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Neural crest induction requires SALL4-mediated BAF recruitment to lineage specific enhancers

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ABSTRACT

Neural crest induction begins early during neural plate formation, requiring precise transcriptional

control to activate lineage-specific enhancers. Here, we demonstrate that SALL4, a transcription

factor highly expressed in cranial neural crest cells (CNCCs) and associated with syndromes

featuring craniofacial anomalies, plays a critical role in this early regulatory process. Using *SALL4-*

haploinsufficient human iPSC models that recapitulate clinical haploinsufficiency, we show that

SALL4 directly interacts with the BAF chromatin remodeling complex at the neuroectodermal

stage, specifically when neural crest lineage specific gene expression is induced from the neural

plate border. The SALL4-BAF interaction at this stage is essential for the recruitment of BAF to

CNCC-induction enhancers. Without functional SALL4, BAF is not loaded at chromatin, leaving

CNCC enhancers inaccessible. Consequently, the cells cannot undergo proper CNCC induction

and specification due to persistent enhancer repression, despite normal neuroectodermal and

neural plate progression. Moreover, by performing SALL4 isoform-specific depletion, we

demonstrate that the SALL4A is the isoform essential for CNCC induction and specification, and

that SALL4B cannot compensate for SALL4A loss in this developmental process.

In summary, our findings reveal SALL4 as essential regulator of BAF-dependent enhancer

activation during early stages of neural crest development, providing molecular insights into

SALL4-associated craniofacial anomalies.

KEYWORDS

SALL4, DPF2, SALL4A, BAF, neural crest, enhancers, chromatin accessibility

INTRODUCTION

Embryonic development is a tightly regulated process that depends on the ability of pluripotent embryonic stem cells (ESCs) to progressively acquire specialized fates and functions[1]. This enables their differentiation into a diverse range of somatic lineages, ultimately giving rise to a complex, fully integrated organism from a single cell[2]. These diverse cell identities are established through epigenetic mechanisms that regulate the spatiotemporal expression of lineage-specific gene regulatory networks, primarily by modulating chromatin accessibility. Chromatin states range from open to closed, shaped by a combination of epigenetic modifications, including histone methylation and acetylation, incorporation of histone variants, DNA methylation, and the activity of chromatin remodeling complexes. These large, multi-subunit complexes utilize ATP hydrolysis to reposition nucleosomes, dynamically regulating access to genes and their regulatory elements[3–6].

Transcription factors also play a crucial role in cell fate determination, acting as molecular switches that trigger mechanisms that ultimately activate or repress genes as a result to their binding to specific regulatory DNA sequences within *cis*-regulatory elements. They influence gene expression by recruiting or inhibiting the transcriptional machinery and regulating 3D chromatin organization[3,4,6–9]. Among these, the embryonic C2H2 zinc-finger transcription factor SALL4 is involved in a wide range of developmental processes[10]. SALL4 is highly expressed in pluripotent cells and throughout embryonic development, gradually decreasing after birth to become undetectable in adult tissues[11].

In humans, the SALL4 gene produces two main isoforms through alternative splicing: SALL4A (1053 aa) and SALL4B (617 aa), which have been proposed to play distinct roles in ESCs. Namely, Rao et al.[12] suggested that SALL4B has function limited to pluripotency regulation in ESCs, while SALL4A is the isoform primarily active during development. Although SALL4 is expressed as early as the two-cell stage, its role in maintaining pluripotency remains debated. Some studies suggest that SALL4 cooperates with core pluripotency transcription factors, such as OCT4 and NANOG, to sustain stem cell identity[13,14]. In contrast, other studies propose that SALL4 plays a more marginal role in directly regulating the pluripotency gene regulatory network[15–17].

During early mouse development, *Sall4* is broadly expressed throughout the embryo, however, as gastrulation progresses, its expression becomes more posteriorly restricted, localizing primarily to the developing tail bud and limb buds[18,19]. Here, it regulates the cell fate commitment of neuromesodermal progenitors by suppressing the neural gene regulatory network in mesodermal cells while simultaneously enhancing mesodermal gene expression[20]. Additionally,

Sall4 remains expressed in mouse craniofacial regions until the E9.5 stage, including the
developing frontonasal process as well as the mandibular and maxillary arches[18]. These
craniofacial structures originate from cranial neural crest cells (CNCCs), a subpopulation of neural
crest cells that migrate dorsolaterally to give rise to the cartilage and bones of the face and anterior
skull, as well as cranial neurons and glia[21–25]. Consistent with this, individuals with *SALL4*
haploinsufficiency exhibit a range of phenotypes, including distinctive facial features such as
epicanthal folds, widely spaced eyes, and a depressed and flattened nasal bridge, along with
cranial nerve-related conditions and underdevelopment of one side of the face [26]. Many of these
distinctive features are classic indicators of impaired development in cranial neural crest cells.
SALL4-associated phenotypes often include Duane anomaly, a congenital strabismus resulting
from abnormal oculomotor nerve innervation[26], and sensorineural hearing loss[27], but also upper
limb anomalies (Duane-radial ray syndrome or DRRS) and, in some cases, renal anomalies.
Together, these findings suggest that SALL4 may play a critical role in CNCC induction,
specification and differentiation. However, its involvement in this developmental process has not
yet been investigated. Previous studies have also suggested that SALL4 interacts directly with
chromatin remodeling complexes. For example, several studies in mice have identified Sall4 as
an interactor of the NuRD chromatin remodeling complex, in both embryonic cells and various
developmental processes[15,28–31]. Additionally, recent mass-spectrometry experiments conducted
by our group in early stages of human iPSC-to-CNCC differentiation, and specifically at the
neuroectodermal stage, revealed that SALL4 interacts with the BAF chromatin remodeling
complex during this developmental process[32].
Since this was the first report of a potential direct SALL4-BAF interaction, here we set out to
investigate the scope of this interaction and determine the role of SALL4 during cranial neural
crest cell specification. Given that human SALL4-associated developmental syndromes result
from *SALL4* haploinsufficiency, we generated *SALL4* heterozygous human iPSC lines using
CRISPR-Cas9-mediated deletion (*SALL4*-het-KO). With this approach, we demonstrate that, at
early stages of CNCC specification, SALL4 is required for the recruitment of the BAF complex to
open the chromatin to enhancers essential for CNCC fate. In the absence of SALL4, cells
progress normally through the neuroectodermal stage but fail to specify into CNCCs, as the
lineage-specific enhancers remain repressed. Finally, using *in silico* approaches, we predict that
SALL4A isoform directly interacts with the BAF subunit DPF2.
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RESULTS

SALL4 interacts with the BAF complex

Cranial neural crest cells can be generated *in vitro* starting from human induced pluripotent stem cells (hiPSCs). This protocol is approximately two weeks long, and it first goes through a neuroectoderm intermediate [32–36]. In our previous work[32], mass spectrometry (IP-MS) conducted at early stages of the iPSC-to-CNCC differentiation protocol, and specifically Day-5, which corresponds to the neuroectodermal stage, revealed that SALL4 interacts with the BAF chromatin remodeling complex in this developmental cell population. Since this was the first report of a SALL4-BAF interaction, we performed a co-immunoprecipitation (co-IP) at Day-5 to validate it. Specifically, we performed pull-down of ARID1B, which is the only ARID1 subunit active and incorporated in BAF at this stage [32], and blotted for SALL4. This co-IP confirmed that ARID1B interacts with both SALL4 isoforms at this time-point (Fig. 1A).

The BAF chromatin remodeling complex is a multi-subunit assembly composed of a dozen components, which are differentially incorporated in a tissue-specific manner[37]. Based on which subunit is present in each complex, in mammals these can be classified into canonical BAF, polybromo-associated BAF, and non-canonical BAF[38]. While our mass-spec and co-IP experiments support the interaction between SALL4 and the canonical BAF (ARID1B is not incorporated in the other BAF configurations), neither of these two approaches has the resolution to identify the exact BAF subunit that mediates the interaction with SALL4. Therefore, we performed an *in silico* analysis using AlphaFold3[39] (https://alphafoldserver.com/). We tested various BAF subunit combinations along with four histones and an AT-rich DNA sequence which has been empirically shown to be recognized by SALL4 (5'-GGAAATATTACC-3'; PDB: 8A4I) and, initially, the longer SALL4 isoform, SALL4A. The output was statistically significant, with a 0.45 predicted template modeling (pTM) score and 0.47 interface predicted template modeling (ipTM) score (Supplementary Figs. S1A, B). Through this approach, AlphaFold3 predicted a direct interaction between DPF2, a broadly expressed BAF subunit, and the zinc-fingers 5 and 6 (ZFC3) and 7 (ZFC4) of SALL4A (Figs. 1B, C, D; Supplementary Figs. S1A, B; Supplementary Table 1). *DPF2* is a member of the *BAF45* gene family, which also includes *PHF10*, *DPF1*, and *DPF3*. We were able to rule out its paralogues based on their distinct expression patterns, incorporation into specific BAF complexes, and previous reports that BAF45 subunits are not functionally redundant[40]. In particular, PHF10 is exclusively associated with the pBAF complex, which does not incorporate ARID1B[41], while DPF1 and DPF3 are specifically incorporated into the neuron-specific nBAF complex[42]. Moreover, we compared the gene expression of each *DPF* paralogue

at both Day-0 and Day-5 and saw no significant difference in expression between *SALL4*-WT and

SALL4-het-KO for any of them (Figs. 1E, F).

This prediction was particularly interesting given that DPF2 deletion has been linked to early

neural ectoderm differentiation in embryonic stem cells (ESCs)[40]. DPF2 exists in two isoforms,

resulting from alternative splicing of exon 7 and are spliced in a tissue-specific and

developmental-stage-specific manner[43]. DPF2-L is not alternatively spliced and is expressed in

ESCs, while DPF2-S is expressed in neurons. Interestingly, both isoforms are expressed in neural

stem cells. Notably, of the two main SALL4 isoforms (SALL4A and SALL4B), SALL4B lacks the

portion of exon 2 that contains ZFC3. This prompted us to explore whether the SALL4-DPF2

interaction could be isoform-specific. To address this, we reanalysed the interactions in

AlphaFold3, incorporating SALL4B to the same BAF subunits as before. To ensure biological

relevance, we first excluded two of the five models that did not exhibit interactions with the AT-

rich DNA sequence, as SALL4 is expected to bind DNA for its function. Among the remaining

three models, we observed that SALL4B interacted with DPF2, but unlike the SALL4A isoform,

its interaction was not domain specific. Instead, the predicted interactions for SALL4B were

characterized by annotated disordered regions and appeared to be largely driven by a non-

specific, zinc-finger-to-zinc-finger association (Supplementary Figs. S1C, D; Supplementary

Table 2), with no particular domain-specific interactions identified. This pattern may be due to the

tendency of AlphaFold3 learning algorithm to associate similar domains, such as zinc-fingers,

based on their predicted functional specificity rather than spatial conformations. These findings

suggest that, during neural ectoderm specification, SALL4 might associate with BAF in an

isoform-dependent manner.

To accurately interpret our AlphaFold3 predictions, we examined two key confidence metrics: the

Predicted Aligned Error (PAE), which assesses the reliability of the relative positioning of residues

within the structure, and the Predicted Local Distance Difference Test (pLDDT), which provides a

per-residue confidence score for the model (Supplementary Table 1). Our SALL4-DPF2 contact

analysis revealed 394 atomic interactions (center-to-center distance ≤ 8Å) involving 139 residues

(Fig. 1D and Supplementary Table 1). Encouragingly, the pLDDT values were highest in known

functional domains involved in the interaction, particularly ZF5, ZF6, and ZF7 in SALL4A, as well

as the PHD1 and PHD2 domains in DPF2, reinforcing the reliability of these predicted structures.

Consistently, our model also aligned closely with experimentally resolved structures at 3 Å

resolution available for the BAF base module (Supplementary Fig. 1E). To refine our analysis, we

focused on residues where at least half of their atomic interactions had a pLDDT > 65 (70 $\pm$ 10%)

and that were annotated as part of a functional domain, ensuring that only higher-confidence and

potentially functional interactions were considered. As a result, ZF7 was excluded from further

analysis (Supplementary Table 1).

In summary, our experiments and analyses confirmed that SALL4 interacts with BAF during early

stages of human CNCC specification, and predicted that this interaction might be mediated by

the BAF subunit DPF2 through the ZFC3.

Generation of a *SALL4*-haploinsufficient human iPSC lines

Our experiments so far have revealed that SALL4 interacts with the BAF complex at early stages

of CNCC specification, and specifically at the neuroectodermal stage. To investigate the scope of

the SALL4-BAF interaction during this developmental process, we generated a *SALL4*

haploinsufficient iPSC line (hereafter *SALL4*-het-KO; Fig. 2A). We opted for a heterozygous KO

of *SALL4* as this recapitulates the human *SALL4* syndromes, which are all caused by *SALL4*

haploinsufficient genetic variants[27,44,45]. Two different CRISPR/Cas9 clones were generated and

used as biological replicates. Specifically, the CRISPR-KO was generated by introducing a 11 bp

(clone C4) deletion and a 19 bp (clone F1) deletion, respectively (Supplementary Fig. S2A), both

within the 3'-terminus of exon 1 of *SALL4*. This is a conserved region across both *SALL4* isoforms

that lacks functionally significant domains. Therefore, both *SALL4* isoforms (*SALL4A* and

SALL4B) were equally impacted by the CRISPR deletions.

SALL4 immunoblot and immunofluorescence assays confirmed that SALL4 protein expression

was significantly reduced in the *SALL4*-het-KO iPSCs compared to the unedited wild-type line

(*SALL4*-WT; Figs. 2B, C; Supplementary Fig. S2B, C). We noted that SALL4A protein expression

in the *SALL4*-het-KO line was significantly less than the expected 50% of the wild-type,

suggesting potential negative feedback mechanisms triggered by the reduced SALL4 levels,

possibly due to the preferentially homodimeric nature of this protein. On the other hand, SALL4B

protein was barely detectable in both *SALL4*-WT and *SALL4*-het-KO conditions (Fig. 2B).

In contrast, at the gene expression level we did not observed significant differences in SALL4

expression between *SALL4*-WT and *SALL4*-het-KO conditions, for any of the isoforms (Fig. 2D).

This may reflect autoregulatory mechanisms, where reduced SALL4 protein levels in the knockout

trigger compensatory transcriptional upregulation of the gene which however does not result in

increased protein level because of nonsense-mediated decay or other post-transcriptional

regulatory mechanisms.

Next, we investigated whether other SALL paralogs (*SALL1*, *SALL2*, *SALL3*) could compensate

for the loss of SALL4. First, we investigated their expression at mRNA level level (Fig. 2E) and

found that *SALL1* was the only paralog significantly upregulated in the *SALL4*-het-KO cell line

(Fig. 2E). SALL1 upregulation was confirmed also at protein level (Fig. 2F), indicating a potential
compensation in pluripotent cells.

Importantly, *SALL4*-het-KO iPSCs remained viable and exhibited hallmarks iPSC morphology,
including a high nucleus-to-cytoplasm ratio and growth in compact colonies with well-defined
borders (Supplementary Fig. S2D). Furthermore, these cells show no significant difference in
growth rate compared to their isogenic controls (Fig. 2G).

Decreased SALL4 expression does not affect the stem cell identity of the iPSCs
Given the debated role of SALL4 in maintaining pluripotency, we investigated whether *SALL4*-
het-KO impacted iPSC stem cell identity. Thus, we examined the protein levels of the canonical
pluripotency transcription factors NANOG and OCT4 and found that they remained unaltered in
the *SALL4*-het-KO cells relative to the *SALL4*-WT control (Fig. 3A). Similarly, the levels of the
pluripotency surface markers TRA-1-60-R and SSEA4 were also not significantly affected by
decreased SALL4 expression (Fig. 3B; Supplementary Fig. S4A). Moreover, we examined the
transcriptome of the iPSCs using bulk RNA-seq and identified only 114 differentially expressed
genes in *SALL4*-het-KO cells relative to the *SALL4*-WT control (FDR < 0.05; Fig. 3C and
Supplementary Table 3). Notably, canonical pluripotency markers, such as *POU5F1, NANOG,*
SOX2, KLF4, and *MYC*, were not significantly differentially expressed (Fig. 3C and
Supplementary Table 3). Consistent with this, gene ontology analysis confirmed that neither up-
(Supplementary Fig. S3A) or downregulated (Supplementary Fig. S3B) genes were enriched for
pluripotency-associated terms. Finally, by performing tri-lineage differentiation we confirmed that
SALL4 depletion did not impact the ability of the *SALL4*-het-KO cells to successfully differentiate
into all three of the germ layers (Supplementary Fig. S3C).

Together, these findings suggest that *SALL4* haploinsufficiency did not affect IPSC stem cell
identity and self-renewal, possibly as a result of SALL1-mediated compensation.

SALL4 relocates to CNCC developmental enhancers upon CNCC induction cues
After establishing that *SALL4*-het-KO did not affect the stemness of the iPSCs, we differentiated
the iPSCs into CNCCs using the same aforementioned protocol[32–36] (Fig. 4A). Since the SALL4-
BAF interaction was detected at Day-5 of this protocol[32], corresponding to neuroectodermal stage,
we performed CUT&RUN to profile SALL4 binding in *SALL4*-WT cells at the iPSC stage and at
Day-5 of differentiation. We performed two SALL4 CUT&RUN replicates per timepoint, and only
retained replicated peaks in each timepoint (FDR < 0.05). With this approach, we identified
comparable amounts of SALL4-bound genomic sites at Day-0 and Day-5 (29,088 and 32,707,

replicated peaks, respectively, FDR < 0.05; Fig. 4B). Further analysis of these sites indicated that

approximately 20% of the Day-0 SALL4 peaks were unique to the iPSC stage and not detected

at Day-5 (hereafter SALL4 Day-0 specific peaks; n = 6,114; Fig. 4B, 4C, left). On the other hand,

~50% of the replicated peaks detected at Day-5 were exclusive of this developmental stage and

were not detected at Day-0 (hereafter SALL4 Day-5-specific peaks, n = 17,137; Fig. 4B and 4C,

right). Finally, a subset of ~15,000 sites remained bound by SALL4 at both time points. Together,

this data indicate that, upon neural crest differentiation cues, there is a major shift in SALL4

binding, resulting in the relocation of this transcription factor at ~17,000 previously unbound

regions.

To characterize the scope of SALL4 relocation, we analyzed the positional distribution of SALL4

peaks by associating each peak with its nearest transcription start site (TSS), identifying 4,362

genes at Day-0 and 6,861 genes at Day-5 (Supplementary Table 4). Consistent with SALL4's

established role as an enhancer-binding transcription factor, 87% of SALL4-bound regions at Day-

0 were located >1 kb from the nearest TSS (n = 3,816), suggesting these represent putative

enhancers. This proportion increased substantially to 97% (n = 6,644) at Day-5, demonstrating

SALL4's preferential binding to distal regulatory regions (Fig. 4D).

To investigate the scope of the newly acquired SALL4 Day-5 peaks, we first looked at the nearest

genes. GO terms enriched in the "Day-5 specific" genes included pathways associated with neural

crest development, such as neural tube development, face development, cardiac chamber

development, and cell-cell adhesion mediated by cadherin (Fig. 4E; FDR < 0.05).

To further characterise the SALL4 bound elements at Day-0 and Day-5, we performed sequence-

based computational motif analysis. At Day-0, motifs associated with core pluripotency

transcription factors such as OCT4, NANOG, and SOX2 did not rank among the top 20 enriched

sequences, further supporting that SALL4 may not be essential for maintaining pluripotency in

human cells (Supplementary Fig. S5A).

On the other hand, in addition to general enhancer activator factors (AP-1, TEAD), the Day-5

specific SALL4 peaks were enriched for many CNCC signature factors, including SOX9, TFAP2A,

TWIST1/2, SNAI1, NR2F1/2, TCF4/12 and several others (Fig. 4F). Moreover, neuroectodermal

transcription factors, such as ZIC2/3 were also enriched. Additionally, *de novo* motif analysis in

iPSCs revealed enrichment for the CTCF-like motifs (Supplementary Fig. S5B), while at the Day-

5 there was enrichment for enhancer activators TEADS/ETS and AP-1 (Supplementary Fig. S5C).

Finally, AT-rich motifs resembling the SALL4 annotated motif were found only in a small minority

of peaks in iPSCs (Supplementary Fig. S5B). This might suggest that SALL4 binding at the CNCC

enhancers is not dictated by recognition of its own motif, and possibly mediated by other lineage-
specific transcription factors.
In summary, our data so far indicate that SALL4 relocates to CNCC developmental enhancers
upon differentiation cues.
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Chromatin accessibility at the CNCC enhancers is SALL4 dependent
Given that we demonstrated that SALL4 interacts with BAF at early stages of CNCC specification,
we reasoned that SALL4 binding at the CNCC developmental enhancers could be necessary for
their chromatin activation. Thus, we profiled chromatin accessibility by performing ATAC-seq at
Day-0 and Day-5 in both *SALL4*-WT and *SALL4*-het-KO conditions (two biological replicates per
timepoint per condition, only peaks present in both replicates were considered; FDR < 0.05). The
number of ATAC-seq replicated peaks identified in *SALL4*-WT condition was comparable
between Day-0 (61,660 peaks; FDR < 0.05) and Day-5 (58,375 peaks; FDR < 0.05; Fig. 5A).
Next, we specifically investigated the chromatin state of the 17,137 genomic sites that gained
SALL4 binding at Day-5, and found that SALL4 binding at these sites correlates with a marked
increase in chromatin accessibility compared to Day-0 (Fig. 5B). Strikingly, the accessibility at
these regions was significantly attenuated in *SALL4*-het-KO relative to *SALL4*-WT (Fig. 5C).
Overall, these findings suggest that, in response to differentiation signals, SALL4 relocates to
CNCC developmental enhancers, which subsequently become activated through chromatin
opening, which is SALL4 dependent.
Motif analysis of regions that lost accessibility in *SALL4*-het-KO cells (n = 1,649; Fig. 5A) showed
again enrichment for CNCC factors such as ZIC2, ZEB1, ZEB2, and SNAIL, along with BMP
signalling factors such as the SMAD paralogs, and enhancer activators such as AP-1 (Fig. 5D).
On the other hand, regions aberrantly accessible in the *SALL4*-het-KO cells (n = 3,460; Fig. 5A)
showed enrichment for pluripotency factors, CTCF, and neural plate markers such as the ZIC
paralogs (Fig. 5E).
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SALL4 recruits the BAF complex at CNCC developmental enhancers to increase chromatin
accessibility
Since SALL4 binding at the CNCC enhancers is necessary for chromatin opening, we sought to
determine whether the SALL4-bound developmental enhancers were also occupied by BAF, and
if BAF binding at these sites could be SALL4 dependent. We performed ChIP-seq for BRG1
(SMARCA4), which is the only catalytic subunit of BAF active at this time point, in *SALL4*-WT
cells at Day-5. We found that BRG1 consistently binds the same genomic sites as SALL4,

supporting the idea that these factors interact and co-occupy regulatory elements during early
differentiation (Fig. 6A).

To assess whether BRG1 binding depends on SALL4, we performed ChIP-seq for BRG1 in both
SALL4-WT and *SALL4*-het-KO cells at Day-5 (two biological replicates, one per clone). In *SALL4*-
WT cells, we detected 32,833 replicated BRG1 peaks (FDR < 0.05), as opposed to only 14,116
peaks in *SALL4*-het-KO cells. This suggests that SALL4 loss triggered widespread loss of BAF
from chromatin. We thus focused on the BRG1 peaks that were lost in *SALL4*-het-KO cells and
found that these sites were largely not bound by SALL4 at Day-0, but they gained SALL4 binding
at Day-5 (Figs. 6B–D). As expected, loss of SALL4 and BRG1 from these sites led to marked
decrease of chromatin accessibility (Fig. 6E). Moreover, we explored the identity of some of these
putative enhacers by confirming that these overlapped with some of those reported on databases
such as VISTA Enhancer Browser[46] and GeneHancer[47] (see examples in Fig. 6F). Overall, these
experiments support that SALL4 is required to recruit the BAF complex at CNCC enhancers.

To further confirm that these regions are enhancers, we leveraged publicly available H3K4me1
and H3K4me3 ChIP-seq datasets generated using a comparable protocol at our Day-5 equivalent
[36,48]. Moreover, we performed ChIP-seq for H3K27ac at Day-5, Day-11 and Day-14, roughly
corresponding to CNCC-induction, early CNCC, late CNCC stages. This analysis revealed that
nearly all the sites bound by SALL4 and BRG1 are marked by the enhancer mark H3K4me1, and
only a small subset of them has the promoter mark H3K4me3 (Supplementary Fig. S6A).
Moreover, nearly all of these sites have the active enhancer mark H3K27ac at Day-5, and the
acetylation levels progressively increase from CNCC induction to CNCC stage, supporting that
these are *bona fide* CNCC enhancers that increase in activation after SALL4 binding
(Supplementary Figs. S6B, C)

While a large portion of BRG1 peaks was lost in the absence of SALL4, we also identified a subset
of novel BRG1 peaks that were absent in *SALL4*-WT cells but gained in the *SALL4*-het-KO cells.
These BRG1 peaks gained in the *SALL4*-het-KO cells were associated with genes linked to
neurogenesis and nervous system development (Supplementary Fig. S7A and Supplementary
Table 4). In contrast, the genes located near BRG1 peaks lost in the *SALL4*-het-KO cells were
involved in embryonic organ development, epithelial differentiation, and cell migration processes
(Supplementary Fig. S7B and Supplementary Table 4).

Together, these results suggest that SALL4 is a key regulator of BAF complex recruitment to
CNCC-specific enhancers, ensuring their accessibility during differentiation. In the absence of
SALL4, BRG1 fails to localize to these sites and is instead partially redirected to
neurodevelopmental enhancers, leading to a misallocation of chromatin remodeling activity,

potentially leading to a shift towards default neural differentiation at the expense of CNCC
induction and specification.
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SALL4-het-KO cells are not able to exit the neural ectoderm stage and to induce the cranial
neural crest fate
Our data thus far indicate that SALL4 relocates to CNCC enhancers as early as the
neuroectodermal stage, recruiting BAF to these regulatory elements for chromatin activation.
Next, we investigated the functional consequences of SALL4 loss by generating CNCCs using
SALL4-WT and *SALL4*-het-KO cells. As expected, the *SALL4*-WT CNCCs expressed the
signature CNCC markers at both the mRNA (Fig. 7A) and protein (Fig. 7B and Supplementary
Fig. S4B) level, while *SALL4*-het-KO failed to induce these genes (Fig. 7A). This was further
supported by RNA-seq conducted at Day-14, which identified 1,106 genes differentially expressed
in *SALL4*-het-KO CNCCs relative to *SALL4*-WT (FDR < 0.05; Fig. 7C and Supplementary Table
3). This was in sharp contrast with the small number of genes differentially expressed at the iPSC
stage (n = 114; Fig. 3C and Supplementary Table 3) and at Day-5 (n = 170; Supplementary Fig.
S7C; Supplementary Table 3).
Of the 1,106 genes differentially expressed at Day-14, ~60% (n = 659) were downregulated while
the remaining were upregulated (Fig. 7C). Canonical CNCC markers such as *TFAP2A*, *NR2F1*,
and *SOX9* were significantly downregulated in *SALL4*-het-KO cells. Additionally, genes
associated with neural plate border, early neural crest induction and epithelial-to-mesenchymal
transition (EMT) were also downregulated (*MSX1*, *GBX2*, *SNAI2*, *SOX5*, *ZEB1/2*; Fig. 7D, F).
In line with these findings, gene ontology analysis revealed that pathways associated with face
development, autonomic nervous system, gastrulation, and regulation of morphogenesis were all
downregulated (Fig. 7D). The 447 upregulated genes were instead involved in cell regulatory
pathways, especially vesicle-mediated transport of inorganic substances (Fig. 7E).
As aforementioned, genes associated with EMT were also dysregulated. The process of EMT
requires a switch in cadherin expression where E-cadherin (*CDH1*) must be downregulated, while
N-cadherin (*CDH2*) must be upregulated. Related to this, our RNA-seq data revealed that this
cadherin switch did not occur in the differentiating *SALL4*-het-KO iPSCs, suggesting that the cells
remained in an epithelial state. This was further corroborated by the upregulation of several
epithelial genes in the differentiating *SALL4*-het-KO cells, including *EpCAM*, *OTX2*, *CDH1*, and
OVOL2 (Fig. 7F). The latter is involved in maintaining epithelial lineages by repressing the
expression of the EMT gene *ZEB1*, which was downregulated in the *SALL4*-het-KO condition[49,50].

In summary, our data indicate that CNCC specification failed in *SALL4*-het-KO conditions, as
reflected by the large number of differentially expressed genes. On the other hand, the
transcriptomes of the iPSCs and of the neuroectodermal cells (i.e. Day-5) were only modestly
affected by SALL4 loss, suggesting that SALL4 may not be essential for neuroectoderm
formation, while it is essential for CNCC induction and specification.

To investigate this further, we systematically examined the expression of a panel of stage-specific
marker genes at Day-0, Day-5 and Day-14 (Supplementary Fig. S8A–D) including core
pluripotency genes (*POU5F1* and *NANOG*), neural plate border specifiers (*ZIC1, GBX2, MSX1/2,*
PAX3/7, GATA2/3), CNCC specification markers (*SNAI1/2, SOX9, TFAP2A*), and post-migratory
CNCC markers (*SOX5, SOX6, SOX10*). In *SALL4*-WT cells, pluripotency markers exhibited a
progressive and expected downregulation as differentiation advanced from Day-0 to Day-14. In
SALL4-het-KO cells, a similar decline in pluripotency markers was observed between Day-0 and
Day-5, but instead of continuing to decrease, these markers remained similarly expressed through
Day-14 (Supplementary Fig. S8A). Despite this, the two conditions showed similar trends,
confirming that decreased levels of SALL4 did not significantly impact pluripotency markers
expression during exit from pluripotency. Similarly, no significant difference was observed in the
expression of neural plate border specifiers (Supplementary Fig. S8B), suggesting that SALL4 is
not required for human neuroectoderm specification. Conversely, CNCC specification markers
and post-migratory CNCC markers all increased in expression after Day-5 in *SALL4*-WT cells,
while the SALL4-depleted cells failed to maintain a comparable increase in expression
(Supplementary Fig. S8C, D).

In summary, *SALL4*-het-KO cells are competent to generate neuroectoderm-like cells (Day-5) but
fail to induce the neural crest lineage (Day-14).

SALL4A but not SALL4B is necessary for CNCC specification

Given previous reports suggesting distinct roles for the two SALL4 isoforms in ESCs[12], and our
prediction that the interaction between SALL4 and DPF2 may be isoform-specific, we investigated
whether CNCC differentiation exhibits preferential dependence on a particular SALL4 isoform.

Timecourse of mRNA expression in *SALL4*-WT cells revealed that *SALL4B* is consistently lowly
expressed throughout differentiation, whereas *SALL4A* expression increases upon differentiation
cues, peaking around Day-5 and then declining over time (Supplementary Figs. S9A, B). On the
other hand, the paralog SALL1 is expressed at low levels in iPSCs and barely detectable
throughout the entire differentiation protocol (Supplementary Fig. S9C).

To investigate potential isoform-specific requirements for CNCC development, we selectively

degraded SALL4A while preserving SALL4B expression. To achieve this, we treated cells with

pomalidomide, a thalidomide derivative that selectively degrades SALL4A but not SALL4B[51,52].

This compound functions by binding to cereblon (CRBN), a substrate receptor of the CRL4-CRBN

E3 ubiquitin ligase complex (CUL4-DDB1-RBX1-CRBN), thereby altering its substrate specificity

to selectively recruit SALL4A for ubiquitin-mediated degradation[53,54] (Fig. 8A).

To test the effects of SALL4A degradation, we differentiated *SALL4*-WT iPSCs into CNCCs using

the aforementioned protocol. Since pomalidomide is unstable in aqueous buffers and requires

regular replenishment, the cells were treated with either DMSO (control) or 5 µM pomalidomide

(5 µM POM) every 24 hours (Fig. 8B). To confirm consistent degradation of SALL4A throughout

the differentiation process, we performed immunoblotting at key time points (Day-5 and Day-14).

As expected, SALL4A was successfully degraded, while SALL4B expression remained intact (Fig.

8C). Importantly, pomalidomide degrades several proteins beyond SALL4, and its protein

degradation activity is typically cell-type specific[55]. Two of the known pomalidomide targets have

suggested functions in neural crest development. These are ARID2[33,56] and ZMYM2[57,58].

Crucially, immunoblot analysis for these two proteins performed at Day 5 following treatment with

5 µM pomalidomide revealed that the levels of both ARID2 and ZMYM2 remained unchanged

compared to the DMSO control (Supplementary Figs. S9D, E), further supporting that

pomalidomide affinity for its targets is cell-type specific, as previously suggested[33,56]. This control

experiments allowed to rule out potential off-target effects caused by unwanted degradation of

one of these two proteins. The other known pomalidomide targets, including IKAROS, AIOLOS,

PLZF and ZNFX1 have no established contribution to neural crest specification and in fact they

are not highly expressed in our system.

Next, we assessed the downstream effects of SALL4A degradation by performing RT-qPCR and

immunofluorescence for key neural crest markers, such as *TFAP2A*, *NR2F1*, and *SOX9* (Figs.

8D, E), and EMT markers, namely vimentin (VIM) and EpCAM (Fig. 8F). Degradation of SALL4A

recapitulated what we previously observed in *SALL4*-het-KO cells. Specifically, the cells treated

with pomalidomide failed to differentiate successfully into CNCCs despite the persistent

expression of SALL4B.

Taken together, our results highlight a specific and essential role for SALL4A in orchestrating

chromatin dynamics during CNCC specification and suggest that SALL4B might function in a

different regulatory capacity rather than acting as a compensatory factor for SALL4A.

DISCUSSION

During embryonic development, SALL4 plays a critical role in forming major anatomical structures, including the heart, limbs, cerebral midline, and pituitary gland[54]. Correspondingly, mutations in the haploinsufficient gene *SALL4* are associated with congenital syndromes characterized by malformations in these structures. These syndromes also frequently include distinct craniofacial anomalies, such as epicanthal folds, hypertelorism, a depressed nasal bridge, and hemifacial microsomia[59–61], all of which are hallmark features of disrupted cranial neural crest cell development.

Notably, at the murine embryonic stage E9.5, Sall4 expression persists within the frontonasal prominence, which is the most anterior embryonic region[18], implying a potential role for SALL4 in craniofacial development. Given the limited existing knowledge about SALL4 function in this context, we utilized a heterozygous *SALL4* knockout human induced pluripotent stem cell (iPSC) line to investigate its role during cranial neural crest cell (CNCC) specification. Although SALL4 expression begins as early as the 2-cell embryonic stage, its role in maintaining pluripotency remains debated. Some studies indicate that SALL4 cooperates closely with key pluripotency factors such as OCT4 and NANOG to sustain stem cell identity[13,14]. Others, however, report that SALL4 has only limited involvement within pluripotency regulatory networks[15–17]. Our findings align with the latter hypothesis, demonstrating that decreased expression of SALL4 does not compromise iPSC identity, possibly due to compensatory mechanisms involving its paralogue, SALL1.

Using CUT&RUN, we observed that at early stages of CNCC induction, SALL4 relocates to enhancers of genes involved in CNCC formation, and that SALL4 binding at these regulatory elements is required for their activation. In humans, SALL4 exists in two major isoforms generated by alternative splicing: SALL4A (1,053 amino acids), which retains all eight zinc-finger motifs, and SALL4B (617 amino acids), which contains a partially spliced exon 2. Rao et al.[12] proposed distinct functional roles for these isoforms in murine ESCs, demonstrating that SALL4A homodimers localize predominantly to enhancers of developmental genes, whereas pluripotency-associated enhancers are occupied either by heterodimers comprising both isoforms or by SALL4B alone. In mouse ESCs, approximately 10% of the total Sall4 protein, and primarily the Sall4A isoform, is incorporated into the NuRD complex [15,29]. Here, we identify and characterize a novel interaction between SALL4 and the BAF complex, predicted to be mediated specifically through the SALL4A isoform and the BAF subunit DPF2. Furthermore, we show that upon receiving CNCC induction cues, SALL4 and BAF co-localize to enhancers of genes involved in CNCC specification to prime and activate them, with BAF recruitment being SALL4-dependent.

Interestingly, DPF2 and SALL4 exhibit notable functional parallels. Similar to SALL4, DPF2
occupancy undergoes significant repositioning during the transition from pluripotency toward early
neural commitment in mouse embryoid bodies [62]. Although the role of DPF2 in CNCCs has not
been directly investigated, its early recruitment to neuronal enhancers suggests a potential
involvement in neuroectodermal differentiation and the subsequent lineage commitment of
neuroectoderm-derived cells, including CNCCs. Moreover, genomic sequences bound by DPF2
in mouse neuroectodermal cells are AT-rich, resembling the preferred binding motif of
SALL4[43,63,64]. It is important to note that AlphaFold3 core is built on deep learning rather than
reinforcement learning. As such, it is trained on large datasets of experimentally determined
protein structures, such as those in the Protein Data Bank (PDB). For SALL4, experimentally
resolved structures are limited to the ZFC4 domain bound to DNA and ~60 amino acids of ZF2 in
complex with cereblon. This scarcity of complete empirical structures means that AlphaFold
predictions for SALL4, particularly for regions outside these known fragments, may have lower
pIDDT scores than well-characterized proteins. Consequently, the absence of more
comprehensive experimental SALL4 data could significantly affect the reliability of the proposed
SALL4–DPF2 interaction model. Additionally, AlphaFold 5,000-token limit per prediction poses a
constraint when modeling large multi-subunit complexes such as BAF. Fortunately, the BAF
complex has been extensively characterized, and our predicted model match experimentally
resolved structures at 3 Å resolution (Supplementary Fig. S1E). Further high-resolution structural
proteomic analysis, such as Cryo-EM and X-ray crystallography are required to confirm a direct
protein-protein interaction between SALL4 and DPF2.

Our study demonstrated that while cranial neural crest cell induction and specification fail in the
absence of SALL4, early neuroectodermal commitment and neural plate border identity remain
unaffected. Our findings demonstrate that, during the earliest stages of CNCC specification,
SALL4 occupies CNCC-associated enhancers and recruits the BAF complex. Together, these
observations support previous studies that proposed that neural crest cell fate commitment is
initiated well before overt gene expression changes occur [65–67]. This finding is further supported
by clinical observations. In fact, phenotypes arising from *SALL4* haploinsufficiency affect many
neural crest derivatives, including craniofacial structures and peripheral neurons. In contrast,
phenotypes implicating defects in neural ectoderm or neurogenesis are exceptionally rare[68,69] and
usually associated with dysregulation of potassium channels[54]. In the rare cases of intellectual
disability reported, such phenotypes were attributed to broader deletions on chromosome
20q13.13-q13.2 rather than *SALL4* loss alone[68].

In the absence of SALL4, after two weeks of differentiation the cells acquire an aberrant fate,
expressing a mix of pluripotency genes (suggesting lack of cell differentiation), and neuronal
genes (suggesting derailed cell fate). This indicates that most cells safely reach the
neuroectodermal stage but fail to go beyond that, while some of the cells simply do not
differentiate or regress back to pluripotency. However, further experiments will be necessary to
further support this model.

Interestingly, only a small minority of the CNCC enhancers bound by SALL4 has the AT-rich motif
that is thought to be recognized by SALL4 [63,64]. This suggests that SALL4 might bind these
enhancers in cooperation with other lineage-specific transcription factors.

SALL1 also recognizes AT-rich motifs, but similar to SALL4 it also binds unspecifically, likely in
cooperation with other factors. Since SALL1 is upregulated in the *SALL4*-het-KO cells, it might
possible that some of the sites associated with a gain of BRG1 upon loss of SALL4 could be
associated with SALL1 being upregulated and hijacking BAF recruitment to distinct sites.

SALL4 was recently identified as a direct target of thalidomide[70], a drug widely prescribed to
pregnant women in the late 1950s to alleviate morning sickness. The subsequent alarming rise in
births of children with congenital anomalies, including limb malformations (phocomelia), facial
abnormalities such as inner ear defects, ocular motility issues, and facial nerve palsy, as well as
kidney and heart defects, led to the identification of thalidomide as the causative agent. However,
the molecular mechanism by which thalidomide induced these developmental defects remained
elusive until nearly six decades after the drug's withdrawal from the market. Building on earlier
findings that thalidomide and its derivatives bind to cereblon (CRBN), Matyskiela et al.
demonstrated that SALL4 is recruited to the CRL4–CRBN E3 ubiquitin ligase complex following
thalidomide-induced ubiquitination, resulting in its proteasomal degradation[53]. More recently,
research demonstrated that only the SALL4A isoform, but not SALL4B, is susceptible to
degradation by immunomodulatory imide drugs such as thalidomide and its derivative
pomalidomide[52]. Our data suggests that SALL4 role in CNCC specification is isoform-specific.
Herein, we show that pharmacological degradation of the SALL4A isoform using pomalidomide
replicated the Day-14 phenotype observed in *SALL4*-het-KO cells. These results indicate that
while SALL4B may contribute to other aspects of cellular identity or differentiation, it is insufficient
to drive CNCC fate commitment in the absence of SALL4A. In this context, our findings might
contribute to shed light on the birth malformations caused by thalidomide in the 1960s, potentially
revealing some of the underlying mechanisms. However, while we ensured that known
pomalidomide targets important for CNCC developments were not degraded in our system, we
cannot rule out degradation of previously uncharacterized and unknown pomalidomide targets

with key roles in CNCC specification. While highly unlikely, this is an important limitation of our study, and therefore the findings of our pomalidomide experiments) should be taken with caution.

RESOURCE AVAILABILITY

RNA-seq, ATAC-seq, CUT&RUN-seq, and ChIP-seq data have been deposited in the Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) under accession code GEO: GSE293821 and are publicly available at https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/query/acc.cgi?acc=GSE293821.

Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will be fulfilled by the lead contact, Marco Trizzino (m.trizzino@imperial.ac.uk).

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

MT designed the project. MD performed most of the experiments. SMB, EVD, ZHM, and LD contributed to some of the experiments. MD and MT analyzed the data and wrote the manuscript. All the authors read and approved the manuscript.

DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

Authors declare no competing interests.

SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

Document S1. Supplemental figures

Table S1. List of AlphaFold predicted contacts between SALL4A and DPF2.

Table S2. List of AlphaFold predicted contacts between SALL4B and DPF2.

Table S3. List of TPMs and DEGs (RNA-seq) for Day-0, Day-5, and Day14.

Table S4. List of nearest genes to SALL4 CUT&RUN peaks and BRG1 ChIP-seq peaks.

 FIGURE TITLES AND LEGENDS

Figure 1. SALL4A interacts with the BAF complex through DPF2.

(A) Immunoblot of nuclear extract (5% input), co-immunoprecipitations (co-IP) of ARID1B, and

IgG (negative control) from *SALL4*-WT cells at Day-5.

(B) AlphaFold structure model showing the predicted interactions between SALL4A (red), DPF2

(dark blue), and other BAF components, including SMARCA4, SMARCB1, and ACTL6A.

(C) SALL4A protein sequence and visual representation of output model of SALL4A (model 0).

C2H2 zinc-fingers annotations are highlighted in dark purple and numbered. Interactions between

SALL4A and DPF2 through the ZFs 4, 5 and 6 (ZFC3) and 7 (ZFC4) are highlighted in light purple.

Made with BioRender.com.

(D) Zoomed view of SALL4 (pink) and DPF2 (purple) interacting surfaces. Highlighted are the

functional domains involved in the predicted interaction (ZF6 and ZF7 of SALL4 and PHD1 and

PHD2 of DPF2). In red, contacts predicted by AlphaFold[39].

(E) Box plot displaying expression (TPMs) of the four members of the DPF protein family (*DPF1*,

DPF2, *DPF3, and PHF10*) in iPSCs (n = 2). Differences between conditions were assessed using

unpaired student's t-test.

(F) Box plot displaying expression (TPMs) of the four members of the DPF protein family (*DPF1*,

DPF2, *DPF3, and PHF10*) in neuroectodermal-like cells (Day-5) (n = 3). Differences between

conditions were assessed using unpaired student's t-test.

Figure 2. Generation of a *SALL4*-haploinsufficient human iPSC line

(A) Visual representation of the CRISPR/Cas9 approach used on the *SALL4* gene model. The

star represents the exact location of the deletion generated by Cas9. Sanger sequencing

confirming the 11-bp deletion in one allele of *SALL4* is displayed. Made with BioRender.com.

(B) Immunoblot for SALL4 in *SALL4*-WT and *SALL4*-het-KO iPSC lines. GAPDH was used as a

loading control.

(C) Bar plots showing densitometry analysis of SALL4A and SALL4B expression in WT and

SALL4-het-KO iPSC lines from immunoblot assay.

(D) Bar plots showing RNA expression in TPMs for SALL4A and SALL4B in WT and *SALL4*-het-

KO iPSC lines. Individual biological replicates (n = 2) are displayed as circles. Statistical

significance was assessed using unpaired student's t-test. Error bars display standard error of

the mean.

(E) Bar plots displaying expression TPMs of all *SALL* paralogues (*SALL1*, *SALL2*, *SALL3, SALL4*)

in *SALL4*-WT and *SALL4*-het-KO iPSCs. Individual biological replicates (n = 2) are displayed as

circles. Statistical significance was assessed using unpaired student's t-test. Error bars display
standard error of the mean.
(F) Immunoblot for SALL1 in *SALL4*-WT and *SALL4*-het-KO iPSC lines. GAPDH was used as a
loading control.
(G) Growth curve comparing *SALL4*-WT with *SALL4*-het-KO iPSC lines. N = 2 biologically
independent experiments. Error bars display standard error of the mean.
612

Figure 3. Stem cell identity is unaffected by SALL4 loss
(A) (Left) Immunofluorescence labeling quantifying the expression of the canonical pluripotency
markers OCT4 (top) and NANOG (bottom) in the two iPSC lines. Scale bar: 100 μm. (Right)
Corrected Total Cell Fluorescence (CTCF) values were used to quantify and compare markers
expression (n= 30). Error bars display standard error of the mean).
(B) Flow cytometry quantifying the expression of surface markers for pluripotency (TRA-60-1-R
and SSEA-4).
(C) Volcano plot of genes differentially expressed in *SALL4*-het-KO relative to *SALL4*-WT in
iPSCs (Day-0). Blue dots (n = 50) represent downregulated genes with p-adj < 0.05 and
log2FoldChange < -1.5. Purple dots (n = 63) represent upregulated genes with p-adj < 0.05 and
log2FoldChange > 1.5.
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Figure 4. SALL4 relocates to CNCC enhancers to induce chromatin accessibility
(A) (Bottom) Schematic representation of the iPSC-to-CNCC differentiation protocol. The
experimental timeline shows in vitro differentiation of iPSCs into cranial neural crest cells
(CNCCs) via a neuroectodermal-like stage. Cells were cultured under self-renewing pluripotency
conditions until Day 0, at which point they were transitioned to N2B27 medium supplemented with
EGF, FGF, and insulin. Around Day 7–8, the medium was further modified by replacing insulin
with bovine serum albumin (BSA). Key analyses were performed at Day-0, Day-5, and Day-14.
(Top) Immunofluorescence labeling quantifying the expression of the canonical stage-specific
markers (iPSCs: OCT4; neuroectoderm: OTX2; CNCCs: SOX9) showing ratio of cells
successfully undergoing stage-specific specifications during CNCC generation. Scale bar: 100
μm.
(B) Diagram showing the number of regions bound by SALL4 uniquely at Day-0 ("Day-0 specific";
n = 6,114), at Day-5 ("Day-5 specific"; n = 17,137), and regions that maintain SALL4 binding at
both time points ("shared", n = 15,570).

(C) Heatmaps showing the distribution of SALL4 binding at Day-0 and Day-5 across Day-0 specific (left) and Day-5 specific (right) binding regions. CUT&RUN signal intensity was plotted across ±2 kb regions centered on peak summits. Rows represent individual peaks ranked by signal intensity.

(D) Genomic distribution of SALL4 binding sites relative to the nearest transcription start site (TSS). Peaks are categorized by distance into six bins: <1 kb, 1–3 kb, 3–5 kb, 5–10 kb, 10–100 kb, and >100 kb. Peaks located at >1kb from the nearest TSS were classified as putative enhancers. Percentages of peaks for each bin are represented by bars to the left (downstream) or right (upstream) of the TSS.

(E) Gene ontology analysis of downregulated nearest genes to Day-5 specific SALL4-bound regions as determined using WebGestalt[71] over-representation pathway analysis, using affinity propagation as parameter for redundancy removal (FDR < 0.05).

(F) Table of motifs enriched in Day-5 specific SALL4-bound regions as determined using HOMER[72].

Figure 5. Chromatin accessibility at the CNCC enhancers is SALL4 dependent

(A) Venn diagram showing chromatin accessibility in *SALL4*-WT (ATAC-seq peaks n = 58,375) and *SALL4*-het-KO (n = 60,186). It also depicts the number of regions uniquely accessible in *SALL4*-WT ("Sites losing accessibility in KO"; n = 1,649), in *SALL4*-het-KO ("Sites gaining accessibility in KO"; n = 3,460), and regions that remain accessible in both conditions ("Sites maintaining accessibility in WT and KO", n = 60,186).

(B) Heatmaps showing ATAC-seq signals at Day-0 (left) and Day-5 (right), at Day-5 specific SALL4 CUT&RUN peaks. Signal intensity was plotted across ±2 kb regions centered on peak summits. Rows represent individual peaks ranked by signal intensity.

(C) Average profiles showing ATAC-seq signal at Day 5-specific SALL4 CUT&RUN peaks (n = 17,137) in *SALL4*-WT and *SALL4*-het-KO cells in two distinct biological replicates.

(D) Table of motifs enriched in regions gaining or maintaining accessibility at Day-5 in *SALL4*-het-KO regions as determined using HOMER[72].

(E) Table of motifs enriched in regions losing accessibility at Day-5 in *SALL4*-het-KO regions as determined using HOMER[72].

Figure 6. SALL4 recruits BAF to CNCC enhancers.

(A) Heatmap showing BRG1 ChIP-seq signal at the genomic sites bound by SALL4 in WT cells at Day-5 (n = 17,137). Signal intensity was plotted across ± 2 kb regions centered on peak summits. Rows represent individual peaks ranked by signal intensity.

(B) Venn diagram showing peaks bound by SALL4 uniquely at Day-5 and that lose accessibility in *SALL4*-het-KO.

(C) Heatmap and average profiles show BRG1 ChIP-seq signal at Day-5 at the BRG1 peaks lost in *SALL4*-het-KO cells (n = 13,505). Signal intensity was plotted across ±2 kb regions centered on peak summits. Rows represent individual peaks ranked by signal intensity.

(D) Heatmap and average profiles show SALL4 CUT&RUN signal at the genomic sites that lose BRG1 in *SALL4*-het-KO cells at Day-0 and Day-5 (n = 13,505). Signal intensity was plotted across ±2 kb regions centered on peak summits. Rows represent individual peaks ranked by signal intensity.

(E) Heatmaps and average profile show ATAC-seq signal at the genomic sites that lose BRG1 in *SALL4*-het-KO cells (n = 13,505). Signal intensity was plotted across ±2 kb regions centered on peak summits. Rows represent individual peaks ranked by signal intensity.

(F) Two representative examples of enhancers bound by SALL4 at Day 5 that lose BRG1 co-occupancy and chromatin accessibility in the *SALL4*-het-KO cells. Both correspond to ChIP-seq peaks annotated as enhancer regions, as reported in GeneHancer (left) and VISTA Enhancer Browser (right).

Figure 7. CNCC induction and specification are impaired in *SALL4*-het-KO.

(A) Bar plot displaying relative mRNA expression of canonical CNCC markers in *SALL4*-WT and *SALL4*-het-KO cells at Day-14 (n = 2). Statistical significance was assessed using unpaired student's t-test. 18S rRNA was used to normalize.

(B) Flow cytometry for the CNCC surface marker CD99 in *SALL4*-WT and *SALL4*-het-KO CNCCs at Day-14.

(C) Volcano plot of genes differentially expressed in *SALL4*-het-KO relative to *SALL4*-WT in CNCCs (Day-14). Blue dots (n= 659) represent downregulated genes with p-adj < 0.05 and log2FoldChange < -1.5. Purple dots (n= 447) represent upregulated genes with p-adj < 0.05 and log2FoldChange > 1.5.

(D) and (E) GO term enrichment for upregulated (D) and downregulated (E) genes in *SALL4*-het-KO cells determined using WebGestalt[71] over-representation pathway analysis, using affinity propagation as parameter for redundancy removal (FDR < 0.05).

704 (F) Heatmap displaying the expression of canonical epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition (EMT)
705 markers in *SALL4*-WT and *SALL4*-het-KO cells (Day-14).
706

Figure 8. SALL4A is the only SALL4 isoform necessary for CNCC specification

(A) Schematic of pomalidomide-mediated ubiquitin ligation. Ub, ubiquitin. POM, pomalidomide.
CRBN, DDB1, Cul4 and Rbx1 are subunits of CRL4/CRBN E3 ubiquitin ligase.
(B) Schematic representation of pomalidomide treatment during iPSC-to-CNCC differentiation
protocol.
(C) Timecourse immunoblot for SALL4 in *SALL4*-WT at Day-5 and Day-14 after daily treatment
with DMSO (control) or 5μM pomalidomide (5μM POM). GAPDH was used as a loading control.
(D) Box plot displaying the relative mRNA expression of canonical CNCC markers (SOX9,
TFAP2A, and NR2F1) in *SALL4*-WT at Day-14 treated with 5μM pomalidomide or DMSO (control)
daily for 14 days. Individual biological replicates (n = 2) are displayed as circles. Statistical
significance was assessed using unpaired student's t-test. Error bars display standard error of
the mean.
(E) Immunofluorescence labeling quantifying the expression of the canonical CNCC markers
SOX9 and TFAP2A in *SALL4*-WT treated with 5μM pomalidomide or DMSO (control) daily for 14
days. Scale bar: 100 μm.
(F) Immunofluorescence labeling quantifying the expression of the canonical EMT markers
EpCAM and VIM in *SALL4*-WT treated with 5uM pomalidomide or DMSO (control) daily for 14
days. Scale bar: 100 μm.
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1006 **METHODS**

1007 **KEY RESOURCES TABLE**

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REAGENT OR RESOURCE	SOURCE	IDENTIFIER
Antibodies		
Brg1 (D1Q7F)	Cell Signaling Technology	AB_2728743
CD99 Antibody, anti-human, Vio® Bright B515, REAfinity™	Miltenyi Biotec	AB_2784331
GAPDH (D16H11) XP Rabbit mAb	Cell Signaling Technology	AB_10622025
Human Nanog Antibody	R&D Systems	AB_355097
Human/Mouse Oct-3/4 Antibody	R&D Systems	AB_354975
SALL1 Polyclonal Antibody	Thermo Fisher Scientific	AB_2900498
Sall4 (EE-30)	Santa Cruz Biotechnology	AB_1129262
Sall4 (D16H12) Rabbit mAb	Cell Signaling Technology	AB_10949321
APC anti-human SSEA-4	Biolegend	AB_2616818
PE anti-human TRA-1-60-R	Biolegend	AB_1279447
Rabbit IgG, monoclonal [EPR25A] Antibody	Abcam	AB_2687931
AP2 alpha Monoclonal Antibody (3B5)	Thermo Fisher Scientific	AB_2199412
CD326 (EpCAM) Monoclonal Antibody (1B7), eBioscience	Thermo Fisher Scientific	AB_795876
Anti-SOX9 antibody	Abcam	AB_2715497
Vimentin Polyclonal Antibody	Thermo Fisher Scientific	AB_2216267
ARID1B antibody	Abcam	AB_2243092
ARID2 Polyclonal Antibody	Bethyl Laboratories	AB_1731041
ZMYM2 Polyclonal Antibody	Thermo Fisher Scientific	AB_11152210
IRDye 800CW Goat anti-Rabbit IgG	LI-COR Biosciences	AB_621843
Goat polyclonal Secondary Antibody to Mouse (IRDye® 800CW)	LI-COR Biosciences	AB_10859231

Donkey anti-Rabbit IgG (H+L) Highly Cross-Adsorbed Secondary Antibody, Alexa Fluor™ Plus 488	Thermo Fisher Scientific	AB_2762833	
Donkey anti-Mouse IgG (H+L) Highly Cross-Adsorbed Secondary Antibody, Alexa Fluor™ Plus 647	Thermo Fisher Scientific	AB_2762830	
Goat anti-Chicken IgY (H+L) Secondary Antibody, Alexa Fluor™ 488	Thermo Fisher Scientific	AB_2534096	
Critical commercial assays			
ATAC-Seq Kit	Active Motif	53150	
Human Pluripotent Stem Cell Functional Identification Kit	R&D Systems	SC027B	
Monarch® Total RNA Miniprep Kit	New England Biolabs	T2010S	
Maxima First Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit for RT-qPCR	Thermo Fisher	K1641	
NEBNext® Ultra™ II Directional RNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina®	New England Biolabs	E7760L	
CUT&RUN Assay Kit	Cell Signaling Technology	86652	
NEBNext® Ultra™ II DNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina®	Cell Signaling Technology	E7645L	
Experimental models: Cell lines			
PENN123i-SV20	iPSC Core of the University of Pennsylvania	CVCL_EL23	
PENN123i-SV20 *SALL4*-het-KO iPSC	Synthego		
Oligonucleotides			
18S	5'-ATACATGCCGACGGGCGCTG-3'	5'-AGGGCTGACCGGGTTGGTT-3'	

TFAP2A	5'-GCCTCTCGCTCCTCAGCTCC-3'	5'-CGTTGGCAGCTTTACGTCTCCC-3'
NR2F1	5'-ATCGTGCTGTTCACGTCAGA-3'	5'-GCTCCTCACGTACTCCTCCA-3'
SOX9	5'-GTACCCGCACTTGCACAAC-3'	5'-TCTCFCTCTCGTTCAGAAGTC-3'
Software and algorithms		
AlphaFold3	https://alphafoldserver.com/	SCR_025454
TrimGalore!	https://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/trim_galore/	SCR_011847
FlowJo Software version 10.9		SCR_008520
BEDTools		SCR_006646
Deeptools		SCR_016366
R Studio version 4.4.3		
GraphPad Prism 10.2.3	http://www.graphpad.com/faq/viewfaq.cfm?faq=1362	SCR_002798
DESeq2		SCR_015687

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METHOD DETAILS

AlphaFold3 structure prediction

FASTA files for each BAF subunits and SALL4 isoforms were collected from the "Sequence &

Isoforms" section of Uniprot (www.uniprot.org). The AT-rich DNA sequences was collected from

an empirically reported crystal structure of SALL4 zinc finger cluster 4 bound to DNA on RCSB

PDB (www.rcsb.org, 8A4I – DOI: https://doi.org/10.2210/pdb8A4I/pdb). FASTA sequences are

listed in Supplementary Table 2. AlphaFold outputs were downloaded and .cif files were analysed

using UCSF ChimeraX-1.9 (https://www.rbvi.ucsf.edu/chimerax). Contacts were found using

default parameters and center-center distance ≤ 8 Å.

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Human iPSC culture

Wild-type iPSC lines were obtained from the iPSC Core of the University of Pennsylvania (Control line-1: SV20 line, male, age 43). iPSC lines were cultured in feeder-free, serum-free mTeSR Plus medium (STEMCELL Technologies) with 1% Penicillin-Streptomycin (5,000 U/mL; Gibco #15140122) on tissue culture plates coated overnight with Geltrex™ LDEV-Free hESC-qualified Reduced Growth Factor Basement Membrane Matrix (Fisher-Scientific). Cells were passaged ~1:8 at 60-80% confluency using 0.5mM EDTA to create 50-200 cell clusters.

CRISPR/Cas9-mediated SALL4 knock-out

The heterozygous *SALL4* knock-out in the human SV20 iPSC line was generated via CRISPR/Cas9 gene-editing by the biotech company Synthego. Specifically, two clones were used. In both clones Cas9 targeted the first exon of the *SALL4* gene in the established SV20 iPSC line producing an 11-base deletion (c.230delGGGCCGCATCT; clone C4) and a 19-base deletion (c.del226GCTGGGGCCGCATCT; clone F1) respectively, which in both cases generated a premature stop codon. The two clones were used as biological replicates in all experiments.

Trilineage differentiation

iPSCs were differentiated into the three germ layers (endoderm, ectoderm and mesoderm) using the Human Pluripotent Stem Cell Functional Identification Kit (R&D Systems, SC027B). The expression of relevant markers was then assessed using immunofluorescence with 10 ug/ml of antibodies provided in the kit (Goat anti-human SOX17, Goat anti-human OTX2 and, Goat anti-human TBXT).

iPSC-to-CNCC differentiation

All iPSC lines were differentiated into CNCCs as previously described (Prescott et al., 2015). When iPS cells reached ~60% confluence, they were dissociated and treated with CNCC differentiation media (1:1 Neurobasal medium/D-MEM F-12 medium (Invitrogen), 0.5× B-27 supplement with Vitamin A (50× stock, Gibco, #17504044), 0.5× N-2 supplement (100× stock, Gibco; #17502001), 20 ng/ml human FGF (Gibco), 20 ng/ml recombinant EGF (Sigma-Aldrich), 5 µg/ml bovine insulin (Sigma-Aldrich) and 1× Glutamax-I supplement (100× stock, Invitrogen). Medium (2 ml) was changed every other day. Around day 7-8 of differentiations, cells were transitioned to CNCC early maintenance media (1:1 Neurobasal medium/D-MEM F-12 medium (Invitrogen), 0.5× B-27 supplement with Vitamin A (50× stock, Invitrogen), 0.5× N-2 supplement (100× stock, Invitrogen), 20 ng/ml bFGF (Biolegend), 20 ng/ml EGF (Sigma-Aldrich), 1 mg/ml

1055   bovine serum albumin, serum replacement grade (Gemini Bio-Products # 700-104 P) and 1×

1056   Glutamax-I supplement (100× stock, Invitrogen). Differentiating cells were passaged ~1:6 with

1057   0.5mM EDTA or Accutase Cell Detachment Solution (Stemcell Technologies; #07920), plated in

1058   a fresh, Geltrex-coated 6-well plates. After passaging, cells were treated with 0.05% ROCK-

1059   inhibitor (Y27632; Stemcell Technologies) for 24 hours.

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Real-time quantitative polymerase chain reaction (RT-qPCR)

Cells were harvested as single cells, and the total RNA was extracted using Monarch® Total RNA

Miniprep Kit (New England Biolabs) following manufacturer's instructions. 600ng of total RNA was

used to synthesize cDNA using Maxima First Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit for RT-qPCR (K1641,

Thermo Fisher). For each RT-qPCR reaction, 15 ng of cDNA was used with 0.1 µM of each primer,

10 µL of PowerUp™ SYBR™ Green Master Mix (Applied Biosystems) in a final volume of 20 µl.

Samples were analyzed with CFX Connect Real-Time PCR Detection System (Bio-Rad) using

the following thermal cycling parameters: 3 min at 95 °C, followed by 40 cycles of 10 s at 95 °C,

20 s at 63 °C followed by 30 s at 72 °C. Each sample was run in triplicate. 18 S rRNA was used

as normalizer.

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Nuclear Fractionation and Co-immunoprecipitation

Cells were washed twice with ice-cold PBS, scraped, and collected by centrifugation at 10,000 ×

g for 1 minute. Pellets were resuspended in 500 µL of Buffer A (10mM HEPES pH7.9, 1.5mM

$MgCl_2$, 10mM KCl, 1mM PMSF, 0.5mM DTT, protease inhibitor cocktail) and cytoplasmic fractions

were obtained by incubating the cells on ice for 15 minutes, adding of 0.05% NP-40, followed by

centrifugation at 17,000 × g for 10 minutes at 4 °C. The resulting pellet was gently washed with

Buffer A and resuspended in Buffer C (10mM HEPES pH7.9, 12.5% glycerol, 0.75mM $MgCl_2$,

10mM KCl, 0.1mM EDTA, 400mM NaCl, 1mM PMSF, 0.5mM DTT, protease inhibitor cocktail).

Samples were incubated at 4 °C with shaking at 3,400 rpm for 1 hour, with vortexing every 10

minutes. Nuclear fractions were collected by centrifugation at 17,000 × g for 10 minutes at 4 °C.

For co-immunoprecipitation (co-IP), 25 µL of Dynabeads™ Protein A (ThermoFisher, Cat#

10002D) were washed twice with PBS containing 0.1% Tween-20 (PBS-T), resuspended in 1 mL

of PBS-T, and incubated with 2 µg of the appropriate antibody for 1 hour at 4 °C with rotation.

Bead-antibody complexes were washed twice with PBS-T, resuspended in 125 µL PBS-T, and

incubated with 100 µg of nuclear extract for 3 hours at 4 °C with rotation. Beads were then washed

five times with Buffer C and eluted in 25 µL of Buffer C supplemented with 4.1 µL of 6× reducing

Laemmli SDS sample buffer (ThermoFisher Scientific). Eluates and 5% input controls (nuclear

extract diluted 1:10 in PBS and mixed with 1:6 volume of 6× Laemmli buffer) were boiled for 5

minutes prior to SDS-PAGE. For Western blotting, 20 µL of each sample were loaded as

described below.

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Western Blot

For each condition, cells were harvested and lysed with cold radioimmunoprecipitation assay

buffer (Pierce™ RIPA buffer, Thermo Fisher) with Pierce™ Protease Inhibitor Mini Tablets, EDTA-

free (Thermo Fisher). After centrifugation at 4°C at 16,000x g for 10 minutes, the total extracted

protein was quantified using Pierce™ BCA Protein Assay Kit, following manufacturer's

indications. Thirty micrograms of total protein were loaded in Novex WedgeWell 4–20% Tris-

Glycine Gel (Invitrogen) and separated through gel electrophoresis (SDS–PAGE) Tris-Glycine-

SDS buffer (Invitrogen). The proteins were then transferred to nitrocellulose membrane (Thermo

Fisher Scientific) and incubated for one hour in Intercept® (PBS) Blocking Buffer (Licor). After

blocking, membranes were incubated overnight at 4°C (while rocking) in suitable antibody diluted

in blocking buffer and 0.2% Tween-20, at recommended concentrations. Membranes were

washed in 0.1% PBS-T before and after being incubated for one hour in the appropriate secondary

antibody (1:15,000 dilution). The antibodies were then visualized using Odyssey XF Imaging

System (Licor) or ChemiDocTM MP Imaging System and imaged with Image Studio Software

(Licor) or Fiji[73].

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Flow Cytometry analysis of surface markers

To obtain a single-cell suspension for flow cytometry analysis, cells were treated with Accutase

for 5 min at 37°C. Cells were then washed with cold phosphate-buffered saline (PBS)-2% fetal

bovine serum (FBS) and live cells were counted. 1×10^6 cells/condition were resuspended in

100 µL PBS-2% FBS and stained. For pluripotency evaluation, 4 µl of the respective antibodies

were used. For analysis of differentiation, 2 µl of the respective antibodies were used. Cells were

incubated for 15 min on ice and protected from light, before transferring them into FACS tubes

containing an additional 300 µL PBS-2% FBS. Flow cytometry data were acquired using

NovoCyte Penteon Flow Cytometer Systems 5 Lasers and analyzed with FlowJo Software version

10.9.

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Immunofluorescence

Cells were passaged onto Geltrex-coated coverslips and fixed at required confluence or time-

point. In detail, cells were incubated in 4% PFA at 37°C for 15 minutes, followed by three 2-minute

washes in 1× PBS. For permeabilization, cells were treated with 0.1% (v/v) Triton X-100 (T8787,
Sigma-Aldrich) at room temperature for 10 minutes before three 2-minute washes in 1× PBS +
0.1% (v/v) Tween 20 and a 1-hour blocking upon 10% Donkey serum (D9663, Sigma-Aldrich) at
room temperature. Cells were incubated with corresponding PBS-diluted primary antibodies
protected from direct light at 4°C overnight. After three 5-minute washes with 1× PBS + 0.1%
Tween 20, cells were incubated for 1 hour in PBS-diluted secondary antibodies and 15 minutes
with DAPI (1:5,000; 422801, BioLegend). Cells were then washed three times with 1× PBS +
0.1% Tween for 5 minutes and once with 1× PBS. Coverslips were then fetched and mounted
onto slides using Fluorescence Mounting Medium (S3023, Agilent Technologies). Slides were
imaged using confocal microscope (LSM780, Zeiss). The intensity of fluorescent signal was
measured using Corrected Total Cell Fluorescence (CTCF) using Image J. Briefly, for each cell,
a region of interest (ROI) was drawn around the cell boundary, and the Integrated Density (sum
of all pixel intensity values within the ROI), area of ROI (total number of pixels contained in the
ROI), and the mean background fluorescence (average pixel intensity measured from a
background region of the image lacking fluorescent signal) were measured.
The corrected fluorescence intensity was then calculated as:
$$CTCF = Integrated\ Density - (Area\ of\ ROI\ \times\ Mean\ Background\ Fluorescence)$$
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RNA-seq
Total RNA was extracted using Monarch® Total RNA Miniprep Kit (New England Biolabs,
T2010S) according to the manufacturer's instructions. RNA was quantified using NanoDrop 2000
UV Visible Spectrophotometer, while the RNA integrity was checked on Tapestation 2200
(Agilent). Only samples with RIN value above 8.0 were used for transcriptome analysis. RNA
libraries were prepared using 1 μg of total RNA input using NEBNext® Poly(A) mRNA Magnetic
Isolation Module, NEBNext® UltraTM II Directional RNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina® according
to the manufacturer's instructions (New England Biolabs).
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RNA-sequencing analysis
After removing the adapters with TrimGalore!
(https://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/trim_galore/) , Kallisto was used to quantify
reads mapping to each gene. Differential gene expression levels were determined using
DESeq2[74]. All statistical analyses were performed using the latest versions of BEDTools[75],
deepTools[76], R Studio (version 4.4.3; Trophy Case), and GraphPad Prism software version 10.2.3
(http://www.graphpad.com/faq/viewfaq.cfm?faq=1362; GraphPad, San Diego, CA).

CUT&RUN

For each condition, 1x 10^5 cells were processed using CUT&RUN Assay Kit #86652 (Cell Signaling Technology). Briefly, each sample was resuspended in Concanavalin A Beads and treated with an Antibody Binding Buffer and the suitable antibody. After the antibody incubation, each reaction underwent a step of pAG-MNase Enzyme binding, and subsequent DNA Digestion and diffusion. The diffused DNA was then purified using Phenol/Chloroform Extraction and Ethanol Precipitation. The purified DNA was quantified using QuantiFluor dsDNA System, using the ONE dsDNA protocol (Promega). Libraries for sequencing were prepared using NEBNext Ultra II DNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina (New England BioLabs) and the libraries size distribution was assessed through automated electrophoresis using the Agilent 2200 Tapestation System (Agilent Technology).

ChIP-seq

All samples from different conditions were processed together to prevent batch effects. Approximately 15 million cells were double cross-linked with 2mM disuccinimidyl glutarate (DSG) for 20 minutes followed by 1% formaldehyde for 10 minutes at room temperature, quenched with 125 mM glycine, harvested, and washed twice with 1X PBS. The fixed cell pellet was resuspended in ChIP lysis buffer (150 mM NaCl, 1% Triton X-100, 0.7% SDS, 500 µM DTT, 10 mM Tris-HCl, 5 mM EDTA) and chromatin was sheared to an average length of 200–900 base-pairs, using a Covaris S220 Ultrasonicator at 5% duty factor for 7 minutes for 3 times. The chromatin lysate was diluted with SDS-free ChIP lysis buffer. 10µg of antibody was used for BRG1. The antibody was added to at least 5µg of sonicated chromatin along with Dynabeads Protein G magnetic beads (Invitrogen) and incubated with rotation at 4°C overnight. The beads were washed twice with each of the following buffers: Mixed Micelle Buffer (150 mM NaCl, 1% Triton X- 100, 0.2% SDS, 20 mM Tris-HCl, 5 mM EDTA, 65% sucrose), Buffer 200 (200 mM NaCl, 1% Triton X-100, 0.1% sodium deoxycholate, 25 mM HEPES, 10 mM Tris-HCl, 1 mM EDTA), LiCl detergent wash (250 mM LiCl, 0.5% sodium deoxycholate, 0.5% NP-40, 10 mM Tris-HCl, 1 mM EDTA) and a final wash was performed with cold 0.1X TE. Finally, beads were resuspended in 1X TE containing 1% SDS and incubated at 65°C for 10 min to elute immunocomplexes. The elution was repeated twice, and the samples were incubated overnight at 65°C to reverse cross-linking, along with the input (5% of the starting material). The DNA was digested with 0.5 mg/ml Proteinase K for 3 hours at 55°C and then purified using the ChIP DNA Clean & Concentrator kit (Zymo) and quantified with QUBIT. Barcoded libraries were made with NEBNext Ultra II DNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina) using

1190 NEBNext Multiplex Oligos Dual Index Primers for Illumina (New England BioLabs) and sequenced
1191 on NovaSeq X Plus instrument (Illumina).
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ATAC-seq
One hundred thousand cells/condition were harvested by enzymatic dissociation using
StemPro™ Accutase™ (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Each cell pellet was processed using ATAC-
Seq Kit (Active Motif), following the manufacturer's directions. Briefly, the fresh cell pellets were
washed in 1X PBS and lysate in ATAC Lysis Buffer. Each lysate underwent a process of
tagmentation and purification, before being amplified through PCR, using the following thermal
cycler parameters: 72°C for 5 min, 98°C for 30 sec, followed by 10 cycles of 98°C for 10 sec,
63°C for 30 sec, 72°C for 1 min. Each PCR reaction was cleaned up using SPRI beads (1.2X of
the sample volume). The Agilent 2200 Tapestation System (Agilent Technologies) was used as
quality control tool before performing next generation sequencing (NGS).
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Bioinformatics analysis of CHIP-seq, ATAC-seq and CUT&RUN data
Adapters were removed with TrimGalore!
(https://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/trim_galore/), the sequences were aligned
to the reference hg19, using Burrows-Wheeler Alignment tool, with the MEM algorithm[77]. Uniquely
mapping aligned reads were filtered based on mapping quality (MAPQ > 10) to restrict our
analysis to higher quality and uniquely mapped reads, and PCR duplicates were removed.
MACS2[78] was used to call peaks using the default parameters at 5% FDR.
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1212 **Motif analysis**
1213 BED files for the regions of interest were produced using BEDTools[75]. Motif analysis was
1214 performed using HOMER[72]. Shuffled input sequences were used as background. E-values <
1215 0.001 were used as a threshold for significance.
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QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS
RT-qPCR and image quantification data were analyzed using Prism software version 10.2.3
(http://www.graphpad.com/faq/viewfaq.cfm?faq=1362; GraphPad, San Diego, CA). Data is
represented as mean ± standard error of mean (SEM). GO enrichment analysis was performed
using Webgestalt 2019[71]. All statistical analyses were performed using the latest versions of
BEDTools[75], Deeptools[76], R version 4.4.3 (Throphy Case; https://www.R-project.org/), and Prism
software version 10.2.3 (http://www.graphpad.com/faq/viewfaq.cfm?faq=1362; GraphPad, San

Diego, CA). In particular, Bigwigs were generated with Deeptools and normalized by sequencing

depth using the same software, and upper-quantile normalized using CHIPIN[79].

A — ATAC-seq peaks at Day 5

Accessible sites in WT (n = 58,375)

Sites losing accessibility in KO (n = 1,649)

Sites maintaining accessibility in WT and KO (n = 60,186)

Sites gaining accessibility in KO (n = 3,460)

Accessible sites in KO (n = 70,040)

B — ATAC-seq

Day-0, Day-5

Day-0   Day-5

Day-5 specific SALL4-bound regions (n=17,137)

Peak Summit (± 2Kbs)

C — ATAC-seq at SALL4 Day-5 specific regions

Replicate 1 — WT, KO — Mean density/tag — Peak Summit (± 2Kbs)

Replicate 2 — WT, KO — Mean density/tag — Peak Summit (± 2Kbs)

D

Gaining accessibility in KO Day 5 motifs		
MOTIF #	Motif Consensus	p-value
51	CTCF BORIS	$1e^{-270}$
256	POU5F1/SOX2/ NANOG POU2F3 (epidermis) POU3F1 (nervous s.) POU2F2 (metastases)	$1e^{-103}$
410 (8%)	ZIC3 ZIC2 NANOG	$1e^{-84}$

E

Losing accessibility in KO Day 5 motifs			
MOTIF #	Motif Consensus	TF	p-value
410 (11%)		ZIC3 ZIC2 NANOG	$1e^{-59}$
92		ERG ETS	$1e^{-58}$
402		ZEB1 ZEB2 SNAIL1	$1e^{-50}$
407		SMAD4 SMAD2 P53	$1e^{-47}$
107		AP-1 JUN FOS ATF3	$1e^{-37}$