F<small>RONT</small> M<small>ATTER</small>

Title

Gastrulation-stage gene expression in *Nipbl*^{+/-} mouse embryos foreshadows the development of

syndromic birth defects

Authors

[1, 2, *]Stephenson Chea, [3]Jesse Kreger, [1, 2]Martha E. Lopez-Burks, [3]Adam L. MacLean, [1, 2]Arthur D.

Lander, [4, 1, 2, *]Anne L. Calof

Affiliations

[1]Department of Developmental and Cell Biology, School of Biological Sciences, University of

California Irvine, Irvine, CA 92697

[2]Center for Complex Biological Systems, University of California Irvine, Irvine, CA 92697

[3]Department of Quantitative and Computational Biology, Dornsife College of Letters, Arts, and

Sciences, University of Southern California, Los Angeles, CA

[4]Department of Anatomy and Neurobiology, School of Medicine, University of California Irvine,

Irvine, CA 92697

*Corresponding author. Email: schea2@uci.edu (S.C.); alcalof@uci.edu (A.L.C)

Abstract

In animal models, *Nipbl*-deficiency phenocopies gene expression changes and birth defects seen

in Cornelia de Lange Syndrome (CdLS), the most common cause of which is *Nipbl*-

haploinsufficiency. Previous studies in *Nipbl*^{+/-} mice identified aberrant gene expression and heart

defects as early as cardiac crescent (CC) stage. Here, we performed single-cell RNA-sequencing

on wildtype (WT) and *Nipbl*^{+/-} mouse embryos at CC- and earlier (gastrulation) stages. *Nipbl*^{+/-}

embryos had fewer mesoderm cells than WT and altered proportions of mesodermal cell

subpopulations. These findings were associated with an underexpression of genes implicated in

driving specific mesodermal lineages. *Nipbl*^{+/-} embryos also misexpressed developmentally-

critical genes, including the transcription factor, *Nanog*, and genes governing left-right and anterior-posterior patterning. These events of cell misallocation and transcriptional dysregulation foreshadowed defects in tissue composition and patterning that arise later in *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ mice, offering insights into early developmental contributions to birth defects in CdLS.

Teaser

Gene expression changes during gastrulation of *Nipbl*-deficient mice shed light on early origins of structural birth defects.

MAIN TEXT

Introduction

Each year, 1 of every 33 babies in the United States is born with a birth defect (*1*), the most prevalent of which are congenital heart defects (CHDs), neural tube defects, and cleft lip/palate (*2*). Given the significant impact of birth defects on both mortality and morbidity (*3, 4*), there is a need to elucidate their origins, but their diversity and sporadic nature pose challenges for identifying causal mechanisms. A promising approach is to study genetic syndromes that present with multiple, concurrent defects in various body parts, many of which mirror common isolated birth defects. Studying them might thus provide insights into the causes and development of isolated birth defects.

Cornelia de Lange Syndrome (CdLS) affects an estimated 1 in 10,000 to 1 in 30,000 live births (*5*), and is characterized by craniofacial anomalies, delays in growth and maturation, intellectual disability, neurological impairments, abnormalities of limbs, especially arms and hands, coupled with issues in the visual, auditory, gastrointestinal, genitourinary, and cardiopulmonary systems (*6-9*).

The majority of CdLS cases – more than 55% – are caused by heterozygous mutations in the gene *Nipped-B-like* (*NIPBL*), named for its homology to the Drosophila gene *Nipped-B* (*9-13*). These mutations often produce an absent or shortened protein, suggesting CdLS arises from

haploinsufficiency (*14*). Remarkably, even a subtle 15% reduction in NIPBL gene expression can produce a mild yet recognizable CdLS phenotype (*15, 16*). Such observations highlight the importance of precise NIPBL gene dosage in human development.

The *NIPBL* gene encodes a universally conserved protein that plays a role in loading cohesin onto chromosomes (*17-20*). Cohesin, similarly conserved and ubiquitous, is a four-subunit protein complex (Smc1, Smc3, Rad21, and either SA1 or SA2) essential for chromosome organization and genome stability (*21*). Mutations in the cohesin subunits *SMC1* and *SMC3* account for a small proportion of clinically mild CdLS (~5% and <1%, respectively) (*22-24*). Additionally, mutations in *HDAC8*, which catalyzes cohesin release from chromatin during mitosis, are found in a distinct subset of CdLS patients (*25*). Mutations in *RAD21* have also surfaced in individuals exhibiting a CdLS-like phenotype but with substantially milder cognitive impairment (*26*). Collectively, these findings reinforce the idea that impairment of cohesin function contributes significantly to CdLS (*9, 27*).

Cohesin was initially identified for its role sister chromatid cohesion during mitosis (*21*). However, pronounced defects in sister chromatid cohesion or irregularities in mitosis have not been observed in either CdLS patients or *Nipbl*-haploinsufficient (*Nipbl*^{+/-}) mice (*28-31*), suggesting that cohesin has additional functions. Studies in CdLS patient cells and *Nipbl*-haploinsufficiency animal models indicate that cohesin is involved in transcriptional regulation (Dorsett & Krantz, 2009). Specifically, *Nipbl*-haploinsufficiency leads to alterations in the expression of many hundreds to thousands of genes (*16, 28, 32, 33*). Interestingly, many of the affected genes are regulated by long-distance enhancers (*34*), aligning with the emerging concept of NIPBL and cohesin as critical determinants in DNA-looping (*35-38*).

Interestingly, most gene expression changes in *Nipbl*-deficient animals are small, usually less than 2-fold. Though likely to be inconsequential individually, such small changes can act collectively to produce structural and functional defects. For example, in zebrafish, joint depletion

of two developmental genes downregulated by *nipbl*-deficiency produced a CdLS-like phenotype

(*32*), suggesting that altered gene expression is the ultimate cause of developmental and

physiological abnormalities. Thus, CdLS exemplifies a class of genetic disorders known as

"transcriptomopathies" (*39*), in which the cumulative or synergistic effects of minor disturbances

to gene expression lead to developmental abnormalities.

Attempts to associate such changes with the production of birth defects have featured

studies of CHDs in *Nipbl*-haploinsufficient mice. 30% of *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ mice display CHDs, primarily

atrial septal defects. *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ mice also exhibit heart abnormalities at earlier developmental stages:

At embryonic day 13.5 (E13.5), 70% of *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ mice display delays in ventricular septal fusion,

whereas three days earlier, at E10.5, an overwhelming 100% exhibit right ventricle hypoplasia

(*40*). Even earlier, these mice display reduced expression of transcription factors crucial for early

heart progenitor cell growth and differentiation: specifically, *Nkx2-5* in the second heart field at

E7.75, and *Mesp1* in mesoderm progenitors at E7.5 (*40*). That significant abnormalities may

begin even earlier is suggested by results in in *nipbl*-morphant zebrafish, in which defects in the

initial migration of cardiogenic mesoderm can be detected as early as 18 hours post-fertilization

(*32*). These results suggest that, at least for CHDs, causal events may occur as early as

gastrulation, when the three primary germ layers form and the earliest progenitor cells of major

tissues and organs begin to differentiate (*41*).

In this study, we sought to identify developmental alterations during gastrulation that

might account for birth defects in *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ mice. We used single-cell RNA sequencing

(scRNAseq) to compare the cellular compositions, lineage trajectories, and transcriptional

landscapes of *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ mouse embryos to their WT counterparts at two stages spanning the end of

gastrulation (*42*): the late bud- (LB) stage (E7.5) and cardiac crescent- (CC) stage (E7.75). Our

findings reveal that *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos have the same cell populations as WT embryos but display

subtle misallocation of specific mesodermal cell populations. Our evidence suggests this occurs as

a result of alterations in specific cell fate decisions, including the choice by mesoderm cells to progress toward a non-cardiac versus cardiac fate. Our observations strongly suggest these events cannot be attributed to changes in apoptosis, cell proliferation, global developmental delay, or the structure of cell lineages. As in earlier research, we observed that most gene expression changes in *Nipbl*-deficient tissues at these stages were small (*16, 28, 32, 33*), but we also identified several key developmental genes that are more markedly misexpressed in *Nipbl*^{+/-} embryos, the most notable of which was *Nanog*. *Nipbl*^{+/-} embryos failed to downregulate *Nanog* at the end of gastrulation, which normally occurs in all but germ cells. As a result, the misexpression of *Nanog* target genes was observed in all germ layers. We also saw substantial underexpression of *Hox* genes and overexpression of Nodal signaling genes, which play roles in anterior-posterior and left-right patterning, respectively. As a result, we propose a model in which birth defects in CdLS arise from the prolonged overexpression of *Nanog* and dysregulation of developmental pathways governing axial patterning, resulting in the misdirection of cell fate decisions, and misallocation of specific progenitor cell populations.

Results

Gastrula-stage *Nipbl*^{+/-} mice display the same cell populations as are found in WT mice

To investigate early factors influencing birth defects in CdLS, we generated WT and *Nipbl*^{+/-} mouse embryos using a floxed *Nipbl* allele (*40*). To ensure an accurate accounting of cell populations and proportions at well-defined stages of early embryonic development, we generated a large excess of embryos and sorted them into groups of narrowly defined stage based on morphological criteria (*43*). Using the 10X Genomics Chromium Single Cell Expression platform (*44*), we performed scRNAseq on 5 WT and 6 *Nipbl*^{+/-} samples of late bud stage (LB) embryos (E7.5), and 8 WT and 8 *Nipbl*^{+/-} samples of cardiac crescent stage (CC) embryos (E7.75) (Fig. 1A and fig. S1). Given the low cell numbers in individual LB-stage embryos, and the 10X Genomics Chromium Single Cell Expression system's capture efficiency, samples at the LB stage consisted

of pairs of embryos, whereas at the CC-stage they consisted of single embryos. Pairing LB-stage

embryos facilitated the capture of rare cell groups, such as primordial germ cells, which typically

comprise about 50 cells per embryo at this stage (*45*).

At LB-stage, we captured a median of 2,537 cells per sample, with a median of 17,301

RNA transcripts per cell (fig. S2 and table S1). At CC-stage, we captured a median of 4,116 cells

per sample, with a median of 14,997 RNA transcripts per cell (table S1). As expected, all *Nipbl*^{+/-}

embryos expressed both *Cre* and *Betageo*, which report an inactivated *Nipbl* allele (*40*), while

WT embryos did not (fig. S3, A and B). *Nipbl*^{+/-} embryos across both stages expressed *Nipbl* at

levels that were approximately 50% lower than WT counterparts (fig. S3C).

We corrected for batch effects among embryos of identical stage and genotype using

Seurat's integration protocol (*46*) (Fig. 1B and fig. S4), which identifies anchors (cells of similar

gene expression across samples of the same biological condition) and uses them to align cells into

a space shared by all samples. Recognizing that all cells in *Nipbl*^{+/-} tissues exhibit substantial gene

expression changes (*28*), and considering that clustering algorithms rely on differences in gene

expression among cells (*46*), we implemented measures to prevent our cell clustering from being

skewed by gene expression alterations attributable to *Nipbl*-haploinsufficiency. We did this by

first clustering cells from WT samples (Fig. 1B), using a robust iterative clustering method that

considered both intra-cluster stability and inter-cluster variation (fig. S5) to determine the optimal

number of clusters for cells at each developmental stage. WT cells were clustered into 18 cell

populations at LB-stage (Fig. 1C) and 26 cell populations at CC-stage (Fig. 1D). We then

projected *Nipbl*^{+/-} cells onto these WT cell populations at corresponding stages (Fig. 1, B to D).

We observed that all *Nipbl*^{+/-} cells could be projected to WT cell populations, with each WT

population receiving some *Nipbl*^{+/-} cells (Fig. 1, C and D). This pattern held true across individual

Nipbl^{+/-} samples, as well as the total *Nipbl*^{+/-} cells in aggregate at each stage (Fig. 1, E and F).

These results suggest that *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ cells contribute to all clusters, but as described later (Fig. 3),

they do so in proportions that are not always identical.

scRNAseq captured cells from all germ layers and progenitors of major tissues

To assign biological identities to clustered cell populations, we used WT cells as a

reference. For each WT cell population, we performed differential gene expression analysis

(DGEA) by comparing it to all other cells within embryos of identical stage (Mann-Whitney U

test). We detected markers indicative of germ layer identity in every cluster (data S1, data S2, and

table S2), enabling us to associate each cluster with a specific germ layer at each developmental

stage (Fig. 2A). Figure 2B displays all cells from all samples, categorizing them into germ layers

at both LB- and CC-stages of development. Figures 2C and 2D further depict the assignment of

cells based on the expression of germ layer markers, at LB- and CC-stages, respectively. These

markers include those for ectoderm, such as *Utf1, Sox2,* and *Pou3f1*, mesoderm, including *T,*

Hand1, Vim, Twist1, and *Prrx2*, and endoderm, *Ttr*.

To identify cell types within germ layers, we re-applied DGEA after clustering individual

germ layers. For the endoderm, this enabled us to identify definitive endoderm progenitors (DEP)

(*Sox4* and *Foxa2),* as well as extraembryonic endoderm (XEnd) (*Hnf4a* and *Tbx3)* at LB-stage

(Fig. 2E, data S3, and table S3). In CC-stage embryos, we captured identical cell types in the

endoderm, and additionally, visceral endoderm (VE) (*Hnf4a* and *Esx1*) (Fig. 2F, data S4, and

table S3). DEPs and XEnd give rise to the gut and placenta, respectively.

Within the ectoderm of LB-stage embryos, we identified early progenitor populations

including intraembryonic ectoderm progenitors (IEPs) (*Pou3f1* and *Otx2*), neural ectoderm

progenitors (NEPs) (*Cdx1* and *Nkx1-2),* and surface ectoderm (SE) (*Id1, Msx2,* and *Msx1*) (Fig. 2,

E and G, data S5, and table S4). Additionally, we detected a small portion of extraembryonic

ectoderm (XEct) (*Efl5* and *Tead4*), which was expected, as a small quantity of XEct cells was

included in our dissection. By CC-stage, IEPs, NEPs, and XEct were no longer detectable, a

phenomenon previously noted (*47*). Rather, we continued to detect surface ectoderm (SE). We

also detected six distinct neural populations (Fig. 2, F and H, data S6, and table S4). These neural

populations included: prosencephalic neural plate (*Six3* and *Hesx1*), mesencephalic neural plate

(*En1* and *Pax2*), rhombencephalic neural plate (*Hoxa1* and *Hes3*), midline neural plate (*Foxa2*

and *Nkx2-9*), spinal neural plate (*Sox2* and *Ezr*), and neural crest (*Pax3* and *Foxd3*) (data S6).

Collectively, these populations constitute the nascent progenitors of the brain, spinal cord, and

peripheral nervous system.

Within the mesoderm of LB-stage embryos, we identified six distinct groups of cells,

detailed in Fig. 2, E and G, data S7, and table S5. These consisted of: 1) neuromesodermal

progenitors (NMPs): expressing markers *T,* and *Nkx1-2*; 2) derivatives of NMPs: including

Mesp1-expressing mesoderm progenitors (MMPs) (Mesp1), two types of first heart field cells

(FHF1 and FHF2) marked by *Hand1*; cells of the second heart field (SHF) with *Id2* and *Mef2c*;

and three kinds of paraxial mesoderm cells, further categorized into paraxial mesoderm

progenitors (PMPs) (*Tbx6* and *Meis2)*, trunk paraxial mesoderm (TPM) (*Foxc2* and *Tcf15*), and

head paraxial mesoderm (HPM) (*Alx1* and *Tcf15*); 3) hematopoietic cells: including

hemangioblasts (HMBs) (*Tal1* and *Etv2*) and primitive erythrocytes (PEs) (*Gata1* and *Tal1*); and

4) two rare populations: comprising cells of the primitive node (PN) (*Noto* and *Foxj1*), and

primordial germ cells (PGCs) (*Tfap2c* and *Msx1*). At CC-stage, we detected all mesodermal

populations found earlier, along with several that emerge later in development. These comprised

lateral plate mesoderm progenitors (LPMP) (*Tlx2,* and *T*), additional populations of *Mesp1*-

expressing mesoderm progenitors (MMP1 and MMP2) (*Mesp1*), cardiomyocytes (CDMs) (*Mef2c*

and *Nkx2-5*), and presomitic mesoderm (PSM) (*Tcf15* and *Meox1*) (Fig. 2, F and H, data S8, and

table S5). Collectively, these progenitors are responsible for the formation of structures including

skeletal muscle, bone, blood, and heart.

199 ***Nipbl^{+/-}* mice have fewer mesoderm cells, primitive erythrocytes, and first heart field cells,**

200 **and more paraxial mesoderm cells**

201   We analyzed the cellular composition of embryos at both LB- and CC-stage, quantifying

202 the proportion of cells within each germ layer that contributed to the total cell count. LB-stage

203 mutants exhibited 13% fewer mesoderm cells (Fig. 3, A and B, data S9), while concurrently

204 displaying a greater proportion of endoderm and ectoderm cells. We sought to ascertain if this

205 decrease in mesoderm was generalized or restricted to specific subpopulations. Focusing on LB-

206 stage embryos, we merged mesodermal cell subpopulations of similar biological identity together

207 (FHF1 + FHF2 into FHF, and PSM + CPM into PM) and calculated the percentage of cells across

208 these subpopulations, relative to the overall mesoderm (Fig. 3C). The findings (Fig. 3D) revealed

209 a 77% reduction in PEs *Nipbl^{+/-}* embryos (data S10). Additionally, differences were observed in

210 two mesodermal derivatives of the neuromesoderm: 1) Mutants had 24% fewer first heart field

211 cells (FHF) (Fig. 3D); and 2) *Nipbl^{+/-}* embryos showed a contrasting pattern in paraxial mesoderm

212 (PM), a 33% increase in PM cells compared to WT (Fig. 3D).

213 ***Nipbl^{+/-}* embryos do not show changes in developmental timing**

214   Cellular composition changes very quickly during and after gastrulation; one possible

215 explanation for differences in proportions of cell types would be a change in the overall pace of

216 development, such that embryos of one genotype were slightly delayed or accelerated relative to

217 the other.   To investigate whether this was the case for *Nipbl^{+/-}* embryos, we employed

218 pseudotemporal ordering. To ensure that pseudotime accurately mirrored real developmental

219 time, we augmented our analysis with scRNAseq data from an additional two pairs of WT

220 embryos at the early bud (EB) stage and two pairs of WT embryos at the early head fold (EHF)

221 stage (Fig. 3E and fig. S6). EB-stage embryos are two hours younger and EHF-stage embryos are

222 two hours older than LB-stage embryos, so these supplementary samples provided the temporal

223 resolution necessary to discern even minor changes (less than 2 hours) in developmental timing

(*43*). We eliminated low-quality cells and doublets (Fig. 3F, fig. S7 and table S6) before

integrating cells of the same stage (fig. S8). We then clustered EB-stage cells into 8 distinct

populations and EHF-stage cells into 13 (fig. S9, A and B). Each population was subsequently

annotated as ectoderm (Ect), mesoderm (Mes), or endoderm (End) (Fig. 3G, and fig. S9, C and D)

based on the expression of specific germ layer markers (data S11 and S12, and table S7).

We ordered cells from each embryo at every developmental stage (EB, LB, and EHF)

using URD (*48*), which constructs a diffusion map of transition probabilities and, starting with an

assigned group of root cells, performs a probabilistic breadth-first graph search using the

transition probabilities. When we visualized the arrangement of cells from each stage based on

their density in pseudotime, we found that cells from WT embryos ordered in accordance to their

developmental stage: EB came first, followed by LB, and finally EHF (Fig. 3H, data S13), while

showing partial overlap between cells of different stages. This confirmed that the pseudotime

values we acquired were an accurate representation of actual developmental timing. When the

pseudotime ordering of WT and *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ LB-stage embryos were compared with each other, we

found no statistically significant deviations (Kolmogorov-Smirnov test) (Fig. 3I). These findings

argue that the observed reduction in mesoderm cells in *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ mice at LB-stage cannot be

attributed to overall developmental delay or acceleration. The fact that *Nipbl*-haploinsufficiency

does not result in global changes in developmental timing strongly suggests that birth defects in

CdLS result from specific cellular or molecular irregularities within individual developmental

pathways, and not a globally altered developmental timeline.

***Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos do not show changes in cell lineage trajectory**

To discern whether alterations in the sizes of cell population in *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos were

attributable to changes in the structures of cell lineages, we used scVelo (*49*) to compute the RNA

velocity for all mesoderm cells from LB-stage embryos. RNA velocity provides a predictive

metric for a cell's future transcriptional state, gauging the equilibrium between the synthesis of

spliced mRNA from unspliced mRNA and mRNA degradation. scVelo was used to build cell

lineage trajectories separately for WT and *Nipbl*^{+/-} embryos at LB-stage (Fig. 4A). In WT

mesoderm, five distinct lineages were discernible (Fig. 4B, data S14), with neuromesodermal

progenitors (NMPs) giving rise to three terminal fates via four specific pathways. These pathways

encompassed the differentiation of NMPs into FHF, SHF, and PM. It's intriguing to note that

Mesp1-expressing cells have the versatility to differentiate into both cardiac and paraxial

mesoderm. While *Mesp1* is typically recognized as a cardinal factor for cardiac specification (*50*),

our findings suggest its influence may extend beyond this role into paraxial specification as well.

As a result, the paraxial mesoderm (PM) has dual progenitors, PMPs and MMPs. We also

observed a fifth lineage, independent of NMP lineages, where HMBs differentiate into PEs.

Notably, PGCs and PN cells did not form part of any identified lineages. Examination of the

mesoderm in *Nipbl*^{+/-} embryos revealed lineage trajectories identical to those in WT (Fig. 4A,

data S15). These observations suggest that variations in the overall structures of cell lineage

pathways do not explain differences in the number of FHF and PM cells in *Nipbl*^{+/-} embryos (Fig.

3, B and D).

Nipbl^{+/-} embryos misdirect mesoderm cells into paraxial mesoderm at the expense of the first

heart field

To explore whether variations in cell fate decisions might be responsible for the observed

differences in the numbers of FHF and PM cells in *Nipbl*^{+/-} embryos, we employed CellRank (*51*)

to compute the likelihood of cells from the mesoderm (excluding HMBs, PEs, PGCs, and PN

cells) transitioning terminally into cells of SHF, FHF, or PM fate (data S16 and data S17).

HMBs, PEs, PGCs, and PN were omitted from the calculation because our trajectories derived

from RNA velocity indicated that these populations do not ultimately transition into SHF, FHF, or

PM. In CellRank, the absorption probability defines the likelihood that a specific cell type will

make a transition to a terminal state, derived using RNA velocity-directed, random walks from

initial to terminal cell states (*51*). We represented these probabilities in UMAP space, with shades

of blue to signify low probabilities and red for high probabilities. Fig. 4, C and D illustrates that

the probabilities of NMPs, MMPs, and PMPs making a terminal transition solely into SHF do not

vary significantly between *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ and WT embryos, as quantified in the adjacent violin plots.

However, the transition probabilities into FHF are 27-48% lower in *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos (Fig. 4, E

and F), while the probabilities for transitions into PM are 9-11% higher (Fig. 4, G and H). Taken

together, these results support the hypothesis that disparities in cell numbers in *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos

stem from a misdirection of cells from FHF pathway towards a PM fate (Fig. 4I).

***Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos do not show evidence of altered apoptotic activity or cell proliferation**

Altered cell numbers in different mesodermal subpopulations of *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos could

conceivably also stem from modifications in rates of cell death or proliferation. Focusing on

apoptotic activity, we carried out differential gene expression analysis (DGEA) on WT and

Nipbl$^{+/-}$ embryos at LB-stage, using genes associated with apoptosis from two well-known gene

sets: Reactome Apoptosis (Hardwick et al., 2004) and Hallmark Apoptosis (*52*). We ranked each

gene by minimum Q-value, arranging them from lowest to highest, and visualized their

expression across all germ layers in *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos as heatmaps of the fold change relative to

their WT counterparts (fig. S10, A and B, and data S18). For both gene sets, we saw no visible

pattern of differences in the expression of genes with even the lowest Q-values between any of

the germ layers in both WT and *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos. Although genes from these gene sets tend to

mark cells with the capacity for apoptosis, their expression levels are not necessarily indicative of

cells actively undergoing apoptosis. We therefore also turned to a gene set identified in a study

that compared 180 apoptosis-associated genes in hematopoietic cells that were either healthy or

undergoing apoptosis (*53*), and identified 93 apoptosis-associated genes that were differentially

expressed. When we examined these genes in the germ layers of *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos, we also saw no

visible difference with WT embryos (fig. S10C and data S18). These data suggest that changes in

apoptotic activity are unlikely to be a major contributor to differences in cell type proportions.

300   To examine cell proliferation, we again employed DGEA across all germ layers of both

WT and *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos at LB-stage, focusing on the meta-PCNA gene set, an ensemble of

genes that exhibit the strongest positive correlation with PCNA expression, a recognized

biomarker of cell proliferation (*54*). When we visualized the expression of these genes in the

same manner as the gene sets above, we found no discernible variations in the expression levels

of the meta-PCNA genes between the germ layers of WT and *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos (fig. S11A and

data S19). As another measure of cell proliferation, we used Seurat to assign cells from LB-stage

WT and *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos into phases (G1, S, and G2/M) of the cell cycle (*55*). Seurat does this by

calculating a cell cycle phase score based on the expression of canonical S phase and G2/M phase

markers. Seurat considers these marker sets to be anticorrelated in their expression, so when cells

express neither, they are considered to be in G1 phase. As expected, in all germ layers, cells from

LB-stage WT and *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos assigned into all phases of the cell cycle (fig. S11B and data

S20). In all germ layers, there was no statistically significant difference in the proportions of cells

in each cell cycle between WT and *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos (fig. S11C). We therefore concluded that

extensive alterations in cell proliferation are not likely responsible for disparities in cell

subpopulations.

Nipbl$^{+/-}$ mice underexpress genes predicted to drive the transition of mesoderm cells into

first heart field

318   Next, we sought to investigate whether the misdirection of mesoderm cells in *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$

embryos at the LB-stage could be attributed to the misexpression of genes that drive the transition

of mesoderm cells into either FHF or PM. To answer this question, we also employed CellRank to

identify potential driver genes of the FHF and PM fates, using those mesoderm cells that

specifically contribute to these developmental pathways (Fig. 5, A and D). CellRank achieves this

by calculating a correlation coefficient between the likelihood (absorption probabilities) of cells

progressing towards a particular lineage fate and the expression level of individual genes (*51*). In

this context, genes with positive correlation coefficients are considered drivers, as their

expression elevates alongside an increase in absorption probabilities. Conversely, genes with

negative correlation coefficients are deemed anti-drivers, as their expression diminishes with

increasing absorption probabilities. To minimize the risk of false discoveries, we set a threshold,

accepting genes with correlation coefficients greater than 0.25 as drivers and those less than -0.25

as anti-drivers.

CellRank identified 383 genes as drivers of FHF fate (Fig. 5B and data S21). Intriguingly,

11% of them were transcription factors. Among these were *Hand1* and *Tbx20*, transcription

factors previously recognized for their roles in promoting FHF development (*56, 57*). Several

transcription factors that have not been previously linked to FHF development were also predicted

to be FHF drivers, including *Msx1, Msx2, Foxf1, Hoxb6,* and *Pitx1*. Of these, *Hoxb6* and *Pitx1*

play significant roles in segmentation and patterning. Gene set over-representation analysis using

MSigDB's Hallmark gene sets (*52*), which characterize well-defined biological states and

processes, revealed that FHF drivers were significantly enriched in genes associated with TGF-

beta signaling (Fig. 5C), which has been previously described in cardiomyocyte proliferation (*58,*

59) Conversely, CellRank predicted 225 genes to be anti-drivers of FHF fate, with 16% being

transcription factors. Among these were genes known to be involved in pluripotency (*Pou5f1*),

mesoderm specification/expansion (*T, Cdx1, Sp5,* and *Zic3*), anterior-posterior patterning (*Hoxb1*

and *Hoxa1*), and paraxial mesoderm development (*Hes7, Meis2, Tbx6, Gbx2,* and *Foxb1*).

CellRank predicted 66 genes to be drivers and 115 genes to be anti-drivers of PM fate

(Fig. 5E and data S22). A substantial proportion (22%) of PM drivers were transcription factors.

These included *Tcf15* and *Foxc2*, transcription factors that have been previously recognized for

their role in regulating PM development (Fig. 5E) (*60, 61*). Potentially novel PM drivers included

Irx transcription factors *Irx5, Irx1,* and *Irx3*. Historically, the Irx family has been associated with

defining patterns and establishing boundaries in developing body parts and segments (*62*). PM

drivers did not exhibit significant over-representation of any Hallmark gene sets (Fig. 5F).

Of all PM anti-drivers, 20% were identified as transcription factors, including *Hand1, Cdx2,*

Msx2, Msx1, and *Cdx4*. Intriguingly, *Hand1, Msx2, and Msx1* had also been predicted as drivers

for FHF. This overlap prompted us to conduct a comparative analysis between PM anti-drivers

and FHF drivers. Our examination revealed that 40% of all PM anti-drivers were concurrently

FHF drivers (Fig. 5, G and H). The confluence of expressed genes between FHF drivers and PM

anti-drivers seems to indicate that during normal development, increased expression of these

shared genes by mesoderm cells predisposes them to transition into FHF, while decreased

expression of these same genes steers them towards PM (Fig. 5I). This set of shared genes may

thus be considered to be a "lineage branching signature".

How does *Nipbl*-haploinsufficiency impact the expression of driver and anti-driver genes?

Examination of *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos revealed significant misexpression in NMP, MMP, and PMP

cells of numerous driver and anti-driver genes associated with both FHF (first heart field) and PM

(paraxial mesoderm) (Fig. 5J, Fig. 5K, data S23, and data S24). Interestingly, most affected genes

were downregulated. To ascertain whether this was more than coincidental, we employed a Chi-

square analysis, which revealed a striking pattern: *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos underexpressed FHF drivers

at a rate far higher than they overexpressed (166 out of 174 DEGs). Similarly, they commonly

underexpressed PM anti-drivers (40 out of 51), aligning with expectations since many PM anti-

drivers serve dual roles as FHF drivers. Among the underexpressed FHF drivers in *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$

embryos, 6% were transcription factors (Fig. 5J), including well-known regulators of FHF

development like *Hand1* as well as other factors such as *Foxf1, Prdm6, Msx1, Hoxb6,* and *Pitx1*.

These results suggest that, in the context of *Nipbl*-haploinsufficiency, skewed differentiation of

mesoderm cells towards the PM lineage at the expense of FHF lineage may be attributable to the

underexpression of genes driving FHF fate.

Nipbl^{+/-} mice show large changes in the expression of major developmental regulators in all

germ layers

376   Using DGEA comparing the germ layers of LB-stage WT and _Nipbl_$^{+/-}$ embryos, we found

that _Nipbl_$^{+/-}$ embryos misexpressed hundreds of genes across all germ layers, with

underexpression being more common than overexpression in all cases (Fig. 6A). The majority of

gene expression changes were subtle, i.e., less than 2-fold (Fig. 6A). This pattern agrees with

earlier studies (_16, 28, 32, 33_), supporting a broad role of _Nipbl_ in enhancing gene expression.

Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) for MSigDB's Hallmark gene sets found that _Nipbl_$^{+/-}$

embryos showed enrichment, and no de-enrichment, for 4 out of 40 gene sets: oxidative

phosphorylation in the mesoderm, Mtorc1 signaling in the ectoderm, and G2M checkpoint, Myc

targets, and E2F targets in the endoderm (Fig. 6B). In these cases, however, enrichment was

driven by a relatively small number of the genes in these sets; the vast majority were either not

differentially expressed in _Nipbl_$^{+/-}$ embryos or showed changes much smaller than 1.5-fold (Fig.

6C).

388   Genes exhibiting substantial changes in expression – greater than 2-fold upregulated or

downregulated – were nevertheless observed across every germ layer of _Nipbl_$^{+/-}$ embryos (Fig.

6A). Individual curation of these genes unveiled associations with developmental processes (Fig.

6D, data S25, data S26, and data S27). Within the mesoderm, two- to six-fold upregulation of

genes involved in Nodal signaling, including _Tdgf1, Eomes, Lefty2, Lhx1_, was observed (_63-66_) .

At the same time, three clusters of genes were robustly downregulated: those associated with

primitive erythropoiesis, including _Gata1_ and _Klf1_ (2-3 fold) (_67, 68_), _Hox_ genes such as _Hoxb8,_

Hoxb5, and _Hoxa5_ (2-fold), and genes associated with Notch signaling, including _Hey2_ and _Nr2f2_

(2-fold) (_69, 70_) (Fig. 6D).

In the ectoderm, five transcription factor genes tied to the hedgehog signaling pathway were downregulated more than 2-fold, including *Pax2, Sox9, Nkx6-1, Sox1,* and *Irx2* (*71-75*) (Fig. 6D). In the endoderm, there was a distinct 2-3 fold upregulation of several adult hemoglobin genes such as *Hbb-bt, Hba-a2, Hba-a1,* and *Hbb-bs* (Fig. 6D). Intriguingly, consistent patterns were evident in both the ectoderm and endoderm, mirroring the mesoderm's trends. Genes related to Nodal signaling were upregulated, and *Hox* genes were noticeably downregulated across all germ layers. The magnitude of changes in Nodal signaling and *Hox* genes, being greater than 2-fold in both directions, and their critical role in various germ layers strongly suggest that disruptions in these pathways could be major contributors to phenotypes observed in *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ mice.

Nipbl$^{+/-}$ mice overexpress _Nanog_ during and after gastrulation

To uncover developmental processes that might be the most broadly impacted in *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos, we used the large, significant, changes in gene expression (greater than 2-fold up or down) as input data for STRING (*76*), a database and algorithm that constructs a network of potential gene interactions (data S28), in this case limiting predictions to those informed by experiments demonstrating co-expression or protein-protein interactions. The outcome of this analysis (Figs. 7, A-B) revealed that many genes with substantial expression changes in *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos are predicted to interact either directly or indirectly with *Nanog*. Indeed, *Nanog* itself was overexpressed across all three germ layers in *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos, with a more pronounced overexpression, exceeding 2-fold, in the mesoderm and endoderm (Fig. 7B).

Nanog, which encodes a transcription factor, is notably expressed at two junctures during mouse embryonic development. Initially, it appears at the blastocyst stage, where it plays an essential role in sustaining the pluripotency of the inner cell mass cells (*77*). Subsequently, during gastrulation, *Nanog* expression temporarily surges, only to be silenced as cells transition out of the primitive streak (*78*). This expression pattern could be observed directly in our data: In Fig.

7C, we ordered mesodermal cell populations from LB-stage embryos by their stage in

gastrulation, as inferred from their RNA velocity positions (Fig. 4A). In WT NMPs, *Nanog* is

expressed at a relatively high level. As cells move through successive stages of gastrulation

within WT embryos, *Nanog's* expression exhibits a consistent decline (Fig. 7C and data S29),

reaching near zero in cells of the first and second heart field (FHF and SHF). An exception to this

trend occurs in primordial germ cells, which are known to maintain elevated *Nanog* expression

(*79*). In contrast, *Nipbl*^{+/-} embryos (Fig. 7C) *Nanog* expression remained elevated across all cell

populations. Although expression still falls after the NMP stage, in *Nipbl*^{+/-} cells, *Nanog* never

falls to WT levels. This is evident even in primordial germ cells. Moreover, the overexpression of

Nanog in *Nipbl*^{+/-} embryos is sustained up to the CC-stage (Fig. 7D and table S7), where it

reaches a 10-fold increase over WT levels. These observations indicate that *Nipbl*-

haploinsufficiency leads to a marked failure of *Nanog* downregulation.

Another transcription factor that plays a role in maintaining pluripotency is *Pou5f1* (Oct4).

From studies in embryonic stem cells, it is known that *Pou5f1* promotes the expression of *Nanog*,

and conversely, *Nanog* promotes the expression of *Pou5f1* (*80*). Given this, we were curious

about whether *Nipbl*^{+/-} embryos might also overexpress of *Pou5f1*. Despite the fact that *Pou5f1* is

more highly expressed than *Nanog*, we did not observe any statistically significant difference in

Pou5f1 expression across mesodermal cell types or throughout LB-stage *Nipbl*^{+/-} embryos (Fig.

7E, Fig. 7F, data S30, and table S8). However, a more than 2-fold elevation in *Pou5f1* expression

was detected in *Nipbl*^{+/-} embryos at CC-stage (Fig. 7F).

We sought to determine whether elevated *Nanog* expression in *Nipbl*^{+/-} embryos during

gastrulation might reflect some sort of non-specific overactivity of the *Nanog* gene. To investigate

this hypothesis, we looked at *Nanog* expression in WT and *Nipbl*^{+/-} embryonic stem cells (ESCs),

as ESCs are known to express *Nanog* (as do to the blastocyst inner cell mass cells from which

ESCs are derived). We generated WT and *Nipbl*^{+/-} (ESCs) by treating *Nipbl*[Flex/+] (*Nipbl*^{+/-}) ESCs

with Flp recombinase (which inverts a gene trap in *Nipbl*-Flex ESCs in such a way that reverses

gene trapping) to produce *Nipbl*^{Flrt/+} (WT) ESCs (Fig. 7G) (*40*). We assessed *Nanog* expression in

nine independent clones from each genotype, using quantitative reverse transcription polymerase

chain reaction (RT-qPCR),. We observed no discernible difference in *Nanog* expression between

Nipbl^{+/-} and WT ESCs, a pattern that was also observed for *Pou5f1* (Fig. 7H and data S31). As a

control, we showed that *Nipbl*^{+/-} ESCs exhibit the expected reduced expression of *Nipbl*, as also

seen in *Nipbl*^{+/-} embryos. Collectively, these findings support the conclusion that the

overexpression of *Nanog* in *Nipbl*^{+/-} LB-stage and CC-stage embryos is result of a specific failure

to appropriately suppress *Nanog* following gastrulation, rather than unusually elevated *Nanog*

expression persisting from early embryogenesis.

***Nanog* overexpression accounts for many of the gene expression changes in *Nipbl*^{+/-} mice**

As a critical regulator of pluripotency in early embryonic development, *Nanog* directly

influences the expression of a multitude of other genes. This relationship prompted us to ask how

many of the gene expression differences in *Nipbl*^{+/-} embryos might be attributable to the

overexpression of *Nanog*. To address this question, we analyzed data from a recent study (*81*) in

which mice were engineered to express *Nanog* under doxycycline-inducible (Dox) control. In that

study, bulk RNA sequencing was performed on untreated (*Nanog* Dox-) and Dox-treated (*Nanog*

Dox+) embryos at stages E7.5 and E9.5, with E7.5 corresponding closely to the LB-stage

embryos analyzed here. The E7.5 *Nanog* Dox+ embryos that were sequenced had been treated

with doxycycline from E4.5 to E7.5, while E9.5 *Nanog* Dox+ embryos were treated with

doxycycline from E6.5 to E9.5. Differential gene expression analysis, performed by the authors,

between *Nanog* Dox- and *Nanog* Dox+ embryos found 726 and 635 differentially expressed genes

(DEGs) at E7.5 and E9.5, respectively.

We analyzed the DEGs in E7.5 and E9.5 *Nanog* Dox+ embryos in three ways. First, we

plotted the fold change in expression of genes in *Nipbl*^{+/-} embryos, as a whole, from that of WT

embryos, at both LB- and CC-stages (Fig. A & C, data S32, and data S33). We colored Genes

significantly overexpressed in *Nipbl*^{+/-} embryos pink and those significantly underexpressed, light

blue. We colored DEGs in *Nipbl*^{+/-} embryos that are also significantly overexpressed or

underexpressed in *Nanog* Dox+ embryos, red and blue, respectively. Remarkably, at the LB-

stage, *Nipbl*^{+/-} embryos overexpressed 84.4% and underexpressed 76.5% of the same genes

identified in E7.5 *Nanog* Dox+ embryos (Fig. 8B). At CC-stage, *Nipbl*^{+/-} embryos overexpressed

76.8% and underexpressed 59.8% of the same genes detected in E9.5 *Nanog* Dox+ embryos (Fig.

8D). Statistical evaluation using both the Chi-Square and Binomial tests affirmed that the

probability of such overlaps occurring by chance were exceedingly low (Fig. 8, B and D). At CC-

stage, we discovered that *Nipbl*^{+/-} embryos also bore substantial similarities to E9.5 *Nanog* Dox+

embryos in their gene expression profiles (data S34).

Second, we examined how closely *Nipbl*^{+/-} embryos mirrored the gene expression

alterations of *Nanog* Dox+ embryos, not only in terms of the genes affected but also the

magnitude of their fold changes. To do this, we categorized genes into two groups at each stage:

those overexpressed in *Nanog* Dox+ embryos (ranked from top to middle) and those

underexpressed (ranked from bottom to middle), ordering them by ascending Q-value as in (*81*).

Next, we constructed a heatmap that visually captures the fold changes in gene expression within

Nanog Dox+ whole embryos, contrasting them with the corresponding fold changes in the

individual germ layers of *Nipbl*^{+/-} embryos (Fig. 8, E and F). E7.5 *Nanog* Dox+ embryos

overexpressed genes linked with the Nodal signaling pathway (*Tdgf1, Eomes, Fgf5, Lhx1, Foxd3,*

Lefty2, and *Nodal*) (*63-66, 82-84*) and those integral to maintaining pluripotency (*Nanog* and

Pou5f1) (*80*). Concurrently, they underexpressed genes associated with primitive erythropoiesis

(*Hbb-bh1, Tal1,* and *Lmo2*) (*85, 86*) and specific *Hox* genes (*Hoxa1, Hoxb3os,* and *Hoxb1*).

Strikingly, this pattern of fold changes was mirrored, to a remarkable degree, in the germ layers of

LB-stage *Nipbl*^{+/-} embryos (Fig. 8E). E9.5 *Nanog* Dox+ embryos overexpressed not only *Nanog*

but also several genes connected to the Wnt signaling pathway, such as *Ror2, Ptk7,* and *Fzd2* (*87-*

89). In parallel, a pronounced underexpression was observed in numerous hemoglobin genes

(*Hbb-bh1, Hbb-y, Hba-x,* and *Hba-a1*) as well as genes encoding definitive erythrocyte proteins,

including *Gypa, Spta1, Ank1,* and *Sptb* (*90-93*). This pattern of underexpressed genes was

strongly mirrored in the germ layers of CC-stage *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos. In the CC-stage *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$

embryos, only a select few overexpressed genes were replicated, the most prominent of which

was *Nanog* itself.

Third, we again plotted the fold change in expression of genes in *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos from

that of WT embryos, but this time across all germ layers, rather than across whole embryos (Fig.

8, G and H). Genes colored red and blue are DEGs in *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos that are also significantly

overexpressed or underexpressed in *Nanog* Dox+ embryos, respectively. When we manually

curated the red and blue genes that were expressed with more than 2-fold change, we found that at

LB-stage, the mesoderm of *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos underexpressed genes associated with primitive

erythropoiesis (*Hbb-bh1*, *Klf1*, and *Gata1*) (*67, 68*) and hedgehog signaling (*Pax2* and *Sox9*) (*71,*

72) (Fig. 8G). All germ layers showed upregulation of genes involved with Nodal signaling

(*Tdgf1, Lefty2, Eomes, Lhx1,* and *Ffg5*) (*63-66, 82*) and underexpression of *Hox* genes (*Hoxb8*

and Hoxb6). At CC-stage, all germ layers of *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos showed downregulation of genes

associated with definitive erythropoiesis, encompassing adult hemoglobins including *Hbb-y, Hba-*

a1, and *Hba-x* (Fig. 8H, data S35, data S36, and data S37). These findings lead us to infer that

many of the largest changes in gene expression that occur in *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos, as well as the

developmental pathways they regulate, are likely attributable to the overexpression of *Nanog*.

Nipbl$^{+/-}$ mice exhibit delayed expression of anterior *Hox* genes

We noticed in LB-stage *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos exhibited a significant underexpression,

exceeding 2-fold, in *Hox* genes across all germ layers, especially genes within the *Hoxb* cluster

(Fig. 8G). As *Hox* genes are integral to spatial patterning in development, we compared the

expression of all *Hox* genes in *Nipbl$^{+/-}$* embryos with their WT counterparts. The results revealed

extensive misexpression at both LB- and CC-stage. At LB-stage, any *Hox* gene that was

significantly differentially expressed was underexpressed in *Nipbl$^{+/-}$* embryos in every germ layer

where expression was detectable (Fig. 9A). At CC-stage, we observed a trend of underexpression

across all germ layers for the majority of misexpressed *Hox* genes (Fig. 9B), but exceptions were

found in the mesoderm and ectoderm, where a select few *Hox* genes were overexpressed. These

included *Hoxb1* and *Hoxb2* in the mesoderm and *Hoxa1* in the ectoderm, all of which are

characterized as anterior *Hox* genes.

Hox genes are organized into chromosomal clusters that turn on expression in a wave-like

temporal pattern, producing highly structured and sequential activation during development,.

Specifically, genes at the 5' end of the cluster, known as anterior *Hox* genes, are activated early in

development, and progressively silenced as genes further forward the 3' end (posterior *Hox* genes)

are turned on (*94*). To investigate whether our data reflected this known pattern, we examined the

Hoxb genes, as they were the most prominently expressed *Hox* genes at both LB- and CC-stage.

After ordering them according to their chromosomal positions, we plotted their expression within

the mesoderm and ectoderm of WT embryos at the corresponding developmental stages. In the

mesoderm of LB-stage embryos anterior *Hoxb* genes were actively expressed, while posterior

Hoxb genes were only faintly detectable, if at all (Fig. 9C). At CC-stage, the expression of

anterior *Hoxb* genes decreased from their LB-stage levels, accompanied by the emergence of

posterior *Hoxb* gene expression. This dynamic shift in expression aligns closely with the

established understanding of *Hox* gene regulation during development. In contrast, the ectoderm

exhibited a less pronounced pattern, with both anterior and posterior *Hoxb* genes expressing at

minimal levels. Furthermore, no discernible difference in the expression of anterior *Hox*b genes

was detected in the ectoderm between LB- and CC-stage embryos (Fig. 9D).

Next we looked at the expression of *Hoxb* genes in the mesoderm of *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos. As

in WT embryos, anterior *Hoxb* genes were actively expressed at LB-stage, while posterior *Hoxb*

genes were silent (Fig. 9E). However, *Hoxb1* and *Hoxb2* were expressed at levels that were

conspicuously lower than in WT (Fig. 9E). At CC-stage, *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos reflected the general

trend found in WT embryos, with anterior *Hoxb* genes waning in expression as the posterior *Hoxb*

genes began their ascent (Fig. 9F, note axis scale). Interestingly, the two most anterior Hox genes,

Hoxb1 and *Hoxb2* did not decline as much, proportionally, as they did in WT embryos, with the

outcome being that, by CC-stage, expression of *Hoxb1* and *Hoxb2* in *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos was

actually higher than in WT (Fig. 9F). These results collectively provide evidence for a temporal

disruption in the *Hox* gene expression program in *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos. Specifically, Hox genes

appear to be delayed in initiating expression at the LB-stage and similarly tardy in becoming

suppressed at the CC-stage.

Nipbl$^{+/-}$ mice show anteriorization of thoracic vertebrae, with left-right asymmetry

A previous study (*95*) showed that a knockout of *Hoxb1-Hoxb9* in mice led to the

anteriorization of the axial skeleton, characterized by an increased number of thoracic vertebrae

with ribs. Since *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ mice underexpress *Hox* genes and show delayed regulation of anterior

Hox genes, we were curious if similar anteriorizations could be detected in *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ mice (Fig. 9).

To explore this, we analyzed the vertebrae and ribs of 15 WT and 12 littermate *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos

at E18.5, using alizarin red and alcian blue stains. In WT embryos, we confirmed the presence of

the normal count of 13 ribs (Fig. 10A). In contrast, many *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos displayed 14 thoracic

vertebrae, the 14th of which bore a range of rib growths, often displaying left-right asymmetry

(Fig. 10A). We classified the growths of these 14th vertebrae based on severity, ranking them

from low (S1) to high (S5), and documented left-right differences (Fig. 7B). Three out of 7

Nipbl$^{+/-}$ embryos displayed partial growth of a 14th rib on the left side only (S1-S2). These

growths were either cartilage only or disconnected formation of rib nub with cartilage, but never

any whole ribs. Four out of 7 *Nipbl*^{+/-} embryos showed bilateral growth (S3-S5). Partial growth

occurred on both the left and right sides, but complete formation a whole rib only ever occurred,

in one instance, on the right side (S5). In total, 58% of E18.5 *Nipbl*^{+/-} embryos demonstrated some

form of rib growth from a 14th thoracic vertebra (Fig. 10C). These findings suggest that

anteriorization of the axial vertebrae does occur in *Nipbl*^{+/-} embryos, possibly as a result of

delayed activation (and inactivation) of anterior Hox gene expression.

Discussion

The *Nipbl*^{+/-} mouse, a model of the multisystem birth defects syndrome known as Cornelia

de Lange Syndrome (CdLS) (*96*), offers a distinct lens through which to explore the genetic

origins of birth defects. *Nipbl*^{+/-} mice display many of the same birth defects observed in human

CdLS and a key feature of *Nipbl*-deficiency across various organisms is quantitative alterations in

gene expression, including both upregulation and downregulation, affecting at least hundreds of

genes in every tissue (*28, 40, 97*). Previous research into animal models of *Nipbl*-deficiency

suggested that the root causes of birth defects in CdLS likely manifest during a period when

progenitor cell populations are being formed for all major tissue and organ lineages (*32, 40*).

Therefore, to elucidate how early, cell-type-specific changes in gene expression might contribute

to the onset of birth defects, we used scRNAseq to conduct a comparative analysis between

Nipbl^{+/-} embryos and their WT littermates on key developmental stages, focusing on the

conclusion of gastrulation, LB-stage (approximately E7.5) to early CC-stage (approximately

E7.75) (*41*).

Changes in the sizes of different mesodermal cell populations in *Nipbl*^{+/-} embryos

foreshadow pathological changes in tissue composition and patterning in CdLS

As shown in Fig. 1, we showed that *Nipbl*^{+/-} embryos do not lack any cell populations

found in WT embryos. However, LB-stage *Nipbl*^{+/-} embryos possess fewer total mesoderm cells,

and within the mesoderm, they had fewer PEs and FHF cells, and more PM cells (Fig. 2). These

changes, while not always large, may be physiologically significant. For example, the observation

that PEs are reduced in number is consistent with defects in blood formation and circulation

observed in *Nipbl*-morphant zebrafish (*32*), and thrombocytopenia in CdLS (*98*).

In addition, the reduction in FHF cell number could contribute to the presence of CHDs in

Nipbl$^{+/-}$ mice and individuals with CdLS (*40, 99*). In a prior study in *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ mice, the majority of

CHDs observed were in heart regions (right ventricle, atrial/ventricular septa) considered to be

derivatives of the second heart field (SHF) (*40, 100*). Although FHF cells are not thought to give

rise directly to "SHF structures", they likely exert indirect effects on the development of SHF

derivatives. This echoes the conclusions of (*40*), who found that complex interactions between

different cell types (even between non-cardiogenic and cardiogenic cell types), influence the

incidence of CHDs in *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ mice.

The increased numbers of PM cells at LB-stage are intriguing, as it correlates with defects

in PM derivatives, such as the axial skeleton (Fig. 10) and limbs in *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ mice (*101*), both of

which are notable features of CdLS (*102, 103*). How an overabundance of PM cells, however,

could contribute to limb defects is not obvious. Nevertheless, these findings suggest that birth

defects may arise not only from the absence of specific progenitor cell populations, but also from

progenitor cell misallocation events that alter relative proportions of cell types.

Progenitor cell misallocation in *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ correlates with changes in expression of cell fate

driver genes

Nipbl$^{+/-}$ embryos at LB-stage did not exhibit global changes in apoptotic activity, cell

proliferation, developmental timing, or overall lineage trajectories (Fig. 3 and Fig. 4, A and B).

However, *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ nascent mesoderm cells appeared to differentiate more frequently than WT

cells into PM than into FHF (Fig. 4, C to I). Therefore, we conclude that misallocation of

mesoderm cells in *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos is driven by alterations in early cell fate choices, resulting in

disparities in cell numbers, occurring in such a way that *Nipbl*-haploinsufficiency leaves the main

pathways of lineage trajectories intact, while subtly influencing cell fate decisions along these trajectories. The reduced differentiation into FHF may occur as a result of underexpression of genes predicted to drive FHF differentiation (Fig. 4).

Is *Nanog* overexpression responsible for gene expression changes in *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos?

Intriguingly, we observed some large shifts in gene expression (exceeding two-fold) across all germ layers of *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos at both LB- and CC-stages (Figs. 6D and 8H), a finding distinct from prior studies in which gene expression differences of this magnitude were rarely detected (*16, 28, 32, 33*). One of the largest changes in gene expression we observed was overexpression of *Nanog,* which occurred in LB-stage *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos and persisted to CC-stage (Figs. 7 and 8). Using data from (*81*), we demonstrated that many of the gene expression changes in *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos mirror those seen in embryos with induced *Nanog* overexpression at corresponding stages: 77% of total DEGs at LB-stage, and 72% of total DEGs at CC-stage (Fig. 8, A to F). We referred to such genes as "*Nanog*-overexpression-linked" genes.

A question that arises from these observations is whether all gene expression alterations observed in *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos might be due to *Nanog* overexpression. For a number of reasons, we do not think that this is the case. First, for the largest gene expression shifts (greater than two-fold over- or underexpressed), only 39% at LB-stage and 18% at CC-stage were misexpressed in the same direction as DEGs in embryos in which *Nanog* was overexpressed (Fig. 8). Second, although *Nanog* continues to be overexpressed in *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos from LB- to CC-stage, the magnitude of its expression decreases substantially by CC-stage (Fig. 7). Third, *Nipbl*-haploinsufficiency itself causes significant large expression changes in genes other than the "Nanog-overexpression-linked" genes. For instance, we observed the reduced expression of genes linked to the Notch signaling pathway in the mesoderm and an increased expression of adult hemoglobin genes in the endoderm (Fig. 6). Therefore, we conclude that the extensive gene expression changes in *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos are unlikely to be due to *Nanog* overexpression alone.

Delayed anterior *Hox* gene expression and its relationship to skeletal anomalies in *Nipbl*^{+/-}

embryos

In Figs. 4D and 8G, we showed that large decreases in *Hox* gene expression occur across all germ layers of LB-stage *Nipbl*^{+/-} embryos. While only a subset of *Hox* genes is underexpressed by more than two-fold, many *Hox* genes across all germ layers show small (less than two-fold) but significant decreases in expression (Fig. 9A). We also provide evidence for a temporal disturbance in anterior *Hox* gene expression in *Nipbl*^{+/-} embryos, whereby *Nipbl*-haploinsufficiency postpones the onset of anterior *Hox* gene expression at LB-stage and delays their subsequent deactivation at CC-stage (Fig. 9, C to F). These shifts in *Hox* gene expression dynamics mirror those in a previous study of *nipbl*-morphant zebrafish, in which genome-location-specific misexpression of *hox* genes was also observed (*104*). In Fig. 10, we showed that anteriorization of thoracic vertebrae occurs in E18.5 *Nipbl*^{+/-} embryos (Fig. 9). Such alterations in axial skeletal development parallel skeletal anomalies that have been identified in individuals with CdLS, including fused, absent, or misshapen ribs (*105*). Since *Nipbl*-deficiency is the dominant form of CdLS, it is interesting to speculate that these skeletal anomalies might originate from underexpression of and delayed anterior *Hox* gene activity during gastrulation.

Differential Nodal signaling in *Nipbl*^{+/-} embryos: potential contributors to left-right

patterning defects in CdLS

In Fig. 4D, we showed that *Nipbl*^{+/-} embryos at LB-stage show large overexpression genes associated with the Nodal signaling pathway across all germ layers. Nodal signaling, pivotal for left-right patterning (*106*), ensures the appropriate positioning and morphogenesis of the musculoskeletal system and internal organs (*107*). In Fig. 10, we showed that growths of a 14th vertebrae in E18.5 *Nipbl*^{+/-} embryos displayed left-right asymmetry, with the growth of a whole 14th rib only occurring on the right side of the embryo. Such patterning alterations are consistent with heightened incidence of right-sided skeletal anomalies in CdLS (*102, 108, 109*). Changes in

left-right patterning are also consistently associated with intestinal malrotation and some types of

cardiac anomalies in $Nipbl^{+/-}$ mice, $nipbl$-morphant zebrafish, and CdLS (*28, 40, 110*). These data

suggest that left-right patterning defects in CdLS might be due to overexpression of Nodal

signaling genes as early as gastrulation.

***Nipbl*, global regulation of gene expression, and chromatin architecture**

This study, along with prior research involving mouse and zebrafish models, reinforces

the notion that the chromosomal architecture surrounding genes significantly influences their

sensitivity to variations in *Nipbl* levels. For instance, in E13.5 and E17.5 $Nipbl^{+/-}$ mouse brains,

we observed that most expression alterations in the 22-gene protocadherin beta (*Pcdhb*) cluster

were localized to genes situated at the 3' end of the cluster (*28*). Similarly, in developing pectoral

fins of nipbl-morphant zebrafish at 32-36 hours post-fertilization, Hox genes located near the 3'

end of three separate Hox clusters (*Hoxa*, *Hoxc*, and *Hoxd*) showed a unique pattern of

overexpression (*104*). In the present study, the data in Fig. 9 demonstrate that anterior *Hoxb* genes

– located at the 3' end of the *Hoxb* cluster – are overexpressed in the mesoderm of $Nipbl^{+/-}$

embryos at gastrulation. Thus, we consistently observe a strong influence of chromosomal

location on gene sensitivity to *Nipbl* levels, particularly within gene clusters, and this influence is

already apparent at gastrulation.

In this study, we showed widespread changes in gene expression, in all cell types, evident

at gastrulation. This apparently leads to changes in patterning, cell fate decisions, and

misallocation within early progenitor cell lineages. We show data relating these changes to

structural birth defects in $Nipbl^{+/-}$ mice. We conclude that the structural changes observed in

$Nipbl^{+/-}$ animals and, by extension, CdLS, likely result from the interplay of these processes

during the course of development. What is needed next is to profile chromatin topology and how

it relates to changes in gene expression in $Nipbl^{+/-}$ embryos during gastrulation. For example, in

the present study, we find that only a few genes are highly over- or underexpressed in early

Nipbl$^{+/-}$ embryos. What makes these genes, such as *Nanog*, uniquely susceptible to *Nipbl*-

deficiency at this developmental time? Tracking temporal changes in *Nipbl's* role in regulating

accessibility of these genes and their enhancers/silencers could provide insight into this question.

Materials and Methods

Generation of WT and *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ Mice

WT and *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ mouse littermates were generated by mating *Nanog*$^{Cre/+}$ mice with

Nipbl$^{Flox/Flox}$ mice. *Nipbl*$^{Flox/Flox}$ mice were generated as described in (*40*). They have an inverted

gene trap cassette encoding *Bgeo* that is flanked by target sites for *Cre* recombinase in intron 1 of

both alleles of the *Nipbl* gene. In this inverted orientation, which we call Flox, there is no trapping

of the *Nipbl* gene and *Nipbl* is expressed normally. However, when this cassette is exposed to Cre

recombinase, the gene trap cassette gets inverted into a non-inverted orientation which we call

FIN. In this non-inverted orientation, trapping of the *Nipbl* gene occurs and *Bgeo* is expressed as a

reporter of successful gene trapping. *Nanog*$^{Cre/+}$ mice were generated as described in (*111*). They

have a transgene encoding a *Cre* recombinase downstream of a promoter of the *Nanog* gene and

recombines in the first cells of the developing embryo. Thus, mating *Nanog*$^{Cre/+}$ mice with

Nipbl$^{Flox/Flox}$ mice results in littermates that are either *Nipbl*$^{Flox/+}$ or *Nipbl*$^{FIN/+}$, entirely. *Nipbl*$^{Flox/+}$

littermates express *Nipbl* at wildtype levels and phenocopy WT mice, and as such, are essentially

WT. *Nipbl*$^{FIN/+}$ mice express *Nipbl* at levels lower than WT and phenocopy *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ mice, and as

such, are essentially *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$.

Timing of Mouse Pregnancies

To generate female mice that were pregnant on the same day, male mice were singly

housed and female mice were group-housed in groups of five for a minimum of one week to

synchronize their estrous cycles, thus taking advantage of the Lee-Boot effect (*112*). At the

beginning of the night cycle, the bedding from female cages were discarded and the bedding from

at least two male cages were transferred into each of them. At the beginning of the third night

cycle after which the females were exposed to male bedding, all females were transferred into

male cages, resulting in two females per male, thus taking advantage of the Whitten effect (*113*).

At the end of the third night cycle, the females were inspected for vaginal plugs. Those that had

vaginal plugs were considered potentially pregnant. To time the dissection of embryos from

potentially pregnant females, we considered the end of the 12-hour night cycle after which the

vaginal plug was discovered as E0 and dissected the embryos at the following times post E0: E7.5

(7 days + 12 hours) for late bud stage, E7.75 (7 days + 18 hours) for cardiac crescent stage, E7.41

(7 days + 10 hours) for early bud stage, E7.58 (7 days + 14 hours) for early head fold stage

embryos, and at E18.5 (18 days + 12 hours).

Dissection of Mouse Embryos

Pregnant female mice were euthanized by CO_2 inhalation followed by cervical dislocation.

The uterine horns were dissected out of their abdomens with dissection forceps and scissors and

placed in a petri dish with 1X DEPC PBS on ice. Individual deciduae were separated from one

another and transferred into their own petri dishes with 1X DEPC PBS on ice. Embryos were

dissected out of each deciduae under a dissection microscope as described in (*114*). The

Reichert's membrane was removed from each embryo. The ectoplacental cone was separated

from embryos collected for scRNAseq, and transferred by forcep into microcentrifuge tubes,

where they were kept on ice or stored at 20°C as tissue for polymerase chain reaction (PCR)

genotyping. The exocoelom was separated from embryos collected for scRNAseq and transferred

into a welled plate by wide bore pipette tip with fixative on ice as tissue for genotyping by X-gal

stain. Embryos for scRNAseq were transferred by wide bore pipette tip with 1X DEPC PBS into

microcentrifuge tubes and kept on ice until dissociation. Tails were separated from E18.5

embryos collected for Alcian Blue – Alizarin Red staining. Embryos for Alcian Blue – Alizarin

Red staining were transferred by forcep into 10% neutral buffered formalin in scintillation vials

and kept at 4°C for 24 hours.

Genotyping of Mouse Embryos and ES Cells

X-gal Stain

Since *Nipbl*^{FIN/+} (*Nipbl*^{+/-}) mouse embryos express Bgeo (beta-galactosidase), their tissues will turn blue when they are treated with X-gal, a substrate that releases a blue chromophore when enzymatically acted on by beta-galactosidase. The exocoeloms from embryos were transferred into welled plates containing fixative (0.2% Glutaraldehyde, 5mM EGTA, and 2mM MgCl2 in 0.1M phosphate buffer, pH 7.5) and kept on ice for a minimum of 15 min. After fixation, the exocoeloms were rinsed with a detergent rinse (0.02% Igepal, 0.01% Sodium Deoxycholate, and 2mM MgCl2 in 0.1M phosphate buffer, pH 7.5) before they were treated with X-gal stain (0.02% Igepal, 0.01% Sodium Deoxycholate, 5mM Potassium Ferricyanide, 5mM Potassium Ferrocyanide, and 2mM MgCl2 in 0.1M phosphate buffer, pH 7.5). The exocoeloms were incubated in X-gal stain at 37°C in the dark for a minimum of 1 hour after which they were inspected for coloration under a dissection microscope. Those that turned blue were considered *Nipbl*^{+/-} (*Nipbl*^{FIN/+}) and those that did not were considered WT.

Polymerase Chain Reaction

Ectoplacental cones were treated with 50 ul 60 ug/ml proteinase K in PBND (50 mM KCl, 10 mM Tris-HCl, 2.5 mM MgCl2, 0.1 mg/ml gelatin, 0.45% Nonident P40, and 0.45% Tween 20), for 1 hour at 55°C to extract DNA for PCR. To deactivate proteinase K so that it does not interfere with DNA amplification, they were then incubated at 95°C for 10 min. To genotype mouse embryos as either *Nipbl*^{Flox/+} (WT) or *Nipbl*^{FIN/+} (*Nipbl*^{+/-}) and ES cells as either *Nipbl*^{Flrt/+} (WT) or *Nipbl*^{FLEX/+} (*Nipbl*^{+/-}), standard Taq PCR was performed on the extracted DNA using the primers and thermocyling protocol previously described in (*40*). Primer 1: 5'-CTCCGC CTCCTCTTCCTCCATC-3'. Primer 2: 5'-CCTCCCCCGTGCCTTCCTTGAC-3'. Primer 3: 5'-TTTGAGGGGACGACGACAGTCT-3'. Thermocycling conditions: 1 cycle a 95°C for 30 sec, 30 cycles of 95°C for 1 min, 59°C for 30 sec, and 68°C for 1 min, 1 cycle at 68°C for 5 min, and

hold at 4°C. PCR products were treated with loading dye and electrophoresed in agarose gel

stained with SYBER Safe DNA Gel Stain (Invitrogen: S33102) without cleanup and visualized

under UV light. Flox conformation: 782 base pairs (bp). FIN conformation 518 bp. Flrt

conformation: 735 bp. FLEX conformation: 652 bp.

Single Cell RNA Sequencing

Embryos were transferred by wide bore pipette tip in 20 ul 1X DEPC PBS into

microcentrifuge tubes. 200 ul of 1X TrypLE Express Enzyme with phenol red (Gibco: 12605010)

prewarmed to 37°C was added to each embryo. Embryos were triturated 4x with a wide bore

pipette tip. Embryos were incubated at 37°C and triturated 4x with a wide bore pipette tip every

minute (4-8 min) until no tissue aggregates were visible under a dissection microscope. TrypLE

Expres Enzyme activity was inactivated with the addition of pre-ice-chilled 200 ul 0.04% (m/v)

non-acetylated BSA in DPBS (Sigma-Aldrich: B6917-100MG, Gibco: 14190144). The resulting

cell suspension was underlayed with 200 ul of 1% non-acetylated BSA in HBSS (Sigma: 55021C-

1000ML) using a gel loading pipette tip. The suspension was centrifuged in a swing bucket

centrifuge at 300 rcf for 5 min at 4°C. 600 ul of supernatant was removed without disturbing the

cell pellet. 600 ul of HBSS was added to the cell pellet and the cell pellet was resuspended in it

using a wide bore pipette tip. The resulting cell suspension was centrifuged in a swing bucket

centrifuge at 300 rcf for 5 min at 4°C. 600 ul of supernatant was removed without disturbing the

cell pellet. The cell pellet was resuspending in the remaining 20 ul of supernatant using a wide

bore pipette tip.

20 ul single cell suspensions were submitted to the Genomics High Throughput Facility

(GHTF) at the University of California, Irvine (*115*) for scRNAseq using 10X Genomics'

Chromium Next GEM Single Cell 3' Kit v3.1 (10x Genomics: 1000268), Chromium Next GEM

Chip G Single Cell Kit (10x Genomics: 1000120), and Chromium Controller. Passage through the

Chromium Controller resulted in sample, cell, and transcript barcoded cDNA, which GHTF

amplified by PCR. GHTF assessed the quality and quantity of the amplified cDNA by

electrophoresis using Agilent's Agilent High Sensitivity DNA Kit (Agilent: 5067-4626) and

Bioanalyzer before library construction. Constructed libraries, representing embryonic samples,

were multiplexed and sequenced by GHTF on the Illumina HiSeq 4000 to a minimum depth of 20

million read pairs per cell. GHTF demultiplexed Illumina's raw base call (BCL) files and returned

FASTQ files as deliverables.

Read Mapping and Cell Calling

Cell Ranger v3.0 was used to map reads onto the GRCm38/mm10 C57BL/6J Mus

musculus genome/transcriptome assembly and call cells. Cell Ranger does this by using a read

mapper called STAR (*116*), which performs splicing-aware mapping of reads to the genome.

Reads are considered confidentially mapped to the genome with a MAPQ of 255. Exonic reads

are further mapped to annotated transcripts. A read that is compatible with the exons of an

annotated transcript, and aligned to the same strand, is considered mapped to the transcriptome.

CellRanger called cells using the EmptyDrops method described in (*117*).

Normalization of Library Depth

Cell Ranger v3.0 was used to normalize the read depth between libraries of the same

stage. Cell Ranger does this by subsampling reads from higher-depth libraries until all libraries of

the same stage had an equal number of reads.

Removal of Low-Quality Cells and Doublets

Cells exceeding three median absolute deviations in any one of the following criteria

among cells of the same stage were considered either low-quality cells or doublets (*118*) and

removed: 1) percentage of mitochondrial genes expressed, 2) number of genes expressed, and/or

3) number of transcripts detected (fig. S2 and fig. S8).

Normalization of Cell Depth

Seurat v3.0 was used to normalize the read depth between cells of the same stage using the

SCtransform method, which is described in (*119*). SCtransform does this by modeling the read

counts in a regularized negative binomial model to determine the variation due to read depth and

then adjusting that variance according to genes of similar abundances. SCtransform was also

used to normalize the read depth between cells when cells were subset from the whole embryo

into germ layers and clusters.

Batch Effect Correction

827   Seurat v3.0 was used to correct for batch effects among libraries of the same stage and

828   genotype. Seurat does this by identifying a set of shared variable genes among the libraries being

829   considered, and using these genes, identifies pairs of cells between any two libraries whose

830   expression of these genes are similar to other. These pairs of cells act as anchors between libraries

831   for batch effect correction and integration (*46*).

Clustering of WT Cells

Seurat v3.0 was used to cluster WT cells. Seurat does this by first performing principal

component analysis on the shared variable genes identified during batch effect correction and

integration. Principal components whose explained variances exceeded 2 median absolute

deviations are used to calculate k-nearest neighbors and construct a shared nearest-neighbor

graph. Clusters are determined by optimization of the modularity function using the Louvain

algorithm, as described in (Waltman & Jan van Eck, 2013). The number of clusters was

controlled by modulating the resolution function.

The optimal number of clusters was determined by clustering cells at increasing

consecutive numbers of clusters and generating a clustering tree (fig. S5) visualizing how cell

cluster identities change as the number of clusters consecutively increase. Clusters are stable

when a large proportion of cells are derived from a single preceding cluster rather than multiple

preceding clusters. We adopted Shannon Entropy as a measure of these proportions as a measure

of intra-cluster stability. A low Shannon Entropy represents high intra-cluster stability. We

visually inspected the clustering tree to determine which number of clusters maximized the

number of clusters while at the same time minimizing the total Shannon Entropy across all

clusters at that number of clusters.

We further performed differential gene expression analysis between clusters and

visualized the expression of the top differentially expressed genes in a heatmap. We visually

inspected the heatmap to confirm that the number of clusters that was selected for intra-cluster

stability also displayed inter-cluster differences in gene expression.

Differential Gene Expression Analysis Between Clusters

Seurat v3.0 was used to perform differential gene expression analysis between clusters.

For each cluster, Seurat performs the Mann-Whitney U Test (a non-parametric test) between cells

in that cluster and all other cells using normalized read counts. P-values were corrected for false

discovery using the Bonferroni correction method. Genes with Q-values less than 0.05 were

considered statistically significant and differentially expressed.

Projection of *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ Cells onto WT Clusters

Seurat v3.0 was used to project *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ cells onto WT clusters. Seurat does this by

identifying a set of shared variable genes among WT samples, and using these genes, identifies

pairs of cells between WT cells and *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ cells whose expression of these genes are similar to

other. These pairs of cells act as anchors between WT cells and *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ cells for projecting and

sorting *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ cells into WT clusters (*46*).

Differential Gene Expression Analysis Between Genotypes

Seurat v3.0 was used to perform differential gene expression analysis between WT and

Nipbl$^{+/-}$ cells. For each cluster, Seurat performs the Mann-Whitney U Test between WT and

Nipbl$^{+/-}$ cells using normalized read counts. P-values were corrected for false discovery using the

Bonferroni correction method. Genes with Q-values less than 0.05 were considered statistically

significant and differentially expressed.

Pseudotime

URD was used to calculate the pseudotime of cells from EB-, LB-, and EHF-stage

embryos (*48*). URD does this by constructing a diffusion map of transition probabilities and

starting with an assigned group of root cells, performs a probabilistic breadth-first graph search

using the transition probabilities. This moves step-wise outward from the root cells, until the

entire graph is visited. Several simulations are run, and then pseudotime is calculated as the

average iteration that visited each cell.

Construction of Lineage Trajectories

Velocyto (*120*) was used to count the numbers of spliced and unspliced transcripts per

gene, using default parameters. Reads aligning to exonic regions were counted as spliced. Reads

aligning to intronic regions were counted as unspliced. Reads aligning to exon-intron boundaries

were considered ambiguous and excluded from downstream analyses. scVelo (*49*) was used

estimate RNA velocities. Counts were normalized using the pp.filter_and_normalize() function,

moments of unspliced vs spliced abundances were computed using the pp.moments() function,

and velocities were computed using the tl.velocity() function, all using default parameters.

Lineage trajectories were visually inferred from stream plots of computed RNA velocities.

Calculating Fate Probabilities

CellRank was used to calculate the fate probabilities of mesoderm cells (*51*). CellRank

does this by performing RNA velocity-directed random walks from initial cell states to terminal

cell states. Fate probabilities correspond to the fraction of walks in which a cell was a part of that

that terminated in a particular terminal cell state. Terminal states were set with the

set_terminal_states() function, absorption probabilities were computed with the

compute_absorption_probabilities() function, and driver genes were computed with the

compute_lineage_drivers() function, all with default parameters.

Cell Cycle Phase Assignment

Seurat was used to assign cells into G1, S, or G2/M phase based on the expression of

markers of S phase and G2/M phase provided by Seurat. Using the CellCycleScoring() function,

Seurat calculated scores for the expression of S phase and G2/M phase markers, while

considering the expression of these marker genes to be anticorrelated to one another. When cells

express neither, they are considered to be in G1 phase.

Identification of Drivers and Anti-drivers

CellRank was used to identify the drivers and anti-drivers of FHF and PM fates. CellRank

does this by calculating a correlation coefficient between the fate probabilities of cells towards

their lineage fate and the expression of their genes. Those genes with positive correlation

coefficients are considered drivers, since their expression increases as absorption probabilities

increase and those with negative correlation coefficients are considered anti-drivers, since their

expression decreases as absorption probabilities decrease. To reduce the likelihood of false

discovery, we considered those genes with correlation coefficients greater than 0.25 as drivers and

those less than -0.25 as anti-drivers.

Gene Set Over-Representation Analysis

clusterProfiler (*121*) was used to perform gene set over-representation analysis. It does

this by performing a Fisher's Exact Test on a contingency table of the genes in a gene set that

match or do not match the genes of interest. P-values were corrected for false discovery using the

Bonferroni correction method. Gene sets with Q-values less than 0.05 were considered

statistically significant and over represented by the genes of interest.

Gene Set Enrichment Analysis

FGSEA (*122*) was used to perform gene set enrichment analysis.

Generation of *Nipbl^FLEX/+* and *Nipbl^Flrt/+* ESCs

ES cells were grown in Glasgow's MEM, 15% heat-inactivated FBS (ES cell qualified,

Hyclone SH30071.03E), 1X Glutamine, 1X Pen-Strep, 5mM mercaptoethanol, and 1000 U/ml

leukemia inhibitory factor (LIF: ESGRO Millipore). Following limited dilution single cell

cloning, a clone of EUC313f02 *Nipbl^FLEX/+* ES cells (European Conditional Mouse Mutagenesis

Program) was transfected with pCAG-Cre:GFP (Addgene #13776) using Lipofectamine 2000

(Invitrogen) to convert the *Nipbl^FLEX* allele to the *Nipbl^Flrt* conformation in vitro. 48 hours post-

transfection, cells were plated at 1 cell/well into several 96 well plates. Clonal colonies were

isolated, and the clones were stained for β-galactosidase (lacZ) activity using X-gal. For LacZ

staining, the ES cells were fixed for 5 minutes in 2 mM MgCl2, 0.5% glutaraldehyde in 1X PBS,

followed by 3 washes with 1xPBS at room temperature. X-gal staining (5 mM K3Fe(CN)6, 5 mM

K4Fe(CN)6, 2 mM MgCl2, 1 mg/mL X-gal in 1X PBS) was performed at 37°C until the blue

precipitate was detected. Colonies positive for X-gal staining, *Nipbl^FLEX/+* ES cells, and negative

for X-gal staining, *Nipbl^Flrt/+*, were verified by PCR genotyping, described above.

Reverse Transcription-Quantitative Polymerase Chain Reaction

Clones for both *Nipbl^FLEX/+* and *Nipbl^Flrt/+* were expanded, 9 each, and RNA was extracted

using the Monarch Total RNA Miniprep Kit (New England Biolabs). cDNA was made using

iSCRIPT reverse transcriptase (BioRad). qRT-PCR for *Nipbl*, *Nanog*, and *Pouf5f1* was performed

using iTaq SYBR green (BioRad) as per manufacturer's instructions, *Rpl4* was used as the

housekeeping gene. *Rpl4* primer 1: 5'-ATCTGGACGGAGAGTGCTTT-3'. *Rpl4* primer 2: 5'-

GGTCGGTGTTCATCATCTTG-3'. *Nipbl* primer 1: 5'-AGTCCATATGCCCCACAGAG-3'.

Nipbl primer 2: 5'-ACCGGCAACAATAGGACTTG-3'. *Nanog* primer 1: 5'-

AAATCCCTTCCCTCGCCATC-3'. *Nanog* primer 2: 5'-GCCCTGACTTTAAGCCCAGA-3'.

Pou5f1 primer 1: 5'-CACCCTGGGCGTTCTCTTT-3'. *Pou5f1* primer 2: 5'-

GTCTCCGATTTGCATATCTCCTG-3'.

Alcian Blue – Alizarin Red Staining

E18.5 embryos were fixed in 10% neutral buffered formalin in scintillation vials at 4°C overnight. Embryos were washed with H_2O twice over 2 days at room temperature. Embryos were immersed in 95% EtOH for 1 week. Skin was removed from embryos with forceps under dissection microscope. Embryos were stained with 0.02% Alcian Blue (10 mg Alcian Blue + 80 ml EtOH + 20 ml glacial acetic acid) over three days. Embryos were washed with 70% EtOH twice in 1 day, 40% EtOH overnight, 15% EtOH in 1 day, and H_2O overnight. Embryos were washed with 1% KOH twice over 3 days until they became translucent. Embryos were stained with 0.015% Alizarin Red (15 mg Alizarin Red + 100 ml 1% KOH) over 3 days. Embryos were washed with 1% KOH three times in 1 day. Fat pads and internal organs were removed from embryos with forceps under dissection microscope. Embryos were washed with 20% glycerol + 1% KOH overnight, 50% glycerol + 1% KOH overnight, and 80% glycerol + 1% KOH overnight. Embryos were stored in 100% glycerol at room temperature.

References

1.   C. Centers for Disease, Prevention, Update on overall prevalence of major birth defects--Atlanta, Georgia, 1978-2005. *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep* **57**, 1-5 (2008).

2.   C. T. Mai *et al.*, National population-based estimates for major birth defects, 2010-2014. *Birth Defects Res* **111**, 1420-1435 (2019).

3.   R. Sun, M. Liu, L. Lu, Y. Zheng, P. Zhang, Congenital Heart Disease: Causes, Diagnosis, Symptoms, and Treatments. *Cell Biochem Biophys* **72**, 857-860 (2015).

4.   D. M. Ely, A. K. Driscoll, Infant Mortality in the United States, 2020: Data From the Period Linked Birth/Infant Death File. *Natl Vital Stat Rep* **71**, 1-18 (2022).

5.   L. Mannini, F. Cucco, V. Quarantotti, I. D. Krantz, A. Musio, Mutation spectrum and genotype-phenotype correlation in Cornelia de Lange syndrome. *Hum Mutat* **34**, 1589-1596 (2013).

6.   J. M. Opitz, The Brachmann-de Lange syndrome. *Am J Med Genet* **22**, 89-102 (1985).

7.   M. Ireland, D. Donnai, J. Burn, Brachmann-de Lange syndrome. Delineation of the clinical phenotype. *Am J Med Genet* **47**, 959-964 (1993).

8.   L. Jackson, A. D. Kline, M. A. Barr, S. Koch, de Lange syndrome: a clinical review of 310 individuals. *Am J Med Genet* **47**, 940-946 (1993).

9. J. Liu, I. D. Krantz, Cornelia de Lange syndrome, cohesin, and beyond. *Clin Genet* **76**,
303-314 (2009).

10. I. D. Krantz *et al.*, Cornelia de Lange syndrome is caused by mutations in NIPBL, the
human homolog of Drosophila melanogaster Nipped-B. *Nat Genet* **36**, 631-635 (2004).

11. E. T. Tonkin, T. J. Wang, S. Lisgo, M. J. Bamshad, T. Strachan, NIPBL, encoding a
homolog of fungal Scc2-type sister chromatid cohesion proteins and fly Nipped-B, is
mutated in Cornelia de Lange syndrome. *Nat Genet* **36**, 636-641 (2004).

12. D. Dorsett, I. D. Krantz, On the molecular etiology of Cornelia de Lange syndrome. *Ann N*
Y Acad Sci **1151**, 22-37 (2009).

13. A. Selicorni *et al.*, Clinical score of 62 Italian patients with Cornelia de Lange syndrome
and correlations with the presence and type of NIPBL mutation. *Clin Genet* **72**, 98-108
(2007).

14. L. A. Gillis *et al.*, NIPBL mutational analysis in 120 individuals with Cornelia de Lange
syndrome and evaluation of genotype-phenotype correlations. *Am J Hum Genet* **75**, 610-
623 (2004).

15. G. Borck *et al.*, Father-to-daughter transmission of Cornelia de Lange syndrome caused by
a mutation in the 5' untranslated region of the NIPBL Gene. *Hum Mutat* **27**, 731-735
(2006).

16. J. Liu *et al.*, Transcriptional dysregulation in NIPBL and cohesin mutant human cells.
PLoS Biol **7**, e1000119 (2009).

17. R. Ciosk *et al.*, Cohesin's binding to chromosomes depends on a separate complex
consisting of Scc2 and Scc4 proteins. *Mol Cell* **5**, 243-254 (2000).

18. P. J. Gillespie, T. Hirano, Scc2 couples replication licensing to sister chromatid cohesion
in Xenopus egg extracts. *Curr Biol* **14**, 1598-1603 (2004).

19. T. S. Takahashi, P. Yiu, M. F. Chou, S. Gygi, J. C. Walter, Recruitment of Xenopus Scc2
and cohesin to chromatin requires the pre-replication complex. *Nat Cell Biol* **6**, 991-996
(2004).

20. E. Watrin *et al.*, Human Scc4 is required for cohesin binding to chromatin, sister-
chromatid cohesion, and mitotic progression. *Curr Biol* **16**, 863-874 (2006).

21. K. Nasmyth, C. H. Haering, Cohesin: its roles and mechanisms. *Annu Rev Genet* **43**, 525-
558 (2009).

22. A. Musio *et al.*, X-linked Cornelia de Lange syndrome owing to SMC1L1 mutations. *Nat*
Genet **38**, 528-530 (2006).

23. M. A. Deardorff *et al.*, Mutations in cohesin complex members SMC3 and SMC1A cause
a mild variant of cornelia de Lange syndrome with predominant mental retardation. *Am J*
Hum Genet **80**, 485-494 (2007).

24. L. Mannini *et al.*, SMC1A codon 496 mutations affect the cellular response to genotoxic
treatments. *Am J Med Genet A* **158A**, 224-228 (2012).

25. M. A. Deardorff *et al.*, HDAC8 mutations in Cornelia de Lange syndrome affect the
cohesin acetylation cycle. *Nature* **489**, 313-317 (2012).

26. M. A. Deardorff *et al.*, RAD21 mutations cause a human cohesinopathy. *Am J Hum Genet*
90, 1014-1027 (2012).

27. P. Castronovo *et al.*, Somatic mosaicism in Cornelia de Lange syndrome: a further
contributor to the wide clinical expressivity? *Clin Genet* **78**, 560-564 (2010).

28. S. Kawauchi *et al.*, Multiple organ system defects and transcriptional dysregulation in the
Nipbl(+/-) mouse, a model of Cornelia de Lange Syndrome. *PLoS Genet* **5**, e1000650
(2009).

29. M. Kaur *et al.*, Precocious sister chromatid separation (PSCS) in Cornelia de Lange
syndrome. *Am J Med Genet A* **138**, 27-31 (2005).

30. P. Castronovo *et al.*, Premature chromatid separation is not a useful diagnostic marker for
Cornelia de Lange syndrome. *Chromosome Res* **17**, 763-771 (2009).

31. M. G. Vrouwe *et al.*, Increased DNA damage sensitivity of Cornelia de Lange syndrome
cells: evidence for impaired recombinational repair. *Hum Mol Genet* **16**, 1478-1487
(2007).

32. A. Muto, A. L. Calof, A. D. Lander, T. F. Schilling, Multifactorial origins of heart and gut
defects in nipbl-deficient zebrafish, a model of Cornelia de Lange Syndrome. *PLoS Biol* **9**,
e1001181 (2011).

33. Y. Wu *et al.*, Drosophila Nipped-B Mutants Model Cornelia de Lange Syndrome in
Growth and Behavior. *PLoS Genet* **11**, e1005655 (2015).

34. R. Chien *et al.*, Cohesin mediates chromatin interactions that regulate mammalian beta-
globin expression. *J Biol Chem* **286**, 17870-17878 (2011).

35. M. H. Kagey *et al.*, Mediator and cohesin connect gene expression and chromatin
architecture. *Nature* **467**, 430-435 (2010).

36. D. Dorsett, Cohesin: genomic insights into controlling gene transcription and
development. *Curr Opin Genet Dev* **21**, 199-206 (2011).

37. Y. Guo *et al.*, CTCF/cohesin-mediated DNA looping is required for protocadherin alpha
promoter choice. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **109**, 21081-21086 (2012).

38. S. Remeseiro, A. Cuadrado, A. Losada, Cohesin in development and disease.
Development **140**, 3715-3718 (2013).

39. B. Yuan *et al.*, Global transcriptional disturbances underlie Cornelia de Lange syndrome
and related phenotypes. *J Clin Invest* **125**, 636-651 (2015).

40. R. Santos *et al.*, Conditional Creation and Rescue of Nipbl-Deficiency in Mice Reveals
Multiple Determinants of Risk for Congenital Heart Defects. *PLoS Biol* **14**, e2000197
(2016).

41. M. A. Mole, A. Weberling, M. Zernicka-Goetz, Comparative analysis of human and
mouse development: From zygote to pre-gastrulation. *Curr Top Dev Biol* **136**, 113-138
(2020).

42. E. S. Bardot, A. K. Hadjantonakis, Mouse gastrulation: Coordination of tissue patterning,
specification and diversification of cell fate. *Mech Dev* **163**, 103617 (2020).

43. K. M. Downs, T. Davies, Staging of gastrulating mouse embryos by morphological
landmarks in the dissecting microscope. *Development* **118**, 1255-1266 (1993).

44. G. X. Zheng *et al.*, Massively parallel digital transcriptional profiling of single cells. *Nat*
Commun **8**, 14049 (2017).

45. M. Ginsburg, M. H. Snow, A. McLaren, Primordial germ cells in the mouse embryo
during gastrulation. *Development* **110**, 521-528 (1990).

46. T. Stuart *et al.*, Comprehensive Integration of Single-Cell Data. *Cell* **177**, 1888-1902
e1821 (2019).

47. B. Pijuan-Sala *et al.*, A single-cell molecular map of mouse gastrulation and early
organogenesis. *Nature* **566**, 490-495 (2019).

48. J. A. Farrell *et al.*, Single-cell reconstruction of developmental trajectories during
zebrafish embryogenesis. *Science* **360**, (2018).

49. V. Bergen, M. Lange, S. Peidli, F. A. Wolf, F. J. Theis, Generalizing RNA velocity to
transient cell states through dynamical modeling. *Nat Biotechnol* **38**, 1408-1414 (2020).

50. Y. Saga *et al.*, MesP1 is expressed in the heart precursor cells and required for the
formation of a single heart tube. *Development* **126**, 3437-3447 (1999).

51. M. Lange *et al.*, CellRank for directed single-cell fate mapping. *Nat Methods* **19**, 159-170
(2022).

52. A. Liberzon *et al.*, The Molecular Signatures Database (MSigDB) hallmark gene set
collection. *Cell Syst* **1**, 417-425 (2015).

53. S. M. Langemeijer *et al.*, Apoptosis-Related Gene Expression Profiling in Hematopoietic
Cell Fractions of MDS Patients. *PLoS One* **11**, e0165582 (2016).

54. D. Venet, J. E. Dumont, V. Detours, Most random gene expression signatures are
significantly associated with breast cancer outcome. *PLoS Comput Biol* **7**, e1002240
(2011).

55. S. Nestorowa *et al.*, A single-cell resolution map of mouse hematopoietic stem and
progenitor cell differentiation. *Blood* **128**, e20-31 (2016).

56.   R. M. Barnes, B. A. Firulli, S. J. Conway, J. W. Vincentz, A. B. Firulli, Analysis of the
Hand1 cell lineage reveals novel contributions to cardiovascular, neural crest, extra-
embryonic, and lateral mesoderm derivatives. *Dev Dyn* **239**, 3086-3097 (2010).

57.   Y. Chen *et al.*, The Role of Tbx20 in Cardiovascular Development and Function. *Front*
Cell Dev Biol **9**, 638542 (2021).

58.   D. W. Sorensen, J. H. van Berlo, The Role of TGF-beta Signaling in Cardiomyocyte
Proliferation. *Curr Heart Fail Rep* **17**, 225-233 (2020).

59.   S. Saadat *et al.*, Pivotal Role of TGF-beta/Smad Signaling in Cardiac Fibrosis: Non-
coding RNAs as Effectual Players. *Front Cardiovasc Med* **7**, 588347 (2020).

60.   C. Guibentif *et al.*, Diverse Routes toward Early Somites in the Mouse Embryo. *Dev Cell*
56, 141-153 e146 (2021).

61.   B. Wilm, R. G. James, T. M. Schultheiss, B. L. Hogan, The forkhead genes, Foxc1 and
Foxc2, regulate paraxial versus intermediate mesoderm cell fate. *Dev Biol* **271**, 176-189
(2004).

62.   D. T. Farmer, P. Patel, R. Choi, C. Y. Liu, J. G. Crump, A comprehensive series of Irx
cluster mutants reveals diverse roles in facial cartilage development. *Development* **148**,
(2021).

63.   H. Preiss *et al.*, Regulation of Nodal signaling propagation by receptor interactions and
positive feedback. *Elife* **11**, (2022).

64.   S. Nowotschin *et al.*, The T-box transcription factor Eomesodermin is essential for AVE
induction in the mouse embryo. *Genes Dev* **27**, 997-1002 (2013).

65.   C. Meno *et al.*, Diffusion of nodal signaling activity in the absence of the feedback
inhibitor Lefty2. *Dev Cell* **1**, 127-138 (2001).

66.   I. Costello *et al.*, Lhx1 functions together with Otx2, Foxa2, and Ldb1 to govern anterior
mesendoderm, node, and midline development. *Genes Dev* **29**, 2108-2122 (2015).

67.   K. Briegel *et al.*, Regulation and function of transcription factor GATA-1 during red blood
cell differentiation. *Development* **122**, 3839-3850 (1996).

68.   M. Siatecka, J. J. Bieker, The multifunctional role of EKLF/KLF1 during erythropoiesis.
Blood **118**, 2044-2054 (2011).

69.   W. K. Shen *et al.*, AnimalTFDB 4.0: a comprehensive animal transcription factor database
updated with variation and expression annotations. *Nucleic Acids Res* **51**, D39-D45
(2023).

70.   S. J. Bray, Notch signalling: a simple pathway becomes complex. *Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol*
7, 678-689 (2006).

71.   R. Macdonald *et al.*, Midline signalling is required for Pax gene regulation and patterning
of the eyes. *Development* **121**, 3267-3278 (1995).

72.   J. Park *et al.*, Regulation of Sox9 by Sonic Hedgehog (Shh) is essential for patterning and
1116   formation of tracheal cartilage. *Dev Dyn* **239**, 514-526 (2010).

1117   73.   P. H. Su *et al.*, NKX6-1 mediates cancer stem-like properties and regulates sonic
1118   hedgehog signaling in leiomyosarcoma. *J Biomed Sci* **28**, 32 (2021).

1119   74.   C. Cai, J. Thorne, L. Grabel, Hedgehog serves as a mitogen and survival factor during
1120   embryonic stem cell neurogenesis. *Stem Cells* **26**, 1097-1108 (2008).

1121   75.   S. W. Choy *et al.*, A cascade of irx1a and irx2a controls shh expression during
1122   retinogenesis. *Dev Dyn* **239**, 3204-3214 (2010).

1123   76.   D. Szklarczyk *et al.*, The STRING database in 2023: protein-protein association networks
1124   and functional enrichment analyses for any sequenced genome of interest. *Nucleic Acids*
1125   *Res* **51**, D638-D646 (2023).

1126   77.   K. Mitsui *et al.*, The homeoprotein Nanog is required for maintenance of pluripotency in
1127   mouse epiblast and ES cells. *Cell* **113**, 631-642 (2003).

1128   78.   A. H. Hart, L. Hartley, M. Ibrahim, L. Robb, Identification, cloning and expression
1129   analysis of the pluripotency promoting Nanog genes in mouse and human. *Dev Dyn* **230**,
1130   187-198 (2004).

1131   79.   M. Zhang *et al.*, Esrrb Complementation Rescues Development of Nanog-Null Germ
1132   Cells. *Cell Rep* **22**, 332-339 (2018).

1133   80.   G. Shi, Y. Jin, Role of Oct4 in maintaining and regaining stem cell pluripotency. *Stem*
1134   *Cell Res Ther* **1**, 39 (2010).

1135   81.   M. Tiana *et al.*, Pluripotency factors regulate the onset of Hox cluster activation in the
1136   early embryo. *Sci Adv* **8**, eabo3583 (2022).

1137   82.   M. Mossahebi-Mohammadi, M. Quan, J. S. Zhang, X. Li, FGF Signaling Pathway: A Key
1138   Regulator of Stem Cell Pluripotency. *Front Cell Dev Biol* **8**, 79 (2020).

1139   83.   L. L. Chang, D. S. Kessler, Foxd3 is an essential Nodal-dependent regulator of zebrafish
1140   dorsal mesoderm development. *Dev Biol* **342**, 39-50 (2010).

1141   84.   M. M. Shen, Nodal signaling: developmental roles and regulation. *Development* **134**,
1142   1023-1034 (2007).

1143   85.   C. Porcher, H. Chagraoui, M. S. Kristiansen, SCL/TAL1: a multifaceted regulator from
1144   blood development to disease. *Blood* **129**, 2051-2060 (2017).

1145   86.   V. S. Stanulovic, P. Cauchy, S. A. Assi, M. Hoogenkamp, LMO2 is required for TAL1
1146   DNA binding activity and initiation of definitive haematopoiesis at the haemangioblast
1147   stage. *Nucleic Acids Res* **45**, 9874-9888 (2017).

1148   87.   R. Guo, Q. S. Xing, Roles of Wnt Signaling Pathway and ROR2 Receptor in Embryonic
1149   Development: An Update Review Article. *Epigenet Insights* **15**, 25168657211064232
1150   (2022).

88.   H. Berger, A. Wodarz, A. Borchers, PTK7 Faces the Wnt in Development and Disease. *Front Cell Dev Biol* **5**, 31 (2017).

89.   T. S. Gujral *et al.*, A noncanonical Frizzled2 pathway regulates epithelial-mesenchymal transition and metastasis. *Cell* **159**, 844-856 (2014).

90.   J. Baum, R. H. Ward, D. J. Conway, Natural selection on the erythrocyte surface. *Mol Biol Evol* **19**, 223-229 (2002).

91.   S. Chonat *et al.*, The Spectrum of SPTA1-Associated Hereditary Spherocytosis. *Front Physiol* **10**, 815 (2019).

92.   T. L. Huang *et al.*, A de novo ANK1 mutation associated to hereditary spherocytosis: a case report. *BMC Pediatr* **19**, 62 (2019).

93.   Y. Liu *et al.*, A novel SPTB gene mutation in neonatal hereditary spherocytosis: A case report. *Exp Ther Med* **20**, 3253-3259 (2020).

94.   K. A. Hubert, D. M. Wellik, Hox genes in development and beyond. *Development* **150**, (2023).

95.   O. Medina-Martinez, A. Bradley, R. Ramirez-Solis, A large targeted deletion of Hoxb1-Hoxb9 produces a series of single-segment anterior homeotic transformations. *Dev Biol* **222**, 71-83 (2000).

96.   M. I. Boyle, C. Jespersgaard, K. Brondum-Nielsen, A. M. Bisgaard, Z. Tumer, Cornelia de Lange syndrome. *Clin Genet* **88**, 1-12 (2015).

97.   S. Kawauchi *et al.*, Using mouse and zebrafish models to understand the etiology of developmental defects in Cornelia de Lange Syndrome. *Am J Med Genet C Semin Med Genet* **172**, 138-145 (2016).

98.   M. P. Lambert *et al.*, The incidence of thrombocytopenia in children with Cornelia de Lange syndrome. *Am J Med Genet A* **155A**, 33-37 (2011).

99.   A. Ayerza Casas *et al.*, Cornelia de Lange syndrome: Congenital heart disease in 149 patients. *Med Clin (Barc)* **149**, 300-302 (2017).

100.   K. Zhao, Z. Yang, The second heart field: the first 20 years. *Mamm Genome* **34**, 216-228 (2023).

101.   M. E. Lopez-Burks, R. Santos, S. Kawauchi, A. L. Calof, A. D. Lander, Genetic enhancement of limb defects in a mouse model of Cornelia de Lange syndrome. *Am J Med Genet C Semin Med Genet* **172**, 146-154 (2016).

102.   D. Mehta *et al.*, Characterization of limb differences in children with Cornelia de Lange Syndrome. *Am J Med Genet C Semin Med Genet* **172**, 155-162 (2016).

103.   A. D. Kline *et al.*, Diagnosis and management of Cornelia de Lange syndrome: first international consensus statement. *Nat Rev Genet* **19**, 649-666 (2018).

1186   104.   A. Muto *et al.*, Nipbl and mediator cooperatively regulate gene expression to control limb
1187   development. *PLoS Genet* **10**, e1004671 (2014).

1188   105.   F. A. Lee, F. M. Kenny, Skeletal changes in the Cornelia de Lange syndrome. *Am J*
1189   *Roentgenol Radium Ther Nucl Med* **100**, 27-39 (1967).

1190   106.   J. Brennan, D. P. Norris, E. J. Robertson, Nodal activity in the node governs left-right
1191   asymmetry. *Genes Dev* **16**, 2339-2344 (2002).

1192   107.   B. Mohapatra *et al.*, Identification and functional characterization of NODAL rare variants
1193   in heterotaxy and isolated cardiovascular malformations. *Hum Mol Genet* **18**, 861-871
1194   (2009).

1195   108.   M. Mariani *et al.*, Adolescents and adults affected by Cornelia de Lange syndrome: A
1196   report of 73 Italian patients. *Am J Med Genet C Semin Med Genet* **172**, 206-213 (2016).

1197   109.   A. D. Kline *et al.*, Natural history of aging in Cornelia de Lange syndrome. *Am J Med*
1198   *Genet C Semin Med Genet* **145C**, 248-260 (2007).

1199   110.   K. C. Chatfield *et al.*, Congenital heart disease in Cornelia de Lange syndrome: phenotype
1200   and genotype analysis. *Am J Med Genet A* **158A**, 2499-2505 (2012).

1201   111.   A. N. Economides *et al.*, Conditionals by inversion provide a universal method for the
1202   generation of conditional alleles. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **110**, E3179-3188 (2013).

1203   112.   S. Van Der Lee, L. M. Boot, Spontaneous pseudopregnancy in mice. *Acta Physiol*
1204   *Pharmacol Neerl* **4**, 442-444 (1955).

1205   113.   W. K. Whitten, Modification of the oestrous cycle of the mouse by external stimuli
1206   associated with the male. *J Endocrinol* **13**, 399-404 (1956).

1207   114.   K. Shea, N. Geijsen, Dissection of 6.5 dpc mouse embryos. *J Vis Exp*, 160 (2007).

1208   115.   S. Das *et al.*, The Drosophila T-box transcription factor Midline functions within the
1209   Notch-Delta signaling pathway to specify sensory organ precursor cell fates and regulates
1210   cell survival within the eye imaginal disc. *Mech Dev* **130**, 577-601 (2013).

1211   116.   A. Dobin *et al.*, STAR: ultrafast universal RNA-seq aligner. *Bioinformatics* **29**, 15-21
1212   (2013).

1213   117.   A. T. L. Lun *et al.*, EmptyDrops: distinguishing cells from empty droplets in droplet-based
1214   single-cell RNA sequencing data. *Genome Biol* **20**, 63 (2019).

1215   118.   T. Ilicic *et al.*, Classification of low quality cells from single-cell RNA-seq data. *Genome*
1216   *Biol* **17**, 29 (2016).

1217   119.   C. Hafemeister, R. Satija, Normalization and variance stabilization of single-cell RNA-seq
1218   data using regularized negative binomial regression. *Genome Biol* **20**, 296 (2019).

1219   120.   G. La Manno *et al.*, RNA velocity of single cells. *Nature* **560**, 494-498 (2018).

1220   121.   T. Wu *et al.*, clusterProfiler 4.0: A universal enrichment tool for interpreting omics data.
1221   *Innovation (Camb)* **2**, 100141 (2021).

122. G. Korotkevich *et al.*, Fast gene set enrichment analysis. *bioRxiv*, 060012 (2021).

123. I. F. Davidson *et al.*, CTCF is a DNA-tension-dependent barrier to cohesin-mediated loop extrusion. *Nature* **616**, 822-827 (2023).

Acknowledgments

The authors are grateful to Henry Chang, Lorelle Meidt, Han Nguyen, Arianna Favela, Christopher Wu, Louise Villagomez, and Brian Bui for assistance with mouse husbandry, genotyping, and data analysis; to Melanie Oakes of the UCI Genomics and Research Technology Hub (GRTH) for 10x library preparation and sequencing; and to Qing Nie (UCI Depts of Mathematics and Developmental & Cell Biology) and Rosaysela Santos (Kaiser Permanente Bernard J. Tyson School of Medicine) for helpful discussions. SC acknowledges support from a training grant award (NINDS/NIH T32NS082174), and JK acknowledges support by a Momental Foundation Mistletoe Research Fellowship. ADL and ALC dedicate this paper to the memory of Isabel Eva Calof Lander.

Funding:

National Institutes of Health R01HL138659 (ALC, ADL)

National Institutes of Health R01DE019638 (ADL)

National Institutes of Health R35GM143019 (ALM)

NSF-Simons Center for Multiscale Cell Fate Research (SC, JK, ADL, ALC, ALM)

Author contributions:

Conceptualization: ALC, ADL, SC, ALM, JK

Methodology: ADL, SC, ALC, ALM

Software: SC, ADL, JK, ALM

Validation: ALC, ADL, SC, ALM

Formal Analysis: SC, ADL, ALC, JK, ALM

Investigation: SC, JK, MEL

Resources: ADL, ALC

Data Curation: SC

Writing – Original Draft: SC, ALC, ADL

Writing – Review & Editing: ADL, SC, ALC, ALM, JK

Visualization: SC, ADL, ALC

Supervision: ALC, ADL, ALM

Project Administration: ALC, ADL

Funding Acquisition: ALC, ADL, SC, ALM, JK

Competing interests: All other authors declare they have no competing interests.

Data and materials availability: All data are available in the main text, supplementary materials,

Gene Expression Omnibus (Accession: GSE151589), and Sequence Read Archive (Accession:

SRP265522). All code is available in Zenodo (DOI: 10.5281/zenodo.10001570).

Figures and Tables

Fig. 1. *Nipbl*+/- mice do not lack any cell populations found in WT mice. (**A**) Lateral view of

LB-stage and anterior view of CC-stage embryos subjected to scRNAseq. A = anterior, P =

posterior, AL = allantois, L = left, R = right, HF = head fold, CC = cardiac crescent, ML =

midline. Dashed line represents where embryonic tissue was separated from extraembryonic

tissue. Scale bar = 100 um. (**B**) Workflow used to filter out low quality cells and doublets, cluster

WT cells into optimal number of clusters at each stage, and project *Nipbl*+/- cells onto WT clusters

of the same stage. Uniform manifold approximation and projection (UMAP) of clusters in WT

and *Nipbl*+/- embryos at (**C**) LB- and (**D**) CC-stage. UMAP of clusters in each *Nipbl*+/- embryo (**E**)

LB- and (**F**) CC-stage.

1271

Fig. 2. scRNAseq captured cells from all germ layers, as well as progenitors of major tissues.

(**A**) UMAP of clusters assigned to germ layers in LB- and CC-stage embryos. (**B**) UMAP of germ

layers in LB- and CC-stage embryos. Expression of genes marking germ layers of (**C**) LB- and

(**D**) CC-stage embryos in UMAP. UMAP of cell populations in germ layers of (**E**) LB- and (**F**)

CC-stage embryos. Heatmap of fold change in expression of the most differentially expressed

transcription factor genes (lowest Q-values from Mann-Whitney U Test) (*69*) of cell populations

from all other cell populations in germ layers of (**G**) LB- and (**H**) CC-stage embryos.

Fig. 3. *Nipbl*^{+/-} embryos exhibit changes in the sizes of mesodermal subpopulations that are not accompanied by changes in developmental timing. (**A**) UMAP of germ layers in LB-stage WT and *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos. (**B**) Percentage of cells in germ layers from all cells in LB-stage WT and *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos. Error bars show standard error of the mean (*123*). *P*-values from T-Test. (**C**) UMAP of cell populations in mesoderm of LB-stage WT and *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos. (**D**) Percentage of cells in mesodermal cell populations from all cells in LB-stage WT and *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos (bottom). Error bars show SEM. *P*-values from T-Test. (**E**) Lateral view of WT EB- and EHF-stage embryos subjected to scRNAseq. A = anterior, P = posterior, AL = allantois, L = left, R = right, HF = head fold. Dashed line represents where embryonic tissue was separated from extraembryonic tissue. Scale bar = 100 um. (**F**) Workflow used to filter out low quality cells and doublets and cluster cells at EB- and EHF-stage into optimal number of clusters. (**G**) UMAP of clusters assigned to germ layers in EB- and EHF-stage embryos. (**H**) Density of cells from WT EB-, LB-, and EHF-stage embryos along pseudotime (calculated using URD). (**I**) Density of cells in germ layers of LB-stage WT and *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos along pseudotime.

1294

Fig. 4. *Nipbl*^{+/-} mice misdirect mesoderm cells into paraxial mesoderm at the expense of the

first heart field. (**A**) RNA velocities, calculated by scVelo of mesoderm cells from LB-stage WT

and *Nipbl*^{+/-} embryos in UMAP. (**B**) Cell lineage trajectories in mesoderm of LB-stage WT and

Nipbl^{+/-} embryos. Probability of mesoderm cells from LB-stage WT and *Nipbl*^{+/-} embryos

terminally transitioning (absorption probabilities calculated using CellRank) into (**C**) SHF, (**E**)

FHF, or (**G**) PM fates in UMAP. Violin plot of probability of NMPs, MMPs, and PMPs from LB-

stage WT and *Nipbl*^{+/-} embryos terminally transitioning (absorption probabilities) into (**D**) SHF,

(**F**) FHF, or (**H**) PM fates. Lines show means. *P*-values from T-Test. (**I**) Schematic illustrating

how mesoderm cells in *Nipbl*^{+/-} embryos are misdirected into PM fate at the expense of FHF fate.

Fig. 5. *Nipbl*^{+/-} mice underexpress genes predicted to drive the transition of mesoderm cells

into first heart field. UMAP of mesoderm cells in (**A**) FHF and (**D**) PM lineages of WT LB-

stage embryos. Genes whose expression are positively correlated (drivers) or negatively

correlated (anti-drivers) with the transition (absorption probabilities from Fig. 3J) of mesoderm

cells from WT LB-stage embryos into (**B**) FHF or (**E**) PM fates. Correlation coefficients

calculated using Spearman's Rank Correlation. Genes with correlation coefficient greater than

0.25 or less than -0.25 were considered drivers and anti-drivers, respectively. Slope refers to

change in gene expression along absorption probability. Over-representation score of MSigDB's

Hallmark gene sets among drivers and anti-drivers of (**C**) FHF and (**F**) PM fate. (**G**) Venn

diagram of genes shared between PM anti-drivers and FHF drivers. (**H**) Over-representation score

of MSigDB's Hallmark gene sets among shared FHF drivers and PM anti-drivers. (**I**) Expression

of lineage branching signature as NMPs transition into FHF or PM fates. Fold change in

expression of genes in mesoderm cells of (**J**) FHF and (**K**) PM lineages of LB-stage *Nipbl*^{+/-}

embryos differentially expressed ($Q < 0.05$, Mann-Whitney U Test) from that of WT embryos

along Spearman's Rank Correlation coefficient from Fig. 5, B and E. (**L**) Over-representation

score of MSigDB's Hallmark gene sets among shared FHF drivers downregulated in FHF lineage

of *Nipbl*^{+/-} mice.

Fig. 5. *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ mice underexpress genes predicted to drive the transition of mesoderm cells

into first heart field. UMAP of mesoderm cells in (**A**) FHF and (**D**) PM lineages of WT LB-

stage embryos. Genes whose expression are positively correlated (drivers) or negatively

correlated (anti-drivers) with the transition (absorption probabilities from Fig. 3J) of mesoderm

cells from WT LB-stage embryos into (**B**) FHF or (**E**) PM fates. Correlation coefficients

calculated using Spearman's Rank Correlation. Genes with correlation coefficient greater than

0.25 or less than -0.25 were considered drivers and anti-drivers, respectively. Slope refers to

change in gene expression along absorption probability. Over-representation score of MSigDB's

Hallmark gene sets among drivers and anti-drivers of (**C**) FHF and (**F**) PM fate. (**G**) Venn

diagram of genes shared between PM anti-drivers and FHF drivers. (**H**) Over-representation score

of MSigDB's Hallmark gene sets among shared FHF drivers and PM anti-drivers. (**I**) Expression

of lineage branching signature as NMPs transition into FHF or PM fates. Fold change in

expression of genes in mesoderm cells of (**J**) FHF and (**K**) PM lineages of LB-stage *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$

embryos differentially expressed ($Q < 0.05$, Mann-Whitney U Test) from that of WT embryos

along Spearman's Rank Correlation coefficient from Fig. 5, B and E. (**L**) Over-representation

score of MSigDB's Hallmark gene sets among shared FHF drivers downregulated in FHF lineage

of *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ mice.

Fig. 6. *Nipbl*^{+/-} **mice show large changes in the expression of major developmental regulators**

in all germ layers. (**A**) Number of differentially expressed genes ($Q < 0.05$, Mann-Whitney U

Test) in germ layers of LB-stage *Nipbl*^{+/-} embryos showing small ($\leq$ 2-fold) or large ($>$ 2-fold)

changes in expression from that of WT embryos. (**B**) Normalized enrichment score of statistically

significant ($Q < 0.05$, FGSEA) Hallmark genes sets in germ layers of LB-stage *Nipbl*^{+/-} embryos

from that of WT embryos. (**C**) Fold change in expression of Hallmark gene sets from Fig. 5B in

germ layers of LB-stage *Nipbl*^{+/-} embryos from that of WT embryos along their average

expression in WT embryos. (**D**) Fold change in expression of differentially expressed genes ($Q <$

0.05, Mann-Whitney U Test) in germ layers of LB-stage *Nipbl*^{+/-} embryos showing large changes

in expression ($>$ 2-fold) from that of WT embryos along their average expression in WT

embryos.

Fig. 7. *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ mice overexpress *Nanog* during and after gastrulation. (**A**) Differentially

expressed genes (greater than 2-fold upregulated or downregulated) between the germ layers of

WT and *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos predicted by STRING to interact with each other. (**B**) Fold change in

expression of differentially expressed genes ($Q < 0.05$, Mann-Whitney U Test) in germ layers of

LB-stage *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos showing large changes in expression (> 2-fold) from that of WT

embryos along their average expression in WT embryos that are predicted by STRING to interact

with *Nanog*. (**C**) Expression of *Nanog* in mesodermal cell populations of LB-stage WT and

Nipbl$^{+/-}$ embryos ordered from left (earlier) to right (later) by their RNA velocity positions in Fig.

4A. Error bars show SEM. (**D**) Expression of *Nanog* in WT and *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos from LB- to

CC-stage. Error bars show SEM. *P*-values from T-Test. € Expression of *Pou5f1* in mesodermal

cell populations of LB-stage WT and *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos ordered from left (earlier) to right (later)

by their RNA velocity positions in Fig. 4A. Error bars show SEM. (**F**) Expression of *Pou5f1* in

WT and *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos from LB- to CC-stage. Error bars show SEM. *P*-values from T-Test.

(**G**) Monoclonal generation of *Nipbl*$^{Flrt/+}$ (WT) and *Nipbl*$^{Flex/+}$ (*Nipbl*$^{+/-}$) ESCs. (**H**) Expression of

Nipbl, *Nanog*, and *Pou5f1* in WT and *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryonic stem cells as measured by RT-qPCR and

normalized to the housekeeping gene, *Rpl4*. Error bars show SEM. *P*-values from T-Test.

Fig. 8. *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ mice replicate the gene expression changes of *Nanog* overexpression. Fold

change in expression of gene targets of *Nanog* overexpression in (**A**) LB- and (**C**) CC-stage

Nipbl$^{+/-}$ embryos differentially expressed ($Q < 0.05$, Mann-Whitney U Test) from that of WT

embryos along their average expression in WT embryos. Genes differentially expressed ($Q <$

0.05, T-Test) in E7.5 and E9.5 mouse embryos transgenic for doxycycline inducible expression of

Nanog (*Nanog* Dox+) from that of WT embryos in Tiana et al., 2022 were considered targets of

Nanog overexpression for LB- and CC-stage embryos, respectively. Percentage of genes ($Q <$

0.05, Mann-Whitney U Test) in (**B**) LB- and (**D**) CC-stage *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos differentially

expressed from that of WT embryos matching those differentially expressed in E7.5 and E9.5

Nanog Dox+ embryos from that of WT embryos, respectively. Heatmap of fold change in

expression in germ layers of (**E**) LB- and (**F**) CC-stage *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos from that of WT

embryos of the most differentially expressed genes (lowest Q-values from T-Test) from E7.5 and

E9.5 *Nanog* Dox+ embryos from that of WT embryos, respectively. Genes ordered from top to

middle (overexpressed in *Nanog* Dox+ embryos) and bottom to middle (underexpressed in *Nanog*

Dox+ embryos) by lowest to higher Q-value. Fold change in expression of genes in the germ

layers of (**G**) LB- and (**H**) CC-stage *Nipbl*$^{+/-}$ embryos differentially expressed ($Q < 0.05$, Mann-

Whitney U Test) from that of WT embryos along their average expression in WT embryos. Genes

differentially expressed ($Q < 0.05$, T-Test) in E7.5 and E9.5 mouse embryos transgenic for

doxycycline inducible expression of *Nanog* (*Nanog* Dox+) from that of WT embryos in Tiana et

al., 2022 were considered targets of *Nanog* overexpression for LB- and CC-stage embryos,

respectively, and are colored bright red or bright blue.

Fig. 9. *Nipbl^{+/-}* mice show a delay in the expression of anterior *Hox* genes. Expression of *Hox*

genes in germ layers of WT and *Nipbl^{+/-}* embryos at (**A**) LB- and (**B**) CC-stage. Expression of

Hoxb genes in mesoderm (**C**) and ectoderm (**D**) of WT embryos from LB- to CC-stage ordered

from left (5') to right (3') by their chromosomal position. Expression of *Hoxb* genes in mesoderm

of WT embryos at (**E**) LB- and (**F**) CC-stage ordered from left (5') to right (3') by their

chromosomal position.

B

Severity Score	14th Thoracic Vertebra	Growth on Left of 14th	Growth on Right of 14th
S1	Yes	Cartilage	-
S2	Yes	Cartilage + Rib Nub	-
S3	Yes	Cartilage + Rib Nub	Rib Nub
S4	Yes	Cartilage + Rib Nub	Cartilage + Rib Nub
S5	Yes	Cartilage + Rib Nub	Whole Rib

C

Genotype	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	N	% 14th Rib
WT	0	0	0	0	0	15	0%
Nipbl+/-	1	2	2	1	1	12	58.33%

$P=0.04$, Chi-Squared Test

1380

Fig. 10. *Nipbl*+/- mice show anteriorization of thoracic vertebrae with left-right asymmetry.

(**A**) Dorsal view of bone (alizarin red) and cartilage (alcian blue) stained rib cage of E18.5 WT and *Nipbl*+/- embryos. WT embryos only show 13 ribs. *Nipbl*+/- embryos show incomplete asymmetric growth of 14th rib. S1-S5 refers to severity score in Fig. 10B. 13 = 13th thoracic vertebrae, L1 = 1st lumbar vertebrae, C = cartilage, N = rib nub, R = whole rib. (**B**) Table categorizing range of incomplete asymmetric growth of 14th rib observed in E18.5 *Nipbl*+/- embryos and ranking them by their severity (low = S1, high = S5). (**C**) Table quantifying numbers of WT and *Nipbl*+/- embryos in which incomplete asymmetric growth of 14th rib was observed per severity score. *P*-value from Chi-Squared Test.