2-phenylindole (DAPI;
Sigma-Aldrich® Cat#D9542) in PBS, and then rinsed in PBS and water. Coverslips
were mounted in Mowiol® 4-88 solution in 5% glycerol, 0.1M Tris-HCl (pH 8.5).

1626

The number of SATB2-positive cells present in the hippocampal CA1 area of
the $Satb2^{flox/flox}$ control mice was determined by counting nuclei positive for the
SATB2 immunostaining (1:100; Abcam, Cat#ab10563678). To avoid counting the
same nuclei, only every 30th ultrathin section cut through the tissue was collected,
and the remaining sections discarded. Twenty-five nuclei were identified in the
pyramidal neurons layer per image in the DAPI channel only and SATB2-positive
cells counted. We confirmed that within the CA1 layer most cells (96%) are pyramidal
glutamatergic neurons (data not shown).

1635

For DNs and OLGs, cryosections were washed (3x, 30min total) in PBS,
quenched (20 min) in PBS containing 20mM glycine, then permeabilized (15 min) in
0.1% Triton X-100 in PBS (v/v). Cryosections were then incubated (1h, room
temperature) in blocking solution (1% BSA (w/v), 0.2% fish-skin gelatin (w/v), 0.05%
casein (w/v) and 0.05% Tween-20 (v/v) in PBS). After incubation (overnight, 4°C)
with the antibody in blocking solution, the cryosections were washed (3-5x; 1 h) in
blocking solution and immunolabeled (1 h, room temperature) with secondary
antibodies in blocking solution, followed by 3 (15 min) washes in 0.5% Tween-20 in
PBS (v/v). Cryosections were then counterstained with 0.5 µg/ml DAPI in PBS, then
rinsed in PBS. Coverslips were mounted in Mowiol® 4-88.

1646

Digital images were acquired with a Leica TCS SP8-STED confocal
microscope (Leica Microsystems) using a 63x oil-immersion objective (NA = 1.4) or a
20x oil-immersion objective, using pinhole equivalent to 1 Airy disk. Images were
acquired using 405 nm excitation and 420-480 nm emission for DAPI; 488 nm
excitation and 505-530 nm emission for TH or GFP; and 555 nm excitation and 560
nm emission using a long-pass filter at 1024x1024 pixel resolution. Images were
processed using Fiji (version 2.0.0-rc-69/1.52p), where adjustments included the
optimization of the dynamic signal range with contrast stretching.

1655

Immunofluorescence detection of GAM samples for laser microdissection
For laser microdissection, cryosections on PEN membranes were washed,
permeabilized and blocked as for confocal microscopy, and incubated with primary
and secondary antibodies as indicated above except for the use of higher

concentrations of primary antibodies, as follows: anti-TH (1:50), anti-pan-histone
(1:50) or anti-GFP (1:50). Secondary antibodies were used at the same
concentration. Cell staining was visualized using a Leica laser microdissection
microscope (Leica Microsystems, LMD7000) using a 63x dry objective. Following
detection of cellular sections of the cell types of choice containing nuclear slices
(nuclear profiles; NPs), individual NPs were laser microdissected from the PEN
membrane, and collected into PCR adhesive caps (AdhesiveStrip 8C opaque; Carl
Zeiss Microscopy #415190-9161-000). We used multiplexGAM[11] where three NPs
are collected into each adhesive cap, and the presence of NPs in each lid was
confirmed with a 5x objective using a 420-480 nm emission filter. Control lids not
containing nuclear profiles (water controls) were included for each dataset collection
to keep track of contamination and noise amplification of whole genome amplification
and library reactions, and can be found in **Supplemental Table 2.**
1673
Whole genome amplification of nuclear profiles
Whole genome amplification (WGA) was performed using an in-house
protocol. Briefly, NPs were lysed directly in the PCR adhesive caps for 4 (or 24h, for
160/585 GAM samples from DNs R1) at 60°C in 1.2x lysis buffer (30 mM Tris-HCl pH
8.0, 2 mM EDTA pH 8.0, 800 mM Guanidinium-HCl, 5 % (v/v) Tween 20, 0.5 % (v/v)
Triton X-100), containing 2.116 units/ml QIAGEN protease (Qiagen, Cat#19155**).**
After protease inactivation at 75°C for 30 min, the extracted DNA was amplified using
random hexamer primers with an adaptor sequence. The pre-amplification step was
done using 2x DeepVent mix (2x Thermo polymerase buffer (10x), 400μm dNTPs, 4
mM $MgSO_4$ in ultrapure water), 0.5 μM GAT-7N primers (5′- GTG AGT GAT GGT
TGA GGT AGT GTG GAG NNN NNN N) and 2 units/μl DeepVent® (exo-) DNA
polymerase (New England Biolabs, M0259L) in the programmable thermal cycler for
11 cycles. Primers that anneal to the general adaptor sequence were then used in a
second exponential amplification reaction to increase the amount of product. The
exponential amplification was done using 2x DeepVent mix, 10 mM dNTPs, 100 μM
GAM-COM primers (5′-GTG AGT GAT GGT TGA GGT AGT GTG GAG) and 2
units/μl DeepVent (exo-) DNA polymerase in the programmable thermal cycler for 26
cycles. For a small number of NPs from DNs (see **Supplemental Table 1**), WGA
was performed using a WGA4 kit (Sigma-Aldrich) using the manufacturer's
instructions; the recent formulation of this kit is no longer suitable for GAM data
production from sub-cellular nuclear slices.
1695
GAM library preparation and high-throughput sequencing
Following WGA, the samples were purified using SPRI beads (0.725 or 1.7
ratio of beads per sample volume). The DNA concentration of each purified sample
was measured using the Quant-iT® Pico Green dsDNA assay kit (Invitrogen #P7589)
according to manufacturer's instructions. GAM libraries were prepared using the
Illumina Nextera XT library preparation kit (Illumina #FC-131-1096) following the
manufacturer's instructions with an 80% reduced volume of reagents. Following
library preparation, the DNA was purified using SPRI beads (1.7 ratio of beads per
sample volume) and the concentration for each sample was measured using the

Quant-iT® PicoGreen dsDNA assay. An equal amount of DNA from each sample
was pooled together (up to 196 samples), and the final pool was additionally purified
three times using the SPRI beads (1.7 ratio of beads per sample volume). The final
pool of libraries was analyzed using DNA High Sensitivity on-chip electrophoresis on
an Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer to confirm removal of primer dimers and estimate the
average size and DNA fragment size distribution in the pool. NGS libraries were
sequenced on Illumina NextSeq 500 machine, according to manufacturer's
instructions, using single-end 75 bp reads. The number of sequenced reads for each
sample can be found in **Supplemental Table 2.**
1714
1715   Tn5-based libraries are preferred for GAM data sequencing to increase
1716 fragment sequence variation, which helps avoid the need for dark cycles in the
1717 current Illumina machines. This choice greatly reduces the cost of sequencing and
1718 decreases the frequency of noise reads from absent windows seen with the previous
1719 protocol[3].
1720
1721 ***GAM data sequence alignment***
1722   Sequenced reads from each GAM library were mapped to the mouse genome
1723 assembly GRCm38 (Dec. 2011, mm10) with Bowtie2 using default settings[100]. All
1724 non-uniquely mapped reads, reads with mapping quality <20 and PCR duplicates
1725 were excluded from further analyses.
1726
GAM data window calling and sample quality control
Positive genomic windows that are present within ultrathin nuclear slices were
identified for each GAM library. Briefly, the genome was split into equal-sized
windows (50 kb), and number of nucleotides sequenced in each bin was calculated
for each GAM sample with bedtools[101]. Next, we determined the percentage of
orphan windows (i.e. positive windows that were flanked by two adjacent negative
windows) for every percentile of the nucleotide coverage distribution and identified
the percentile with the lowest percent of orphan windows for each GAM sample in the
dataset. The number of nucleotides that corresponds to the percentile with lowest
percent of orphan windows in each sample was used as optimal coverage threshold
for window identification in each sample. Windows were called positive if the number
of nucleotides sequenced in each bin was greater than the determined optimal
threshold.
1740
Each dataset was assessed for quality control by determining the percentage
of orphan windows in each sample, number of uniquely mapped reads to the mouse
genome, and correlations from cross-well contamination for every sample
(**Supplemental Table 2**). Most GAM libraries passed the quality control analyses
(86-96% in each dataset; **Extended Data Fig. 1b-d**). To assess the quality of
sampling in each GAM dataset, we measured the frequency with which all possible
intra-chromosomal pairs of genomic windows are found in the same GAM sample,
and found that 98.8 – 99.9% of all mappable pairs of windows were sampled at least
once at resolution 50 kb at all genomic distances. Each sample was considered to be

of good quality if they had <70% orphan windows, >50,000 uniquely mapped reads,
and a cross-well contamination score determined per collection plate of <0.4
(Jaccard index). The number of samples in each cell type passing quality control is
summarized in **Extended Data Fig. 1d**. Following quality control analysis, we noted
that the 160 (of 585) DN R1 samples incubated with lysis buffer for 24h had
decreases in orphan windows (median = 26% and 36% for 24h and 4h, respectively)
and increases in total genome coverage (median = 9% and 6% for 24h and 4h,
respectively). Though these differences were minor, we recommend 24h lysis for
future work.
1759
Publicly available GAM datasets from mouse embryonic stem cells (mESC)
For mESCs, GAM datasets were downloaded from 4D Nucleome portal
(https://data.4dnucleome.org/). We used 249 x 3NP GAM datasets from mESCs
(clone 46C) which were grown at 37°C in a 5% CO_2 incubator in Glasgow Modified
Eagle's Medium, supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum, 2 ng/ml LIF and 1 mM
2-mercaptoethanol, on 0.1% gelatin-coated dishes. Cells were passaged every other
day. After the last passage 24 h before harvesting, mESCs were re-plated in serum-
free ESGRO Complete Clonal Grade medium (Merck, Cat# SF001- B). The list of
4DN sample IDs is provided in **Supplemental Table 1**.
1769
Visualization of pairwise chromatin contact matrices
To visualize GAM data, contact matrices were calculated using pointwise
mutual information (PMI) for all pairs of windows genome-wide. PMI describes the
difference between the probability of a pair of genomic windows being found in the
same NP given both their joint distribution and their individual distributions across all
NPs. PMI was calculated by the following formula, where p(x) and p(y) are the
individual distributions of genomic windows x and y, respectively; and p(x,y) are their
joint distribution:
1778
1779   (1) PMI = log(p(x,y) / p(x)p(y))
1780
1781 PMI can be bounded between -1 and 1, to produce a normalized PMI (NPMI) value
1782 given by the following formula:
1783
1784   (2) NPMI = PMI / (-log p(x,y))
1785
1786 For visualization of contact matrices, scale bars are adjusted in each genomic region
1787 displayed to a range between 0 and the 99th percentile of NPMI values for each cell
1788 type.
1789
Insulation score and topological domain boundary calling
TAD calling was performed by calculating insulation scores in NPMI GAM
contact matrices at 50 kb resolution, as previously described[3,11]. The insulation score
was computed individually for each cell type and biological replicate, with insulation
square sizes ranging from 100 to 1000 kb. TAD boundaries were called using a

500kb-insulation square size and based on local minima of the insulation score.
Within each dataset, boundaries that were touching or overlapping by at least 1
nucleotide were merged. Boundaries were further refined to consider only the
minimum insulation score within the boundary and 1 window on each side, to
produce a 3 bin "minimum insulation score" boundary. In comparisons of boundaries
between different datasets, boundaries were considered different when separated by
at least one genomic bin, i.e. if they are separated by at least 50 kb. In **Fig. 2b,** we
considered the boundary coordinate as the genomic window within a boundary with
the lowest insulation value. TAD border coordinates for all cell types can be found in
Supplemental Table 3, and the full range of insulation scores (100 - 1000kb) for all
cell types can be found in **Supplemental Table 4**. UpSet plots for TAD border
overlaps, compartments, and TF motif analyses were generated either with custom
Python or R scripts, or using the *UpSetR* tool[102].
1808
Identification of compartments A and B
For compartment analysis, matrices of co-segregation frequency were
determined by the ratio of independent occurrence of a single positive window in
each sample over the pairwise co-occurrence of pairs of positive windows in a given
pair of genomic windows[3]. GAM co-segregation matrices at 250 kb resolution were
assigned to either A- or B-compartments, as previously described[3]. Briefly, each
chromosome was represented as a matrix of observed interactions $O(i,j)$ between
locus i and locus j (co-segregation), and separately for $E(i,j)$ where each pair of
genomic windows are the mean number of contacts with the same distance between
i and j. A matrix of observed over expected values $O/E(i,j)$ was produced by dividing
O by E. A correlation matrix $C(i,j)$ is produced between column i and column j of the
O/E matrix. Principal component analysis was performed for the first 3 components
on matrix C, before extracting the component with the best correlation to GC content.
Loci with PCA eigenvector values with the same sign that correlate best with GC
content were called A compartments, while regions with the opposite sign were B
compartments. For visualizations and Pearson correlations between datasets,
eigenvector values on the same chromosome in compartment A were normalized
from 0 to 1, while values on the same chromosome in compartment B were
normalized from -1 to 0. Compartments were considered common if they had the
same compartment definition within the same genomic bin. Compartment changes
between cell types were computed after considering compartments that were
common between biological replicates, unless otherwise indicated.
1831
To identify and visualize gene expression differences among genes in
changing compartments, K-means clustering was performed on triplicate pseudo-
replicates of each cell type using a custom Python script (**Extended Data Fig. 10a-
b**). The number of clusters were determined using the elbow method, with k-means =
6 for genes in B compartment in mESCs and A in brain cells, and k-means = 5 for A
compartment in mESCs and B in brain cells.
1838
mESC cell culture for single-cell RNA-seq and ATAC-seq

Mouse embryonic stem cells from the 46C clone, derived from E14tg2a and
expressing GFP under *Sox1* promoter[103], were a kind gift from D. Henrique (Instituto
de Medicina Molecular, Faculdade Medicina Lisboa, Lisbon, Portugal). mESCs were
cultured as previously described[26], i.e. cells were routinely grown at 37°C, 5% (v/v)
CO_2, on gelatine-coated (0.1% v/v) Nunc T25 flasks in Gibco® Glasgow's MEM
(Invitrogen, Cat# 21710082), supplemented with 10% (v/v) Foetal Calf Serum (FCS;
BioScience LifeSciences, Cat# 7.01, batch number 110006) for scRNA-seq or
Gibco® Fetal Bovine Serum (FBS; Invitrogen, Cat# 10270-106, batch number
41F8126K) for ATAC-seq, 2000 U/ml Leukaemia inhibitory factor (LIF, Millipore, Cat#
ESG1107), 0.1 mM beta-mercaptoethanol (Invitrogen, Cat# 31350-010), 2 mM L-
glutamine (Invitrogen, Cat# 25030-024), 1 mM sodium pyruvate (Invitrogen, Cat#
11360070), 1% penicillin-streptomycin (Invitrogen, Cat# 15140122), 1% MEM Non-
Essential Amino Acids (Invitrogen, Cat# 11140035). Medium was changed every day
and cells were split every other day. mESC batches all tested negative for
Mycoplasma infection, performed according to the manufacturer's instructions
(AppliChem, Cat#A3744,0020). Before collecting material for scRNA-seq or ATAC-
seq, cells were grown for 48h in serum-free ESGRO Complete Clonal Grade Medium
(Merck, Cat# SF001- B) supplemented with 1000 U/ml LIF, on gelatine (Sigma, Cat#
G1393-100ml)-coated (0.1% v/v) Nunc 10 cm dishes, with a medium change after
24h.
1860
Single-cell mRNA library preparation
Two batches (denoted batch A and B, respectively) of single-cell mRNA-seq
libraries were prepared according to Fluidigm manual "Using the C1 Single-Cell Auto
Prep System to Generate mRNA from Single Cells and Libraries for Sequencing".
Cell suspension was loaded on 10-17 microns C1 Single-Cell Auto Prep IFC
(Fluidigm, Cat# 100-5760, kit Cat# 100-6201). After loading, the chip was observed
under the microscope to score cells as singlets, doublets, multiplets, debris or other.
The chip was then loaded again on Fluidigm C1 and cDNA was synthesised and pre-
amplified in the chip using Clontech SMARTer kit (Takara Clontech, Cat# 634833). In
batch B, we included Spike-In Mix 1 (1:1000; Life Technologies, Cat# 4456740), as
from the Fluidigm manual. Illumina sequencing libraries were prepared with Nextera
XT kit (Illumina, Cat# FC- 131-1096) and Nextera Index Kit (Illumina, Cat# FC-131-
1002), as previously described[104]. Libraries from each microfluidic chip (96 cells)
were pooled and sequenced on 4 lanes on Illumina HiSeq 2000, 2x100bp paired-end
(batch A) or 1 lane on Illumina HiSeq 2000, 2x125bp paired-end (batch B) in the
Wellcome Trust Sanger Institute Sequencing Facility (**Supplemental Table 13**).
1877
ScRNA-seq data processing: mapping and expression estimates
To calculate expression estimates, mRNA-seq reads were mapped with STAR
(Spliced Transcripts Alignment to a Reference, v2.4.2a)[105] and processed with
RSEM, using the 'single-cell-prior' option (RNA-Seq by Expectation- Maximization,
v1.2.25)[106]. The references provided to STAR and RSEM were the GTF annotation
from UCSC Known Genes (mm10, version 6) and the associated isoform-gene
relationship information from the Known Isoforms table (UCSC), adding information

for ERCCs sequences in samples from batch B. Tables were downloaded from the
UCSC Table browser (http://genome.ucsc.edu/cgi- bin/hgTables) and, for ERCCs,
from ThermoFisher website (www.thermofisher.com/order/catalog/product/4456739).
Gene-level expression estimates in "Expected Counts" from RSEM were used for the
analysis.

ScRNA-seq data processing: quality control

Cells scored as doublets, multiplets, or debris during visual inspection of the
C1 chip were excluded from the analysis. Datasets were also excluded if any of the
following conditions were met: <500,000 reads (calculated using sam-stats from ea-
utils.1.1.2-537)[107]; <60% of reads mapped (calculated with sam-stats); <50% reads
mapped to mRNA (picard-tools-2.5.0, broadinstitute.github.io/picard/); >15% of reads
mapped to chrM (sam-stats); if present, >20% of reads mapped to ERCCs (sam-
stats). Following processing, 98 single cells passed quality thresholds in the final
dataset. Correlations between previously published mESCs (clone 46C) mRNA-seq
bulk[26] and the single-cell RNAseq mESC transcriptomes were performed to assess
quality of the single cell data. Correlations were performed as previously
described[108]. Average single cell expression was highly correlated with bulk RNA-seq
(**Extended Data Fig. 3c**).

ScRNA-seq integration and analysis

To utilize published single cell transcriptomes from brain cell types of interest,
we selected p21-22 OLGs[23], p22-32 CA1 PGNs[24], and p21-26 VTA DNs[25], based on
the cell type and subtype definitions provided in the respective publications. The
matrices of counts provided in each publication, along with the single-cell mESC
transcriptomes produced which passed QC, were normalized applying the
LogNormalize method and scaled using Seurat[109]. The scaled data was used for a
PCA analysis, followed by processing through dimensionality reduction using Uniform
Manifold Approximation and Projection (UMAP)[110] for visualization purposes, using
the Seurat R package[109], with default parameters. Single mESC transcriptomes from
batch A and B clustered together, and were pooled for further analyses. Genes that
could not be mapped to the chosen reference GTF were removed (UCSC; accessed
from iGenomes July 17, 2015;
https://support.illumina.com/sequencing/sequencing_software/igenome.html.

To generate bigwig tracks for visualization, raw fastq files from each cell type
were pooled into one fastq file. Reads were mapped to the mouse genome (mm10)
using STAR with default parameters but --outFilterMultimapNmax 10. Bam files were
sorted and indexed using Samtools[111] and normalized (RPKM) bigwigs were
generated using Deeptools[112] bamCoverage. To account for differences in the
number of technical replicates in OLG samples, cells were divided into groups by
number of runs (1, 2 and 6). The median of the reads for the group with the lowest
sequencing depth was used as a threshold to normalize the other groups (i.e. the
rest of the fastq files were randomly downsampled to that number of reads). The
three groups of raw reads were pooled together and processed by applying the same

1930 method as for the other cell types. Pseudo-bulk expression was determined using the
1931 Regularized Log (R-log) value for each gene (**Extended Data Fig. 3f-g).** In each cell
1932 type, only the genes with R-log values ≥2.5 in all pseudo-bulk replicates were
1933 considered expressed.
1934
1935 ***Differential gene expression analysis***
1936   For differential expression analysis for all cell types, pseudo-bulk replicate
1937 samples were obtained by randomly partitioning the total number of single cells per
1938 dataset into three groups and pooling all unique molecular identifiers (UMIs) per gene
1939 of cells belonging to the same replicate. To determine differentially expressed (DE)
1940 genes, all 6 possible pairwise comparisons between samples were performed using
1941 DEseq2 with default parameters[113]. Genes classified as DE in at least one
1942 comparison were considered for further analysis (adjusted p-value < 0.05; Benjamini-
1943 Hochberg multiple testing correction method). A summary table for the DE
1944 expression analysis of all cell types can be found in **Supplemental Table 10**. For
1945 transcription factor motif analysis, only the DE genes obtained from the comparison
1946 between DNs and PGNs were considered for further analysis (**Extended Data Fig.
1947 7b-c**).
1948
1949 ***Tn5 purification***
1950   The pTXB1 plasmid carrying the Tn5-intein-CBD fusion construct with the
1951 hyperactive Tn5 protein containing the E54K and L372P mutations was obtained
1952 from Addgene (plasmid #60240). Tn5 expression and purification was performed
1953 similarly as previously described[114], except that the final storage buffer was 50 mM
1954 HEPES-KOH pH 7.2, 0.8 M NaCl, 0.1 mM EDTA, 1 mM DTT and 55 % glycerol.
1955
1956 ***Tn5 adapter mix preparation***
1957   To generate 100 μM adapter mix, 200 μM Tn5MErev (5'-
1958 [phos]CTGTCTCTTATACACATC) was mixed with of 200 μM Tn5ME-A (5'-
1959 TCGTCGGCAGCGTCAGATGTGTATAAGAGACAG; Adapter_mixA, 1:1 ratio).
1960 Separately, 200 μM Tn5MErev was mixed with 1 vol of 200 μM Tn5ME-B (5'-
1961 GTCTCGTGGGCTCGGAGATGTGTATAAGAGACAG; Adapter_mixB, 1:1 ratio). The
1962 two mixtures were incubated for 5 min at 95°C and gradually cooled to 25°C at a
1963 ramp rate of 0.1°C/s. Finally, the Adapter_mixA was mixed with Adapter_mixB at a
1964 1:1 ratio for a final 100μM adapter mix.
1965
1966 ***mESC ATAC-seq library preparation***
1967   ATACseq libraries were generated from ~75,000 mESC nuclei following the
1968 Omni ATAC protocol[115] with a modified transposition reaction: TAPS-DMF buffer (50
1969 mM TAPS-NaOH, pH 8.5, 25 mM MgC_2, 50% DMF), 0.1 % Tween-20, 0.1%
1970 Digitonin, in PBS. 3 μl of the Tn5 mix (5.6 μg Tn5 and 0.143 volume of 100 μM
1971 adapter mix) were added to the transposition reaction mix. Libraries were prepared
1972 as described in the Omni ATAC protocol. The final library was sequenced with an

1973   Illumina NextSeq 500 machine, according to manufacturer's instructions, using
1974   paired-end 75 bp reads (150 cycles).
1975
1976   **_VTA isolation for single-nucleus ATAC-seq_**
1977   For collection of single-nucleus ATAC-seq (snATAC-seq), male C57Bl/6NI
1978   (RRID: IMSR_CR:027; WT) mice, ages 7 and 9 weeks, were sacrificed by cervical
1979   dislocation. Brains were removed and the tissue containing the midbrain VTA was
1980   dissected from each hemisphere at room temperature and rapidly frozen on dry ice.
1981   Frozen midbrain was kept at -80°C until further processing.
1982
1983   **_DNs snATAC-seq library preparation_**
1984   Two 10X Genomics scATAC-seq libraries from midbrain VTA, VTA-1 and
1985   VTA-2 (ages 7 and 9 weeks, respectively), were generated from midbrain VTA
1986   according to the 10X Genomics manual "Nuclei Isolation from Mouse Brain Tissue for
1987   Single Cell ATAC Sequencing Rev B" for flash frozen tissue with minor adjustments.
1988   Briefly, 500 μl 0.1x lysis buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.4, 10 mM NaCl, 3 mM MgCl$_2$,
1989   1% BSA, 0.01% Tween-20, 0.01% Nonidet P40 Substitute, 0.001% Digitonin) was
1990   added to the frozen samples and immediately homogenized using a pellet pestle
1991   (15x), followed by 5 min incubation on ice. The lysate was pipette mixed 10x, then
1992   incubated 10 min on ice. Finally, 500 μl of chilled wash buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl, pH
1993   7.4, 10 mM NaCl, 2 mM MgCl$_2$, 1% BSA, 0.1% Tween-20) was added to the lysed
1994   cells, and the suspension was passed through 30 μm CellTrics strainers (Th Geyer,
1995   cat# 7648779). The final ~500 μl nuclei suspension was stained with DAPI (final
1996   concentration 0.03 μg/ml) for ~5 min.
1997
Around 200,000 DAPI positive events were sorted using a BD FACSAria III
Flow Cytometer with 70-µm nozzle configuration with sample and sort collection
device cooling set to 4°C into 300 μl Diluted Nuclei buffer (commercial buffer from
10X Genomics) in a 1.5 ml Eppendorf tube. A first gate excluded debris in a
FSC/SSC plot. A consecutive, second gate in a DAPI-A/DAPI-H-plot was used to
exclude doublets and nuclei with incomplete DNA content (BD FACSDiva Software,
version 8.0.2). The collected nuclei were centrifuged at 500xg for 5 min at 4°C and
resuspended in 20 µl Diluted Nuclei Buffer. The nucleus concentration was
determined using a Countess II FL Automated Cell Counter in DAPI fluorescence
mode. snATACseq libraries were prepared following the Chromium Next GEM Single
Cell ATAC Reagent Kits v1.1 User Guide. Briefly, nuclei were loaded on a
microfluidics chip together with RT reagents, beads with oligo-dT tags and oil to
create an emulsion. Afterwards, the reverse transcription reaction takes place inside
the droplets. The barcoded cDNA is recovered from the emulsion, amplified and
cleaned using a bead purification process. The cDNA is then using for library
construction including enzymatic fragmentation, adapter ligation and sample index
PCR. Libraries were sequenced with either an Illumina NextSeq 500 machine using
paired-end 75 bp reads (for VTA-1, 150 cycles), or by NovaSeq 6000 using paired-
end 75 bp reads (for VTA-2, 100 cycles).

ATAC-seq data processing: mapping, processing and QC

For bulk mESC ATAC-seq, paired-end reads were mapped to the mouse genome (mm10) using Bowtie with the following parameters: --minins 25 --maxins 2000 --no-discordant --dovetail --soft-clipped-unmapped-tlen. Low quality mapped reads (MQ < 30) and mitochondrial reads were removed. Duplicated reads were removed with Sambamba[116] (version 0.6.8). Reads passing quality checks were converted to BAM format for further analyses.

For VTA snATAC-seq, paired-end reads were demultiplexed and mapped to the mouse genome (mm10) using the 10X Genomics Cellranger software. The two VTA snATAC-seq libraries were analyzed using ArchR software[117]. Doublets were removed following default parameters in ArchR. Next, low-quality cells (identified as TSS enrichment score < 4 and < 2500 unique fragments per cell) were removed for further analyses.

Next, dimensionality reduction was performed using the Latent semantic indexing (LSI) dimensionality reduction method from ArchR, with default parameters (except: iterations = 10, resolution =0.2, varFeatures = 60000). The ArchR addHarmony function was ysed to run the Harmony algorithm for batch correction with default parameters, followed by clusters calling. Gene scores were determined as specified by ArchR[117]. DNs were identified as the cluster with higher gene scores for *Th*, a well-known DN marker, and confirmed by additional DN marker expression (e.g. *Lmx1b*, *Foxa2*, *Foxa1*, *Slc6a3*). The DN cluster is composed of 216 cells in total (113 from VTA-1 and 103 from the VTA-2). UMI duplicates were collapsed to one fragment. To visualize an approximation for gene expression, gene scores were calculated using the createArrowFiles (addGeneScoreMat = TRUE) function in ArchR.

Processing of published OLG and PGN scATAC-seq

scATAC-seq bam files for OLGs were downloaded from the sciATAC-seq *in vivo* atlas of the mouse brain[27]. Next, reads were extracted from the bam file which corresponded to cells from the cluster identified as oligodendrocytes from prefrontal cortex (458 cells), to produce a pseudo-bulk ATAC .bam file. The original data, mapped to the mm9 genome, was converted to mm10 using the liftOver tool from UCSC utilities (https://genome.ucsc.edu/cgi-bin/hgLiftOver).

scATAC-seq datasets were obtained from hippocampal PGNs[28]. A bam file containing all cell types was kindly supplied by Andrew Adey (Molecular and Medical Genetics, Oregon Health & Science University, Portland, OR, USA). Reads were extracted from the bam file which corresponded to the NR1 PGN population (270 cells), to produce a pseudo-bulk ATAC .bam file.

Generation of normalized ATAC-seq bigwig tracks

2061   A size factor normalization was applied to generate ATAC-seq bigwig tracks

2062 comparable between mESCs, OLGs, PGNs and DNs. First, a count matrix was

2063 generated for all TSS regions (± 250 bp), which contained reads from at least two of

2064 the four cell types. The TSS list was extracted from the genes.gtf file included in the

2065 cell ranger reference data (refdata-cellranger-atac-mm10-1.2.0l;

2066 https://support.10xgenomics.com/single-cell-

2067 atac/software/pipelines/latest/advanced/references#overview). To calculate size

2068 factors, the TSS count matrix was processed through DESeqDataSetFromMatrix and

2069 estimateSizeFactors from the DESeq2 package[113]. For all cell types, the scale factor

2070 (SF) = (cell type size factor)-1.

2071

2072   Each pseudobulk ATAC-seq .bam file from mESCs, PGNs and OLGs were

2073 converted to bedGraph format using the genomeCoverageBed function from

2074 bedtools[101] with the following parameters: -pc -bg -scale SF. For DNs, ATAC-seq

2075 fragment files were converted to bedGraph format using the genomeCoverageBed

2076 function from bedtools[101] with the following parameters: -g chrom.sizes -bg -scale SF.

2077 The mm10 chrom.sizes file was downloaded from UCSC using fetchChromSize from

2078 UCSC utilities (http://hgdownload.soe.ucsc.edu/admin/exe/). The bedGraph files

2079 were then converted to bigwig using the bedGraphToBigWig function from UCSC

2080 utilities.

2081

2082 ***DN and PGN ATAC-seq peak calling***

2083

2084   ATAC-seq peaks were called in DNs following the Iterative Overlap Peak

2085 Merging Procedure described in the ArchR package[117]. First, two pseudo-bulk

2086 replicates were generated by running the *addGroupCoverages* function and then

2087 reproducible peaks were called using the *addReproduciblePeakSet* function. For

2088 PGNs, peaks for the NR1 cluster were obtained from Sinnamon *et al.* 2019[28]. For

2089 further analyses, peaks were considered positive for if they were found in at least

2090 10% of single-nuclei (> 10 nuclei in DNs; > 13 cells in PGNs).

2091

2092

RNA and ATAC-seq length-scaled ATAC reads per million

To calculate length-scaled RNA reads per million (lsRRPM) for 479 long

genes (> 400kb), the mESC bam file (paired-end) was read using

readGAlignmentPairs function from the GenomicAlignments function from the

GenomicAlignments package in R

(https://bioconductor.org/packages/release/bioc/html/GenomicAlignments.html). For

published single-cell datasets (OLGs, PGNs, DNs; single-end libraries), bam files

were loaded using the *readGAlignments* function from the *GenomicAlignment*

package. Due to very long length of some reads, all BAM fragments were resized to

the 5' end base pair to avoid overlapping with multiple features. Next, the following

formula was used to compute lsRRPM values for each cell-type and per gene:

2104

2105   (1) lsRRPM = (number of overlaps between RNA fragments and long gene
2106   body)/(gene length/$10^{\wedge 6}$ * total number of RNA fragments/$10^{\wedge 6}$).

2107

To calculate length-scaled ATAC reads per million (lsARPM) for 479 long
genes (> 400kb), concordant paired-end fragments were extracted for all cell types
using the readGAlignmentPairs function from the GenomicAlignments package in R
with the following total number of fragments: 37261746 (mESC), 2121258 (OLG),
4594229 (PGN) and 8939526 (DN). Next, the following formula was used to compute
lsARPM values for each cell-type and per gene:

2114

2115   (2) lsARPM = (number of overlaps between ATAC fragments and long gene
2116   body)/(gene length/$10^{\wedge 6}$ * total number of ATAC fragments/$10^{\wedge 6}$).

2117

2118

Gene Ontology
Gene ontology (GO) term enrichment analysis was performed using GOElite
(version 1.2.4)[118]. In **Extended Data Fig. 3l**, DN snATAC-seq marker genes were
extracted with the *getMarkerFeatures* function from ArchR with default parameters.
Marker genes were selected as genes with log2FC > 1 and FDR <0.01 in the DN
cluster (total: 973 genes). All unique genes were used as the background GO
dataset. In **Fig. 2c**, all genes expressed in at least one cell type, annotated to mm10,
were used as the background dataset. In **Figs. 4d, 4e**, all genes expressed in PGNs
or DNs were used as the background dataset, and in **Figs. 5c**, **5d** all unique genes
were used. Default parameters were used for the GO enrichment: GO terms that
were enriched above the background (significant permuted p-values <0.05, 2000
permutations) were pruned to select the terms with the largest Z-score (>1.96)
relative to all corresponding child or parent paths in a network of related terms
(genes changed >2). GO terms which had a permuted p-value ≥ 0.01, contained
fewer than 6 genes per GO term, or from the 'cellular_component' ontology were not
reported in the main figures. A full list of unfiltered GO terms can be found in
Supplemental Table 7.

2136

Melting domain discovery
To assess gene insulation differences, insulation square values at ten length
scales (100 – 1000 kb) were calculated for genes > 400kb in length (n = 479).
Cumulative probability distributions of insulation square values were calculated for
each dataset, and the brain cells were compared to mESC probability distributions for
each gene by computing the maximum distance between the distributions and
applying a Kolmogorov-Smirnov test with a custom script in R. P-values were
corrected for multiple testing using the Bonferroni method, and -log10 transformed to
obtain a 'domain melting score'. Domain melting scores for each gene in each
comparison can be found in **Supplemental Table 8**. For visualization, empirical
cumulative probabilities and insulation score values were smoothed using a
Guassian kernel density estimate (adjust = 0.3).

2149

Calculation of trans-cis contact ratio

To determine the interaction strength of contacts to all (trans) somatic chromosomes relative to interaction strength to their own (cis) chromosome, cis- and trans- NPMI normalized matrices were calculated at 250kb resolution. Bins detected in less than 3%, or more than 75%, of 3NP samples were removed from the analysis. To be sensitive to outliers, NPMI values of both cis- ($NPMI_C$) and trans- ($NPMI_T$) contacts for every bin were summarized with the arithmetic mean. The trans-cis contact ratio was then obtained by the following formula:

(1) Trans-cis contact ratio = $(\Sigma(NPMI_T)/\text{genomic bins}(n_T))\,/$
$(\Sigma(NPMI_C)/\text{genomic bins}(n_C))$

Trans-cis values of bins spanning long genes were summarized with the median.

Modeling and in-silico GAM

To reconstruct 3D conformations of the *Nrxn3* locus we employed the Strings & Binders Switch (SBS) polymer model of chromatin[119,120]. In the SBS, a chromatin region is modelled as a self-avoiding chain of beads, including different binding sites for diffusing, cognate, molecular binders. Binding sites of the same type can be bridged by their cognate binders, thus driving the polymer folding. The optimal SBS polymers for the *Nrxn3* locus in mESCs and DNs were inferred using PRISMR, a machine-learning-based procedure which finds the minimal arrangement of the polymer binding sites best describing input pairwise contact data, such as Hi-C[51] or GAM[121]. Here, PRISMR was applied to the GAM experimental data by considering the NPMI normalization on a 4.8Mb region around the *Nrxn3* gene (Chr12: 87,600,000-92,400,000; mm10) at 50kb resolution in mESCs and DNs. The procedure returned optimal SBS polymer chains made of 1440 beads, including 7 different types of binding sites, in both cell types.

Next, to generate thermodynamic ensembles of 3D conformations of the locus, molecular dynamics simulations were run of the optimal polymers, using the freely available LAMMPS software[122]. In those simulations, the system evolves according to Langevin equation, with dynamics parameters derived from classical polymer physics studies[123]. Polymers are first initialized in self-avoiding conformations and then left to evolve in order to reach their equilibrium globular phase[119]. Beads and binders have the same diameter $\sigma = 1$, expressed in dimensionless units, and experience a hard-core repulsion by use of a truncated Lennard-Jones (LJ) potential. Analogously, attractive interactions are modelled with short-ranged LJ potentials[119]. A range of affinities between beads and cognate binders were sampled in the weak biochemical range, from $3.0K_BT$ to $8.0K_BT$ (where K_B is the Boltzmann constant and T the system temperature). In addition, binders interact unspecifically with the polymer with a lower affinity, sampled from $0K_BT$ to $2.7K_BT$. For sake of simplicity, the same affinity strengths were used for all different binding site types. Total binder concentration was taken above the polymer coil-

2193   globule transition threshold[119]. For each of the considered cases, ensembles of up to
2194   ~450 distinct equilibrium configurations were derived. Full details about the model
2195   and simulations are discussed in Barbieri *et al.*[119] and Chiariello *et al*.[120].
2196
In-silico GAM NPMI matrices were obtained from the ensemble of 3D
structures by applying the *in-silico* GAM algorithm[13], here generalized to simulate the
GAM protocol with 3NPs per GAM sample and to perform NPMI normalization.
Specifically, the same number of slices were used as in the GAM experiments,
249x3NPs for mESCs and 585x3NPs for DNs. Pearson correlation coefficients were
used to compare the *in-silico* and experimental NPMI GAM matrices.
2203
Example of single 3D conformations were rendered by a third-order spline of
the polymer beads positions, with regions of interest highlighted in different colors. To
quantify the size and variability of the 3D structures in mESCs and DNs, the average
gyration radius (R_g) was measured from the selected domains encompassing and
surrounding the *Nrxn3* gene, expressed in dimensionless units σ in **Fig. 3d**,
Extended Data Fig. 6d.
2210
Cryosections for fluorescence in-situ hybridization experiments
Fixed and cryopreserved hippocampal CA1 tissue and mESCs were
cryosectioned as previously described (see Methods *Cryoblock preparation and*
cryosectioning) with an approximate thickness of 400 nm and transferred to glass
coverslips (thickness Nr1.5, diameter 10mm) coated with Laminin (Sigma-Aldrich®,
Cat# P8920) according to the manufacturer's instructions, for the 3-colour
fluorescence in-situ hybridization (FISH) experiment (TSS-Mid-TES), or washed in
100% ethanol and autoclaved for the immunofluorescence-whole gene FISH
experiment (nucleolus, *Rbfox1*).
2220
BAC probes labelling and precipitation
BACs targeting the *Rbfox1* locus (see **Supplementary Table 9**) were
obtained from BACPAC Resources Center (https://bacpacresources.org/) and
amplified from glycerol stocks using a MIDIprep kit (NucleoBond® Xtra BAC
purification kit, Machery-Nagel, Cat# 740436). Purified BACs were labelled using a
nick translation kit (Abbott Molecular, Cat# 7J0001) according to manufacturer's
instructions and the following fluorophores (all Invitrogen, Thermo Fisher Scientific):
ChromaTide™ Alexa Fluor™ 488-5-dUTP (Cat# C11397), ChromaTide™ Alexa
Fluor™ 568-5-dUTP (Cat#C11399) and Alexa Fluor™ 647-aha-dUTP (Cat# A32763).
Labelled BAC probes were coprecipitated with yeast tRNA (20 µg/µl final
concentration; Invitrogen Cat# AM7119) and mouse *Cot-1* DNA (3 µg/µl final
concentration; Invitrogen Cat# 18440-016) overnight at -20 °C. After clean up in 70 %
ethanol, the probes were dissolved in 100 % deionized formamide (for 1 h; Sigma
Cat# F9037), before adding (1:1) a 2xhybridization mix (20 % dextran sulfate, 0.1 M
Phosphate buffer in 4x SSC; mixing for 1 h), denatured (10 min, 80 °C), and
reannealed (30 min, 37 °C) prior to hybridization.
2237

Immunolabeling prior to FISH

Immunofluorescence labelling of the nucleolus was performed as described above (see Methods *Immunofluorescence detection for confocal microscopy*) by incubating the cryosections overnight (at 4°C) with a mouse monoclonal antibody anti-nucleophosmin B23 (a kind gift from Harris Busch[53]), followed by incubation (1h) with donkey antibodies raised against mouse IgG conjugated with AlexaFluor-555 (Invitrogen). Prior to cryo-FISH, the bound antibodies were fixed (1 h, 4 °C) in 8% depolymerized PFA (EM-grade) in 250 mM HEPES-NaOH (pH 7.6), and rinsed in PBS.

Cryo-FISH

Cryo-FISH was performed as previously described[3,52] with few modifications. Briefly, cryosections were washed (30 min) in 1xPBS, rinsed with 2xSSC (Sigma Cat#S6639), and incubated (2h, 37 °C) in 250 µg/ml RNase A (Sigma Cat#R4642) in 2xSSC. After washing in 2xSSC, cryosections were treated (10 min) with 0.1 M HCl, dehydrated in ethanol (30 %, 50 %, 70 %, 90 %, 100 % series, 3 min each on ice) and denatured (10 min) at 80 °C in 70 % formamide, 2xSSC, 0.05 M phosphate buffer (pH 7.4). Cryosections were dehydrated as described above, and overlaid on hybridization mixture on HybriSlip™ (Invitrogen Cat#H18202). After sealing with rubber cement, and incubation (48h, 37 °C) in a moist chamber, cryosections were washed (25 min, 42 °C) in 50 % formamide in 2xSSC, (30 min, 60 °C) in 0.1x SSC and (10 min, 42 °C) in 0.1 % Triton X-100 in 4xSSC. After rinsing with 1xPBS, coverslips were mounted in Vectashield® Mounting Medium (Anti Fading) w/ DAPI (Vector laboratories, Cat# H-1200).

Cryo-FISH Microscopy

Cryo-FISH images were collected sequentially with a Leica TCS SP8-STED confocal microscope (Leica Microsystems DMI6000B-CS) using the Leica Application Suite X Version 3.5.5.19976 and the HC PL APO CS2 63x/1.40 OIL objective (NA = 1.4 Plan Apochromat) (see Methods *Immunofluorescence detection for confocal microscopy*) using the following settings: 405 nm excitation and 420-500 nm emission (for DAPI), 488 nm excitation and 510-535 nm emission (for probes labeled with ChromaTide™ AlexaFluor-488 and for nucleophosmin), 568 nm excitation and 586-620 emission (for probes labeled with ChromaTide™ AlexaFluor-568), 647 nm excitation and 657-700 emission (for probes labeled with AlexaFluor-647), and 555 nm excitation and 586-640 emission (for immunofluorescence labelling of nucleophosmin with AlexaFluor-555). All images were collected with a 4x zoom at 1024x1024 pixels resolution (pixel size 0.0451 µm, resolution 22.1760 pixels/µm).

Cryo-FISH Image analysis

Images were analyzed using the Fiji software (version 2.0.0-rc-69/1.52p)[124]. All images were pre-processed as previously described[52]. Genomic foci were identified visually and areas of the manually defined objects were measured using the Fiji-*Area* tool. For the cryo-FISH experiment combined with immunofluorescence, the location of genomic loci in relation to the nuclear lamina or nucleolus was

assessed based on the overlap of foci with the nucleolus (identified by
nucleophosmin immunolabeling) or the nuclear lamina (as defined by the periphery of
the DAPI staining) by at least three pixels. To determine the distance between the
TSS, Mid and TES genomic foci, we took the centre of mass defined of the selected
objects, as defined by Fiji-*Center of mass* function (the brightness-weighted average
of the x and y coordinates of all pixels within the selected areas). Distances between
the objects were measured using the Fiji-*Line* tool between the centres of mass
defined for each object. Images for visualization in figure panels were processed
using Fiji or Adobe Photoshop CS6, where adjustments included the optimization of
the dynamic signal range with contrast stretching.
2293
2294
Determining differential contacts between GAM datasets
Significant differences in pairwise contacts between a pair of GAM datasets
were determined as previously described with modifications[11]. Briefly, genomic
windows with low detection, defined as less than 2% of the distribution of all detected
genomic windows for each chromosome, were removed from both datasets to be
compared. Contacts were filtered to be within 0.5-5 Mb distance and above 0.15
NPMI, and NPMI contact frequencies at each genomic distance of each chromosome
were normalized by computing a Z-score transformation, and a differential matrix (D)
was derived by subtracting the two Z-score normalized matrices[11].
2304
Transcription factor binding site analysis
To find transcription factor (TF) binding motifs present within specific contacts,
significant differential contacts were determined for DNs and PGNs. Accessible
regions within the differential contacts were determined using scATAC-seq for
PGNs[28] and DNs, respectively. To account for methodological differences, including
lower sequencing depth in PGN scATAC-seq data (**Extended Data Fig. 3j**), we
considered only the peaks that occurred in >10% of cells (> 10 cells in DNs; > 13 in
PGNs). Motif finding within accessible regions in significant contacts was performed
using the Regulatory Genomics Toolbox (https://www.regulatory-genomics.org/motif-
analysis/introduction/) with TF motifs (from the HOCOMOCO database, v11)[125]
obtained for TFs expressed in either DNs or PGNs (R-log $\geq$ 2.5) to determine the
percentage of windows containing each TF motif. Next, TF motifs were filtered based
on (1) percentage of windows containing the motif (>5%) and (2) differential
expression in either PGNs or DNs (-log10(adj. p value) > 3, see *Differential gene*
expression analysis **Methods** section) resulting in 50 TF motifs for feature pair
analysis (33 TF motifs from PGNs and 17 from DNs; see **Extended Data Fig**. **7b-c**).
2321
Feature pairs associated with specific contacts were determined as previously
described[11], and testing the 1275 combinations of motif pairs (1225 heterotypic motif
pairs and 50 homotypic motif pairs). The number of contacts containing each pair of
selected TF motifs (PGN_{TF} and DN_{TF}), together with the percentage of total
significant differential contacts in PGNs and DNs (PGN and DN), were used to
determine the enrichment score for all TF feature pair interactions (i.e., the ratio

between frequencies of contacts in PGNs or DNs, (PGN$_{TF}$/PGN) / (DN$_{TF}$/DN)). The
effectiveness of a TF pair for discriminating between contacts from PGNs and DNs
was assessed by using the Information gain measure[126]. Enrichment and Information
gain for all TF feature pair interactions, as well as differential expression values for
each TF motif (DNs compared to PGNs), can be found in **Supplemental Table 11.**
The top feature pairs were extracted based on the highest Information gain (10
feature pairs), PGN enrichment (5 feature pairs), and DN enrichment (5 feature pairs)
scores. Contact overlaps for top feature pairs were visualized using UpSet plots.

2336

Network and community detection analysis of transcription factor binding sites
in significant differential contacts
To determine the interconnectivity between different TF motifs found in
accessible regions of significant differential contacts, the number of contacts for each
pair of TF motifs (1275 pairs) was determined. After filtering pairs of TF motifs
involved in fewer then 20% of the total contacts (15,833 and 5,400 contacts minimum
in PGNs and DNs, respectively), a network was built for each cell type with TF motifs
as nodes and number of contacts as weighted edges. The Leiden algorithm was
used to detect communities of strongly interconnected nodes, using the *leiden*
package in R[127,128], with a resolution of 1.01 for both PGNs and DNs (**Extended Data**
Fig. 8d, **Supplemental Table 12**).

2348

GAM aggregated contact plots
To visualize the average contact intensity for a set of genomic contacts, NPMI
contact frequencies at each genomic distance of each chromosome were first
normalized by computing a Z-score transformation. The resulting Z-Score values
were determined for each contact, and for each contact in a 4-bin radius (50kb bins).
For each chromosome, Z-score values for each set of contacts and for the
surrounding bins were summarized by the arithmetic mean. Mean values computed
for each chromosome were added together and divided by the number of
chromosomes.

2358

Data availability
Raw fastq sequencing files for all samples from DN, PGN and OLG GAM
datasets, together with non-normalized co-segregation matrices, normalized pair-
wised chromatin contacts maps and raw GAM segregation tables are available from
the GEO repository under accession number GSE94364. Raw fastq sequencing files
for mESC GAM datasets are available from 4DN data portal
(https://data.4dnucleome.org/). The 4DN sample IDs for all samples used in the study
are available in **Supplemental Table 1**.

2367

Raw single cell mESC transcriptome data are available from ENA data portal
(https://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/browser/home). The ENA sample IDs for all samples used
in the study are available in **Supplemental Table 13**. Raw single cell and bulk
ATAC-seq fastq files for DNs and mESCs, respectively, are available from the GEO
repository under accession number GSE174024, together with processed bigwig

files. A public UCSC session with all data produced, as well as all published data
utilized in this study is available at: http://genome-
euro.ucsc.edu/s/Kjmorris/Winick_Ng_2021_GAMbrainpublicsession.
2376
2377 ***Code availability***
2378 Processing and plotting scripts for MELTRON and insulation scores are
2379 available at: https://github.com/pombo-lab/Meltron/. Processing and plotting scripts
2380 for the trans-cis contact ratios are available at: https://github.com/pombo-
2381 lab/Meltron/.