**Title: Disentangling cell-intrinsic and extrinsic factors underlying gene expression**

**evolution**

Authors: Alexander L. Starr[1] †, Toshiya Nishimura[2,3,4] †, Kyomi J. Igarashi[5], Chihiro Funamoto[4],

Hiromitsu Nakauchi[2,6], Hunter B. Fraser[1]*

Affiliations:

1. Department of Biology, Stanford University, Stanford, CA 94305, USA

2. Institute for Stem Cell Biology and Regenerative Medicine, Department of Genetics, Stanford

University School of Medicine, Stanford, CA 94305, USA.

3. WPI Premium Research Institute for Human Metaverse Medicine (WPI-PRIMe), Osaka

University, Osaka, 565-0871, Japan (current address for T.N.)

4. Division of Stem Cell and Organoid Medicine, Department of Genome Biology, Graduate

School of Medicine, Osaka University, Osaka, 565-0871, Japan

5. Department of Genetics, Stanford University School of Medicine, Stanford, CA, 94305, USA

6. Division of Stem Cell Therapy, Distinguished Professor Unit, The Institute of Medical Science,

The University of Tokyo, Minato-ku, Tokyo 108-8639, Japan.

†These authors contributed equally to this work

*Indicates corresponding author: hbfraser@stanford.edu

**Abstract:**

Chimeras have played a foundational role in biology, for example by enabling the classification

of developmental processes into those driven intrinsically by individual cells versus those driven

extrinsically by their extracellular environment. Here, we extend this framework to decompose

evolutionary divergence in gene expression and other quantitative traits into cell-intrinsic,

extrinsic, and intrinsic-extrinsic interaction components. Applying this framework to reciprocal

rat-mouse chimeras, we found that the majority of gene expression divergence is attributable to

cell-intrinsic factors, though extrinsic factors also play an integral role. For example, a rat-like

extracellular environment extrinsically up-regulates the expression of a key transcriptional

regulator of the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) stress response in some but not all cell types,

which in turn strongly predicts extrinsic up-regulation of its target genes and of the ER stress

response pathway as a whole. This effect is also seen at the protein level, suggesting

propagation through multiple regulatory levels. We also demonstrate that our framework is

applicable to a cellular trait, neuronal differentiation, and estimated the intrinsic and extrinsic

contributions to its divergence. Finally, we show that imprinted genes are dramatically mis-

expressed in species-mismatched environments, suggesting that mismatch between rapidly

evolving intrinsic and extrinsic mechanisms controlling gene imprinting may contribute to

barriers to interspecies chimerism. Overall, our conceptual framework opens new avenues to

investigate the mechanistic basis of evolutionary divergence in gene expression and other

quantitative traits in any multicellular organism.

**Main text:**

**Introduction**

Interspecies chimeras—formed by grafting donor cells from one species into the host embryo of

another—have enabled seminal discoveries in vertebrate development dating back over a

century(*1–5*). Chimeras have been instrumental in determining whether effects of a specific

gene or developmental process are cell-intrinsic (also referred to as cell-autonomous) or cell-

extrinsic (non-cell-autonomous)(*6*, *7*). In general, a process is said to be cell-intrinsic if the cells

responsible for executing that process behave in a similar way regardless of the genetic

background of surrounding cells. For example, quail donor cranial neural crest cells destined to

form the beak follow their faster cell-intrinsic developmental timeline and execute their own

spatial and temporal programs for gene expression when they are transplanted into a slower-

developing duck host embryo(*4*, *8*, *9*). On the other hand, a process is cell-extrinsic when

dependent on the genotype of other cells; duck host epidermal cells in the same quail-duck

chimeras are extrinsically induced by the quail donor neural crest to alter their gene expression

to make quail-like feathers and a conical egg tooth(*4*, *8*, *9*). Although this categorization of

developmental processes into extrinsically vs. intrinsically controlled has been immensely

fruitful, there is no general framework to quantitatively deconvolve genome-wide measurements

into cell-extrinsic and intrinsic components.

In contrast, the quantitative dissection of two fundamentally different molecular mechanisms to

divergence in gene expression, a key driver of evolutionary adaptation and phenotypic novelty,

has been extensively explored(*10*, *11*). These mechanisms are known as *cis* and *trans*: *cis*

refers to regulatory elements such as promoters and enhancers that affect nearby genes on the

same chromosome, whereas *trans*-acting factors involve diffusible molecules such as

transcription factors (TFs) or noncoding RNAs that can regulate genes throughout the

genome(*11*). A landmark study used *Drosophila* interspecies hybrids to disentangle the *cis*- and

*trans*-regulatory contributions to gene expression divergence(*11*). Since then, genome-wide *cis*-

and *trans*-regulatory variation has been estimated for species across the tree of life, finding that

the majority of variation within most species is caused by *trans*-acting mechanisms(*12–15*).

While *cis*-acting divergence is always cell-intrinsic, both intrinsic and extrinsic factors can lead to

*trans*-acting divergence, yet their relative contributions to phenotypic evolution remain unknown.

Here, we unify these concepts and introduce a framework to disentangle the contributions of

intrinsic factors, extrinsic factors, and their interactions to evolutionary divergence in gene

expression and other quantitative traits.

**Results**

***Quantifying extrinsic and intrinsic divergence with interspecies chimeras***

A chimera is an amalgamation of two sets of cells, donor and host. We define host cells as the

cells derived from the injected blastocyst; when host cells make up a large majority, they are in

species-matched environments similar to wildtype organisms (Fig 1A). Donor cells are the

progeny of the cells that were injected into the blastocyst; when these are a small minority, they

are in species-mismatched environments determined by the host (Fig 1B-C). Throughout, we

use donor cells/cells in species-mismatched environments interchangeably and host cells/cells

in species-matched environments interchangeably.

To illustrate the concept of extrinsic and intrinsic divergence in gene expression, we can

consider an orthologous gene that is more highly expressed in mice than in rats. If mouse cells

express the gene at the same level regardless of their extracellular environment, and likewise

for rat cells, then we infer that the expression difference is determined by the cell of origin rather

than its extracellular environment, suggesting cell-intrinsic divergence (Fig 1B). However, if

donor and host cells express this gene at equal levels within each chimera, then we infer that

this divergence is determined by the extracellular environment of the cells in that animal,

suggesting extrinsic divergence in gene expression caused by divergence in the extracellular

environment (Fig 1C). In practice, we can measure the intrinsic and extrinsic divergence in gene

expression using single-cell RNA-seq (scRNA-seq) of reciprocal interspecies chimeras (Fig 1D).

To explore this concept empirically, we first generated reciprocal rat-like and mouse-like

chimeras via blastocyst injection (Fig 1E, Methods). Importantly, we only used tissues with less

than 10% donor contribution so that the extrinsic environment was primarily composed of host

cells. As an example, we observed clear populations of host and donor cells (marked by

TdTomato) in the forebrain of both mouse-like and rat-like chimeras (Fig 1F-G). Consistent with

previous work, different brain regions showed distinct patterns, as donor cells were rarer and

more evenly distributed in the ganglionic eminence compared to the developing neocortex in

mouse-like chimeras (Fig 1G)(*16*).

Next, we enriched for donor cells from stage-matched embryos (E13.5 in mouse, E15.5 in rat),

then generated and analyzed scRNA-seq data from the forebrain and connective tissue/spinal

cord of both mouse-like (i.e. made up primarily of mouse host cells) and rat-like chimeras (Fig

1E, Figs. S1-S2, Methods). After removing low-quality cells, identifying cell types and filtering

those with fewer than 10 cells in any sample type (host mouse, host rat, donor mouse, and

donor rat), we retained 4,720 cells distributed across 11 cell types. As an example, we can

consider the expression of *Efnb3* in forebrain glutamatergic neurons (abbreviated as

brain.glut.neu). In species-matched environments, we observed two-fold higher expression in

mouse than in rat (Fig 2A, left; the bars to the left of the dashed line are the same data as the

bars for species-matched environments to the right of the dashed line and are included twice for

clarity). However, in both chimeras, *Efnb3* expression in the donor cells mirrored that of the host

species (Fig 2A, middle/right; see Fig. S3A for the per-cell normalized count distribution). This

suggests that the divergence in the expression of *Efnb3* in forebrain glutamatergic neurons was

driven almost entirely by extrinsic factors. On the other hand, the expression of *Lsm6* was much

higher in mouse cells regardless of their extracellular environment, suggesting purely intrinsic

divergence between species (Fig 2B, Fig. S3B).

However, most genes do not fit neatly into either category. For example, in both mouse and rat

cells, *Plcxd2* had higher expression in a mouse-like environment than in a rat-like environment

(Fig 2C, Fig. S3C). However, it also has higher expression in rat cells than in mouse cells in

both chimeras, consistent with intrinsically higher expression in rat cells. These two opposing

differences cancel out, resulting in nearly identical expression in host cells (Fig 2C) (see Figs.

S4-9 and Supplementary Text 1 for discussion of how developmentally dynamic gene

expression and differences in the spatial distribution of donor cells between cell types might

affect our results). While most genes primarily exhibit some combination of extrinsic and intrinsic

divergence, some genes have evidence for a complex interaction between the two forms of

divergence. For example, *Pou3f2* is down-regulated in species-mismatched environments in

both chimeras, which cannot be explained by any simple combination of intrinsic and extrinsic

divergence, suggesting an interaction causing *Pou3f2* in mouse cells to respond differently to

the extracellular environment than it does in rat cells (Fig 2D, Fig. S3D).

***A quantitative framework to disentangle extrinsic and intrinsic components of***

***divergence***

Next, we developed a quantitative framework to estimate the extrinsic, intrinsic, and interaction

components of gene expression divergence for each gene (see Methods). To summarize these

results genome-wide, we visualize these values on a scatter plot so that genes with purely

intrinsic divergence are on the x-axis and those with purely extrinsic divergence are on the y-

axis (Fig 2F-G, Figs. S10-11, Supplementary Table 1). Across all cell types, we consistently

observed that the genome-wide intrinsic component of gene expression divergence is larger

than the extrinsic component, which is in turn larger than the interaction component (Fig 2G and

Figs. S10-11). We estimate that 21-28% of gene expression divergence is cell-extrinsic across

cell types, suggesting that a substantial fraction of the *trans*-regulatory divergence between

species is due to differences in the extracellular environment.

We found that intrinsic divergence is substantially more correlated across cell types than

extrinsic divergence (Fig. S12A), consistent with the idea that *cis*-regulatory variation is also

less tissue-specific than *trans*(17–19). Interestingly, neural and mesenchymal cell types

clustered separately in terms of intrinsic divergence, but for extrinsic divergence they instead

clustered by location within the embryo, resulting in spinal neurons clustering with other cells

from more caudal parts of the embryo such as mesenchyme (Fig. S12B). This suggests that

when specifically comparing extrinsically-driven divergence, the similar extracellular

environment shared between both neuronal and non-neuronal caudal cell types could be the

dominant factor, overriding the tendency for similar cell types such as neurons to cluster

together. In addition, we evaluated whether several gene-level variables were correlated with

proportion intrinsic vs proportion extrinsic divergence. The best predictor of proportion intrinsic

vs proportion extrinsic divergence for individual genes was each gene's expression difference

between mouse and rat: all genes with >4-fold difference had primarily intrinsic divergence (Fig.

S12C), consistent with the finding that *cis*-regulatory divergence (which is cell-intrinsic)

contributes more to large changes in gene expression(20). Other factors like expression level

and tissue-specificity had little to no predictive power (Fig. S12D).

***Extrinsic and intrinsic divergence can propagate through transcriptional networks***

To investigate whether extrinsic divergence converges on particular pathways, we tested

whether extrinsically-driven genes were enriched for different gene sets, identifying dozens of

enrichments (Supplementary Table 2). For example, we found that genes involved in the ER

stress response, such as *Hsp90b1*, had >2-fold enrichment for up-regulation in a rat-like

environment in 10 out of 11 cell types, Fig 3A-B, Fig. S13A-B)(*21*). Conversely, we found that

genes encoding histone methyltransferases, such as *Setbp1*, were highly enriched for up-

regulation in a mouse-like environment in neural but not connective tissue (Fig. S14A-D)(*22*).

Finally, many pathways were strongly enriched for extrinsic divergence in only one cell type,

such as positive regulation of programmed cell death which was specifically up-regulated by

forebrain GABAergic neurons in a rat-like environment (Fig. S15A-D).

We next hypothesized that intrinsic and extrinsic regulation may propagate through

transcriptional regulatory networks; for example, extrinsic regulation of a TF may correlate with

extrinsic regulation of its target genes. In our analysis of ER stress response genes (Fig 3A) we

noticed that divergence in the expression of *Xbp1*, a key transcriptional regulator of ER stress

response genes(*23*), was almost entirely extrinsic in some cell types such as mesenchyme (Fig

3D, Fig. S16A). To determine whether extrinsically driven changes in *Xbp1* expression might

drive the extrinsic divergence of its target genes, we compared the degree of extrinsic up-

regulation in the rat-like environment for *Xbp1* target genes (defined as genes up-regulated by

*Xbp1* overexpression)(*24*) with that of *Xbp1* itself in each cell type(*25*). Remarkably, we

observed a strong correlation between these two quantities, where cell types with extrinsic up-

regulation of *Xbp1* in the rat-like environment showed a similar pattern of extrinsic up-regulation

for its target genes (Spearman's rho = 0.70, p = 0.025, Fig 3E). Moreover, we observed a

similarly strong correlation between *Xbp1* extrinsic divergence and the extrinsic divergence of

ER stress response-associated genes (Spearman's rho = 0.73, p = 0.014, Fig. S17A). This

suggests that extrinsic regulation of *Xbp1* may lead to extrinsic regulation of its target genes

(Fig 3F), though we cannot rule out a potential role for other unobserved factors such as post-

transcriptional regulation(*23*).

Interestingly, although *Xbp1* had a similar magnitude of up-regulation in both rat host spinal

glutamatergic neurons and rat host mesenchyme compared to their mouse host counterparts

(Fig 3D, G), this was almost entirely due to intrinsic divergence in the spinal neurons (Fig 3G,

Fig. S16B). Analogous to the pattern for extrinsic divergence (Fig 3E), we found that cell types

with intrinsic up-regulation of *Xbp1* in rat cells showed a similar pattern of intrinsic up-regulation

of its target genes (Spearman's rho = 0.79, p = 0.006, Fig 3H), although in this case *Xbp1*

intrinsic regulation was not as strongly predictive of intrinsic up-regulation of ER stress response

genes more broadly (Spearman's rho = 0.37, p = 0.29, Fig. S17B). This suggests that

intrinsically driven divergence in *Xbp1* expression may propagate to its target genes (Fig 3I) in

much the same way as extrinsic divergence. More generally, we tested whether the known

targets of many different TFs were enriched for unidirectional extrinsic divergence. Notably, the

targets of several well-known regulators of ER stress including *Atf3*, *Atf6,* and *Jun* were also

enriched for extrinsic up-regulation in a rat-like environment, similar to *Xbp1* (Fig. 3J)(*26–28*).

The extrinsic regulation of these TFs was not correlated with that of *Xbp1* (Fig. S18) suggesting

divergence in distinct extrinsic factors that converge on TFs regulating the ER stress response.

Overall, we observed 155 enriched TFs at a 10% FDR, compared to just one enriched TF when

performing an identical procedure with intrinsic regulation (Fig 3K, Supplementary Table 3).

The single TF with targets enriched for intrinsic divergence was *Nfe2l1* (which encodes the

protein Nrf1), a well-established regulator of proteasomal genes (Fig. 3K)(*29*). For example,

*Pomp*, a target of Nrf1 involved in the formation and activation of the proteasome, was

consistently more highly expressed in rat cells than mouse cells regardless of the extracellular

environment (Fig. S19A-F)(*29*). In contrast, the targets of other proteasome TFs such as *Nfe2l2*

(encoding the protein Nrf2) and *Stat3* were enriched for extrinsic up-regulation in mouse-like

and rat-like environments, respectively (Fig. 3J)(*30*, *31*). This heterogeneity in the mode

(intrinsic vs extrinsic) and direction (rat vs. mouse up-regulation) of divergence in proteasomal

TFs contrasted with the four ER stress response TFs mentioned above, whose targets were all

enriched for extrinsic up-regulation in a rat-like environment. Interestingly, the conflicting modes

and directions of divergence of these proteasomal TFs did not correlate strongly with the

divergence of their target genes (Fig. S20A-C), suggesting that heterogeneity in the regulatory

divergence of multiple TFs targeting the same genes might lead to more complex patterns than

the relatively simple propagation seen for *Xbp1* and its targets.

To investigate the consequences of having multiple proteasomal TFs with differing modes and

directions of expression divergence, we explored how proteasomal subunits were regulated

across cell types. For example, in rat cells, the proteasomal subunit *Psmb1* had higher

expression in a rat-like environment in forebrain GABAergic neurons, but higher expression in a

mouse-like environment in spinal glutamatergic neurons and chondrocytes (Fig 4A-C, Fig.

S21A-C). Interestingly, many proteasomal genes showed a similar pattern (Fig 4D-F). In

forebrain GABAergic neurons, expression was up-regulated both intrinsically in rat cells and

extrinsically by the rat-like environment. However, in spinal glutamatergic neurons, the intrinsic

effect was preserved but the extrinsic rat-like environment had the opposite effect, down-

regulating expression. Lastly, for chondrocytes, both effects were flipped compared to forebrain

GABAergic neurons: both the intrinsic and extrinsic effects of rat were repressive. Based on this

finding, we looked for other gene sets that showed similarly variable enrichments across cell

types and identified context-specific patterns of intrinsic and extrinsic components for

spliceosomal genes as well as nuclear-encoded subunits of mitochondrial respiratory complex I

(Figs. S22-23). This suggests that highly coordinated context-specificity, integrating both

extrinsic and intrinsic signals, has evolved to regulate multiple protein complexes, perhaps to

rapidly modulate their abundances in response to both extrinsic and intrinsic cues.

***Extrinsic divergence in the protein expression of two ER stress response genes***

To test whether the extrinsically-driven gene expression divergence we observed translates to

the protein level, we used immunofluorescence (IF) to quantify extrinsic, intrinsic, and

interaction components of divergence in protein levels for two proteins: *Jun* and *Hspa5*(*32*). We

prioritized these genes because they are involved in the ER stress response, show strong

extrinsic divergence across cell types (especially in GABAergic forebrain neurons and

progenitors, Fig 5A-B, Fig. S24A-D), and are sufficiently highly expressed to be detected with

IF. In the ganglionic eminences (which contain both GABAergic progenitors and recently born

GABAergic neurons) of two mouse-like and two rat-like chimeras, we observed extrinsically-

driven up-regulation in rat-like environments for both proteins, closely matching the estimates

from our scRNA-seq data (Fig 5C-E). This suggests that extrinsic divergence in mRNA

abundances can translate to the protein level, and also that our estimates of extrinsic

divergence for these genes are unlikely to be inflated by experimental variability.

***Extrinsic and intrinsic components of neural progenitor differentiation kinetics***

As discussed above, our framework is applicable to most quantitative traits. To demonstrate

this, we explored the application of this framework to estimate extrinsic, intrinsic, and interaction

components to a cellular-level quantitative trait: the ratio of post-mitotic neurons to neural

progenitors, which reflects the timing of neurogenesis. If the timing of neurogenesis is

intrinsically controlled, we would expect a higher neuron to progenitor ratio in mouse regardless

of whether the cells were in a mouse-like or rat-like environment (Fig. 5F, top). On the other

hand, if this trait is extrinsically controlled, we would expect similar ratios for both mouse and rat

cells in the same extracellular environment (Fig. 5F, bottom). Strikingly, across three different

branches of neurogenesis (forebrain GABAergic, forebrain glutamatergic, and spinal), we

consistently found that the ratio of neurons to progenitors was much higher in mouse host cells

than in rat donor cells, consistent with an intrinsic component for the faster development of

mouse neurons and faster global maturation rate of mouse embryos (Fig. S25A-C). However,

we also found this ratio to be similar for mouse donor cells and rat host cells, consistent with

previous work showing an effect of the rat maternal environment on the timing of neurogenesis

(Fig. S25A-C)(*7*). Overall, we estimated an average contribution of 44% intrinsic, 23% extrinsic,

and 33% interaction for divergence in the timing of mouse and rat neuronal differentiation (Fig

5G).

***Imprinted genes are strongly mis-expressed in species-mismatched environments***

During our analysis, we noticed that several imprinted genes had strikingly large interaction

components. For example, while the imprinted gene *Grb10* was highly expressed in both mouse

and rat chondrocytes when in species-matched environments, its expression was nearly zero in

both mouse and rat chondrocytes in species-mismatched environments (Fig. 6A, Fig.

S26A)(*33*). In GABAergic progenitors *Grb10* expression in mouse cells was unaffected by the

extracellular environment, but was undetectable in rat cells in a mouse-like environment (Fig.

6B, Fig. S26B). In contrast, *Grb10* expression was unaltered in species-mismatched

environments in forebrain GABAergic neurons (Fig. 6C, Fig. S26C). This stark divergence was

not restricted to *Grb10* as, for example, *Igf2* is more highly expressed in rat chondrocytes than

mouse chondrocytes in species-matched environments, but drops close to zero when rat

chondrocytes are in a mouse-like environment (Fig. S27A, D)(*34*).

To explore whether this pattern holds for imprinted genes more generally, we tested whether

previously reported imprinted genes were enriched for interactions between extrinsic and

intrinsic divergence. Remarkably, we observed that imprinted genes were strongly enriched for

large interaction components (p < 0.001 in both connective and nervous tissue, Fig. 6D). Given

that genes expressed from the maternal allele (maternally-expressed) and expressed from the

paternal allele (paternally-expressed) often have opposing effects on growth, we split imprinted

genes based on the expressed allele(*35*). We found that paternally-expressed genes were

strongly enriched for higher expression in species-mismatched environments ($p < 0.01$ in both

brain and connective tissue), whereas maternally-expressed genes were enriched for higher

expression in species-matched environments only in connective tissue ($p < 0.01$ in connective

tissue, $p > 0.5$ in brain tissue), suggesting that maternally-expressed and paternally-expressed

genes are often affected by species-mismatched environments in opposite ways (Fig. 6E). The

pattern for paternally expressed genes is exemplified by *Zdbf2*, which is expressed

approximately 2-fold higher in species-mismatched environments for both mouse cells and rat

cells across connective and nervous cell types **(**Fig. S27B-C, E-F**)**(*36*).

To determine if this pattern of disrupted imprinting generalized to other types of cells and

chimeras, we sought to test for this effect in other chimera scRNA-seq data sets. Because these

studies do not have reciprocal chimeras, we could not disentangle the extrinsic and interaction

components, but we could test the simpler prediction that imprinted genes should be highly

sensitive to the extracellular environment. In one previous study, rat-mouse chimeras were

generated in which the hearts were almost entirely derived from rat donor cells, and their gene

expression was compared to wildtype rat heart cells from the same embryonic stage(*37*).

Despite the data being independently generated using different host and donor strains, tissues,

and developmental stages, we observe that that *Grb10* and *Igf2* were highly expressed in

wildtype rat but were nearly undetectable in rat cells present in a mouse-like environment

across all 11 heart data cell types tested (Fig. 6F, Fig. S28A-B). More generally, imprinted

genes were strongly enriched for differential expression between rat cells in a rat-like

environment vs. rat cells in a mouse-like environment ($p < 0.05$ in all cell types except

macrophages where $p = 0.11$, Fig. 6G).

One possible explanation for disrupted imprinting in donor cells is that imprinting could already

be disrupted in the ESCs from which these cells are derived. To test this, we examined a

published bulk RNA-seq dataset of adult parathyroid gland cells where the same mouse ESCs

were injected into both rat and mouse blastocysts and compared to wildtype mice with no

blastocyst injection(*38*). If imprinting disruption is due to the species-mismatched environment

rather than any technical factor related to cell lines or chimera generation, then we would expect

imprinted genes to be mis-expressed in rat-mouse chimeras but not mouse-mouse chimeras.

To evaluate this, we hierarchically clustered all samples based on the expression of all

expressed imprinted genes. We found that samples from species-mismatched environments

clearly clustered together, whereas samples from wildtype mice and donor mouse cells in a

species-matched environment were intermixed in a separate cluster (Fig. 6G). For example,

*Grb10* and *Igf2* were strongly mis-expressed in a species-mismatched environment (Fig. S29A).

Overall, these results suggest that a species-mismatched environment, not blastocyst injection

of ESCs more generally, underlies mis-expression of imprinted genes and that mis-expression

can persist into adulthood.

Finally, we investigated whether imprinting may also be disrupted in *ex vivo* human-macaque

chimeric embryos(*39*, *40*). We found that many imprinted genes, such as *PLAGL1,* showed

strong mis-regulation in human cells growing in a macaque-like embryo (Fig. 6I). Imprinted

genes were enriched for differential expression between human cells vs. macaque cells in the

same macaque-like environment, as well as between human cells in a human-like environment

vs. in a macaque-like environment (p < 0.01 in each). These results suggest that imprinting

disruption in chimeras does not depend on the maternal environment (which is not present for

*ex vivo* chimeras) and occurs in both rodents and primates. Overall, our results suggest that the

interaction between extrinsic and intrinsic divergence results in widespread mis-expression of

imprinted genes in interspecies chimeras.

**Conclusion**

Building on foundational work in developmental and evolutionary biology, we have developed a

broadly applicable framework to decompose divergence in quantitative traits into cell-extrinsic

and cell-intrinsic components. Furthermore, our framework can provide insight into the genetic

basis of interspecies chimeric incompatibility(*41*). For example, we identified strong extrinsic

divergence in ER stress response genes such as *Hspa5,* which is vital for neuronal survival

during development(*42*), as well as extrinsic divergence in histone methyltransferases, which

play a key role in controlling the tempo of neuronal development(*43*). In addition, we identified

widespread mis-regulation of imprinted genes as a result of interactions between extrinsic and

intrinsic divergence. As many imprinted genes play key roles in growth and cell survival, our

results also suggest that modulating the expression of imprinted genes could be a promising

avenue to improve the growth and survival of cells in species-mismatched environments(*44*).

A recent study reported rat-mouse chimeras where rat ESCs were injected into host mice

blastocysts that were unable to generate a forebrain (*Hesx1*$^{-/-}$)(*16*). This study is challenging to

directly compare to ours since rat donor cells composed ~60% of the forebrain at the time of

scRNA-seq profiling, suggesting that the extracellular environment was neither mouse-like nor

rat-like. In addition, the study did not have reciprocal chimeras so could not directly quantify

intrinsic, extrinsic divergence, or their interactions. Perhaps in part because of these and other

technical factors, our results differ substantially from theirs. Specifically, they found the pace of

neurodevelopment (at a gross anatomical level) in rat donor cells to be extrinsically controlled,

while the overall transcriptome was intrinsically determined. In contrast, using reciprocal

chimeras and our quantitative framework we found both neurodevelopment (at a single-cell

level) and the transcriptome to be subject to about twice as much intrinsic as extrinsic

divergence, along with a substantial effect of interaction between these.

Our study opens the door to myriad avenues for further research. For example, sampling

chimeras across a time course of development will allow us to disentangle the role of

developmental time from intrinsic and extrinsic divergence to better understand the evolution of

developmentally dynamic gene expression. In addition, our framework could be applied in

conjunction with spatial transcriptomic measurements to further decompose extrinsic divergence

into local and organ-wide components. Overall, the application of our framework to a wide range

of quantitative traits will enable novel insights into the mechanistic basis of phenotypic evolution

across the tree of multicellular life.

**Fig. 1: Conceptual model of estimating extrinsic and intrinsic divergence using reciprocal chimeras. A)** Rat and mouse cells in species-matched environments. In wildtype animals, the divergence in expression of a single gene between species is determined by divergence intrinsic to mouse and rat cells, as well as divergence in the extracellular environment. In this example, expression is 2.5-fold higher in mouse cells compared to rat cells when both cells are in species-matched environments. However, it is unclear how much of this divergence is extrinsically driven or intrinsically driven. **B)** Example of intrinsic divergence. In interspecies chimeras, we can measure gene expression in mouse cells in a rat-like environment and in rat cells in a mouse-like environment. If the expression of the gene remains unchanged compared to species-matched environments, then the divergence in gene expression must be due to intrinsic mechanisms. **C)** Example of extrinsic divergence. If the expression of this gene in mouse cells in a rat-like environment matches the expression of the gene in rat cells in a rat-like environment and vice versa, then the divergence in gene expression must be due to extrinsic divergence in the extracellular environment. **D)** Outline of measuring intrinsic and extrinsic divergence genome-wide. To measure extrinsic and intrinsic divergence, we can generate mouse-like (a small proportion of rat cells and a large proportion of mouse cells) and rat-like (a small proportion of mouse cells and a large proportion of rat cells) reciprocal chimeras. We can then use scRNA-seq to measure gene expression in each cell type across the four different species-environment combinations. If the divergence in expression for a gene is similar in both rat-like and mouse-like environments, then it is driven by intrinsic divergence. On the other hand, if expression is similar when mouse and rat cells are in the same extracellular environment but different when comparing cells from two different environments, it is driven by extrinsic divergence. **E)** Outline of experimental procedure for this study. Reciprocal chimeras were generated via blastocyst injection and cells from mouse-like chimeras harvested at E13.5 and cells from rat-like chimeras harvested at a matched developmental stage (E15.5). Donor cells in species-mismatched environments were enriched

using fluorescence-activated cell sorting using TdTomato as a marker and single-cell RNA-

sequencing was performed. Gene expression measurements for each cell were then

computationally identified as mouse or rat, clustered, and then used to estimate extrinsic and

intrinsic divergence between species. **F)** Immunofluorescence image of the E13.5 forebrain of a

mouse-like chimera. Nuclei are stained with DAPI (blue) and Nestin (a neural stem cell marker)

is shown in green. TdTomato (magenta) marks donor rat cells in the mouse-like environment.

**G)** Immunofluorescence image of the E15.5 ganglionic eminence of a rat-like chimera. In this

case, TdTomato marks mouse cells in the rat-like environment.

**Fig. 2: Decomposition of gene expression divergence into cell-intrinsic, cell-extrinsic, and interaction components. A)** Expression of *Efnb3* in forebrain glutamatergic neurons as an example of purely extrinsic divergence. On the left of the dashed line, the expression of *Efnb3* is shown in species-matched environments. To the right of the dashed line, expression in mouse cells and rat cells is first shown in a rat-like environment and then in a mouse-like environment. The data used for the bars in species-matched environments to the left of the dashed line is

from the same host cells as the data in species-matched environments to the right of the

dashed line and is included for clarity. **B)** Expression of *Lsm6* in forebrain glutamatergic neurons

as an example of intrinsic divergence. **C)** Expression of *Plcxd2* as an example of opposing

extrinsic and intrinsic divergence. **D)** Expression of *Pou3f2* in forebrain glutamatergic neurons.

**E)** Schematic outlining how each gene's location in Fig. 2F indicates intrinsic and extrinsic

contributions to its expression divergence. Purely intrinsic divergence lies along the x-axis,

purely extrinsic divergence along the y-axis, and a combination of both (which can be

reinforcing or opposing in direction) occurs closer to the four diagonals. **F)** Plot of intrinsic and

extrinsic divergence in forebrain glutamatergic neurons. Each point represents a single gene

and the example genes shown in Fig. 2A-D are indicated on the graph. Points are colored by

the proportion of gene expression divergence explained by interaction. **G)** Barplot showing the

mean proportion of gene expression divergence explained by intrinsic divergence, extrinsic

divergence, and their interaction across all genes that met filtering criteria in each cell type.

**Fig. 3: Extrinsic and intrinsic divergence in the expression of *Xbp1* and its target genes.**

**A)** Enrichment of endoplasmic reticulum stress response genes for positive extrinsic divergence

across cell types. Each point is a GO biological process category in a cell type and the points

corresponding to the Response to ER stress GO category are colored blue. The x-axis shows

the $\log_2$ fold-enrichment and the y-axis shows the $-\log_{10}$ false discovery rate. **B)** Scatterplot

showing signed proportion intrinsic divergence (x-axis) and signed proportion extrinsic

divergence (y-axis) for all genes passing our filtering criteria for mesenchymal cluster 0. ER

stress response genes are shown in blue and all other genes are shown in grey. **C)** Expression

of *Xbp1* in mesenchymal cluster 0. **D)** Correlation between signed extrinsic proportion

divergence for *Xbp1* (x-axis) and the enrichment of its target genes for signed extrinsic

proportion divergence (y-axis). Each point is a cell type and cell types with extrinsically driven

increased expression of *Xbp1* in a rat-like environment have larger values on the x-axis. Cell

types with extrinsically driven increased expression of *Xbp1* target genes in a rat-like

environment have larger values on the y-axis. The line and shaded region represent the best fit

and 95% confidence interval of a linear model fit to the data. **E)** Conceptual model for *Xbp1*-

driven increased expression of ER stress response genes in a rat-like environment occurring in

some cell types. Due to extrinsic factor(s), *Xbp1* expression is increased in a rat-like

environment compared to a mouse-like environment. This then up-regulates *Xbp1* target genes,

many of which are ER stress response genes, in a rat-like environment. **F)** Expression of *Xbp1*

in spinal glutamatergic neurons. **G)** Correlation between signed intrinsic proportion divergence

for *Xbp1* (x-axis) and the enrichment of its target genes for signed intrinsic proportion

divergence (y-axis). Each point is a cell type and cell types with intrinsically driven increased

expression of *Xbp1* in rat cells have larger values on the x-axis. Cell types with intrinsically

driven increased expression of *Xbp1* target genes in rat cells have larger values on the y-axis.

The line and shaded region represent the best fit and 95% confidence interval of a linear model

fit to the data. **H)** Conceptual model for *Xbp1*-driven increased expression of ER stress

response genes in rat cells occurring in some cell types. Due to intrinsic factor(s), *Xbp1*

expression is increased in rat cells compared to mouse cells. This then up-regulates *Xbp1*

target genes, many of which are ER stress response genes, in rat cells compared to mouse

cells. **I)** Volcano plot of enrichment of TF target genes for signed extrinsic proportion

divergence. The y-axis shows the negative $\log_{10}$(FDR). The x-axis shows the $\log_2$ fold-

enrichment with target sets enriched for higher expression in rat-like environments on the right

and mouse-like environments on the left. KO stands for knockout, KD stands for knock down,

OE stands for overexpression, up implies increased expression after the experimental

manipulation, and down implies decreased expression after the experimental manipulation. **J)**

Volcano plot of enrichment of TF target genes for signed intrinsic proportion divergence. The y-

axis shows the negative $\log_{10}$(FDR). The x-axis shows the $\log_2$ fold-enrichment with target sets

enriched for higher expression in rat cells on the right and in mouse cells on the left.

**Fig. 4: Cell-type specific intrinsic and extrinsic divergence of the expression of genes encoding proteasomal subunits across cell types. A)** Expression of *Psmb1* in forebrain GABAergic neurons. **B)** Same as in (A) but for spinal glutamatergic neurons. **C)** Same as in (A) but for chondrocytes. **D)** Scatterplot showing signed proportion intrinsic divergence (x-axis) and signed proportion extrinsic divergence (y-axis) for all genes passing our filtering criteria for forebrain GABAergic neurons. Genes coding for 26S proteasomal subunits are shown in blue and all other genes are shown in grey. **E)** Same as in (D) but for spinal glutamatergic neurons. **F)** Same as in (D) but for chondrocytes.

**Fig. 5: Extrinsic divergence of *Jun* and *Hspa5* at the RNA and protein levels. A)**
Expression of *Hspa5* in forebrain GABAergic neurons (left) and progenitors (right). The
percentage of gene expression divergence explained by extrinsic and intrinsic factors is shown
in the upper right of each plot. **B)** The same as in (A) but showing the expression of *Jun*, which
codes for the protein c-Jun. **C)** Immunofluorescent staining for c-Jun in the medial ganglionic
eminence for a rat-like chimera. Donor mouse cells are marked with TdTomato and c-Jun
staining is shown in yellow. **D)** Comparison of intrinsic, extrinsic, and interaction divergence at
the RNA and protein level for *Jun*. To the left of the dashed line, the signed proportion
divergence is along the y-axis, with larger values indicating a greater proportion of either
intrinsic or extrinsic divergence leading to higher expression in rat. The extrinsic and intrinsic
divergence for protein levels across two chimera pairs is shown in blue and the divergence in
RNA expression in orange for GABAergic neurons (square marker) and neurons (triangle
marker). The bars indicate the average across replicates for protein and the two cell types for
RNA. To the right of the dashed line, the proportion of interaction divergence (which is non-
negative by definition) is shown with its own y-axis. **E)** Similar to (D) but showing *Hspa5*
divergence. **F)** Conceptual model for extrinsic or intrinsic divergence in the pace of
neurogenesis. The top outlines intrinsic divergence as mouse cells have a higher proportion of
neurons than progenitors regardless of whether cells are in a rat-like or mouse-like environment.
The bottom outlines extrinsic divergence in which the ratio of neurons to progenitors is similar
for mouse and rat cells in rat-like environment and similar for mouse and rat cells in a mouse-
like environment. **G)** Proportion intrinsic, extrinsic, and interaction divergence for neuron-
progenitor ratio in forebrain glutamatergic neurogenesis, forebrain GABAergic neurogenesis,
and spinal GABAergic and glutamatergic neurogenesis together.

**Fig. 6: Misexpression of imprinted genes in species-mismatched environments. A)**

Expression of the imprinted gene *Grb10* in chondrocytes. **B)** Expression of *Grb10* in forebrain

GABAergic progenitors. **C)** Expression of *Grb10* in forebrain GABAergic neurons. **D)**

Enrichment of imprinted genes for high absolute interaction divergence across cell types. The

bars represent the $\log_2$ fold-enrichment. **E)** Enrichment of maternally expressed and paternally

expressed genes for signed interaction divergence. Each point represents one of the eleven cell

types analyzed in this study. The y-axis shows the $-\log_{10}(\text{FDR})$ and the x-axis shows the $\log_2$

fold-enrichment. A negative enrichment score indicates higher expression in species-matched

environments, whereas a positive enrichment score indicates higher expression species-

mismatched environments. **F)** Expression of imprinted genes *Grb10* and *Igf2* in ventricular

cardiomyocytes. **G)** The same as in (D), but for cell types in the heart dataset and using the

absolute log fold-change between expression in a mouse-like environment and expression in a

rat-like environment to rank genes when computing enrichments. **H)** Heatmap of imprinted gene

expression across samples for adult parathyroid data. Samples were hierarchically clustered

using the Euclidean distance metric. **I)** Expression of the imprinted gene *PLAGL1* in macaque

and human epiblast. No data are shown for macaque cells in a human-like environment since

these have not been reported.

## Materials and methods

### Animals

Seven-week-old Wistar female rats and 10-week-old male rats were purchased from Charles River Laboratory (Wilmington, MA; CRL: 003). Seven-week-old CD1 female mice and 10-week-old male mice (CRL: 022) were purchased from Charles River Laboratory. Seven-week-old C57BL/6 female mice and 10-week-old male mice were purchased from Jackson Laboratories (Bar Harbor, ME: 000664). Littermates of the same sex were randomly assigned to experimental groups. All rats and mice were housed in pathogen-free conditions with free access to food and water. All animal protocols were approved by the Administrative Panel on Laboratory Animal Care at Stanford University.

### ESC culture

Undifferentiated tdTomato-labelled or GFP-labeled mouse ESCs (SUN106.2 and SGE2) were maintained on mitomycin-c treated mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs) in N2B27 medium(*45*) containing 1000 U/ml LIF (Peprotech, Cranbury, NJ; 300-05), 1 µM MEK inhibitor PD0325901 (Tocris, Barton Ln, Abingdon, United Kingdom; 4192) and 3 µM GSK3 inhibitor CHIR99021 (Tocris: 4423). Undifferentiated tdTomato-labelled rat ESCs were maintained in N2B27 medium containing 1 µM MEK inhibitor PD0325901, 3 µM CHIR99021, and 1000 U/ml of rat LIF as described(*46*). Their pluripotency was confirmed by chimera generation assay. All PSC lines used in this study were male lines.

### Embryo culture and manipulation

Wild-type mouse embryos were prepared according to published protocols(*47*). In brief, morula-stage embryos were obtained by uterus perfusion from superovulated CD1 mice at 2.5 days

postcoitum (dpc). Morula-stage embryos were cultured in KSOM-AA medium (CytoSpring,

Mountain View, CA; K0101) for 1 day and developed to blastocyst-stage embryos. Wild-type rat

blastocysts were obtained by uterus perfusion from female rats at 4.5 dpc and cultured in Rat

KSOM medium. For micromanipulation, mouse or rat ESCs were trypsinized and suspended in

mouse or rat ESC culture medium. A piezo-driven micromanipulator (Prime Tech, Tsuchiura,

Japan) was used to pierce the zona pellucida and trophectoderm under microscopy and 5–7

mouse or rat ESCs were introduced into blastocyst cavities near the inner cell mass. After

blastocyst injection, embryos were cultured for 1–2 hours. Mouse blastocysts were then

transferred into uteri of pseudopregnant recipient CD1 female mice at 2.5 dpc. Rat blastocysts

were then transferred into uteri of pseudopregnant recipient Wistar female rats at 3.5 dpc. Table

S1 shows results of the cell injection.

**Chimera dissection and cell preparation**

Embryonic day (E) 15.25 mouse-rat and E13.5 rat-mouse chimeras were dissected to harvest

forebrain and connective tissue. In brief, chimeric fetuses were collected from either E15.25 rat

or E13.5 mouse pregnant mothers and forebrain and connective tissues were harvested from

those chimeric fetuses. Both forebrains and connective tissues were dissociated in the solution

containing 2mg/ml Collagenase/Dispase (Roche, Basel, Switzerland; 10269638001) in Hanks'

Balanced Salt solution. After 30-60 min incubation at 37 degrees, 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS)

in PBS solution was added into the tissue solution to inactivate the enzymes. All the dissociated

cells were then filtered and used for the subsequent experiment.

**Flow cytometry**

Dissociated cells derived from forebrain and connective tissue were stained with APC-anti-mouse

CD45 antibody (Biolegend, San Diego, CA; 103112), PE-Cy7-anti rat CD45 (Biolegend: 202214).

Donor chimerism was analyzed by detecting CD45 negative, tdTomato or GFP-expressing cells

(detailed in Table S2). Both donor and host cells in the forebrain and connective tissue of chimeric

fetuses were sorted using a FACS Aria II (BD, Franklin Lakes, NJ).

**Single cell RNA-sequencing**

The chimeric fetuses from the CD1-Wistar chimeras that presented less than 10% donor

contribution to either forebrain or connective tissue were used for single cell RNA-sequencing.

The connective tissue and forebrain of three rat-like chimeras, three mouse-like chimeras, one

wildtype mouse, and one wildtype rat were used for scRNA-seq using 10x 3' v3.1 chemistry. The

connective tissue and forebrain were from different chimeras but pooled together before the cells

entered the 10x controller. Of the resulting eight libraries, the rat-like chimera in library MR1 had

high quality data for forebrain and connective tissue, the mouse-like chimera in library RM1 had

sufficiently high quality data for the neuronal lineage, the mouse-like chimera in library RM2 had

sufficiently high quality data for connective tissue, and both the wildtype mouse and rat libraries

had sufficiently high quality data for both tissue types.

**Histological analysis**

Tissues were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde and embedded in Optimal Cutting Temperature

(O.C.T.) compound (Sakura Finetek, Tokyo, Japan). OCT-embedded sections were stained with

antibodies for fluorescence microscopic analysis. Each section was incubated with the primary

antibodies (Abs) for 24 hours at 4 degrees and with the secondary Abs for 1 hour at room

temperature (detailed in Table S3). Following a wash step, sections were mounted with Vibrance

Antifade Mounting Medium with DAPI (Vector LABORATORIES, Newark, CA; H-1800), and

observed under confocal laser scanning microscopy (Carl Zeiss, Oberkochen, Baden-

Württemberg, Germany).

**Alignment, species deconvolution, and clustering**

All fastq files were aligned to the mouse (GRCm39, from ENSEMBL v109), rat (mRatBN7.2,

from ENSEMBL v109), and a concatenated mouse and rat genome using CellRanger

v7.1.0(*48*). For mapping, we retained protein-coding genes, lncRNA, antisense transcripts,

snoRNA, snRNA, miRNA, and scaRNA. The resulting count matrices were read into scanpy

v1.9.5 and the proportion of aligned reads to each genome in the concatenated genome was

used to determine the species of origin of each cell(*49*). A cell was assigned to mouse if greater

than or equal to 70% of aligned reads aligned to the mouse genome, assigned to rat if greater

than or equal to 70% of aligned reads aligned to the rat genome, and discarded as a doublet

otherwise. For all subsequent steps, we only used the mouse-aligned-only counts for mouse

cells and the rat-aligned-only counts for rat cells. We then removed all genes on sex

chromosomes, restricted to mouse-rat one-to-one orthologs (defined using data from

ENSEMBL), and performed standard pre-processing steps to remove low quality cells(*48*). For

the latter, we performed standard filtering and removed cells with greater than 15% of counts

coming from mitochondrial reads and cells with n_genes_by_counts (a commonly used quality

control metric) greater than 7500. Next, we converted to the log normalized counts, identified

highly variable genes, computed principal components, used the Python implementation of

harmony v0.0.9 to integrate the mouse and rat cells, and then found nearest neighbors(*50*). We

then clustered the cells using the Leiden algorithm v0.10.2 with resolution equal to 0.1(*51*). This

first round of clustering split cells into neuronal, connective tissue, and hematopoietic lineages.

The neuronal and connective tissue lineage cells were then retained for further analysis (see

below).

Several libraries did not contain a sufficient number of cells to be useful for our analysis.

Therefore, we used the rat-like chimera data from library MR1 for both neural and connective

tissue analyses, the mouse-like chimera data from library RM1 for neural analyses, and the

mouse-like chimera data from library RM2 for all subsequent analyses after the pseudobulking

step (see below).

Our main goal in clustering the cells was to identify cell types and remove cell subtypes that had

fewer than 10 cells in any of donor mouse cells, donor rat cells, host mouse cells, or host rat

cells in MR1 and RM1 (for neuronal lineages) or MR1 and RM2 (for connective tissue). We

repeated the harmony and Leiden-based procedure (with resolution equal to 0.5) on the neural

lineages and identified 18 subclusters. Due to a low number of cells in other cell types, we

restricted further analysis to forebrain glutamatergic progenitors (*Gli3* high, *Eomes*-, *Mki67+*),

forebrain GABAergic progenitors (*Gli3* low, *Eomes*-, *Mki67+*), intermediate progenitors

(*Eomes+*, *Mki67+*), forebrain glutamatergic neurons (*Slc17a6+*, *Tcf7l2*-, *Reln*-, *Hoxb8*-, *Mki67*-),

forebrain GABAergic neurons (*Gad1+*, *Hoxb8*-), spinal glutamatergic neurons (*Slc17a6+*,

*Hoxb8+*), and spinal GABAergic neurons (*Gad1+*, *Hoxb8+*)(*52–54*). As some forebrain

GABAergic subtypes had very few rat donor cells, we subclustered (Leiden resolution equal to

0.35) that cell type further, removed the subtypes with very few rat donor cells, and then merged

the remaining 3 cell subtypes which had similar cell type proportions across the four species-

environment combinations.

For the connective tissue, we reclustered the cells (Leiden resolution equal to 0.15) and

identified six clusters. We focused subsequent analysis on mesenchymal cells (*Postn* high,

*Prrx1* high) and chondrocytes (*Acan+*)(*55*). We subclustered both cell types (Leiden resolution

equal to 0.25 for mesenchymal cells and chondrocytes) and removed subtypes according to the

above criteria (i.e. at least 10 cells in each of the 4 species-environment combinations). After

this procedure, we retained one chondrocyte subcluster, two mesenchymal subclusters, and

cycling mesenchymal cells (*Mki67+*) for further analysis.

**Gene filtering, pseudobulking, and count normalization**

To avoid overly noisy estimates of intrinsic and extrinsic divergence, we removed genes that

were not expressed in greater than or equal to 20% of cells in at least one of the four species-

environment combinations. For each gene, we summed all counts across cells within a cell type

in each library for mouse and rat cells separately and removed genes that had fewer than ten

counts in all four species-environment combinations.

To normalize counts, we divided by total expression and multiplied by 10,000 for each

pseudobulked sample in each cell type separately. Rather than normalize the counts directly,

we first randomly sampled from the gene-count distribution within each sample in each cell type

so that the total number of counts was identical across all species-environment combinations.

We performed this procedure 100 times and took the mean normalized counts across all 100

samplings. This mean value was highly correlated with the actual normalized counts

(Spearman's rho > 0.999, $p < 10^{-300}$). This procedure was used instead of simply normalizing by

total counts because this can lead to biased estimation of log fold-changes when there are few

counts in one of the four species-environment combinations. For example, consider a scenario

in which donor mouse, host mouse, and host rat all have 1,000,000 total counts whereas donor

rat only has 100,000 counts. If a gene has 99 (100 after adding a pseudocount) counts in donor

mouse and host mouse and 0 (1 after adding a pseudocount) counts for donor rat and host rat

and we normalize to total counts and multiply by 10,000, we will have 1 normalized count in

donor mouse and host mouse, 0.01 normalized counts in host rat, and 0.1 normalized counts in

donor rat. If we then compute fold-changes, donor mouse divided by host rat would be 100 but

donor mouse divided by donor rat would be 10. This difference would propagate and (see

below) cause overestimation of the extrinsic or interaction component of gene expression and

underestimation of the intrinsic component.

From here, we will refer to normalized counts for mouse cells in a rat-like environment as DM

(donor mouse), counts for rat cells in a rat-like environment as HR (host rat), counts for mouse

cells in a mouse-like environment as HM (host mouse), and counts for rat cells in a mouse-like

environment as DR (donor rat).

**A framework to decompose gene expression divergence into extrinsic, intrinsic, and**

**interaction components**

Throughout, we use the $\log_2$ fold-change to measure gene expression divergence. We formulate

the total expression of a single gene in one of the species-environment combinations as the

product of an extrinsic component and an intrinsic component. For example, the expression of a

gene in a donor rat cell in a mouse-like environment ($D_R$) is equal to the intrinsic rat expression

($I_R$) multiplied by the expression induced by the mouse-like environment ($E_M$). In this framework,

the normalized counts are:

$$H_M = I_M \times E_M$$

$$H_R = I_R \times E_R$$

$$D_M = I_M \times E_R$$

$$D_R = I_R \times E_M$$

Where $H_M$ is the gene expression for a host mouse cell in a mouse-like environment, $H_R$ is the

gene expression for a host rat cell in a rat-like environment, $D_M$ is the gene expression for a

donor mouse cell in a rat-like environment, and $D_R$ is the gene expression for a donor rat cell in

a mouse-like environment. Using these four values with three degrees of freedom, we can

obtain two independent estimates of the intrinsic divergence between mouse and rat ($I_1$ and $I_2$):

736
$$I_1 = log_2\left(\frac{H_R}{D_M}\right) = log_2\left(\frac{I_R \times E_R}{I_M \times E_R}\right) = log_2\left(\frac{I_R}{I_M}\right)$$

737
$$I_2 = log_2\left(\frac{D_R}{H_M}\right) = log_2\left(\frac{I_R \times E_M}{I_M \times E_M}\right) = log_2\left(\frac{I_R}{I_M}\right)$$

739   Similarly, we obtain two independent estimates of the extrinsic divergence between mouse and

740   rat ($E_1$ and $E_2$):

741
$$E_1 = log_2\left(\frac{D_M}{H_M}\right) = log_2\left(\frac{I_M \times E_R}{I_M \times E_M}\right) = log_2\left(\frac{E_R}{E_M}\right)$$

742
$$E_2 = log_2\left(\frac{H_R}{D_R}\right) = log_2\left(\frac{I_R \times E_R}{I_R \times E_M}\right) = log_2\left(\frac{E_R}{E_M}\right)$$

However, for some genes the effects of a rat-like environment on mouse cells will likely differ

from the effects of a rat-like environment on rat cells (and vice versa) due to interactions

between extrinsic and intrinsic divergence. In the absence of such an interaction, the two

estimates of intrinsic divergence should be equal and the two estimates of extrinsic divergence

should be equal, so the difference between these pairs of estimates is itself an estimate of the

interaction between extrinsic and intrinsic divergence. Therefore, to quantify this interaction, we

can compute:

752
$$I_1 - I_2 = log_2\left(\frac{H_R}{D_M}\right) - log_2\left(\frac{D_R}{H_M}\right) = log_2\left(\frac{H_R \times H_M}{D_M \times D_R}\right) = 2N$$

754     This value is identical to what we obtain starting with extrinsic divergence:

$$E_2 - E_1 = log_2\left(\frac{H_R}{D_R}\right) - log_2\left(\frac{D_M}{H_M}\right) = log_2\left(\frac{H_R \times H_M}{D_M \times D_R}\right) = 2N$$

758     Based on this framework, we obtain our final estimates of intrinsic, extrinsic, and interaction

759     divergence by averaging the two estimates:

$$E = \frac{E_2 + E_1}{2}$$

$$I = \frac{I_1 + I_2}{2}$$

$$N = \frac{2N}{2}$$

765     To compute the proportion extrinsic, intrinsic, and interaction divergence, we take the magnitude

766     of each quantity and divide it by the sum of the magnitudes of all three quantities:

$$I_p = \frac{|I|}{|I| + |E| + |N|}$$

$$E_p = \frac{|E|}{|I| + |E| + |N|}$$

$$N_p = \frac{|N|}{|I| + |E| + |N|}$$

Finally, the signed proportion extrinsic, intrinsic, and interaction divergence is then computed as

the sign of the divergence multiplied by the proportion divergence for each quantity. We only

applied this framework to genes that had some evidence for divergence in expression level (i.e.

an absolute $\log_2$ fold-change greater than 0.5 in at least one of the four comparisons).

**Analysis of bulk RNA-seq data and developmentally dynamic gene expression**

To assess how developmentally dynamic gene expression might influence our results, we

focused on the E11.5, E13.5, and E15.5 (or their closest approximation e.g. E15 for rats)

timepoints collected from brain tissue in Cardoso-Moreira et al(*56*). For mice and rats

separately, we computed the Pearson correlation between expression level and developmental

stage(*57*). We then classified genes as having similar, opposite, or a shift in developmentally

dynamic gene expression that goes against the global difference in maturation rate between

mouse and rat (referred to as "temporal shift") according to the following criteria. We considered

a gene as having a similar change over development if the product of the correlation coefficients

for mice and rats was greater than 0.7 (increasing if both correlation coefficients were positive,

decreasing if both correlation coefficients were negative). Similarly, we classified genes as

opposite if the product of the correlation coefficients was less than -0.25. These different cutoffs

were chosen such that there were a sufficient number of genes for the analysis. As there were

many fewer genes with opposite expression trajectories over development, a less strict cutoff (-

0.25) was used. To classify genes as having a temporal shift, we restricted to the set of genes

with similar changes in expression over time and required that the absolute log fold-change

between mouse and rat at both E13.5 and E15.5 be less than 0.25, consistent with the logic

outlined in the supplementary text.

To further subdivide genes, we considered a gene as having higher expression in mouse if the

$\log_2$ fold-change of mouse expression divided by rat expression was greater than 0.5 and

considered a gene as having higher expression in rat if the $\log_2$ fold-change was less than -0.5.

Restricting to only the genes with similar gene expression trajectories in mouse and rat (i.e. the

product of the mouse and rat correlation coefficients was greater than 0.7), we classified genes

as increasing in expression over time if a gene had a positive correlation coefficient in mice and

rats and as decreasing over time if a gene had a negative correlation coefficient in both mice

and rats (for both decreasing and increasing genes, the product would be positive.

In general, to investigate the role of developmentally dynamic gene expression in our results

(see Supplementary Text 1 and Supplementary Figs. 4-9), we defined some gene set that we

would expect to be enriched for a target divergence (opposing extrinsic and intrinsic divergence,

reinforcing extrinsic and intrinsic divergence, mostly extrinsic divergence, or mostly interaction

divergence) under a model of purely intrinsic divergence combined with some form of

developmentally dynamic gene expression. We then used GSEAPY v1.0.6 preranked to test for

enrichment of that gene set at the top or bottom of the gene list when ranking by the target

(signed) divergence(25). Throughout the next section, we describe each gene set in terms of

what we would expect under the purely intrinsic model outlined above. We also always use

GSEAPY preranked with the following parameters: threads=4, permutation_num=1000,

format='png', seed=6, min_size = 10, max_size = 30000(25).

To define the first gene set in which we expect enrichment of both opposing and reinforcing

genes, we took the union of genes with similar expression trajectories in mice and rats and

genes that were classified as either higher in mouse or higher in rat. We then ranked genes by

the product of proportion intrinsic and proportion extrinsic and used GSEAPY preranked to test

for enrichment(25). To further investigate genes with opposing or reinforcing extrinsic and

intrinsic divergence, we ranked genes by the product of the signed extrinsic divergence and

signed intrinsic divergence so that genes with a large positive value for this metric are

reinforcing and genes with a large negative value are opposing. We then defined the gene set in

which we expect enrichment of opposing genes as the union of genes that either (1) were

increasing over time and had higher expression in mouse or (2) were decreasing over time and

had higher expression in rat. Similarly, for the gene set in which we expect enrichment of

reinforcing genes we took the union of genes that either (1) were decreasing over time and had

higher expression in mouse or (2) were increasing over time and had higher expression in rat.

We then ranked genes by the product of the signed intrinsic proportion and signed extrinsic

proportion (so that genes with a very low value are opposing and genes with a very high value

are reinforcing) and used GSEAPY preranked(*25*).

To investigate purely extrinsic genes, we defined the gene set in which we expect enrichment of

extrinsic genes as the temporal shift genes (defined above), sorted by extrinsic proportion, and

used GSEAPY preranked(*25*). Next, we split temporal shift genes into decreasing (expected to

be enriched for negative extrinsic divergence) and increasing (expected to be enriched for

positive extrinsic divergence) and input both gene sets, sorted by signed extrinsic proportion,

and used GSEAPY preranked(*25*).

Finally, to investigate interaction divergence genes we defined the gene set we expect to be

enriched for interaction divergence as the opposing genes (defined above), sorted by proportion

interaction, and used GSEAPY preranked(*25*). Next, we defined genes expected to have higher

expression in species-matched environments as genes with increasing expression in rat and

decreasing expression in mouse and genes expected to have higher expression in species-

mismatched environments as genes with increasing expression in mouse and decreasing

expression in rat. We then sorted the input gene list by the signed interaction proportion and

tested for enrichment using GSEAPY preranked(*25*).

**Data processing and analysis for predictors of intrinsic and extrinsic divergence**

We tested six variables for their correlation with [intrinsic proportion - extrinsic proportion]. In

general, if high quality data were not available for both rats and mice, we used data from the

human genome to avoid biasing our analysis. To measure gene expression divergence and

total expression in mice and rats, we used the $\log_2$ fold-change between and average

expression of mouse cells in a mouse environment and rat cells in a rat environment. To

measure evolutionary constraint, we used the metric for constraint on each gene published in

Zeng et al(58). As a proxy for regulatory complexity, we assigned candidate *cis*-regulatory

elements (CREs) from the ENCODE project to the nearest TSS of a protein-coding gene,

removed CREs greater than 100,000 bases from the nearest TSS of a protein coding gene, and

computed the total number of regulatory elements assigned to each gene(59). For cell type

specificity, we used total expression (as described above) for each of the eleven cell types in

our analysis as input to compute Tau, a well-established measure of tissue/cell type-specificity.

Tau is equal to one if a gene is completely specific to a single cell type or tissue, and zero if it is

equally expressed across all cell types or tissues(60). To compute tissue specificity in mice and

rats at E13.5 and E15.5 respectively, we averaged normalized counts across replicates for six

of the seven tissues from Cardoso-Moreira et al. (we excluded cerebellum/hindbrain due to its

transcriptional similarity to the rest of the brain) and computed Tau(56). Finally, we computed

the $\log_2$ fold-change between mouse and rat within each tissue (again using E13.5 and E15.5

respectively and excluding cerebellum/hindbrain) and used the variance of the $\log_2$ fold-change

across tissues as a measure of the tissue-specificity of gene expression divergence.

To merge these six variables into one matrix we converted mouse gene names to human gene

names using the orthologs from the Ensembl database and joined all the above metrics

together, removing any genes for which one or more of these metrics could not be

computed(*48*). We then calculated the Spearman correlation between [intrinsic proportion -

extrinsic proportion] and each of these variables(*57*).

**Enrichment analysis**

For the enrichment analysis, we either performed analysis on each cell type separately or

averaged expression in connective tissue, the neural lineage (i.e. including spinal neurons with

the forebrain cells), or across all eleven cell types. In the first two cases, we required that a

gene have passed our filtering criteria (see above) in at least three cell types and in the latter

case we required a gene to have passed the filtering criteria in at least five cell types.

Throughout, we always use GSEAPY preranked with parameters: threads=4,

permutation_num=1000, format='png', seed=6, min_size = 10, max_size = 300(*25*). To identify

enriched gene sets in extrinsically driven genes, we sorted the input gene list by the signed

extrinsic proportion, converted mouse gene symbols to human gene symbols using orthologs

defined by Ensembl, and used GSEAPY preranked(*25*, *48*). We tested gene sets from the gene

ontology (GO) biological process (2023 version), GO cellular component (2023 version), GO

molecular function (2023 version), MGI Level 4 Mammalian Phenotypes (2021 version), and the

CORUM protein complex database(*61–63*). In all cases, we used the versions directly

supported by GSEAPY. After running on all cell types, we retained all terms across the five

ontologies with FDR < 0.25.

To identify shared and cell type-specific enrichments, we counted the number of times each

term occurred in this final merged file. To further investigate shared terms, we visualized the

signed extrinsic and signed intrinsic proportion as shown in Fig. 3G-H. The $\log_2$ fold-enrichment

shown in many subFigs., is defined as the $\log_2$ fold-change for the number of genes in the gene

set with signed proportion extrinsic above the rank cutoff determined by GSEAPY preranked

and the number of genes below an identical cutoff (or vice versa if the enrichment was for

negative proportion extrinsic divergence). For example, consider an enrichment for positive

extrinsic proportion with 500 total genes above the GSEAPY cutoff, 15 of which are imprinted

genes. We would then count all imprinted genes in the 500 genes with the most negative signed

extrinsic proportion. If, continuing the example, 0 genes of those 500 were in the gene set, the

final $\log_2$ fold-change would be:

$$log_2\left(\frac{15+1}{0+1}\right) = 4$$

**Transcription factor target enrichment analysis**

For the transcription factor (TF) target enrichment analysis, we focused on the averaged signed

extrinsic and intrinsic proportion across all cell types to reduce noise, but also performed the

analysis on each cell type separately. The analysis was performed as described above, but

using the TF Perturbations Followed By Expression database in GSEAPY/MSigDB(*25*). We

then computed the Spearman correlation between the extrinsic TF target enrichment score for

genes with increased expression following *Xbp1* overexpression (from GSEAPY as described

above) and the signed proportion extrinsic for *Xbp1.* With regard to the significant enrichment

for targets *Nfe2l1* (which codes for the protein Nrf1) for positive intrinsic divergence, the gene is

often erroneously referred to as *NRF1* in the database of TF targets and so the significant

enrichment for *NRF1* we observe actually refers to *Nfe2l1* (and is referred to as *Nfe2l1*)

throughout the text. We repeated this analysis using the TF target enrichment score and signed

proportion extrinsic proportion for *Nfe2l2* and *Stat3*. We computed a similar correlation using

*Xbp1* and *Nrf1* intrinsic signed proportion and the intrinsic TF target enrichment score for *Xbp1*

and *Nrf1* target genes respectively. For *Xbp1*, we also computed the correlation between the

signed extrinsic or intrinsic proportion and the enrichment score for the Response to

Endoplasmic Reticulum Stress (Response to ER stress) Gene Ontology category(*63*).

Importantly, a strong correlation between signed extrinsic divergence in *Xbp1* expression and

enrichment for it targets or ER stress genes does not necessarily imply a strong correlation

between signed intrinsic divergence in *Xbp1* expression and the corresponding enrichments.

For example, if *cis*-acting mutations altered the expression of many *Xbp1* target genes, this

might lead to weak to no correlation for signed intrinsic divergence even if there were a strong

correlation for signed extrinsic divergence.

**Quantification and analysis of immunofluorescence (IF) images**

All quantification of fluorescence intensity was performed in Python and all IF images shown in

this work were made in ImageJ(*64*). We paired chimeras that were generated, fixed, processed,

stained, and imaged in the same batch with the same reagents. For all regions of interest,

selection, tuning, and parameter selection was performed using only the DAPI and TdTomato

channels before measuring fluorescence intensity for c-Jun or Hspa5, ensuring that we were

effectively blind to the outcome of the analysis and that the results were not biased.

To quantify fluorescence intensity, we read in the images and drew a rectangular region of

interest containing only the medial and lateral ganglionic eminences for chimera pair 1, and only

the medial ganglionic eminence for chimera 3 (as the lateral ganglionic eminence had no mouse

cells in the rat-like chimera). We then used a Gaussian filter to blur the DAPI and TdTomato

channels and masked the images into DAPI positive, DAPI negative, TdTomato positive, and

TdTomato negative. We tuned the Gaussian blue sigma parameter and cutoff for the masking

by hand until the DAPI mask included all of the area in the region of interest except clearly

visible larger regions without DAPI+ nuclei in the region of interest. For the TdTomato signal, we

ensured that the mask closely matched the original TdTomato signal in the region of interest.

The sigma and masking cutoff values selected in this process were used for all results

presented in the text.

We then considered all DAPI+ TdTomato+ pixels to be from donor cells (species-mismatched

environment) and all DAPI+ TdT- pixels to be from host cells (species-matched environment),

restricted to pixels with non-zero c-Jun or Hspa5 intensity values, and computed the average

fluorescent intensity in each set of pixels. For within chimera comparisons, we computed the

$\log_2$ fold-change between the average donor signal and the average host signal as was done for

the RNA-seq measurements. We also subtracted the average background signal from a

rectangular region with no nuclei from the values computed above before computing $\log_2$ fold-

changes between chimeras. As the sigma parameter and cutoff for the masking were chosen by

hand, we tested all possible combinations of three different masking cutoffs (the originally

selected cutoff and two other similar values) for DAPI and TdTomato for the rat-like and mouse-

like chimeras separately (81 combinations in total) and obtained highly similar log fold-changes

(the largest standard error for any log fold-change was 0.0046). These $\log_2$ fold-changes were

then used to compute the extrinsic, intrinsic, and interaction proportions for protein expression

divergence as described above for the gene expression divergence measured through scRNA-

seq.

To produce the images in the publication the images were first read into ImageJ. Next, channels

were assigned colors and the brightness and contrast tuned to visualize the fluorescent signal.

Scale bars were then added by synchronizing the windows, drawing horizontal line, and adding

a scale bar to each image with the Scale Bar tool. These images were then exported as .png

objects.

**Analysis of neuron-progenitor ratios**

For the forebrain glutamatergic cells, forebrain GABAergic cells, and the combined spinal cord glutamatergic and GABAergic cells (combined due to the low number of progenitors we detect), we computed the ratio of post-mitotic cells to progenitors (excluding intermediate progenitors) in all four species-environment combinations. We then used these values to compute $\log_2$ fold-changes and the intrinsic, extrinsic, and interaction proportions in the same way we did for the normalized counts from the scRNA-seq data.

**Analysis of imprinted gene expression**

The list of imprinted genes for mice and humans was downloaded from https://www.geneimprint.com/site/home through the "gene by species" tab. To test whether imprinted genes were enriched for high absolute interaction divergence, we created an imprinted gene set consisting of all "confident" and "predicted" imprinted genes in mice from the above resource. Only 2 genes were predicted and not confident, so our results are unaltered by restricting only to confident imprinted genes. We next performed enrichment analysis as described above, including averaging across cell types within nervous and connective tissue, with the following modification. Initially, we simply ranked genes by the absolute interaction divergence and observed very strong enrichment. However, due to the GSEA running sum statistic being initially developed for signed metrics (e.g. log fold-change) we reasoned that this procedure could lead to spuriously strong enrichments(*25*). To address this, we rank transformed the list such that the genes with very large absolute interaction divergence have large positive values and genes with absolute interaction divergence near zero had negative values with equally large magnitude. For example, if there were 5,000 input genes, the gene with the highest absolute interaction divergence would have a value of 2,500, the next highest

1006    2,499, etc. The gene with the lowest absolute interaction divergence would have a value of -

1007    2,500, the next lowest -2,499, etc. Using this strategy, we still observe strong enrichment (we

1008    report the p-values obtained using this strategy in the text and Fig. 6D). For the signed

1009    enrichment analysis, we ranked genes by the signed interaction divergence and used GSEAPY

1010    preranked with the imprinted gene set.

1011

1012    To analyze the data from chimeric rodent hearts, we downloaded the counts matrices and

1013    associated metadata (including the species of origin for each cell) from GEO:

1014    https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/query/acc.cgi?acc=GSE236400(*37*). The cell type and other

1015    metadata were shared by the original authors of the study.

1016

We then pseudobulked counts by summing across all cells within a cell type for chimera 1,

chimera 2, and the wildtype rat sample separately, removed genes with fewer than twenty

counts in all samples, and computed counts per million (CPM). We then took the mean of the

two chimera replicates and computed the $\log_2$ fold-change of rat-like environment CPM divided

by mouse-like environment CPM. This value was then used in place of interaction divergence

for the enrichment analyses described above.

1023

To analyze the data from adult parathyroid glands, we downloaded files containing TPM

estimates for each mouse transcript from GEO:

https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/query/acc.cgi?acc=GSE232600. We then collapsed TPM

estimates to the gene level by summing the TPM for each transcript assigned to individual

genes. As each sample was generated from a very small number of cells (approximately 20),

expression estimates for many genes were noisy so we used the median TPM across replicates

per condition as our estimate of the expression level of that gene. We removed genes with

median TPM less than 5 in all conditions (species-mismatched environment, species-matched

environment, and wildtype mice). We restricted to imprinted genes as described above,

normalized the expression of each gene, and applied hierarchical clustering with the default

parameters in seaborn clustermap. The log fold-change was computed by comparing the

median TPMs. All imprinted genes with absolute $\log_2$ fold-change between expression for

species-mismatched and species-matched environment samples greater than 1 were plotted in

Fig. S29A.

1038

To analyze the data from human and macaque epiblast, we downloaded the transcripts per

million (TPM) matrices for human-macaque chimeric embryos and wildtype human embryos

from GEO: https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/query/acc.cgi?acc=GSE155381 and

https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/query/acc.cgi?acc=GSE109555 respectively. We restricted to

cells annotated as epiblast for the human-macaque chimeric data and used Ensembl to identify

one-to-one orthologs between crab-eating macaques and humans. For the wildtype human

embryos, the raw count matrices and cell type annotations were unavailable. Therefore, we

restricted to cells with greater than one TPM for *NANOG*, *SOX2*, or *POU5F1* (also known as

*OCT4*) as putative epiblast cells. We then averaged TPM across all cells in each species-

environment category, filtered genes that were expressed below 1 TPM in all categories, and

computed the $\log_2$ fold-change of human in a macaque-like environment divided by macaque in

a macaque-like environment and human in a macaque-like environment divided by human in a

human-like environment after adding one pseudo-TPM to all values. We then performed the

enrichment analysis using absolute $\log_2$ fold-change as described for mouse and rat heart data.

Although the comparison of human data across studies undoubtedly introduces batch effects, it

is very unlikely that those batch effects would specifically increase the absolute $\log_2$ fold-change

of imprinted genes as a whole.

1056

**References and Notes**

1. H. Spemann, H. Mangold, Induction of embryonic primordia by implantation of organizers from a different species. 1923. *Int. J. Dev. Biol.* **45**, 13–38 (2001).

2. N. M. Le Douarin, The ontogeny of the neural crest in avian embryo chimaeras. *Nature* **286**, 663–669 (1980).

3. Twitty, Victor C., CORRELATED GENETIC AND EMBRYOLOGICAL EXPERIMENTS ON TRITURUS. I and II. *The Journal of Experimental Zoology* **74** (1936).

4. R. A. Schneider, Neural crest and the origin of species-specific pattern. *genesis* **56**, e23219 (2018).

5. Le Douarin N, McLaren A., *Chimeras in Developmental Biology* (Academic Press, 1984).

6. F. Suchy, H. Nakauchi, Interspecies chimeras. *Curr. Opin. Genet. Dev.* **52**, 36–41 (2018).

7. B. K. Stepien, R. Naumann, A. Holtz, J. Helppi, W. B. Huttner, S. Vaid, Lengthening Neurogenic Period during Neocortical Development Causes a Hallmark of Neocortex Expansion. *Curr. Biol.* **30**, 4227-4237.e5 (2020).

8. B. F. Eames, R. A. Schneider, Quail-duck chimeras reveal spatiotemporal plasticity in molecular and histogenic programs of cranial feather development. *Dev. Camb. Engl.* **132**, 1499–1509 (2005).

9. R. A. Schneider, J. A. Helms, The Cellular and Molecular Origins of Beak Morphology. *Science* **299**, 565–568 (2003).

10. P. J. Wittkopp, G. Kalay, Cis-regulatory elements: molecular mechanisms and evolutionary processes underlying divergence. *Nat. Rev. Genet.* **13**, 59–69 (2012).

11. P. J. Wittkopp, B. K. Haerum, A. G. Clark, Evolutionary changes in cis and trans gene regulation. *Nature* **430**, 85–88 (2004).

12. J. D. Coolon, C. J. McManus, K. R. Stevenson, B. R. Graveley, P. J. Wittkopp, Tempo and mode of regulatory evolution in *Drosophila*. *Genome Res.* **24**, 797–808 (2014).

13. X. Liu, Y. I. Li, J. K. Pritchard, Trans Effects on Gene Expression Can Drive Omnigenic Inheritance. *Cell* **177**, 1022-1034.e6 (2019).

14. F. W. Albert, J. S. Bloom, J. Siegel, L. Day, L. Kruglyak, Genetics of trans-regulatory variation in gene expression. *eLife* **7**, e35471 (2018).

15. Q. Wang, Y. Jia, Y. Wang, Z. Jiang, X. Zhou, Z. Zhang, C. Nie, J. Li, N. Yang, L. Qu, Evolution of cis- and trans-regulatory divergence in the chicken genome between two contrasting breeds analyzed using three tissue types at one-day-old. *BMC Genomics* **20**, 933 (2019).

16. J. Huang, B. He, X. Yang, X. Long, Y. Wei, Y. Gao, Y. Fang, W. Ying, Z. Wang, C. Li, Y. Zhou, S. Li, L. Shi, F. Guo, H. Zhou, H. Yang, J. Wu, "Interspecies blastocyst complementation generates

functional rat cell-derived forebrain tissues in mice" (preprint, Developmental Biology, 2023);
https://doi.org/10.1101/2023.04.13.536774.

17.   S. Kim-Hellmuth, F. Aguet, M. Oliva, M. Muñoz-Aguirre, S. Kasela, V. Wucher, S. E. Castel, A. R.
Hamel, A. Viñuela, A. L. Roberts, S. Mangul, X. Wen, G. Wang, A. N. Barbeira, D. Garrido-
Martín, B. B. Nadel, Y. Zou, R. Bonazzola, J. Quan, A. Brown, A. Martinez-Perez, J. M. Soria,
GTEx Consortium, G. Getz, E. T. Dermitzakis, K. S. Small, M. Stephens, H. S. Xi, H. K. Im, R.
Guigó, A. V. Segrè, B. E. Stranger, K. G. Ardlie, T. Lappalainen, F. Aguet, S. Anand, K. G. Ardlie, S.
Gabriel, G. A. Getz, A. Graubert, K. Hadley, R. E. Handsaker, K. H. Huang, S. Kashin, X. Li, D. G.
MacArthur, S. R. Meier, J. L. Nedzel, D. T. Nguyen, A. V. Segrè, E. Todres, B. Balliu, A. N.
Barbeira, A. Battle, R. Bonazzola, A. Brown, C. D. Brown, S. E. Castel, D. F. Conrad, D. J. Cotter,
N. Cox, S. Das, O. M. De Goede, E. T. Dermitzakis, J. Einson, B. E. Engelhardt, E. Eskin, T. Y.
Eulalio, N. M. Ferraro, E. D. Flynn, L. Fresard, E. R. Gamazon, D. Garrido-Martín, N. R. Gay, M. J.
Gloudemans, R. Guigó, A. R. Hame, Y. He, P. J. Hoffman, F. Hormozdiari, L. Hou, H. K. Im, B. Jo,
S. Kasela, M. Kellis, S. Kim-Hellmuth, A. Kwong, T. Lappalainen, X. Li, Y. Liang, S. Mangul, P.
Mohammadi, S. B. Montgomery, M. Muñoz-Aguirre, D. C. Nachun, A. B. Nobel, M. Oliva, Y.
Park, Y. Park, P. Parsana, A. S. Rao, F. Reverter, J. M. Rouhana, C. Sabatti, A. Saha, M.
Stephens, B. E. Stranger, B. J. Strober, N. A. Teran, A. Viñuela, G. Wang, X. Wen, F. Wright, V.
Wucher, Y. Zou, P. G. Ferreira, G. Li, M. Melé, E. Yeger-Lotem, M. E. Barcus, D. Bradbury, T.
Krubit, J. A. McLean, L. Qi, K. Robinson, N. V. Roche, A. M. Smith, L. Sobin, D. E. Tabor, A.
Undale, J. Bridge, L. E. Brigham, B. A. Foster, B. M. Gillard, R. Hasz, M. Hunter, C. Johns, M.
Johnson, E. Karasik, G. Kopen, W. F. Leinweber, A. McDonald, M. T. Moser, K. Myer, K. D.
Ramsey, B. Roe, S. Shad, J. A. Thomas, G. Walters, M. Washington, J. Wheeler, S. D. Jewell, D.
C. Rohrer, D. R. Valley, D. A. Davis, D. C. Mash, P. A. Branton, L. K. Barker, H. M. Gardiner, M.
Mosavel, L. A. Siminoff, P. Flicek, M. Haeussler, T. Juettemann, W. J. Kent, C. M. Lee, C. C.
Powell, K. R. Rosenbloom, M. Ruffier, D. Sheppard, K. Taylor, S. J. Trevanion, D. R. Zerbino, N.
S. Abell, J. Akey, L. Chen, K. Demanelis, J. A. Doherty, A. P. Feinberg, K. D. Hansen, P. F. Hickey,
F. Jasmine, L. Jiang, R. Kaul, M. G. Kibriya, J. B. Li, Q. Li, S. Lin, S. E. Linder, B. L. Pierce, L. F.
Rizzardi, A. D. Skol, K. S. Smith, M. Snyder, J. Stamatoyannopoulos, H. Tang, M. Wang, L. J.
Carithers, P. Guan, S. E. Koester, A. R. Little, H. M. Moore, C. R. Nierras, A. K. Rao, J. B. Vaught,
S. Volpi, Cell type–specific genetic regulation of gene expression across human tissues.
*Science* **369**, eaaz8528 (2020).

18.   The GTEx Consortium, F. Aguet, S. Anand, K. G. Ardlie, S. Gabriel, G. A. Getz, A. Graubert, K.
Hadley, R. E. Handsaker, K. H. Huang, S. Kashin, X. Li, D. G. MacArthur, S. R. Meier, J. L.
Nedzel, D. T. Nguyen, A. V. Segrè, E. Todres, B. Balliu, A. N. Barbeira, A. Battle, R. Bonazzola, A.
Brown, C. D. Brown, S. E. Castel, D. F. Conrad, D. J. Cotter, N. Cox, S. Das, O. M. De Goede, E.
T. Dermitzakis, J. Einson, B. E. Engelhardt, E. Eskin, T. Y. Eulalio, N. M. Ferraro, E. D. Flynn, L.
Fresard, E. R. Gamazon, D. Garrido-Martín, N. R. Gay, M. J. Gloudemans, R. Guigó, A. R. Hame,
Y. He, P. J. Hoffman, F. Hormozdiari, L. Hou, H. K. Im, B. Jo, S. Kasela, M. Kellis, S. Kim-
Hellmuth, A. Kwong, T. Lappalainen, X. Li, Y. Liang, S. Mangul, P. Mohammadi, S. B.
Montgomery, M. Muñoz-Aguirre, D. C. Nachun, A. B. Nobel, M. Oliva, Y. Park, Y. Park, P.
Parsana, A. S. Rao, F. Reverter, J. M. Rouhana, C. Sabatti, A. Saha, M. Stephens, B. E. Stranger,
B. J. Strober, N. A. Teran, A. Viñuela, G. Wang, X. Wen, F. Wright, V. Wucher, Y. Zou, P. G.
Ferreira, G. Li, M. Melé, E. Yeger-Lotem, M. E. Barcus, D. Bradbury, T. Krubit, J. A. McLean, L. Qi,
K. Robinson, N. V. Roche, A. M. Smith, L. Sobin, D. E. Tabor, A. Undale, J. Bridge, L. E. Brigham,
B. A. Foster, B. M. Gillard, R. Hasz, M. Hunter, C. Johns, M. Johnson, E. Karasik, G. Kopen, W. F.
Leinweber, A. McDonald, M. T. Moser, K. Myer, K. D. Ramsey, B. Roe, S. Shad, J. A. Thomas, G.

Walters, M. Washington, J. Wheeler, S. D. Jewell, D. C. Rohrer, D. R. Valley, D. A. Davis, D. C. Mash, P. A. Branton, L. K. Barker, H. M. Gardiner, M. Mosavel, L. A. Siminoff, P. Flicek, M. Haeussler, T. Juettemann, W. J. Kent, C. M. Lee, C. C. Powell, K. R. Rosenbloom, M. Ruffier, D. Sheppard, K. Taylor, S. J. Trevanion, D. R. Zerbino, N. S. Abell, J. Akey, L. Chen, K. Demanelis, J. A. Doherty, A. P. Feinberg, K. D. Hansen, P. F. Hickey, F. Jasmine, L. Jiang, R. Kaul, M. G. Kibriya, J. B. Li, Q. Li, S. Lin, S. E. Linder, B. L. Pierce, L. F. Rizzardi, A. D. Skol, K. S. Smith, M. Snyder, J. Stamatoyannopoulos, H. Tang, M. Wang, L. J. Carithers, P. Guan, S. E. Koester, A. R. Little, H. M. Moore, C. R. Nierras, A. K. Rao, J. B. Vaught, S. Volpi, The GTEx Consortium atlas of genetic regulatory effects across human tissues. *Science* **369**, 1318–1330 (2020).

19. GTEx Consortium, Genetic effects on gene expression across human tissues. *Nature* **550**, 204–213 (2017).

20. B. P. H. Metzger, F. Duveau, D. C. Yuan, S. Tryban, B. Yang, P. J. Wittkopp, Contrasting Frequencies and Effects of *cis* - and *trans* -Regulatory Mutations Affecting Gene Expression. *Mol. Biol. Evol.* **33**, 1131–1146 (2016).

21. A. Hoter, M. El-Sabban, H. Naim, The HSP90 Family: Structure, Regulation, Function, and Implications in Health and Disease. *Int. J. Mol. Sci.* **19**, 2560 (2018).

22. Y. Zhu, D. Sun, M. Jakovcevski, Y. Jiang, Epigenetic mechanism of SETDB1 in brain: implications for neuropsychiatric disorders. *Transl. Psychiatry* **10**, 115 (2020).

23. S.-M. Park, T.-I. Kang, J.-S. So, Roles of XBP1s in Transcriptional Regulation of Target Genes. *Biomedicines* **9**, 791 (2021).

24. M. F. Gregor, E. S. Misch, L. Yang, S. Hummasti, K. E. Inouye, A.-H. Lee, B. Bierie, G. S. Hotamisligil, The role of adipocyte XBP1 in metabolic regulation during lactation. *Cell Rep.* **3**, 1430–1439 (2013).

25. A. Subramanian, P. Tamayo, V. K. Mootha, S. Mukherjee, B. L. Ebert, M. A. Gillette, A. Paulovich, S. L. Pomeroy, T. R. Golub, E. S. Lander, J. P. Mesirov, Gene set enrichment analysis: A knowledge-based approach for interpreting genome-wide expression profiles. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* **102**, 15545–15550 (2005).

26. H.-C. Ku, C.-F. Cheng, Master Regulator Activating Transcription Factor 3 (ATF3) in Metabolic Homeostasis and Cancer. *Front. Endocrinol.* **11**, 556 (2020).

27. Y. Adachi, K. Yamamoto, T. Okada, H. Yoshida, A. Harada, K. Mori, ATF6 is a transcription factor specializing in the regulation of quality control proteins in the endoplasmic reticulum. *Cell Struct. Funct.* **33**, 75–89 (2008).

28. W. Yu, B. Wang, L. Zhou, G. Xu, Endoplasmic Reticulum Stress-Mediated p62 Downregulation Inhibits Apoptosis via c-Jun Upregulation. *Biomol. Ther.* **29**, 195–204 (2021).

29. Z. Sha, A. L. Goldberg, Proteasome-Mediated Processing of Nrf1 Is Essential for Coordinate Induction of All Proteasome Subunits and p97. *Curr. Biol.* **24**, 1573–1583 (2014).

30. J. R. Vangala, S. Dudem, N. Jain, S. V. Kalivendi, Regulation of PSMB5 Protein and β Subunits of
Mammalian Proteasome by Constitutively Activated Signal Transducer and Activator of
Transcription 3 (STAT3). *J. Biol. Chem.* **289**, 12612–12622 (2014).

31. F. He, X. Ru, T. Wen, NRF2, a Transcription Factor for Stress Response and Beyond. *Int. J. Mol.*
*Sci.* **21**, 4777 (2020).

32. J. Wang, J. Lee, D. Liem, P. Ping, HSPA5 Gene encoding Hsp70 chaperone BiP in the
endoplasmic reticulum. *Gene* **618**, 14–23 (2017).

33. A. M. Juan, Y. H. Foong, J. L. Thorvaldsen, Y. Lan, N. A. Leu, J. G. Rurik, L. Li, C. Krapp, C. L.
Rosier, J. A. Epstein, M. S. Bartolomei, Tissue-specific Grb10/Ddc insulator drives allelic
architecture for cardiac development. *Mol. Cell* **82**, 3613-3631.e7 (2022).

34. N. Giannoukakis, C. Deal, J. Paquette, C. G. Goodyer, C. Polychronakos, Parental genomic
imprinting of the human IGF2 gene. *Nat. Genet.* **4**, 98–101 (1993).

35. G. E. Moore, M. Ishida, C. Demetriou, L. Al-Olabi, L. J. Leon, A. C. Thomas, S. Abu-Amero, J. M.
Frost, J. L. Stafford, Y. Chaoqun, A. J. Duncan, R. Baigel, M. Brimioulle, I. Iglesias-Platas, S.
Apostolidou, R. Aggarwal, J. C. Whittaker, A. Syngelaki, K. H. Nicolaides, L. Regan, D. Monk, P.
Stanier, The role and interaction of imprinted genes in human fetal growth. *Philos. Trans. R.*
*Soc. B Biol. Sci.* **370**, 20140074 (2015).

36. J. Glaser, J. Iranzo, M. Borensztein, M. Marinucci, A. Gualtieri, C. Jouhanneau, A. Teissandier,
C. Gaston-Massuet, D. Bourc'his, The imprinted Zdbf2 gene finely tunes control of feeding and
growth in neonates. *eLife* **11**, e65641 (2022).

37. G. Coppiello, P. Barlabé, M. Moya-Jódar, G. Abizanda, C. Pogontke, C. Barreda, E. Iglesias, J.
Linares, E. Arellano-Viera, E. Larequi, P. San Martín-Úriz, X. Carvajal-Vergara, B. Pelacho, M. M.
Mazo, J. M. Pérez-Pomares, A. Ruiz-Villalba, A. Ullate-Agote, F. Prósper, X. L. Aranguren,
Generation of heart and vascular system in rodents by blastocyst complementation. *Dev. Cell*
**58**, 2881-2895.e7 (2023).

38. M. Kano, N. Mizuno, H. Sato, T. Kimura, R. Hirochika, Y. Iwasaki, N. Inoshita, H. Nagano, M.
Kasai, H. Yamamoto, T. Yamaguchi, H. Suga, H. Masaki, E. Mizutani, H. Nakauchi, Functional
calcium-responsive parathyroid glands generated using single-step blastocyst
complementation. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* **120**, e2216564120 (2023).

39. F. Zhou, R. Wang, P. Yuan, Y. Ren, Y. Mao, R. Li, Y. Lian, J. Li, L. Wen, L. Yan, J. Qiao, F. Tang,
Reconstituting the transcriptome and DNA methylome landscapes of human implantation.
*Nature* **572**, 660–664 (2019).

40. T. Tan, J. Wu, C. Si, S. Dai, Y. Zhang, N. Sun, E. Zhang, H. Shao, W. Si, P. Yang, H. Wang, Z. Chen,
R. Zhu, Y. Kang, R. Hernandez-Benitez, L. Martinez Martinez, E. Nuñez Delicado, W. T.
Berggren, M. Schwarz, Z. Ai, T. Li, H. Deng, C. Rodriguez Esteban, W. Ji, Y. Niu, J. C. Izpisua
Belmonte, Chimeric contribution of human extended pluripotent stem cells to monkey
embryos ex vivo. *Cell* **184**, 2020-2032.e14 (2021).

41. H. Masaki, H. Nakauchi, Interspecies chimeras for human stem cell research. *Development*
**144**, 2544–2547 (2017).

42. B. Ramani, I. V. L. Rose, A. Pan, R. Tian, K. Ma, J. J. Palop, M. Kampmann, "Scalable, cell type-
selective, AAV-based *in vivo* CRISPR screening in the mouse brain" (preprint, Genomics,
2023); https://doi.org/10.1101/2023.06.13.544831.

43. G. Ciceri, A. Baggiolini, H. S. Cho, M. Kshirsagar, S. Benito-Kwiecinski, R. M. Walsh, K. A.
Aromolaran, A. J. Gonzalez-Hernandez, H. Munguba, S. Y. Koo, N. Xu, K. J. Sevilla, P. A.
Goldstein, J. Levitz, C. S. Leslie, R. P. Koche, L. Studer, An epigenetic barrier sets the timing of
human neuronal maturation. *Nature* **626**, 881–890 (2024).

44. J. A. Piedrahita, The role of imprinted genes in fetal growth abnormalities. *Birt. Defects Res. A.*
*Clin. Mol. Teratol.* **91**, 682–692 (2011).

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

46. T. Yamaguchi, S. Hamanaka, H. Nakauchi, The generation and maintenance of rat induced
pluripotent stem cells. *Methods Mol. Biol. Clifton NJ* **1210**, 143–150 (2014).

47. D. G. Brownstein, *Manipulating the Mouse Embryo: A Laboratory Manual . Third Edition. By*
Andras Nagy, Marina Gertsenstein, Kristina Vintersten, and Richard Behringer. *Cold Spring*
*Harbor (New York): Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory Press* . $195.00 (hardcover); $115.00
(paper). x + 764 p; ill.; index. ISBN: 0-87969-574-9 (hc); 0-87969-591-9 (pb). 2003. *Q. Rev. Biol.*
**78**, 365–365 (2003).

48. A. D. Yates, J. Allen, R. M. Amode, A. G. Azov, M. Barba, A. Becerra, J. Bhai, L. I. Campbell, M.
Carbajo Martinez, M. Chakiachvili, K. Chougule, M. Christensen, B. Contreras-Moreira, A.
Cuzick, L. Da Rin Fioretto, P. Davis, N. H. De Silva, S. Diamantakis, S. Dyer, J. Elser, C. V. Filippi,
A. Gall, D. Grigoriadis, C. Guijarro-Clarke, P. Gupta, K. E. Hammond-Kosack, K. L. Howe, P.
Jaiswal, V. Kaikala, V. Kumar, S. Kumari, N. Langridge, T. Le, M. Luypaert, G. L. Maslen, T.
Maurel, B. Moore, M. Muffato, A. Mushtaq, G. Naamati, S. Naithani, A. Olson, A. Parker, M.
Paulini, H. Pedro, E. Perry, J. Preece, M. Quinton-Tulloch, F. Rodgers, M. Rosello, M. Ruffier, J.
Seager, V. Sitnik, M. Szpak, J. Tate, M. K. Tello-Ruiz, S. J. Trevanion, M. Urban, D. Ware, S. Wei,
G. Williams, A. Winterbottom, M. Zarowiecki, R. D. Finn, P. Flicek, Ensembl Genomes 2022: an
expanding genome resource for non-vertebrates. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **50**, D996–D1003 (2022).

49. F. A. Wolf, P. Angerer, F. J. Theis, SCANPY: large-scale single-cell gene expression data
analysis. *Genome Biol.* **19**, 15 (2018).

50. I. Korsunsky, N. Millard, J. Fan, K. Slowikowski, F. Zhang, K. Wei, Y. Baglaenko, M. Brenner, P.
Loh, S. Raychaudhuri, Fast, sensitive and accurate integration of single-cell data with
Harmony. *Nat. Methods* **16**, 1289–1296 (2019).

51. V. A. Traag, L. Waltman, N. J. Van Eck, From Louvain to Leiden: guaranteeing well-connected
communities. *Sci. Rep.* **9**, 5233 (2019).

52. D. J. Di Bella, E. Habibi, R. R. Stickels, G. Scalia, J. Brown, P. Yadollahpour, S. M. Yang, C.
Abbate, T. Biancalani, E. Z. Macosko, F. Chen, A. Regev, P. Arlotta, Molecular logic of cellular
diversification in the mouse cerebral cortex. *Nature* **595**, 554–559 (2021).

53. M. A. Lipiec, J. Bem, K. Koziński, C. Chakraborty, J. Urban-Ciećko, T. Zajkowski, M. Dąbrowski,
Ł. M. Szewczyk, A. Toval, J. L. Ferran, A. Nagalski, M. B. Wiśniewska, TCF7L2 regulates
postmitotic differentiation programs and excitability patterns in the thalamus. *Development*,
dev.190181 (2020).

54. R. Witschi, T. Johansson, G. Morscher, L. Scheurer, J. Deschamps, H. U. Zeilhofer, *Hoxb8-Cre*
mice: A tool for brain-sparing conditional gene deletion. *genesis* **48**, 596–602 (2010).

55. J. Lee, C. C. Rabbani, H. Gao, M. R. Steinhart, B. M. Woodruff, Z. E. Pflum, A. Kim, S. Heller, Y.
Liu, T. Z. Shipchandler, K. R. Koehler, Hair-bearing human skin generated entirely from
pluripotent stem cells. *Nature* **582**, 399–404 (2020).

56. M. Cardoso-Moreira, J. Halbert, D. Valloton, B. Velten, C. Chen, Y. Shao, A. Liechti, K.
Ascenção, C. Rummel, S. Ovchinnikova, P. V. Mazin, I. Xenarios, K. Harshman, M. Mort, D. N.
Cooper, C. Sandi, M. J. Soares, P. G. Ferreira, S. Afonso, M. Carneiro, J. M. A. Turner, J. L.
VandeBerg, A. Fallahshahroudi, P. Jensen, R. Behr, S. Lisgo, S. Lindsay, P. Khaitovich, W. Huber,
J. Baker, S. Anders, Y. E. Zhang, H. Kaessmann, Gene expression across mammalian organ
development. *Nature* **571**, 505–509 (2019).

57. P. Virtanen, R. Gommers, T. E. Oliphant, M. Haberland, T. Reddy, D. Cournapeau, E. Burovski,
P. Peterson, W. Weckesser, J. Bright, S. J. Van Der Walt, M. Brett, J. Wilson, K. J. Millman, N.
Mayorov, A. R. J. Nelson, E. Jones, R. Kern, E. Larson, C. J. Carey, İ. Polat, Y. Feng, E. W. Moore,
J. VanderPlas, D. Laxalde, J. Perktold, R. Cimrman, I. Henriksen, E. A. Quintero, C. R. Harris, A.
M. Archibald, A. H. Ribeiro, F. Pedregosa, P. Van Mulbregt, SciPy 1.0 Contributors, A.
Vijaykumar, A. P. Bardelli, A. Rothberg, A. Hilboll, A. Kloeckner, A. Scopatz, A. Lee, A. Rokem,
C. N. Woods, C. Fulton, C. Masson, C. Häggström, C. Fitzgerald, D. A. Nicholson, D. R. Hagen,
D. V. Pasechnik, E. Olivetti, E. Martin, E. Wieser, F. Silva, F. Lenders, F. Wilhelm, G. Young, G. A.
Price, G.-L. Ingold, G. E. Allen, G. R. Lee, H. Audren, I. Probst, J. P. Dietrich, J. Silterra, J. T.
Webber, J. Slavič, J. Nothman, J. Buchner, J. Kulick, J. L. Schönberger, J. V. De Miranda Cardoso,
J. Reimer, J. Harrington, J. L. C. Rodríguez, J. Nunez-Iglesias, J. Kuczynski, K. Tritz, M. Thoma, M.
Newville, M. Kümmerer, M. Bolingbroke, M. Tartre, M. Pak, N. J. Smith, N. Nowaczyk, N.
Shebanov, O. Pavlyk, P. A. Brodtkorb, P. Lee, R. T. McGibbon, R. Feldbauer, S. Lewis, S. Tygier,
S. Sievert, S. Vigna, S. Peterson, S. More, T. Pudlik, T. Oshima, T. J. Pingel, T. P. Robitaille, T.
Spura, T. R. Jones, T. Cera, T. Leslie, T. Zito, T. Krauss, U. Upadhyay, Y. O. Halchenko, Y.
Vázquez-Baeza, SciPy 1.0: fundamental algorithms for scientific computing in Python. *Nat.*
*Methods* **17**, 261–272 (2020).

58. T. Zeng, J. P. Spence, H. Mostafavi, J. K. Pritchard, "Bayesian estimation of gene constraint
from an evolutionary model with gene features" (preprint, Genetics, 2023);
https://doi.org/10.1101/2023.05.19.541520.

59. The ENCODE Project Consortium, F. Abascal, R. Acosta, N. J. Addleman, J. Adrian, V. Afzal, R.
Ai, B. Aken, J. A. Akiyama, O. A. Jammal, H. Amrhein, S. M. Anderson, G. R. Andrews, I.
Antoshechkin, K. G. Ardlie, J. Armstrong, M. Astley, B. Banerjee, A. A. Barkal, I. H. A. Barnes, I.

Barozzi, D. Barrell, G. Barson, D. Bates, U. K. Baymuradov, C. Bazile, M. A. Beer, S. Beik, M. A.
Bender, R. Bennett, L. P. B. Bouvrette, B. E. Bernstein, A. Berry, A. Bhaskar, A. Bignell, S. M.
Blue, D. M. Bodine, C. Boix, N. Boley, T. Borrman, B. Borsari, A. P. Boyle, L. A. Brandsmeier, A.
Breschi, E. H. Bresnick, J. A. Brooks, M. Buckley, C. B. Burge, R. Byron, E. Cahill, L. Cai, L. Cao,
M. Carty, R. G. Castanon, A. Castillo, H. Chaib, E. T. Chan, D. R. Chee, S. Chee, H. Chen, H.
Chen, J.-Y. Chen, S. Chen, J. M. Cherry, S. B. Chhetri, J. S. Choudhary, J. Chrast, D. Chung, D.
Clarke, N. A. L. Cody, C. J. Coppola, J. Coursen, A. M. D'Ippolito, S. Dalton, C. Danyko, C.
Davidson, J. Davila-Velderrain, C. A. Davis, J. Dekker, A. Deran, G. DeSalvo, G. Despacio-
Reyes, C. N. Dewey, D. E. Dickel, M. Diegel, M. Diekhans, V. Dileep, B. Ding, S. Djebali, A.
Dobin, D. Dominguez, S. Donaldson, J. Drenkow, T. R. Dreszer, Y. Drier, M. O. Duff, D. Dunn, C.
Eastman, J. R. Ecker, M. D. Edwards, N. El-Ali, S. I. Elhajjajy, K. Elkins, A. Emili, C. B. Epstein, R.
C. Evans, I. Ezkurdia, K. Fan, P. J. Farnham, N. P. Farrell, E. A. Feingold, A.-M. Ferreira, K.
Fisher-Aylor, S. Fitzgerald, P. Flicek, C. S. Foo, K. Fortier, A. Frankish, P. Freese, S. Fu, X.-D. Fu,
Y. Fu, Y. Fukuda-Yuzawa, M. Fulciniti, A. P. W. Funnell, I. Gabdank, T. Galeev, M. Gao, C. G.
Giron, T. H. Garvin, C. A. Gelboin-Burkhart, G. Georgolopoulos, M. B. Gerstein, B. M. Giardine,
D. K. Gifford, D. M. Gilbert, D. A. Gilchrist, S. Gillespie, T. R. Gingeras, P. Gong, A. Gonzalez, J.
M. Gonzalez, P. Good, A. Goren, D. U. Gorkin, B. R. Graveley, M. Gray, J. F. Greenblatt, E.
Griffiths, M. T. Groudine, F. Grubert, M. Gu, R. Guigó, H. Guo, Y. Guo, Y. Guo, G. Gursoy, M.
Gutierrez-Arcelus, J. Halow, R. C. Hardison, M. Hardy, M. Hariharan, A. Harmanci, A.
Harrington, J. L. Harrow, T. B. Hashimoto, R. D. Hasz, M. Hatan, E. Haugen, J. E. Hayes, P. He, Y.
He, N. Heidari, D. Hendrickson, E. F. Heuston, J. A. Hilton, B. C. Hitz, A. Hochman, C. Holgren,
L. Hou, S. Hou, Y.-H. E. Hsiao, S. Hsu, H. Huang, T. J. Hubbard, J. Huey, T. R. Hughes, T. Hunt, S.
Ibarrientos, R. Issner, M. Iwata, O. Izuogu, T. Jaakkola, N. Jameel, C. Jansen, L. Jiang, P. Jiang,
A. Johnson, R. Johnson, I. Jungreis, M. Kadaba, M. Kasowski, M. Kasparian, M. Kato, R. Kaul, T.
Kawli, M. Kay, J. C. Keen, S. Keles, C. A. Keller, D. Kelley, M. Kellis, P. Kheradpour, D. S. Kim, A.
Kirilusha, R. J. Klein, B. Knoechel, S. Kuan, M. J. Kulik, S. Kumar, A. Kundaje, T. Kutyavin, J.
Lagarde, B. R. Lajoie, N. J. Lambert, J. Lazar, A. Y. Lee, D. Lee, E. Lee, J. W. Lee, K. Lee, C. S.
Leslie, S. Levy, B. Li, H. Li, N. Li, S. Li, X. Li, Y. I. Li, Y. Li, Y. Li, Y. Li, J. Lian, M. W. Libbrecht, S.
Lin, Y. Lin, D. Liu, J. Liu, P. Liu, T. Liu, X. S. Liu, Y. Liu, Y. Liu, M. Long, S. Lou, J. Loveland, A. Lu, Y.
Lu, E. Lécuyer, L. Ma, M. Mackiewicz, B. J. Mannion, M. Mannstadt, D. Manthravadi, G. K.
Marinov, F. J. Martin, E. Mattei, K. McCue, M. McEown, G. McVicker, S. K. Meadows, A.
Meissner, E. M. Mendenhall, C. L. Messer, W. Meuleman, C. Meyer, S. Miller, M. G. Milton, T.
Mishra, D. E. Moore, H. M. Moore, J. E. Moore, S. H. Moore, J. Moran, A. Mortazavi, J. M. Mudge,
N. Munshi, R. Murad, R. M. Myers, V. Nandakumar, P. Nandi, A. M. Narasimha, A. K.
Narayanan, H. Naughton, F. C. P. Navarro, P. Navas, J. Nazarovs, J. Nelson, S. Neph, F. J. Neri, J.
R. Nery, A. R. Nesmith, J. S. Newberry, K. M. Newberry, V. Ngo, R. Nguyen, T. B. Nguyen, T.
Nguyen, A. Nishida, W. S. Noble, C. S. Novak, E. M. Novoa, B. Nuñez, C. W. O'Donnell, S.
Olson, K. C. Onate, E. Otterman, H. Ozadam, M. Pagan, T. Palden, X. Pan, Y. Park, E. C.
Partridge, B. Paten, F. Pauli-Behn, M. J. Pazin, B. Pei, L. A. Pennacchio, A. R. Perez, E. H. Perry,
D. D. Pervouchine, N. N. Phalke, Q. Pham, D. H. Phanstiel, I. Plajzer-Frick, G. A. Pratt, H. E.
Pratt, S. Preissl, J. K. Pritchard, Y. Pritykin, M. J. Purcaro, Q. Qin, G. Quinones-Valdez, I. Rabano,
E. Radovani, A. Raj, N. Rajagopal, O. Ram, L. Ramirez, R. N. Ramirez, D. Rausch, S.
Raychaudhuri, J. Raymond, R. Razavi, T. E. Reddy, T. M. Reimonn, B. Ren, A. Reymond, A.
Reynolds, S. K. Rhie, J. Rinn, M. Rivera, J. C. Rivera-Mulia, B. S. Roberts, J. M. Rodriguez, J.
Rozowsky, R. Ryan, E. Rynes, D. N. Salins, R. Sandstrom, T. Sasaki, S. Sathe, D. Savic, A.
Scavelli, J. Scheiman, C. Schlaffner, J. A. Schloss, F. W. Schmitges, L. H. See, A. Sethi, M.
Setty, A. Shafer, S. Shan, E. Sharon, Q. Shen, Y. Shen, R. I. Sherwood, M. Shi, S. Shin, N.
Shoresh, K. Siebenthall, C. Sisu, T. Slifer, C. A. Sloan, A. Smith, V. Snetkova, M. P. Snyder, D. V.

Spacek, S. Srinivasan, R. Srivas, G. Stamatoyannopoulos, J. A. Stamatoyannopoulos, R. Stanton, D. Steffan, S. Stehling-Sun, J. S. Strattan, A. Su, B. Sundararaman, M.-M. Suner, T. Syed, M. Szynkarek, F. Y. Tanaka, D. Tenen, M. Teng, J. A. Thomas, D. Toffey, M. L. Tress, D. E. Trout, G. Trynka, J. Tsuji, S. A. Upchurch, O. Ursu, B. Uszczynska-Ratajczak, M. C. Uziel, A. Valencia, B. V. Biber, A. G. Van Der Velde, E. L. Van Nostrand, Y. Vaydylevich, J. Vazquez, A. Victorsen, J. Vielmetter, J. Vierstra, A. Visel, A. Vlasova, C. M. Vockley, S. Volpi, S. Vong, H. Wang, M. Wang, Q. Wang, R. Wang, T. Wang, W. Wang, X. Wang, Y. Wang, N. K. Watson, X. Wei, Z. Wei, H. Weisser, S. M. Weissman, R. Welch, R. E. Welikson, Z. Weng, H.-J. Westra, J. W. Whitaker, C. White, K. P. White, A. Wildberg, B. A. Williams, D. Wine, H. N. Witt, B. Wold, M. Wolf, J. Wright, R. Xiao, X. Xiao, J. Xu, J. Xu, K.-K. Yan, Y. Yan, H. Yang, X. Yang, Y.-W. Yang, G. G. Yardımcı, B. A. Yee, G. W. Yeo, T. Young, T. Yu, F. Yue, C. Zaleski, C. Zang, H. Zeng, W. Zeng, D. R. Zerbino, J. Zhai, L. Zhan, Y. Zhan, B. Zhang, J. Zhang, J. Zhang, K. Zhang, L. Zhang, P. Zhang, Q. Zhang, X.-O. Zhang, Y. Zhang, Z. Zhang, Y. Zhao, Y. Zheng, G. Zhong, X.-Q. Zhou, Y. Zhu, J. Zimmerman, J. E. Moore, M. J. Purcaro, H. E. Pratt, C. B. Epstein, N. Shoresh, J. Adrian, T. Kawli, C. A. Davis, A. Dobin, R. Kaul, J. Halow, E. L. Van Nostrand, P. Freese, D. U. Gorkin, Y. Shen, Y. He, M. Mackiewicz, F. Pauli-Behn, B. A. Williams, A. Mortazavi, C. A. Keller, X.-O. Zhang, S. I. Elhajjajy, J. Huey, D. E. Dickel, V. Snetkova, X. Wei, X. Wang, J. C. Rivera-Mulia, J. Rozowsky, J. Zhang, S. B. Chhetri, J. Zhang, A. Victorsen, K. P. White, A. Visel, G. W. Yeo, C. B. Burge, E. Lécuyer, D. M. Gilbert, J. Dekker, J. Rinn, E. M. Mendenhall, J. R. Ecker, M. Kellis, R. J. Klein, W. S. Noble, A. Kundaje, R. Guigó, P. J. Farnham, J. M. Cherry, R. M. Myers, B. Ren, B. R. Graveley, M. B. Gerstein, L. A. Pennacchio, M. P. Snyder, B. E. Bernstein, B. Wold, R. C. Hardison, T. R. Gingeras, J. A. Stamatoyannopoulos, Z. Weng, Expanded encyclopaedias of DNA elements in the human and mouse genomes. *Nature* **583**, 699–710 (2020).

60. I. Yanai, H. Benjamin, M. Shmoish, V. Chalifa-Caspi, M. Shklar, R. Ophir, A. Bar-Even, S. Horn-Saban, M. Safran, E. Domany, D. Lancet, O. Shmueli, Genome-wide midrange transcription profiles reveal expression level relationships in human tissue specification. *Bioinforma. Oxf. Engl.* **21**, 650–659 (2005).

61. M. Giurgiu, J. Reinhard, B. Brauner, I. Dunger-Kaltenbach, G. Fobo, G. Frishman, C. Montrone, A. Ruepp, CORUM: the comprehensive resource of mammalian protein complexes—2019. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **47**, D559–D563 (2019).

62. A. D. Rouillard, G. W. Gundersen, N. F. Fernandez, Z. Wang, C. D. Monteiro, M. G. McDermott, A. Ma'ayan, The harmonizome: a collection of processed datasets gathered to serve and mine knowledge about genes and proteins. *Database* **2016**, baw100 (2016).

63. M. Ashburner, C. A. Ball, J. A. Blake, D. Botstein, H. Butler, J. M. Cherry, A. P. Davis, K. Dolinski, S. S. Dwight, J. T. Eppig, M. A. Harris, D. P. Hill, L. Issel-Tarver, A. Kasarskis, S. Lewis, J. C. Matese, J. E. Richardson, M. Ringwald, G. M. Rubin, G. Sherlock, Gene Ontology: tool for the unification of biology. *Nat. Genet.* **25**, 25–29 (2000).

64. J. Schindelin, I. Arganda-Carreras, E. Frise, V. Kaynig, M. Longair, T. Pietzsch, S. Preibisch, C. Rueden, S. Saalfeld, B. Schmid, J.-Y. Tinevez, D. J. White, V. Hartenstein, K. Eliceiri, P. Tomancak, A. Cardona, Fiji: an open-source platform for biological-image analysis. *Nat. Methods* **9**, 676–682 (2012).

**Acknowledgements:** We thank Alina Xiao, Daniel Pederick, Tom Hindmarsh-Sten, Colleen

McLaughlin, Liqun Luo, and other Luo lab members for helpful feedback on the manuscript and

immunofluorescence analysis. We also thank Leslie Magtanong, Gabriella Cale, and other

members of the Fraser Lab for helpful discussions and feedback on the manuscript. We thank

the Stanford Functional Genomics core facility for preparing the scRNA-seq libraries. We thank

Xabier López Aranguren and Asier Ullate Agote for sharing their cell type annotations and other

metadata for the heart embryonic dataset. We thank Jonathan Pritchard, Richard Schneider,

and Vanessa Barrone for helpful feedback on the manuscript. Biorender was used in parts of

the main and supplemental figures.

1387

**Funding:** Funding was provided by NIH R01DK121851 (awarded to HN), the Japan Agency for

Medical Research and Development (AMED) Grant Number JP22bm1004002 (awarded to HN),

NIH R01HG012285 (awarded to HBF), and JSPS KAKENHI Grant Number 21H02378 (awarded

to TN). ALS was supported by an fellowship under grant number FA9550-21-F-0003. KJI was

supported by a National Science Foundation Graduate Research Fellowship under grant no.

DGE-1656518.

1394

**Authors contributions:** TN led all wet-lab work including cell culture, chimera generation and

assessment of donor contribution, FACS, preparation of cells for input for scRNA-seq, and

immunofluorescence. KJI helped with FACS and sampling of chimeric embryos. CF helped with

immunofluorescent staining and optimization. ALS performed all bioinformatic analysis,

visualization, validation, and writing of software with guidance from HBF. ALS wrote the main

and supplementary text and created Figs. with input from HBF, TN, and HN. ALS and TN wrote

the methods section with input from HBF and HN. HBF and HN provided funding and conceived

the study.

1403

**Competing interests:** HN is a co-founder and shareholder in ReproCELL, Megakaryon, and Century Therapeutics. All other authors declare no competing interests.

**Data and materials availability:** Sequencing data will be available on May 10th through the gene expression omnibus with accession GSE266218. All code needed to reproduce the analyses described in this study is available at https://github.com/astarr97/Chimera_Pilot.

**List of supplementary materials:**

Figs. S1-S29

Tables S1-S3

Supplementary Text 1