1 **Lineage segregation in human pre-implantation embryos is specified by YAP1 and**
2 **TEAD1**
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Running title: YAP1 and TEAD1 in human embryos

Summary statement: YAP1 and TEAD1 play a role both in the initiation of trophectoderm and
the maintenance of primitive endoderm differentiation in human embryos

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Abstract

We know that polarity and YAP1 play a key role in trophectoderm initiation in compacted human embryos, however we know little about the TEAD family of transcription factors that become activated by YAP1 and especially if they play a role during epiblast and primitive endoderm formation.

Here we show that compaction occurs heterogeneously between the 8- and 16-cell stages. While 8-cell stage blastomeres are not yet polarized, polarized outer cells and non-polarized inner cells arise in compacted 16-cell stage embryos, however, they do not arise by symmetric and asymmetric divisions. While trophectoderm specifiers TEAD1, YAP1 and GATA3 mostly co-localise in the nuclei of polarized outer/trophectoderm cells, they are also found in some cells of compacting embryos before polarity is established indicating that differentiation into trophectoderm cells can be initiated independently of polarity. In the inner cell mass, TEAD1 and YAP1 also distinguish GATA4 positive cells in a salt-and-pepper distribution and in the sorted primitive endoderm cells. We suggest that TEAD1/YAP1 signalling plays a role both in the initiation of trophectoderm and the maintenance of primitive endoderm differentiation.

Introduction

Although extensively studied in the mouse model, the molecular events driving lineage segregation to either trophectoderm (TE), epiblast (EPI) or primitive endoderm (PrE) cells in human embryos remain largely unknown. In the mouse, the Hippo signalling pathway plays a crucial role in both TE and EPI differentiation, with the TEA-domain transcription factor family (TEAD1-4) and co-activator Yes-associated-protein 1 (YAP1) as key components (Nishioka *et al.*, 2008, 2009; Ralston *et al.*, 2010; Hirate and Sasaki, 2014; Hashimoto and Sasaki, 2019). Differences in cell polarity drive the first lineage differentiation event in the mouse. Mouse embryos compact at the 8-cell stage with all blastomeres being polarized (Levy *et al.*, 1986). Polarity is marked by the presence of an apical cap composed of the PAR complex proteins (PAR3, PAR6 and atypical Protein Kinase C (aPKC)) and p-ERM, which is a component of the microvilli linking F-actin to the apical membrane (Plusa *et al.*, 2005; Alarcon, 2010; Zhu *et al.*, 2017). During the 8- to 16-cell stage divisions, a symmetric division through the meridian yields two daughter cells with a polar cap that are located in an outer position. After an asymmetric division through the equator, cells that inherit the polar cap remain in an outer position whereas non-polarized cells are relocated towards an inner position (Johnson and Ziomek, 1981; Anani *et al.*, 2014; Lorthongpanich and Issaragrisil, 2015). This is crucial for establishing an inner/non-polarized and outer/polarized cellular axis in the mouse embryo. Non-polarized inner cells exclude YAP1 from the nuclei through phosphorylation of serine127 by the large tumour suppressor protein kinase (LATS1/2). Consequently, *Cdx2* expression is downregulated, whereas SOX2 protein levels increase maintaining pluripotent inner cells and rendering them precursors of the ICM (Wicklow et al., 2014). In contrast, in polarized outer cells LATS1/2 activity is restricted by the presence of the polar region and TEAD4/YAP1 nuclear activity leads to the upregulation of *Cdx2* and *Gata3* expression (Nishioka *et al.*, 2008, 2009; Ralston *et al.*, 2010; Hirate and Sasaki, 2014). This first lineage segregation event is also regulated by other mechanisms such as cortical tension (Maître *et al.*, 2015; Maître, 2017; Zhu *et al.*, 2017).

In the mouse, the second lineage segregation event is regulated by the FGF4/FGFR2 signalling pathway (Chazaud *et al.*, 2006; Yamanaka, Lanner and Rossant, 2010). In ICM cells, the NANOG positive precursor EPI cells secrete FGF4 for which the GATA6 positive precursor PrE cells have FGF2R receptors. The EPI and PrE cells first display a salt-and-pepper pattern whereafter the cells are sorted into an

inner population of EPI cells are covered by a monolayer of PrE cells facing the cavity.
Recently TEAD1/YAP1 signalling has also been found to play a role in the
establishment of the EPI cells (Hashimoto and Sasaki, 2019), but it is not known how
the two signalling pathways act together.

Recent single cell transcriptomic analysis of human embryos gave also insight
into transcription factors that are associated with each lineage differentiation events
(Yan *et al.*, 2013; Blakeley *et al.*, 2015; Petropoulos, 2016; Stirparo *et al.*, 2018;
Meistermann *et al.*, 2021; Radley, Smith and Dunn, 2022). We and others
demonstrated by careful embryo staging using morphokinetic analysis that human
embryos initiate compaction at variable times between the 8- and the 16-cell stage
(Gerri *et al.*, 2020). The first lineage differentiation in compacted human embryos is
orchestrated by polarity and involves YAP1 and GATA3 signalling (Gerri *et al.*, 2020)
and phospholipase C signalling (Zhu *et al.*, 2021). Few data are available on the
second lineage differentiation in human blastocysts, but it appears independent of FGF
signalling (Kuijk *et al.*, 2012; Roode *et al.*, 2012). Based on single-cell transcriptomics
data, competing hypotheses on the second lineage differentiation in human blastocysts
have been proposed. According to the one step model, EPI and PrE lineages arise
simultaneously with TE cells 5 days post fertilisation (dpf) (Petropoulos, 2016) whereas
according to the two step model the first and the second lineage differentiation events
appear consecutively (Meistermann *et al.*, 2021) as in mice (Chazaud and Yamanaka,
2016). It is also unclear whether ICM cells segregate into EPI and PrE cells (Radley *et*
al., 2022) as in mice (Chazaud and Yamanaka, 2016) or whether PrE cells differentiate
from the EPI cells on 6 dpf (Meistermann *et al.*, 2021). This lack of clarity may have
been caused by the heterogeneous development of outbred human embryos *in vitro,*
different laboratory culture conditions and the lack of systematic coupling of
morphology with the underlying analysis. Moreover, limited data are available on the
transcription factors and signalling pathways at the protein level and very few functional
studies have been performed.

Our current aim was to provide a comprehensive spatial and temporal map of
the processes of compaction, polarisation, position and blastulation, and the first and
second lineage differentiation events in human pre-implantation embryos. Through the
investigation of the main proteins in well-defined human pre-implantation stages we
demonstrate a human specific chain of events during compaction and polarisation in
outer and inner cells. We also reveal that both TE and PrE lineage segregation in

human pre-implantation embryos are specified by transcription factor TEAD1 and co-activator YAP1.

Results

Inner and outer cells are established in the compacted human embryo

In order to establish the number of cells at each embryonic developmental stage as described in the clinical grading system, we first analysed the appearance and the number of inner and outer cells in relation to the total number of cells by confocal microscopy (Fig. 1). Cell counts were determined by analysing confocal Z-stack scans for nuclear Hoechst and membrane F-actin staining (Fig. 1A).

We observed no inner cells, defined as cells completely separated from the perivitelline space, during the compaction process (Fig. 1D, Fig. 2A). At the onset of compaction (C0), the embryos contained 10.9 ± 2.5 cells and compacting C1 embryos contained 13.6 ± 2.1 cells (Fig. 1B). The first inner cells were observed in the fully compacted C2 embryos, which on average contained a total number of 18.9 ± 6.1 cells (Fig. 1B), and showed a range of inner cells between 0 (5/30 embryos) and 6 (Fig. 1D), with a mean of 2.3 ± 0.7, while 16.8 ± 4.7 cells were outer cells (Fig. 1E).

When small cavities appeared, the outer cells changed morphologically into sickle-shaped cells (Fig. 1A, B0, white star). The total number of cells increased from an average of 28.1 ± 7.8 cells at the onset of blastulation (B0) to 54.8 ± 13.7 in full blastocysts (B1/2) and 81.4 ± 14.8 (B3) upon expansion at 5 dpf and to 155.4 ± 39.5 in fully expanded blastocysts (B4/5/6) at 6 dpf (Fig. 1C). By comparing the cell counts for inner/ICM and outer/TE cells throughout development, we observed that while the number of inner/ICM cells followed a linear increase, the number of outer/TE cells increased exponentially (Fig. 1D-E). We conclude that compaction occurs heterogeneously, i.e. without apparent established course of events, between the 8- and 16-cell stages and inner cells first appear in compacted human embryos.

Polarity marker p-ERM is apically localised in outer cells of compacted human embryos and precedes F-actin

We aimed to identify differences in apical polarity between inner and outer cells throughout human pre-implantation development by co-staining for F-actin and p-ERM. F-actin has already been used as an apical marker in human embryos by Zhu et al.

(Zhu *et al.*, 2021); p-ERM has not yet been investigated in human embryos but is well-
described in the mouse model (Anani *et al.*, 2014; Zhu *et al.*, 2020).

First, we determined the spatial and temporal localisation of F-actin during
human pre-implantation development (Fig. 1A, Fig. 2A-B). While in oocytes and
cleavage-stage embryos F-actin was mainly diffuse in the cytoplasm, it became
concentrated at the cortex of all the cells at the start of compaction (C0) to remain there
during the compaction process (C1). F-actin started to appear concentrated in the
apical region of outer cells when compaction was completed (C2) and it gradually
increased at the start of cavitation in B0 blastocysts; in C2 and B0 stages F-actin also
appeared as a ring around the nucleus. In B1 blastocysts F-actin was apically polarized
in all the outer cells. From the B1 blastocyst stage onwards it became gradually
concentrated in the intercellular junctions between the sickle-shaped outer cells.
Finally, F-actin was highly concentrated in the junctions of the TE cells (B2-B6) but
remained perinuclear and at the cortex in the ICM cells in full B2 and expanding B3
blastocysts (Figure 2A) and in inner cells of expanded B4 and hatching/hatched B5/B6
blastocysts (Figure 1A). We conclude that F-actin is localised apically in all the
outer/TE cells from the early B1 blastocyst stage onwards.

Next, we analysed the pattern of p-ERM during pre-implantation development
(Fig 2A-B). Diffuse presence of p-ERM without polarity was observed in oocytes and
blastomeres of cleavage-stage embryos. P-ERM gradually became localised at the
cell-contact-free surface during compaction in C0 and C1 embryos without reaching
apical polarity. Full apical polarity of p-ERM was observed in all outer cells of all
compacted C2 embryos, while it was absent at sites of cellular contact. P-ERM
remained apical in early blastocysts (B0 and B1), then shifted from the apical cap to
intercellular regions during blastocyst expansion (B2-B3). We conclude that p-ERM is
localized in the apical cap of all outer cells in compacted C2 embryos and blastocysts.

Since the immunofluorescence analysis suggested that p-ERM polarity
precedes F-actin polarity, we analysed the co-localisation of p-ERM and F-actin to
define the precise order (Fig. 2A and Fig2C). At the compacted C2 stage all outer cells
had an apical p-ERM cap, but only 42.2% of these cells had polarized F-actin, while
this number rose to 65.4% of outer cells in the early B0 blastocysts which that showed
apical co-localisation of p-ERM expression is and F-actin, suggesting that p-ERM
polarizes before F-actin ($p < 0.00001$, Fisher-exact-test). From the B1 blastocyst stage
onwards, p-ERM and F-actin co-localized in the apical cap of all outer cells. We

observed a shift of p-ERM distribution from the apical surface of the blastomeres to
sites of intercellular contact coinciding with F-actin re-allocation during blastocyst
expansion (B2/B3) (Fig 2A-B). We conclude that p-ERM polarisation is completed by
the compacted stage in human embryos and precedes F-actin apical polarity.
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Nuclear YAP1 precedes polarity and mainly specifies polarized outer/TE cells
Because of their important role in cellular polarity and lineage segregation in the
mouse, we co-stained for p-ERM and YAP1 (Fig. 3A). While few cells (19.5%) were
positive for nuclear YAP1 at the start of compaction (C0), their number markedly
increased (56.1%) at the compacting embryo stage (C1) in the presence of non-
polarized p-ERM (Fig. 3B). At the compacted embryo stage (C2), all outer cells were
polarized and most of these cells (84.6%) displayed high levels of nuclear YAP1; all
inner cells were non-polarized and in 25% of these cells nuclear localization of YAP1
was found (Fig. 3C, C2 panel). In general, throughout the blastocyst stages B0-B3 on
5 dpf, all embryos showed polarized outer/TE cells positive for YAP1 and non-polarized
inner/ICM cells negative for YAP1 (Fig. 3D). The outer cells of B0 embryos contained
the largest number of cells that were mostly YAP1 positive and polarized (99%) with
the exception of one non-polarized cell. The majority of inner cells lacked YAP1 and
polarity (84%) but in rare cases they were YAP1 positive and non-polarized (4%) or
polarized (12%) (Fig. 3C, Fig. S1A, first row). At the B1-B3 stage, we found that 97.1%
of the outer/TE cells were polarized and YAP1 positive in B1, 94.8% in B2 and 95% in
B3. Most non-polarized inner/ICM cells lacked YAP1: 100% at B1, 97.6% at B2 (with
the exception of one cell that was polarized and YAP1 positive) and 100% at B3.
Throughout the blastocyst stages, we also found a small population of polarized TE
cells negative for YAP1 (3.4%) (Fig. S1A, second row). We conclude that nuclear YAP1
may precede the establishment of the apical polar cap and becomes mainly restricted
to polarized outer/TE cells from the compacted embryo stage onwards.
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GATA3 follows YAP1 expression in outer cells and co-localize in trophectoderm

The establishment of a high-resolution time frame of the appearance of cell polarisation and nuclear YAP1 localisation throughout human pre-implantation development allowed us to match the appearance of YAP1 with GATA3, the first transcription factor associated with trophectoderm specification in the human embryo (Gerri et al., 2020).

Confirming our findings shown in Fig 3A-B, the presence of YAP1 positive nuclei was observed at the early compaction stages in 34.1% of cells at C0 and 44.2% at C1 in all embryos (Fig 4A-B). Nuclear GATA3 was first detected at low levels in two out of four compacting C1 embryos in a few cells (11.6%) and always co-localised with nuclear YAP1 (Fig. 4A-C). Throughout compaction, we never observed YAP1-/GATA3+ nuclei. Once distinguishable inner cells were formed at the compacted C2 stage, most of the embryos (n=5/8) showed differential levels of YAP1 and GATA3 between the inner and outer cells. GATA3 was completely absent from inner cells and most inner cells lacked both proteins (75.0%) while 25% were positive for YAP1 only (Fig. 4C; Fig. S1A, C2), as found in previous immunofluorescence analysis (Fig. 3C). At the C2 stage, 26.1% of the outer cells were still negative for both YAP1 and GATA3 (Fig. S1B, C2), 73.9% of the cells showed nuclear YAP1 only and in 21.8% of the cells YAP1 and GATA3 co-localized (Fig. 4C). The differential pattern between inner and outer cells became more pronounced during the transition to the blastocyst stages (B0-B3) (Fig. 4D). Most of the B0 cells were outer cells (83.4%), of which half were YAP1 positive only, 35.9% were YAP1/GATA3 positive (Fig. 4D) and 14.1% lacked either proteins (Fig. S1B). During the following blastocyst stages the percentages of TE cells containing both YAP1 and GATA3 increased: 95.2% in B1, 94.6% in B2 and 97.3 % in B3. Conversely, the percentage of outer/TE cells that contained YAP1 only decreased: 0.8 % in B1, 4.1% in B2 and 0.5% in B3. Furthermore, outer/TE cells that lacked both proteins decreased during blastocyst expansion: 4% in B1, 1.4% in B2 and 2.2% in B3. While the TE cells displayed YAP1/GATA3 in almost all nuclei by the B3 stage, the inner/ICM cells remained negative for both proteins with few exceptions: 87.1% in B0, 93.2% in B1, 89.2% in B2 and 96.2% in B3. Notably, some rare inner/ICM cells were either GATA3 and/or YAP1 positive: B0 (12.9%), B1 (6.8%), B2 (10.7%) and B3 (3.8%) (Fig. 4D; Fig. S1B, B1 panel). The percentage of YAP1 positive cells as well as the nuclear intensity for YAP1 increased between the C0 and C1 stages, and YAP1 appearance preceded GATA3 that became more prominent in C1 (Fig 4B-E). Between C2 and B0, YAP1 and GATA3 became more restricted to the outer cells, with a clear

252 decline in the inner cells. These results confirm reported single cell transcriptomics
253 data (Meistermann *et al.*, 2021) (Fig. S2A-B). YAP1 and GATA3 proteins were absent
254 in oocytes (Fig. S3A). We conclude that YAP1 and GATA3 can be found in the nuclei
255 of compacting embryos before polarity is fully established, and that the presence of
256 nuclear YAP1 precedes the appearance of GATA3.
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Outer and inner cells do not arise through symmetric and asymmetric divisions
in the compacted human embryo
We demonstrated that in human 8-cell stage embryos the blastomeres are non-
polarized (Fig 3A) and compaction and polarization occur heterogeneously between
the 8- and 16-cell stages (Fig 1-2). Moreover, nuclear YAP1 is mainly present in outer
cells but it is also detected in 25% of the inner cells of C2 compacted embryos (Fig 3C
and Fig 4C). Therefore, it is unlikely that outer and inner cells are generated through
symmetric and asymmetric divisions as in the mouse. These divisions have been
thoroughly studied in isolated 8-cell stage mouse blastomeres (Dietrich and Hiiragi,
2007; Lorthongpanich *et al.*, 2012; Anani *et al.*, 2014).
To investigate the divisions in human embryos, we split 8-cell stage (n=4), 9-cell stage
(n=2) and 10-cell stage (n=1) embryos into single blastomeres by micromanipulation
and analysed the dividing blastomeres by time lapse. Sixty isolated blastomeres
devoid of any cell-cell contact were cultured and the ensuing 2/16 couplets
representing two cells from a 16-cell stage embryo were carefully studied as they
developed into mini-blastocysts (Fig. 5A, Supplementary videos 1-2). After
manipulation, 5/60 cells lysed (8.4%) and 4/60 cells failed to form couplets (6.7%).
After excluding three cells that were already 2/16 couplets at the start of culturing, we
analysed a total of 48 blastomeres (80%). Two major patterns could be observed in
the isolated dividing cells. In pattern I (31/48 cells or 64.6%), after the first division
(15h), the two cells of the 2/16 couplets adhered firmly to each other and one cell
engulfed the other cell around 25h (Fig. 5A, pattern I, Supplementary Video 3). During
the following division, the mini-embryos started to cavitate, the engulfing cell developed
into sickle-shaped TE cells whereas the engulfed cell developed into round ICM cells
(41.8h). In pattern II (17/48 cells or 35.4%), the 2/16 couplets (at around 17.5h)
increased cell contact but no engulfment was observed, the mini-embryos divided into
4/32 quadruplets (34.7h), subsequently compacted (38.1h) and blastulated (46.3h)
without ICM formation (Fig. 5A, pattern II, Supplementary Video 4). These

observations suggested that 2/16 couplets undergoing pattern I formed both TE and ICM cells while 2/16 couplets following pattern II developed into TE cells only. It is tempting to propose that pattern I and II represent an asymmetric and symmetric division, respectively.

To investigate this, we repeated the experiment followed by immunostaining. In 2/16 couplets following pattern I, the engulfed inner cells were non-polarized, as evidenced by an absent p-ERM cap, and lacked nuclear YAP1 in contrast to the polarized engulfing outer, YAP1 positive, cells (Fig. 5B, pattern I). In line with our observations in blastocysts, we identified an inner cell in a mini-blastocyst that was negative for both YAP1 and GATA3 on 5 dpf (Fig. 5C, pattern I, top row), while we also observed NANOG positive ICM cells in mini-blastocysts on 6 dpf (Fig. 5C, pattern I, bottom row). In 2/16 couplets following pattern II, the non-polarized and polarized cell were both positive for YAP1 while in the 4/32 quadruplets all cells were polarized with a visible p-ERM cap and nuclear YAP1 (Fig. 5B, pattern II). At 6 dpf mini-blastocysts that morphologically lacked ICM cells also lacked NANOG positive cells (Fig. 5C, pattern II). Based on these stainings we conclude that pattern I represents an asymmetric division and pattern II represents a symmetric division.

Only one embryo (n°4) contained blastomeres that displayed both patterns (Fig. 5D), which confirms our conclusion. We observed a clear segregation between embryos whose single blastomeres all followed pattern I (4/7) and embryos (2/7) where all single blastomeres followed pattern II. To compare the two patterns, we assessed whether there was a difference in the timing of start of the compaction and blastulation, which are established quality markers in IVF clinics (Skiadas, Jackson and Racowsky, 2006; Iwata *et al.*, 2014; Motato *et al.*, 2016; Rienzi *et al.*, 2019; Harada *et al.*, 2020). We determined t=0 as the timepoint when the first 1/8 blastomere from an individual embryo was dividing into a 2/16 couplet. The mini-blastocysts that underwent pattern I compacted earlier (p<0.0001, mean (pattern I = 8.6h vs pattern II = 20.8h) (Fig. 5E) and cavitated earlier (p<0.0001, mean (pattern I =16.5h vs pattern II =28.2h) (Fig. 5F) than the ones that underwent pattern II. We observed no significant differences in the duration of compaction to cavitation between both patterns (mean pattern I = 7.7h vs pattern II = 7.4h) (Fig. 5G). Since we demonstrated that cavitation normally starts around the 32-cell stage (Fig. 1C), we suggest that pattern II development is delayed and abnormal and pattern I development is normal. Moreover, pattern I results in the formation of both ICM and TE. Because the 8-cell stage blastomeres all divide in the

320   same way, we conclude that outer cells and inner cells are not generated through
321   symmetric and asymmetric divisions.
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TEAD1/YAP1 co-localisation is restricted to trophectoderm and primitive
endoderm cells

YAP1 is co-activator of the TEAD1-4 family of transcription factors. Recently we
showed that in the human embryo TEAD4 proteins are present in all nuclei at the fully
compacted embryo stage (Gerri *et al.*, 2020). To better understand how TEAD4 is
involved in lineage segregation throughout human pre-implantation development, we
performed immunofluorescent analysis of TEAD4, p-ERM and GATA3. Low levels of
TEAD4 proteins first appeared in all nuclei during compaction (C1) and they were
ubiquitously present in the nuclei of all the cells throughout pre-implantation
development from the compacted stage onwards (C2-B6) (Fig. 6A-B). This confirmed
the single-cell RNAseq data of (Meistermann *et al.*, 2021)(Fig S2A-B).

Transcriptomics data suggest that other members of the TEAD family may play
a role during human pre-implantation development as well, specifically TEAD1 stood
out as a specific regulator of TE and potentially PrE (Yan *et al.*, 2013; Stirparo *et al.*,
2018; Meistermann *et al.*, 2021). We also selected TEAD1 for further study because
already been found to play a role in the second lineage segregation in the mouse
(Hashimoto and Sasaki, 2019). TEAD1 displayed a spatial and temporal pattern that
was distinct from TEAD4. TEAD1 was found in 65.5% of the nuclei of the cells already
at the start of compaction (C0) and in all the cells during compaction (C1) (Fig. 6C, Fig.
S4A). From the compacted C2 stage onwards TEAD1 proteins were abundantly
present in the outer and TE cells up to 6 dpf (B0-B4) (Fig. 6C, Fig. S4B, S4C). At the
compacted C2 stage, however, only 11.8% of the inner cells were positive for TEAD1.
This TEAD1 expression pattern coincided with YAP1/GATA3 co-localisation in the
outer cells (Figure 4A). Most outer/TE cells throughout the B0-B3 blastocyst stages
were positive for TEAD1; 100% in B0-B2 and 98.1% in B3. Therefore, we suggest that
TEAD1/YAP1 interaction plays a role in the initiation of TE formation. However, TEAD1
proteins were also detected in most nuclei of the inner/ICM cells of the blastocysts on
5 dpf from cavitation onwards, 83.3% in B0, 91.3% in B1, 92.9% in B2 and 83.6% in
B3 (Fig 6C, 6E), but at visibly lower levels as compared to TE cells (Fig. 6C).
By fine-mapping TEAD1, we noticed increased signals of nuclear localisation of this
transcription factor in B4 and later blastocysts in cells that could correspond to PrE. In

B4 blastocysts, we found TEAD1 positive and negative cells in a heterogeneous

pattern (Fig. S4B) and in the cells facing the cavity (Fig. S4C). Strikingly, the increase

in the levels of TEAD1 proteins in the ICM cells coincided with the appearance of

nuclear YAP1 in these cells (Fig. S4B). In YAP1 positive cells the epiblast marker

NANOG was absent (Fig. S4C) but the primitive endoderm marker SOX17 was

detected (Fig. S4D). Because this pattern is reminiscent of the second lineage

segregation, we hypothesised that TEAD1/YAP1 expressing cells in the ICM of

expanding blastocysts could be (precursor) PrE-cells.

To test this hypothesis, we first assessed the presence of NANOG during the

compaction (C0-C2) and early blastulation stages (B0-B1). After extensive antibody

validation (Fig. S4E-G), NANOG was found to be absent at all compaction stages (Fig.

S4E). At the B0-B1 blastocyst stages we found NANOG positive and negative nuclei

in the ICM cells as well as in the TE cells (Fig. S4F). Furthermore, from the B3

blastocyst stage on, we stained for EPI (NANOG) and PrE (SOX17 and GATA4)

markers. In the ICM of B3 blastocysts we found one main population of cells with

NANOG+/SOX17-/GATA4- nuclei (89.1%) (Fig. 7A, 7B). The B3 ICM consisted of four

additional minor subpopulations: NANOG+/SOX17+/GATA4- cells (5.4%), NANOG-

/SOX17-/GATA4- cells (3.9%) and cells in which exceptionally NANOG, SOX17 and

GATA4 (0.8%) and GATA4 and SOX17 only co-localized (0.8%) (Fig. 7B, Fig. S5A-D).

In seven out of nine B3 blastocysts, nuclear NANOG was found in all the ICM cells

(Fig. 7A). Based on all our observations on the second lineage segregation we

assessed the average number of cells in the EPI (12.1±6.5 cells) and PrE-lineage

(8.4±3.44 cells) at 6dpf (Fig. 7C). At 6 dpf the ICM consisted of two populations only:

NANOG+ cells (EPI) and SOX17+/GATA4+ cells (PrE) either in salt-and-pepper (Fig.

7D) or in segregated populations (Fig. 7E). We also detected GATA3 positive cells co-

localizing with SOX17 (27%) (Fig. S5E), which were also found in reported single-cell

RNAseq data (Meistermann *et al.*, 2021) (Fig S2A-B).

To investigate the (precursor) PrE-population further, we co-stained 5 dpf and 6 dpf

blastocysts for TEAD1, YAP1 and GATA4 (Fig. 7F-I). We identified two main cell

populations in the ICM of B4-6 blastocysts (Fig. 7F, G): cells negative for all markers

that we considered the EPI lineage (46.5%) and cells positive for all three markers that

we considered the PrE-lineage (28.1%). We also observed three subpopulations in the

ICM cells that consisted of TEAD1+/YAP1+/GATA4- cells (14%), TEAD1+/YAP1-

/GATA4+ cells (7%) and TEAD1+/YAP-/GATA4- cells (4.4%). From this pattern it

became clear that in the majority of the GATA4 positive PrE-cells co-localisation of
TEAD1/YAP1 was found. However, GATA4 was also found in the absence of
TEAD1/YAP1 co-localisation (7%), suggesting that TEAD1/YAP1 interaction may play
a role in the maintenance of the PrE-lineage rather than in the initiation of the second
lineage differentiation. Finally, to further elucidate whether the TEAD1/YAP1
interaction initiates or maintains the PrE-lineage, we analysed embryos from the C0 to
the B3 stages for TEAD1, YAP1 and GATA4 (Fig. 7H, 7I, S5F). GATA4 was first
detected in ICM cells of B2 (2.4%) and B3 (7.1%) blastocysts when TEAD1 signals
were visibly weak and YAP1 was undetectable (Fig. 7H, 7I). Cells positive for all three
markers only arise later at B4-6 stage (Fig. 7F, G). Therefore, we conclude that
TEAD1/YAP1 interaction plays a role in the maintenance rather than in the initiation of
PrE-formation.
400
Discussion
We show that in human pre-implantation embryos, which compact and polarise
heterogeneously between the 8- to 16-cell stages, the formation of a p-ERM apical cap
precedes the concentration of F-actin at the apical region. YAP1 and GATA3 co-
localize in the polar outer cells, supporting the role of polarity in TE initiation. However,
they also co-localize in the nuclei of some blastomeres before the cells are polarized,
indicating that the first lineage differentiation event can be initiated independently of
polarity. We also show that outer and inner cells, which appear in the compacted
embryo, do not arise by symmetric and asymmetric divisions. Finally, based on spatial
and temporal mapping we suggest for the first time a role for TEAD1/YAP1 interaction
in both the initiation of TE and maintenance of PrE differentiation in human pre-
implantation embryos.
Compaction and polarisation coincide in human embryos, as in the mouse (Levy
et al., 1986), but by using morphokinetics it was demonstrated that the human
compaction process is heterogeneous (Gerri *et al.*, 2020). We confirmed this by use of
F-actin staining and we also showed that, as reported in the mouse (Dietrich and
Hiiragi, 2007), inner and outer cells are established in the compacted 16-cell stage
embryo. We demonstrated polarity by the presence of p-ERM proteins at the apical
cortex of the outer cells at the moment of full compaction. Recently Zhu et al. (Zhu *et*
al., 2021) revealed that in human embryos polarity occurs in two steps: first F-actin is
concentrated at the cell-contact free surface, followed by PAR6/PKC apical cap

polarity. Here we demonstrated that this process is preceded by p-ERM polarity, most likely to link F-actin to the plasma membrane, and we suggest that the apical cap in compacted human embryos is established in three steps: first p-ERM, followed by F-actin and finally the PAR complex proteins. Co-localisation of p-ERM, F-actin, PAR6 and aPKC proteins points to maturation of the apical cap when compaction is completed and blastulation starts.

In human embryos, the first lineage differentiation is orchestrated by polarity and YAP1 and GATA3 co-localisation in the compacted embryo (Gerri *et al.*, 2020). By carefully examining YAP1/GATA3 co-staining at different stages of development, we observed that YAP1 and GATA3 co-localise in a significant number of nuclei in the compacting/polarising human embryo before inner and outer cells are established and before the apical cap is formed while we never observed GATA3+/YAP1- nuclei throughout compaction. This strongly supports the causal relationship between YAP1 presence and *GATA3* expression (Gerri *et al.*, 2020; Zhu *et al.*, 2021). We propose, as also suggested by Zhu et al. (Zhu *et al.*, 2021), that *YAP1* expression can be initiated independently of polarity. *YAP1* expression could be induced by other mechanisms such as cell-cell contact and/or contractility since YAP1 is very sensitive to mechanical cues (Maître *et al.*, 2015; Maître, 2017). We propose that the apical cap reinforces TE initiation, as also suggested by Zhu et al. (Zhu *et al.*, 2021). This does not exclude that in polarizing cells *YAP1* expression is initiated by the polarisation process, which is an ongoing process that is finalized when polarity is fully established, or that *YAP1* is induced by polarity in polarized cells, but this can only be investigated further by live imaging.

In contrast to previous imaging studies in mouse compacted 16-cell stage embryos where non-polarized cells are frequently found on the outside (Anani *et al.*, 2014), we did not observe non-polarized cells in an outer position in compacted human embryos. In mouse embryos, these non-polarized cells are actively sorted into an inner position and assume the ICM fate. We did not detect polarized cells in an inner position in compacted human embryos, as reported in mouse embryos (Anani *et al.*, 2014), however we found YAP1 positive cells in an inner position (25%). Misallocated cells could be sorted to the correct position (Zhu *et al.*, 2021). or could change lineage direction due to plasticity. On some occasions, we found YAP1 and GATA3 co-localized in ICM (5 dpf) and PrE (6 dpf) cells, where they most likely originate from miss-positioning during compaction and early blastulation.

In human embryos, YAP1, TEAD1 and TEAD4 are present in the nuclei before
compaction and polarity are completely established, as described in the mouse but
their role is unknown. YAP1 and TEAD4 proteins were found to play a role in EGA in
mouse embryos (Yu *et al.*, 2016; Sha *et al.*, 2020) and together with TFAP2C and
RhoA, TEAD4 was found to play a crucial role in apical domain formation in mice (Zhu
et al., 2020), but this has not yet been investigated in humans. The upstream signals
inducing YAP1, TEAD1 and TEAD4 expression in human and mouse embryos are
unknown.

We found that TEAD1, which is present in all the blastomeres during
compaction, precedes TEAD4. Since TEAD4 is ubiquitously present from the
compacted embryos stage onwards while TEAD1/YAP1 are differentially co-localised
in what we propose to be (precursor-) TE and PrE cells, we suggest that TEAD1 rather
than TEAD4 is involved in the segregation of the TE and PrE lineages in humans.

Our data point to differences in the first lineage differentiation event between
mice and humans. In the mouse, differentiation into TE and ICM cells is known to be
orchestrated by cell polarity, contractility and TEAD4/YAP1 interaction (Nishioka *et al.*,
2008, 2009; Ralston *et al.*, 2010; Hirate and Sasaki, 2014; Maître *et al.*, 2015; Maître,
2017). Complete compaction and polarity are promptly established at the 8-cell stage.
When dividing from the 8- to the 16-cell stage, symmetric and asymmetric divisions
determine the blastomeres' fate.

Like in many other mammalian species including the bovine, human embryos do not
pass through a stage where all blastomeres are polarized (Pfeffer, 2018). Polarisation,
compaction and establishment of inner and outer cells appear to happen gradually and
simultaneously while dividing from 8 to 16 cells. Our data supports also the conclusion
that there are no symmetric and asymmetric divisions when the human embryo divides
from 8 to 16 cells since 8-cell stage blastomeres are not polarized. We confirmed this
by analysing the divisions in isolated human 8-cell stage blastomeres and detected
two patterns. It is tempting to speculate that these patterns I and II represent
asymmetric and symmetric divisions, respectively, however within one embryo all
blastomeres follow the same pattern. By time lapse kinetics we demonstrated that
pattern I corresponds with the normal kinetics of compaction and cavitation during
human pre-implantation development and pattern II development is delayed and
therefore abnormal. Currently, we do not know how one of the two cells in the 2/16
couplets becomes polarized, we propose that the 8-cell stage blastomeres are

plenipotent (Condic, 2014; Krivega *et al.*, 2015). After the fourth round of mitotic

divisions the lineage direction of the 16-cell stage blastomeres in the embryo could be

determined by polarity, position, contact, cortical tension and/or the Hippo signalling

pathway; this could be different in compacted 8-cell stage embryos and non-

compacted 16-cell stage human embryos. Interestingly, the polarity model with

symmetric and asymmetric divisions in mouse embryos has been recently challenged

using live YAP1 imaging (Gu *et al.*, 2022). Apparently at the 8- and 16-cell stages all

blastomeres display nuclear YAP1, but it is rapidly downregulated in the inner cells of

the compacted mouse embryo. Live staining on human embryos is extremely

challenging, but if this could be confirmed in human embryos the first lineage

differentiation event in the mouse and the human may be more similar than currently

thought. Recently, after *TEAD4* depletion by CRISPR/Cas9 in human zygotes it was

found that blastocysts are formed and *CDX2* expression but not *GATA3* expression is

downregulated, providing evidence that TEAD4/YAP1 signalling plays a role in the

maintenance rather than initiation of TE lineage differentiation (Stamatiadis *et al.*,

2022). We suggest that in the compacted human embryo TEAD1/YAP1/GATA3 co-

localisation in the outer cells initiates TE lineage differentiation; in inner cells TEAD1,

YAP1 and GATA3 do not co-localize and these cells remain pluripotent.

We also demonstrate that the second lineage differentiation event occurs

differently in humans and mice. In the human embryo, the lineages arising during the

second differentiation have been described by immunostainings, but the signalling

pathways initiating and maintaining the lineages have not been found yet. GATA6

proteins are present in the nuclei of all the blastomeres after EGA and become

restricted in PrE cells when SOX17 and GATA4 are upregulated, in salt-and-pepper

pattern and segregation into inner EPI cells and PrE cells facing the cavity (Kimber *et*

al., 2008; Kuijk *et al.*, 2012; Roode *et al.*, 2012; Niakan and Eggan, 2013). Here we

showed that in human blastocysts the PrE lineage is characterized by the co-

localisation of TEAD1 and YAP1. Since the PrE specific markers GATA4 and SOX17

can appear in the absence of TEAD1/YAP1 co-localisation, we suggest that the

interaction maintains the PrE lineage rather than initiating it. This is different from the

mouse model where TEAD/YAP1 interaction orchestrates the expression of *Sox2*

(Wicklow *et al.*, 2014) and differentiation into the EPI lineage (Hashimoto and Sasaki,

2019). After carefully counting cells expressing NANOG, SOX17 and/or GATA4, we

found that on 5 dpf in the majority of the B3 blastocysts nuclear NANOG is found in all

the ICM cells. In B3 embryos the EPI/PrE-markers co-localize in a small population of

the ICM cells (6.2%). On 6 dpf, 2/3 of the ICM cells are EPI cells while 1/3 of the inner

cells are PrE cells. According to our data the human TE, EPI and PrE lineages do not

emerge simultaneously (Petropoulos, 2016), but in two steps (Meistermann *et al.*,

2021). Our data also support the hypothesis that PrE cells differentiate from EPI cells

in expanding blastocysts (between B3 on 5 dpf and B4 on 6 dpf) (Meistermann *et al.*,

2021). Their single-cell transcriptomics data and our NANOG analysis also suggest

that the ICM (5 dpf) and EPI (6 dpf) are very similar (if not the same), but further

characterization of the pluripotent cells is needed to precisely define the stages

(Radley et al., 2022).

We conclude that the TE and PrE lineage differentiation events in human

embryos is specified by TEAD1 and YAP1 co-localisation. This study establishes a

detailed roadmap on polarisation, compaction, position and lineage segregation during

human pre-implantation development paving the road for further functional studies.

Material and Methods

Ethical statement

This project was approved by the Local Ethical Committee of the UZ Brussel (BUN 143201526417) and the Belgian Federal Committee for research on human embryos (AdV057). We used cryopreserved human embryos donated to research from IVF-ICSI patients after informed consent and the expiration of the 5-year cryopreservation duration. Mature oocytes were obtained from egg bank donors who voluntary donated gametes for research.

Embryo warming and culture

Human vitrified high quality 8-cell stage human embryos (3 dpf) were warmed (Vit Kit -Thaw, Irvine Scientific, USA) and cultured until 6 dpf in individual microdroplets of 25µl medium (Quinn's Advantage™ Blastocyst media, Origio, USA) under a layer of paraffin oil (OVOIL™ - culture oil, Vitrolife, USA) to prevent evaporation of medium. Embryos were incubated at 37°C, 5% O_2 and 6% CO_2 tension. Warmed embryos were scored for viability per blastomere after warming, overall survival of the embryos was at 99%. Embryos with signs of degeneration in more than one cell were excluded as well as embryos that showed more than 10% fragmentation, with irregular size of blastomeres, increased amounts of vacuoles or granulation and arrested embryos.

Developmental timeline of the human embryo

The embryos were scored according to their developmental stage displaying morphological key differences rather than defining them according to their chronological age (dpf) (Supplementary Table 1). The compaction process was divided into three subgroups. At the beginning of compaction (C0) the outlines of the individual blastomeres within the embryo were clearly visible. However, the cell shape appeared slightly elongated. Shortly after, intercellular contacts increased due to adherence junctions (C1). At the end of compaction (C2) the blastomeres had maximized their contact sites and the embryo appeared as a sphere of contour-less tightly packed cells. The blastulation process was divided into four subgroups. Transition from the fully compacted embryo to the early blastocyst stage (B0) was marked by a slight decompaction as cellular outlines were once again visible, small cavities were formed and sickle-cell shaped outer cells became apparent. Subsequently one cavity was

formed (B1). As soon as the ICM was visible, the outer cells were referred to as TE in

a full blastocyst (B2). As fluid accumulated further the embryo started to expand as an

increase in size could be observed due to TE cell proliferation and ZP thinning (B3).

Subsequently the blastocyst expanded (B4) and started to hatch out of the ZP (B5)

until it was fully hatched (B6).

Immunofluorescence

Cultured embryos were fixed in 4% PFA/PBS for 10 minutes at room temperature (RT)

to crosslink proteins and preserve cellular integrity. After fixation embryos were

washed three times for 10 minutes in 2% BSA/PBS before permeabilization of

membranes in 0,1% TritonX/PBS for 20 minutes at RT to increase access for antibody

binding. Subsequently embryos were placed in 10% FBS/PBS blocking solution for 1h

at RT to decrease unspecific antibody binding before incubation with primary antibody

or control-IgG antibody (Supplementary Table 2) in 2% FBS/BSA overnight at 4°C.

Embryos were washed in 2% BSA/PBS before incubation with secondary antibody

(Supplementary Table 2) at 10 µg/ml for 2h at RT in the dark, after 1h of secondary

antibody incubation fluorochrome conjugated phalloidin (Alexa Fluor™ 546 Phalloidin,

Invitrogen™) was added to the secondary antibody solution for F-actin membrane

staining for another hour. Embryos were washed again in 2% BSA/PBS before

incubation with Hoechst 33342 (Molecular probes®, Life Technologies) for nuclear

staining. Eventually embryos were mounted in 1xPBS on poly -L-lysine coated glass

slides (Poly-Prep Slides, Sigma-Aldrich) to prevent collapse and movement during

visualization. Round coverslips were sandwiched between the glass slide and the

coverslip (Corning® Cover Glasses, #1.5, Sigma-Aldrich) and glued together with nail

polish to prevent squeezing of the embryo.

Confocal microscopy and visualisation

Fluorescence of immunostained embryos was detected with a confocal microscope

(LSM800 equipped with Airyscan, ZEISS). Whole embryo z-stack scans were carried

out to reconstruct the 3D anatomy of the embryo. To omit spectral overlap between

fluorophores, emission filters for each fluorophore were employed. Z-stacks were

processed with the Zen-Blue software (ZEISS) and image sequences were exported

and analysed for cell counts with ImageJ and Arivis Vision 4D (3.4.0). The number of

nuclei (positive for DNA) was assessed using the Blob finder function of Arivis. All other

counts were assessed manually. We considered a nucleus positive for a protein when

the signal visibly exceeded the background and/or when the signal was clearly

delineated from the cytoplasm. We confirmed our manual approach by measuring

fluorescence intensities of YAP1 and GATA3 at the earlier stages when signals started

to emerge, thus when weak signals are more prone to operator error (Fig. 4B) using

the 3D Fiji/Image J Suite as previously described (Gerri *et al.*, 2020, 2022).

Micromanipulation

615 Warmed 8-cell stage human embryos without any sign of fragmentation were split by

616 micromanipulation into eight single blastomeres as described (van de Velde *et al.*,

617 2008) and cultured until dpf6 and fixed for immunostainings as described above.

Statistics

620 Statistics on compaction and cavitation times (Fig. 5E-G) were using permutation

621 testing with 10000 permutations of our data. A two-tailed p-value was determined by

622 (2*(sum(results) > mean difference)/10000)). We used a two tailed Mann Whitney U

623 test for the data regarding the fluorescence intensities (Fig. 4B). All graphs and

624 statistics were generated using GraphPad Prism (9.0.0.) and R-Studio (1.1.456).

Author contributions

MR experiments, interpretation, writing, editing, final approval

WE experiments, interpretation, writing, editing, final approval

AD experiments, interpretation, final approval

DD experiments, editing, final approval

LD interpretation, editing, final approval

CG interpretation, editing, final approval

KN interpretation, editing, final approval

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KS interpretation, writing, editing, final approval

HVdV study design, interpretation, writing, editing, final approval

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

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Figure 1: Inner and outer cells are established in the compacted human embryo

(A) Developmental timeline of the human embryo based on morphology (Brightfield) and distribution of F-actin (green) and DNA (white) at 4 days post fertilisation (dpf) (C0-C2), 5 dpf (B0-B3) and 6 dpf (B4-B6). At the beginning of compaction (C0) the contact between de blastomeres increases and the cell shape appears slightly elongated, but the outlines of the individual blastomeres within the embryo are still clearly visible. Shortly after, the cellular borders begin to fade as a result of increased intercellular contacts due to adherence junctions and the embryo is compacting (C1). When compaction is completed (C2) the blastomeres have maximized their contact sites and the embryo appears as a sphere of contour-less tightly packed cells. During this stage the first inner cells (yellow arrow) appear. The initiation of blastulation (B0) is marked by a slight decompaction (white arrow) as cellular outlines are once again visible and the outer cells become sickle-cell shaped (white star) and the cavity is formed (B1). As soon as the ICM (B2-B6, yellow stars) is visible, the outer cells are referred to as trophectoderm (TE) cells (yellow arrow). During the B3 stage, the blastocyst expands with coinciding zona pellucida thinning. In addition, at 6 dpf an increase in blastocyst size can be observed due to TE cell proliferation (B4). Subsequently the blastocyst starts to hatch (B5) until fully hatched out of the ZP (B6).

(B) Total number of cells per embryo during compaction (C0-C2).

Brightfield images were taken after fixation. Scale bars, 20µm. All error bars are mean ± SD.

Figure 2: P-ERM apical polarity proceeds F-actin apical polarity in the compacted human embryo

(A) Maximum intensity projections of different developmental stages analysed for DNA (white), F-actin (green) and p-ERM (magenta). Presence of F-actin and p-ERM apical polarity (yellow arrows); absence of apical polarity (yellow arrow heads).

(B) Optical section of embryos (C2, B0, B1) analysed for F-actin (green), DNA (white) and p-ERM (magenta). F-actin apical polarity indicated by yellow arrow, absence indicated by yellow arrowheads.

(C) Percentage of positive cells at the C2 and B0 stage that show either p-ERM and F-actin polarisation or p-ERM polarisation without F-actin (****$p<0.00001$, Fisher-exact-test).

Brightfield images were taken before fixation. Scale bars, 20μm.

Figure 3: YAP1 expression becomes mainly restricted to polar outer cells from the compacted human embryo stage onwards

(A) Optical sections of embryos (C0-B3) analysed for DNA (white), F-actin (green), YAP1 (turquoise) and p-ERM (magenta), presence indicated by yellow arrow, absence indicated by yellow arrowheads.

(B) Percentage of apolar cells positive or negative for YAP1 during C0 and C1 stages.

(C) Percentage of YAP1 positive/negative cells in polar/apolar outer and inner cells of C2 embryos.

(D) Percentage of TE and ICM cells of B0-B3 embryos positive/negative for YAP1 and polar/apolar.

Brightfield images were taken before fixation. Scale bars, 20μm.

Figure 4: GATA3 and YAP1 co-localize before polarity is established and mainly characterize the outer cells in human pre-implantation embryos

(A) Optical sections of embryos analysed for DNA (white), F-actin (green), YAP1 (turquoise) and GATA3 (magenta), presence indicated by yellow arrows, absence indicated by yellow arrowheads.

(B) Percentage of unallocated cells during C0 and C1 stages positive for YAP1, negative for both YAP1 and GATA3 and positive for both YAP1 and GATA3.

(C) Percentage of YAP1 and GATA3 positive/negative cells in outer and inner cells of C2 embryos.

(D) Percentage of TE and ICM cells of B0-B3 embryos positive or negative for YAP1 and/or GATA3.

(E) Nuclear enrichment of YAP1 and GATA3 in C0-B0 embryos. Mann Whitney-*U*-test, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001, ****p<0.0001.

Brightfield images were taken before fixation. Scale bars, 20μm.

Figure 5: Single human 8-cell stage blastomeres develop into mini-blastocysts following two patterns

(A) Stills at different time points (hours or h) of time-lapse videos from mini-blastocysts revealed two different patterns: in pattern I, 2/16 couplets engulfed and blastulated; in pattern II, 2/16 couplets divided into 4/32 quadruplets and blastulated without a visible ICM (yellow arrowhead).

(B) Orthogonal projections of mini-blastocysts at 4 dpf and 5 dpf analysed for DNA (white), YAP1 (turquoise), p-ERM (magenta), F-actin (green). Differences in start of compaction in hours between pattern I and pattern II.

(C) Full Z-stacks and optical sections of 6 dpf mini-blastocysts. Top panel: F-actin (green), DNA (white), YAP1 (turquoise) and GATA3 (magenta). Second and third panel: DNA (white), GATA3 (turquoise) and NANOG (magenta).

(D) Start of compaction in hours (y-axis) per embryo (1-7) (x-axis).

(E) Differences in time points of compaction in hours between pattern I and pattern II.

(F) Differences in time points of cavitation in hours between pattern I and pattern II.

(G) Differences in duration of compaction in hours between pattern I and pattern II.

Presence of signal indicated by yellow arrows, absence indicated by yellow arrowheads. Brightfield images were taken after fixation. Scale bars, 20μm. All error bars are mean ± SD.

A

	BF	**F-ACTIN** DNA	TEAD4	p-ERM	MERGE

C0 n=5
C1 n=2
C2 n=4
B0 n=4
B1 n=2
B2 n=2
B3 n=3

B

	BF	**F-ACTIN** DNA	TEAD4	GATA3	MERGE

B6 n=2

C

	BF	DNA	TEAD1	YAP1	MERGE

C0 n=3
C1 n=3
C2 n=5
B0 n=4
B1 n=4
B2 n=4
B3 n=5

D

C2

% of positive cells

outer: 89 TEAD1+, 5
inner: 2 TEAD1+, 15 TEAD1-

TEAD1+ / TEAD1-

E

% of positive cells

B0: 97, 25, 5
B1: 166, 42, 1
B2: 118, 26, 2
B3: 364, 53, 10, 7

TE/TEAD1+ ICM/TEAD1+
TE/TEAD1- ICM/TEAD1-

Figure 6: TEAD4 is ubiquitously expressed in the human embryo while TEAD1 consecutively marks the trophectoderm lineage

(A) Optical sections of embryos (C0-B3) analysed for DNA (white), F-actin (green), TEAD4 (turquoise) and p-ERM (magenta).

(B) Optical section of a B6 embryo analysed for DNA (white), F-actin (green), TEAD4 (turquoise) and GATA3 (magenta).

(C) Optical sections of embryos (C0-B3) analysed for DNA (white), TEAD1 (green), YAP1 (magenta).

(D) Percentage of TEAD1 positive/negative cells at the C2 stage.

(E) Percentage of TE and ICM cells positive/negative for TEAD1 in B0-B3 stages.

Presence of signal indicated by yellow arrows, absence indicated by yellow arrowheads. Brightfield images were taken after fixation. Scale bars, 20μm.

Figure 7: YAP1/TEAD1 consecutively mark primitive endoderm

(A) Optical section of a B3 blastocyst analysed for DNA (white), NANOG (magenta), GATA4 (green), SOX17 (turquoise).

(B) Percentage of ICM cells positive/negative for NANOG, GATA4 and SOX17 at the B3 stage.

(C) Number of cells per blastocyst in the EPI and PE lineages. Counts are based on NANOG (EPI), SOX17/GATA4 (PE), TEAD1/YAP1 (TE/PE) and GATA3 (TE) protein expression.

(D) Optical section of a 6 dpf blastocyst with NANOG, GATA4 and SOX17 in salt-and-pepper constellation.

(E) Optical section of a 6 dpf blastocyst with NANOG, GATA4 and SOX17 after completed segregation.

(F) Optical section of 6 dpf blastocyst analysed for DNA (white), TEAD1 (turquoise), YAP1 (magenta).

(G) Percentage of ICM cells positive/negative for GATA4, TEAD1 and YAP1 at dpf6.

(H) Percentage of cells positive/negative for TEAD1, GATA4 and YAP1 in the ICM of B0-B3 blastocysts.

(I) Optical sections of B0-B3 blastocysts analysed for DNA (white), GATA4 (green), YAP1 (magenta) and TEAD1 (turquoise).

Presence of signal indicated by yellow arrows, absence indicated by yellow arrowheads. Brightfield images were taken after fixation. Scale bars, 20µm.