	acc-br 4.0 International license.
1 2	Aberrant cell segregation in craniofacial primordia and the emergence of facial
3	dysmorphology in craniofrontonasal syndrome
4 5 6	*Terren K. Niethamer – Program in Craniofacial Biology, Department of Cell and Tissue Biology,
7	Biomedical Sciences Graduate Program
8	*Christopher J. Percival - Department of Anthropology, Stony Brook University, NY, USA
9	Teng Teng- Program in Craniofacial Biology, Department of Cell and Tissue Biology
10	Melanie Franco - Program in Craniofacial Biology, Department of Cell and Tissue Biology
11	Yu Xin Du - Program in Craniofacial Biology, Department of Cell and Tissue Biology
12	Jeffrey O. Bush - Program in Craniofacial Biology, Department of Cell and Tissue Biology, Biomedical
13	Sciences Graduate Program, Institute for Human Genetics, University of California San Francisco,
14	San Francisco, CA, USA
15	
16	* These authors contributed equally to this work (co-first authorship)
17	
18	Contact Information
19	Jeffrey O. Bush
20	Box 0512, Department of Cell and Tissue Biology
21	513 Parnassus Ave
22	San Francisco, CA 94143
23	(415) 476-9459

- 24 Jeffrey.Bush@ucsf.edu

### 29 Abstract

30 Craniofrontonasal syndrome (CFNS) is a rare X-linked disorder characterized by craniofacial, skeletal, 31 and neurological anomalies and caused by mutations in EFNB1. Heterozygous females are more severely 32 affected by CFNS than hemizygous male patients, a phenomenon called cellular interference that is correlated with cell segregation resulting from EPHRIN-B1 mosaicism. *Efnb1* heterozygous mutant mice also exhibit more 33 severe phenotypes than Efnb1 hemizygous males as well as cell segregation, but how craniofacial 34 dysmorphology arises from cell segregation is unknown and CFNS etiology therefore remains poorly 35 36 understood. Here, we couple geometric morphometric techniques with temporal and spatial interrogation of 37 embryonic cell segregation in mouse models to elucidate mechanisms underlying CFNS pathogenesis. By 38 generating ephrin-B1 mosaicism at different developmental timepoints and in specific cell populations, we find 39 that ephrin-B1 regulates cell segregation independently in early neural development and later in craniofacial 40 development, correlating with the emergence of quantitative differences in face shape. Whereas specific craniofacial shape changes are qualitatively similar in *Efnb1* heterozygous and hemizygous mutant embryos. 41 42 heterozygous embryos are quantitatively more severely affected, indicating that *Efnb1* mosaicism exacerbates 43 loss of function phenotypes rather than having a neomorphic effect. Notably, tissue-specific disruption of Efnb1 throughout neural development does not appear to contribute to CFNS dysmorphology, but its disruption within 44 neural crest cell-derived mesenchyme results in phenotypes very similar to widespread loss. Ephrin-B1 can 45 46 bind and signal with EphB1, EphB2, and EphB3 receptor tyrosine kinases, but the signaling partner(s) relevant to CFNS are unknown. Geometric morphometric analysis of an allelic series of Ephb1; Ephb2; Ephb3 mutant 47 48 embryos indicates that EphB2 and EphB3 are key receptors mediating *Efnb1* hemizygous-like phenotypes, but the complete loss of EphB1-3 does not recapitulate CFNS-like Efnb1 heterozygous severity. Finally, by 49 50 aenerating *Efnb1*<sup>+/-</sup>: *Ephb1*: *Ephb2*: *Ephb3* guadruple knockout mice, we determine how modulating cumulative receptor activity influences cell segregation in craniofacial development and find that while EphB2 and EphB3 51 play an important role in craniofacial cell segregation, EphB1 is more important for cell segregation in the brain; 52 53 surprisingly, complete loss of EphB1-EphB3 does not completely abrogate cell segregation. Together, these 54 data advance our understanding of the morphogenetic etiology and signaling interactions underlying CFNS 55 dysmorphology.

#### 56 Author Summary

57 Craniofacial anomalies are extremely common, accounting for one third of all birth defects, but even 58 when the responsible genes are known, it often remains to be determined exactly how development has gone 59 wrong. Craniofrontonasal syndrome (CFNS), which affects multiple aspects of craniofacial development, is a particularly mysterious disorder because it is X-linked, but affects females more severely than males, the 60 opposite situation of most X-linked diseases. The responsible gene has been identified as EFNB1, which 61 encodes the EPHRIN-B1 signaling molecule that regulates cellular position. Why EFNB1+/- heterozygous 62 63 females exhibit severe stereotypical CFNS phenotypes is not well understood, but it is related to the fact that X chromosome inactivation generates mosaicism for EPHRIN-B1. Using mice harboring mutations in the Efnb1 64 65 gene in different embryonic tissues, and in receptor genes Ephb1-3, together with quantitative methods to measure craniofacial structures in developing embryos, we establish the tissue-specific contributions of ephrin-66 67 B1 mosaicism to craniofacial dysmorphology. We also examine when ephrin-B1 regulates cellular position during different stages of craniofacial development and which EphB receptors are involved. Our results reveal 68 69 the specific cellular context and signaling interactions that are likely to underlie CFNS, and provide new 70 understanding of how EPHRIN-B1 may regulate normal craniofacial development.

71

#### 72 Introduction

73 Congenital craniofacial anomalies account for one third of all birth defects [1]. Advances in craniofacial genetics have identified many genes involved in craniofacial syndromes [2], but an understanding of the 74 underlying etiology and progression over developmental time for each condition will be necessary for improved 75 therapies for this large group of disorders. Craniofrontonasal syndrome (CFNS, OMIM #304110) is a form of 76 77 frontonasal dysplasia that is caused by loss of function mutations in EPHRIN-B1 (EFNB1), which is located on 78 the X chromosome [3-5]. Paradoxically, though this syndrome is X-linked, EFNB1 heterozygous females are severely affected by CFNS, whereas males with hemizygous loss of EFNB1 function appear mildly affected or 79 unaffected; this phenomenon is termed "cellular interference," though how this difference in severity arises is 80 81 currently unknown [4-6]. Heterozygous female patients frequently display a combination of orbital 82 hypertelorism, based on measurements of inner canthal and interpupillary distances or on computed

tomography (CT) scans, a short and wide upper face, facial asymmetry, unilateral or bilateral coronal craniosynostosis, a short nose, bifid nasal tip, and a broad nasal bridge [3–5,7]. In a subset of cases, cleft lip and palate, agenesis of the corpus callosum [4], and maxillary hypoplasia [7] have also been noted. In addition to craniofacial defects, patients present with skeletal defects including syndactyly and polydactyly.

CFNS has been termed a neurocristopathy, and it has been hypothesized that CFNS phenotypes may 87 be partly attributable to impacts on early neural crest cell (NCC) migration or to later bone differentiation 88 defects [4.8–10]: however, the precise developmental etiology of this disorder remains unknown. Because 89 90 CFNS patients are clinically evaluated postnatally but craniofacial development begins very early during embryogenesis, it is difficult to pinpoint the developmental timing and tissue origin of the craniofacial 91 phenotypes. Hypertelorism, frontonasal dysplasia and widened midface are key defining phenotypes that may 92 have a variety of embryologic tissue origins. It is possible that these changes are due to early defects in NCCs. 93 but they could also be secondary to changes in morphology of the brain and/or neurocranium, or caused by 94 later changes in the morphogenesis of craniofacial structures. The forebrain develops in close interaction with 95 96 the developing midface, and provides a physical substrate that shapes the midface [11,12]. Reduced brain growth correlates with reduced facial growth in a short-faced mutant mouse model [13], and in humans, brain 97 shape differences were found to be correlated with the occurrence of cleft lip with or without cleft palate (CL/P) 98 and cleft palate only (CPO) [14]. Increases in brain size could underlie clefting phenotypes by increasing 99 separation of the facial prominences to an extent that they can no longer make contact, even if their outgrowth 100 is normal [15,16]. Molecular signaling from the brain to the developing midface can also impact craniofacial 101 morphogenesis and contributes to hypotelorism, and possibly hypertelorism [17-20]. Facial dysmorphology 102 may also be secondary to other skull phenotypes, including craniosynostosis, which restricts the directions of 103 104 skull growth [21,22] or to modified cranial base growth [23,24]. However, evidence of effects of craniosynostosis syndrome mutations on early facial shape highlight that frontonasal dysplasia can also be a 105 primary result of local developmental perturbations of facial prominence growth patterns [25-27]. 106

EPHRIN-B1 is a member of the Eph/ephrin family of membrane-linked signaling molecules; signaling between Eph receptors and ephrins is important for boundary formation, cell migration, axon guidance, vascular development, and neurogenesis [28–36]. Analysis of several tissue types indicates that X-inactivation

4

is not biased by EFNB1 mutation [4,37], suggesting that loss of gene function does not impact cell survival. 110 Supporting the idea that mosaicism for ephrin-B1 expression results in more severe dysmorphogenesis, rare 111 male patients with severe CFNS phenotypes exhibit somatic mosaicism for EFNB1 mutations [37-39]. 112 Mosaicism for Efnb1 mutation has been demonstrated to result in cell segregation between ephrin-B1 113 114 expressing and non-expressing cells in mice [40-42], though the timing of onset and tissue origin of segregation relevant to CFNS was not established in these studies. More recently, we have demonstrated that 115 cell segregation occurs in the early neural plate in Efnb1<sup>+/-</sup> mouse embryos, and in neuroectodermal cells 116 differentiated from CFNS patient iPSCs [43,44], but it is unknown whether this cell segregation contributes to 117 craniofacial phenotypes. 118

Mosaic loss of ephrin-B1 expression in *Efnb1*<sup>+/-</sup> mice leads to additional phenotypes not found in hemizygous (*Efnb1*<sup>-/Y</sup>) or homozygous (*Efnb1*<sup>-/-</sup>) loss in mice [8,41,42], mirroring the severity seen in female heterozygous CFNS patients. Although this mouse model is considered to phenocopy CFNS, the facial forms of heterozygous and hemizygous mice have not been described beyond the report of relatively high frequency of cleft palate and shorter skulls [8,9,42]. In addition, the relationship between timing and tissue specificity of cell segregation and phenotypic progression of CFNS craniofacial phenotypes is unknown, and how ephrin-B1mediated segregation contributes to facial dysmorphogenesis therefore remains mysterious.

Here, we use mouse models of CFNS to determine the timing and cell type specificity of ephrin-B1-126 127 mediated cell segregation as it relates to the onset and progression of craniofacial phenotypes. We compare the facial form of Efnb1 heterozygous female and hemizygous male embryos with control embryos across four 128 stages of craniofacial development to quantify the specific effects of Efnb1 loss on facial growth and 129 development to better understand the ontogeny of CFNS dysmorphology. Through tissue-specific generation 130 131 of Efnb1 mosaicism, we demonstrate that ephrin-B1 is a potent regulator of cell segregation in multiple cell types across craniofacial development and that the timing of segregation in craniofacial primordia correlates 132 133 with the onset and progression of facial phenotypes in developing embryos. Next, through morphometric analysis of an allelic series of compound Ephb1; Ephb2; Ephb3 receptor gene mutants, we assess the relative 134 contributions of each receptor to craniofacial morphogenesis. Finally, by generating Efnb1<sup>+/-</sup> embryos with 135 combinatorial compound loss of receptors, we determine the likely ephrin-B1 signaling partners that drive 136

5

137 CFNS cell segregation. Together, these results indicate that cell segregation occurring in post-migratory 138 mesenchymal populations of the craniofacial primordia is facilitated by numerous ephrin-B1 receptors and is 139 likely the principal driver of cellular interference and severe facial dysmorphogenesis in CFNS.

140

## 141 Results

### 142 Ephrin-B1 has a significant effect on embryonic facial shape from E11.5 to E14.5 that mirrors CFNS

Robust guantitative methods are required to investigate when the effects of mosaic expression of 143 ephrin-B1 on facial morphology first appear, whether the earliest facial shape effects parallel later facial shape 144 effects, how these change in severity over time, and whether phenotypic severity varies between heterozygous 145 females and hemizygous males. We therefore quantified mouse embryo facial shape at progressive stages 146 between E11.5 and E14.5 using geometric morphometrics analysis of landmarks collected on micro-computed 147 tomography ( $\mu$ CT) derived facial surfaces of *Efnb1*<sup>+/ $\Delta$ </sup> and *Efnb1*<sup> $\Delta/\gamma$ </sup> embryos as well as a pooled control sample 148 of Efnb1<sup>+/lox</sup> and Efnb1<sup>lox/Y</sup> embryos that we refer to as Efnb1<sup>wt</sup>. To determine the significance and relative 149 150 contribution of facial size (estimated as centroid size) and Efnb1 genotype in determining facial shape, we carried out a Procrustes ANOVA analysis on E11.5 embryos using a published landmark set [45]. Facial size 151 and Efnb1 genotype both contribute significantly to facial shape of E11.5 embryos (Table 1), explaining 152 approximately 23% and 11% of the facial shape variation, respectively. The significant genotype effect 153 154 indicates that ephrin-B1 mosaicism or loss influences facial shape as early as E11.5. Genotype-specific effects on facial shape were interrogated to pinpoint specific regions where differences occur. Landmark-specific 155 shape change vectors for both mutant genotypes indicate increased facial width and decreased facial height, 156 with maxillary prominences more posterior in relation to vault landmarks (Fig. S1). Overall, there is evidence of 157 158 reduced anterior outgrowth of and greater lateral distance between the facial prominences in mutant mice.

Given a significant effect of the *Efnb1* genotype on facial shape at E11.5, we performed morphometric analysis on E12.5-E14.5 embryos to determine whether there was a change in the severity or type of facial dysmorphology as the face outgrows. We used a novel landmark set that better captures facial shape at these specific stages (**Fig. S2**). A Procrustes ANOVA analysis with facial size (estimated as centroid size), embryonic age, and *Efnb1* genotype as factors indicated that each contributes significantly to facial shape

(Table 2). Additionally, the interaction between age and genotype has a significant effect on facial shape. As 164 expected for a sample covering multiple embryonic days, facial shape variation correlated with size (i.e., 165 allometry) explained 77% percentage of facial shape variation. The significant effect of Efnb1 genotype 166 explained almost 7% of facial shape variation. Visualization of landmark vectors illustrating genotype-specific 167 shape effects indicate overall similarities in the effects of  $Efnb1^{\Delta/Y}$  and  $Efnb1^{+/\Delta}$  genotypes on facial shape at 168 E14.5 (Fig. 1A-H). Both mutant genotypes display hypertelorism, represented by an increased relative width 169 between anterior eye landmarks. They also have a relatively inferior-posterior nose, anterior ear, and latero-170 posterior lip corners. Whereas Efnb1<sup>Δ/Y</sup> embryos exhibited shorter faces, the degree of facial shortening was 171 more extreme in *Efnb1<sup>+////</sup>* embryos, as seen by longer vectors at the ear and nose landmarks (**Fig. 1H**). 172 Altogether, these shared patterns of dysmorphology indicate hypertelorism and facial shortening in both male 173 hemizygotes and female heterozygotes. 174

Similarities between E12.5-E14.5 and E11.5 mutant genotype effects suggest a continuity of shape 175 dysmorphology between E11.5 and E14.5. However, it was important to verify that effects at different 176 embryonic ages remain parallel after accounting for normal facial growth across this developmental period. 177 Given that 77% of facial variation of the E12.5-E14.5 sample was explained by size, it was not surprising that 178 the first principal component (PC) of a principal component analysis (PCA) of facial shape separates 179 specimens in this sample by embryonic age (Fig. 1). A multivariate linear model was used to estimate the 180 181 allometric component of shape variation that is common across the sample regardless of genotype (Fig. 1J). The residuals of this regression are interpreted as facial shape after accounting for size related shape 182 183 variation. The first PC of a PCA of these facial shape residuals represents a common axis of facial shape covariation that separates genotypes (Fig. 1K), suggesting major similarities in mutant genotype effects on 184 185 facial shape across embryonic ages. Although individual PCs illustrate patterns of facial shape covariation, they each represent only part of overall covariation. Therefore, we calculated Procrustes distances between 186 mean control and affected genotype facial shapes to confirm the significance of mean facial shape differences 187 between genotypes and to estimate the relative severity of facial shape dysmorphology. There were significant 188 189 differences in mean facial shape between control and each mutant genotype at all embryonic ages (Table 3). In addition, within each age, the mean facial shapes of Efnb1<sup>+/Δ</sup> embryos were always more different from 190

191  $Efnb1^{wt}$  controls than were  $Efnb1^{\Delta/Y}$  facial shapes. Finally, the facial shape of both mutant genotypes is more 192 different from controls at E14.5 than at E12.5, indicating an increase in severity of dysmorphology over this 193 embryonic period.

Based on our analysis, Efnb1<sup>+/ $\Delta$ </sup> and Efnb1<sup> $\Delta/Y$ </sup> mice display similar types of dysmorphology, with 194 Efnb1<sup>+/Δ</sup> females displaving quantitatively greater severity. Similarly, after accounting for normal growth 195 processes, the major axis of facial shape variation separates genotypes across embryonic ages, indicating 196 strong similarities in genotype effects that increase in severity across this period of growth. While these general 197 similarities across age and genotype exist, there are some noted differences in  $Efnb1^{+/\Delta}$  and  $Efnb1^{\Delta/Y}$  genotype 198 effects (Fig. 1A-H). For example, Efnb1<sup>+//2</sup> embryos display increased relative width of the posterior whisker 199 margins and a posterior-inferior corner of the whisker region whereas  $Efnb1^{\Delta/\gamma}$  embryos do not. This suggests 200 a larger increase in relative width of the midfacial region in the female heterozygotes that is not matched by the 201 male hemizygotes. In addition, the female heterozygotes display a reduced length of the midline connection 202 between the whisker pads, that appeared as a midline notch in the upper lip, possibly analogous to a 203 shortened human filtrum (Fig. 1A, C, E, G). These results demonstrate that increased midfacial expansion is 204 exacerbated in *Efnb1*<sup>+/ $\Delta$ </sup> embryos compared with *Efnb1*<sup> $\Delta/Y$ </sup> embryos, rather than resulting from distinct effects on 205 additional craniofacial structures. 206

207

208 Ephrin-B1-mediated cell segregation occurs in post-migratory neural crest-derived craniofacial mesenchyme Cell segregation has been proposed to underlie increased severity in heterozygous female CFNS 209 patients with ephrin-B1 mosaicism. We have previously shown that cell segregation first occurs in the headfold 210 of E8.5 *Efnb1<sup>+///</sup>* embryos prior to NCC emigration [44], suggesting the possibility that early segregation of NCC 211 212 progenitors might result in the cellular distribution patterns we observe at later stages. Alternatively, later segregation within post-migratory NCC-derived populations could result in increased CFNS severity. To 213 determine when and where cell segregation was occurring, we utilized a ubiguitously expressed X-linked GFP 214 (XGFP) transgenic allele to monitor normal patterns of X chromosome inactivation (XCI) at distinct stages of 215 development [44,46,47]. We generated NCC-specific ephrin-B1 mosaic Efnb1<sup>+XGFP/lox</sup>; Sox10-Cre<sup>Tg/0</sup> embryos 216 and examined them for segregation at E10.5, after NCC migration has populated the craniofacial 217

mesenchyme. Sox10 is expressed throughout NCCs prior to their emigration, and we observed robust 218 219 recombination throughout the post-migratory NCCs including the maxillary process (MXP) and the frontonasal prominence (FNP) in Sox10-Cre<sup>Tg/0</sup>; ROSA26<sup>mTmG/+</sup> reporter embryos (Fig. S3A, B). Notably, Efnb1<sup>+XGFP/lox</sup>; 220 Sox10-Cre<sup>Tg/0</sup> embryos did not exhibit cell segregation in the MXP at E10.5 (Fig. S3E) and instead resembled 221 control Efnb1+XGFP/lox embrvos (Fig. S3C, D), indicating that cell segregation in migratory NCCs, if it occurs, 222 does not carry through to give rise to segregated populations in post-migratory NCC-derived MXP 223 mesenchyme. Ephrin-B1 expression was low in the MXP at this stage (Fig. S3C), consistent with absence of 224 segregation in the MXP of both Efnb1+XGFP/lox; Sox10-Cre<sup>Tg/0</sup> and Efnb1+XGFP/lox; Actin-Cre<sup>Tg/0</sup> embryos (Fig. S3E, 225 G). Ephrin-B1 expression was higher in the FNP at E10.5 (Fig. S3D), consistent with a small amount of patchy 226 distribution of GFP- expressing cellsin the FNP of both Efnb1+XGFP/lox; Sox10-Cre<sup>Tg/0</sup> and Efnb1+XGFP/lox; Actin-227 Cre<sup>Tg/0</sup> embryos at this stage (Fig. S3F. H). However, whereas E11.5 control Efnb1<sup>+XGFP/lox</sup> embryos exhibited a 228 fine-grained mosaic pattern of XGFP expression in the MXP and FNP (Fig. 2A, B), in Efnb1+XGFP/lox; Sox10-229 Cre<sup>Tg/0</sup> NCC mosaic embrvos, distinct segregated patches of ephrin-B1/XGFP expression and non-expression 230 were visible in both structures (Fig. 2C, D), indicating that ephrin-B1 drives segregation in the post-migratory 231 NCC-derived mesenchyme. 232

233

### 234 Post-migratory neural crest cell segregation results in local dysmorphogenesis in craniofacial structures

235 The finding that segregation occurs in E11.5 craniofacial mesenchyme demonstrates that ephrin-B1 mediates this process after NCC migration is completed. We next wished to determine whether segregation 236 continues into later stages of craniofacial development. Ephrin-B1 has strong expression in the anterior 237 secondary palate, and loss of function of EFNB1 can result in cleft palate in both humans and mice 238 [3,4,41,48,49]. We therefore asked whether palatal mesenchyme cells mosaic for ephrin-B1 expression can 239 undergo segregation by utilizing the Shox2<sup>lresCre</sup> mouse line, as Shox2 is expressed in a similar domain to 240 ephrin-B1 in the anterior secondary palate [41,50,51]. Though Shox2<sup>lresCre</sup> mediated recombination was 241 observed in neurofilament-expressing maxillary trigeminal ganglion nerve cells at E11.5 (Fig. S4A, B), 242 recombination in the anterior palatal mesenchyme was first apparent at E12.5 (Fig. S4C, D). Consistent with 243 this timing of Shox2<sup>lresCre</sup> onset, we observed no segregation in either genotype at E11.5 (Fig. S4E, F) but 244

small patches of segregated ephrin-B1/GFP expression in E12.5 *Efnb1<sup>+XGFP/lox</sup>; Shox2<sup>IresCre/+</sup>* embryos (**Fig. S4H**) compared with *Efnb1<sup>+XGFP/lox</sup>* control embryos (**Fig. S4G**). Ephrin-B1 is therefore a driver of segregation not only in the headfold and NCC progenitor cells, but also in post-migratory craniofacial mesenchyme. These data demonstrate that ephrin-B1-mediated cell movements continue through development of craniofacial structures, and segregation within these structures may continually contribute to CFNS dysmorphology.

We have demonstrated that differences in facial shape are evident in female Efnb1<sup>+//2</sup> heterozvoous 250 embryos as early as E11.5, but these shape changes continue to develop over time and increase in severity 251 through E14.5. To investigate how segregation later in development correlates with changes to craniofacial 252 tissue morphology, we examined embryos with ephrin-B1 mosaicism in specific cell types at E13.5. Control 253 254 embryos have strong ephrin-B1 expression in the tips of the anterior palatal shelves and lateral FNP consistent with the CFNS-like phenotypes we discovered by morphometric analysis, while XGFP is visible in a fine-255 grained mosaic pattern in each structure (Fig. 3A, E). In full Efnb1+XGFP/A heterozygotes, large ephrin-B1/GFP 256 expressing and non-expressing patches correlated with aberrant ephrin-B1 expression boundaries, including 257 irregularities of palatal shelf shape (Fig. 3B) and apparent bifurcations of the nasal conchae (Fig. 3F). Neural 258 crest-specific mosaic Efnb1+XGFP/lox; Sox10-Cre<sup>Tg/0</sup> embryos exhibited a similar correspondence between 259 ephrin-B1/GFP patches and local dysmorphology in both the secondary palatal shelves (Fig. 3C) and nasal 260 conchae (Fig. 3G). Interestingly, in palate mesenchyme-specific Efnb1+XGFP/lox; Shox2/resCre/+ heterozygotes, 261 262 small ephrin-B1/GFP expressing and non-expressing patches were apparent in the E13.5 anterior palate mesenchyme (Fig. 3D). These patches appeared somewhat smaller than those in full or NCC-specific mosaic 263 embryos, and the palatal shelves were overall not as dramatically dysmorphic as Efnb1<sup>+XGFP/Δ</sup> heterozygotes, 264 though local bending occurred at ephrin-B1 expression boundaries with small bumps surrounding the boundary 265 (Fig. 3B, D). No segregation was evident in the FNP of palate mesenchyme-specific Efnb1+XGFP/lox; 266 Shox2<sup>lresCre/+</sup> heterozygotes, with no local dysmorphology in the nasal conchae (Fig. 3H). In total, these data 267 demonstrate that ephrin-B1 mediates segregation in the post-migratory NCC-derived mesenchyme of two 268 structures key to CFNS pathology and that these boundaries correlate with tissue structure dysmorphology. 269

270

271 Tissue-specific contributions to CFNS dysmorphology

10

The expression patterns of ephrin-B1 in the early neural plate, telencephalon and post-migratory 272 273 craniofacial neural crest, together with the finding that cell segregation can occur independently in each of these contexts, led us to ask whether disruption in distinct tissues contributes to CFNS dysmorphology. We 274 have previously shown that ephrin-B1 mediates segregation in the neural plate neuroepithelium and that 275 segregation is apparent in the developing brain [44,52]. Apoptosis of neuroepithelial cells is observed together 276 with a reduction in cranial NCCs leading to abnormal craniofacial development in *Tcof1*<sup>+/-</sup> mutant embrvos. a 277 model of Treacher Collins syndrome [53.54], and changes to the shape of the brain can indirectly cause 278 changes to facial shape [11,12]. We therefore wondered whether ephrin-B1 mosaicism in the brain could result 279 in changes to facial shape. Sox1<sup>Cre</sup> mediates recombination in the neural plate as early as E8.5 [55], and 280 crossing to the ROSA26<sup>mTmG</sup> reporter revealed widespread recombination throughout the brain at E13.5 (Fig. 281 S5A) but none in craniofacial structures such as the palatal shelves and FNP (Fig. S5B, C), consistent with a 282 lack of segregation in the palate or FNP of *Efnb1*<sup>+XGFP/lox</sup>; Sox1<sup>Cre/+</sup> embryos at this stage (**Fig. S5D, E**). 283 Compared with control embryos (Fig. 4A), Efnb1+XGFP/lox; Sox1<sup>Cre/+</sup> embryos exhibited robust segregation in the 284 brain (Fig. 4C) that mirrored what we observed in Efnb1<sup>+XGFP/Δ</sup> full heterozygous embryos (Fig. 4B). We 285 quantified the gross facial shape effects of brain-specific ephrin-B1 cell segregation in Efnb1+//ox; Sox1<sup>Cre/+</sup> 286 E14.5 embryos with geometric morphometrics. Procrustes ANOVA analysis indicated that Efnb1 brain-specific 287 heterozygosity is not a significant contributor to facial shape variation (Table 4). Landmark specific vectors of 288 Efnb1<sup>+//ox</sup>: Sox1<sup>Cre/+</sup> genotype effects on facial shape are virtually nonexistent (**Fig. 5A. C**), and the shape of 289 these specimens overlap substantially with Efnb1<sup>wt</sup> littermate controls (Fig. 5E). Each of these observations 290 supports the conclusion that neural tissue-specific Efnb1 heterozygosity does not impact facial shape. 291

Because neural-specific *Efnb1* heterozygosity does not contribute to CFNS facial dysmorphology, we quantified the gross facial shape effects of disrupted *Efnb1* expression in NCC-derived tissues. Procrustes ANOVA analysis indicated that *Efnb1*<sup>+//ox</sup>; *Sox10-Cre*<sup>Tg/0</sup> genotype had a significant influence on facial shape (**Table 5**). Landmark-specific vectors of the facial shape effects indicated broadly similar directions of shape change for *Efnb1*<sup>lox/y</sup>; *Sox10-Cre*<sup>Tg/0</sup> hemizygotes and heterozygotes compared with control (**Fig. 5B, D**). These include hypertelorism, a relatively inferior rhinarium, and relatively anterior ear. The *Efnb1*<sup>+//ox</sup>; *Sox10-Cre*<sup>Tg/0</sup> heterozygotes show increased width of the posterior whisker margins and a higher midline lip cleft when

compared to Efnb1<sup>lox/y</sup>; Sox10-Cre<sup>Tg/0</sup> hemizygotes. As with the comparison of Efnb1<sup>+/Δ</sup> and Efnb1<sup>Δ/Y</sup> 299 genotypes, the severity of facial shape dysmorphology is lower in Efnb1<sup>lox/y</sup>; Sox10-Cre<sup>Tg/0</sup> males than in 300 Efnb1<sup>+//ox</sup>: Sox10-Cre<sup>Tg/0</sup> heterozygous females (Fig. 5F: Table 6). Strong similarities in facial dysmorphology 301 are apparent between embryos with global disruption of Efnb1 and those with NCC-specific-loss. However, the 302 Procrustes distances between affected mice and wildtype mice are lower for the Sox10-Cre crosses (Table 303 **3,6**), suggesting a lower severity of facial dysmorphology when cell segregation occurs only in NCC-derived 304 structures. In summary, these morphometric results quantitatively demonstrate that neural-specific disruption 305 of Efnb1 has no effect on facial shape in CFNS dysmorphology, while NCC-specific disruption leads to facial 306 shape effects that are similar to, but slightly milder than those resulting from global disruption of Efnb1 307 308 expression.

309

# 310 Contributions of EphB receptors to CFNS-like phenotypes and cell segregation

Based on biochemical affinity, EphB1, EphB2 and EphB3 have been proposed to be the principle 311 312 receptors for ephrin-B1 [56]. Though it has been documented that loss of EphB2 and EphB3 signaling results in a cleft palate phenotype [57-59], it is currently unknown which receptors are relevant to which CFNS 313 phenotypes, and whether global additive or distinct tissue-specific functions are conferred by each receptor. In 314 order to illuminate the particular Eph-ephrin-B1 interactions that produce CFNS facial dysmorphology, we 315 316 collected E14.5 embryos harboring all 27 possible genotypic combinations of Ephb1, Ephb2, and Ephb3 null mutant alleles [58,60,61]. Morphometric analysis was completed to identify the phenotypic influence of single 317 EphB receptor and combined EphB receptor loss. Procrustes ANOVA analysis indicates that genotypes of 318 each EphB receptor have significant effects on E14.5 embryo facial shape (Table 7). The proportion of facial 319 shape variation explained by variation in the Ephb1 null mutation is 1%, while Ephb2 genotype explains 6% 320 and Ephb3 genotype explains 10% (Rsg values). Specimens with more null alleles across all three receptors 321 tended to have facial shapes more similar to  $Efnb1^{+/\Delta}$  and  $Efnb1^{\Delta/Y}$  specimens, but each receptor contributed to 322 facial shape change to a different extent (Fig. 6A). For example, specimens that were homozygous null for 323 Ephb1 often had facial shapes similar to Efnb1<sup>wt</sup> mice, while specimens that were homozygous null for Ephb2 324 usually had facial shapes more similar to Efnb1<sup>Δ/y</sup> mice (Fig. 6B). So, while genotype of each receptor was 325

associated with a significant shape effect, the facial shape effect of *Ephb1* genotype explained less facial shape variation than *Ephb2* or *Ephb3* genotypes and was associated with less severe phenotypic effects.

Interactions between multiple Ephb receptor genotypes further explained facial shape variation across 328 this triple null series. For example, some of the variation across specimens that were homozygous null for 329 Ephb1 resulted from heterozygosity of other receptors. Ephb1 homozygotes with no other null Ephb alleles had 330 facial shapes like Efnb1<sup>wt</sup> mice, indicating weak or no independent impact of Ephb1. Ephb1<sup>-/-</sup>; Ephb2<sup>+/-</sup> 331 embryos also displayed wildtype-like phenotypes: however, Ephb1<sup>-/-</sup>; Ephb2<sup>+/-</sup>; Ephb3<sup>+/-</sup> exhibited phenotypes 332 more similar to Efnb1<sup>Δ/Y</sup> mutant embryos (Fig. 6D). Ephb3<sup>-/-</sup> null mutants exhibited an intermediate facial 333 phenotype with the severity of dysmorphology increased by Ephb2 heterozygosity (Fig. 6E). While many 334 specimens that were homozygous null for one receptor gene showed wildtype-like facial shape, most 335 specimens that were homozygous null for two receptor genes displayed more severe dysmorphology (Fig. 336 6C). However, the embryos that were homozygous null for both Ephb1 and Ephb3 clustered into two groups 337 along major axes (PCs) of facial shape variation. This separation of specimens was based on whether these 338 specimens were also heterozygous for Ephb2 (Fig. 6F), indicating that having two wild-type copies of Ephb2 in 339 embryos without EphB1 or EphB3 function can lead to a notably milder facial phenotype. 340

We have previously demonstrated that loss of forward signaling through EphB2 and EphB3 resulted in 341 a loss of cell segregation in the neural plate of *Efnb1*<sup>+///</sup> embryos at E8.5. Because ephrin-B1 cell segregation 342 343 occurring within the post-migratory NCC-derived mesenchyme appears to drive CFNS dysmorphology, we genetically tested which receptors were required for cell segregation in the secondary palate, FNP and brain. 344 We generated compound Efnb1<sup>+///</sup> mutant embryos also harboring loss of function of different combinations of 345 Ephb1, Ephb2 and Ephb3 alleles and analyzed cell segregation at E13.5 by ephrin-B1 immunostaining. 346 Robust segregation with large segregated patches of ephrin-B1 positive and negative cells was apparent in the 347 secondary palate and FNP mesenchyme of Efnb1<sup>+///</sup> embryos with most combinations of EphB receptor 348 genotypes (Fig. 7A-F; Fig. S6A-F). Strikingly, Efnb1<sup>+///</sup>; Ephb1<sup>+//</sup>; Ephb2<sup>-//</sup>; Ephb3<sup>-/-</sup> mutant embryos exhibited 349 reduced segregation in the craniofacial mesenchyme with smaller ephrin-B1 positive patches and more 350 351 intermixing resulting in a more even distribution of ephrin-B1 expressing and non-expressing cells (Fig. 7G; S6G), and Efnb1<sup>+///</sup>; Ephb1<sup>-/-</sup>; Ephb2<sup>-/-</sup>; Ephb3<sup>-/-</sup> embryos exhibited the most dramatic reduction in cell 352

353 segregation, though regions of ephrin-B1 negative cells were still observed to cluster together (Fig. 7H; S6H). 354 Even complete loss of EphB1, EphB2 and EphB3 was not sufficient to completely abrogate ephrin-B1mediated cell segregation in the palate and FNP, suggesting that additional receptors may contribute to cell 355 segregation in this context. In the brain, a somewhat different priority of receptor requirement was observed. 356 Again, cell segregation was apparent in most Efnb1+/2; Ephb1-3 compound mutant embryos, though the extent 357 of intermixing and distribution of patches was different with different receptor combinations (Fig. S7). Notably, 358 EphB1 seems to play a more important role in cell segregation in the brain, as Efnb1<sup>+///</sup>: Ephb1<sup>-/-</sup>: Ephb2<sup>-/-</sup>: 359 Ephb3<sup>+/-</sup> embryos exhibited dramatic loss of cell segregation (Fig. S7E) that was similar to that observed in 360 Efnb1<sup>+/ $\Delta$ </sup>; Ephb1<sup>-/-</sup>; Ephb2<sup>-/-</sup>; Ephb3<sup>-/-</sup> embryos (**Fig. S7H**). 361

362

#### 363 Discussion

From its description as a subgroup of frontonasal dysplasia that affects females more severely than males and the discovery of its X-linked inheritance, CFNS etiology has been mysterious [3,62]. Mouse knockout studies greatly facilitated the identification of *EFNB1* as the responsible gene, and implicated the involvement of Eph-ephrin cell segregation [4,5,41,42]. Aberrant ephrin-B1-mediated cell segregation, or "cellular interference," is a likely causative mechanism for producing craniofacial and skeletal phenotypes in CFNS patients [37,39,42–44]. It has remained difficult, however, to definitively demonstrate the connection between cell segregation and craniofacial dysmorphogenesis.

Using morphometric analysis in a wide range of mouse genetic models, we have determined the facial 371 changes associated with CFNS pathogenesis and their timing. Significantly wider and shorter faces in Efnb1 372 373 mutant mice were noted as early as E11.5 and increased in severity by E14.5. During this period, which approximately corresponds to weeks 5-8 in human embryonic development, both Efnb1<sup>Δ/Y</sup> null hemizygous and 374 Efnb1<sup>+//2</sup> mosaic heterozygous embryos exhibit changes in facial shape relative to control embryos, but the 375 changes are more pronounced in mosaic heterozygous embryos, analogous to the increased severity seen in 376 heterozygous female CFNS patients. The quantification of phenotypic shape changes in these embryos 377 378 revealed that dysmorphology analogous to CFNS phenotypes seen in humans with EFNB1 mutations arose very early during facial morphogenesis, including hypertelorism, midfacial hypoplasia, and higher severity of 379

dysmorphology in females. Specifically, a larger increase in relative width of the midfacial region in the female 380 Efnb1<sup>+/ $\Delta$ </sup> heterozygotes is not matched by the male Efnb1<sup> $\Delta/Y$ </sup> hemizygotes. In addition, the degree of facial 381 shortening in the females is more extreme, as seen by longer vectors at the ear and nose landmarks. Finally, 382 the female heterozygotes display a much higher point of fusion between the right and left sides of the upper lip 383 that may be secondary to a wider nasal region. These results indicate that increased midface expansion, 384 arising early in development and not as a consequence of craniosynostosis, underlies more severe 385 phenotypes in female heterozygotes. The strong similarities present in both mutant genotypes indicate that the 386 more severe craniofacial phenotype noted in female heterozygotes are based in a quantitative extension of 387 dysmorphologies shared with male hemizygotes. Given that heterozygotes display cell segregation and 388 hemizygotes do not, it might be expected that  $Efnb1^{+/\Delta}$  phenotypes would represent a combination of  $Efnb1^{\Delta/Y}$ 389 and qualitatively novel shape effects that are specific to the heterozygotes. However, our results support a 390 fundamentally different situation where hemizygotes and heterozygotes largely exist along a shared 391 quantitative spectrum of facial dysmorphology. 392

393 To begin to determine how cell segregation relates to more severe CFNS phenotypes, it is necessary to understand both when (in developmental time) and where (in relevant tissues to CFNS) cell segregation 394 occurs. By generating tissue-specific mosaicism for ephrin-B1, we find that in addition to our previously-395 documented early wave of cell segregation that occurs in the neuroepithelium, cell segregation also occurs 396 397 independently in the post-migratory NCCs of the craniofacial mesenchyme. Indeed, neural plate-stage cell segregation does not appear to carry through NCC migration, because in Efnb1<sup>+//2</sup> embryos, E10.5 post-398 migratory NCC-derived mesenchyme did not exhibit cell segregation. Instead, ephrin-B1 mosaicism within 399 NCCs drove robust cell segregation after E11.5 upon the onset of ephrin-B1 expression in this tissue, and 400 401 mosaicism induced later in the palatal shelf mesenchyme was also able to drive cell segregation. These data underscore that there is not one common timepoint, or even cell type, for ephrin-B1 cell segregation, but rather 402 ephrin-B1 mosaicism can mediate segregation in a wide range of contexts to give rise to the CFNS spectrum 403 of phenotypes. The conserved cellular mechanisms that have such power across dramatically different cell 404 405 types and developmental time are not yet known. Nevertheless, based on the timing of cell segregation we document here, together with the timing of quantitative shape changes in *Efnb1* mutant embryos, we infer that 406

CFNS is not caused by defects in NCC migration as previously suggested, but rather reflects a role for Efnb1 407 in shaping the craniofacial primordia following migration. Notably, we found that Efnb1<sup>+//2</sup> mutants exhibit 408 409 changes in tissue shape such as bending, folding and bifurcations in the secondary palate and FNP that correlated with ectopic ephrin-B1 expression boundaries. How exactly local dysmorphology exacerbates 410 phenotypic severity is uncertain, but it may be that the ephrin-B1 expression pattern constrains the regions of 411 greatest dysmorphology which then leads to stereotypical CFNS face shape changes. Additionally, these 412 findings may suggest the existence of previously unappreciated tissue boundaries that exist in the craniofacial 413 mesenchyme that are lost in Efnb1<sup> $\Delta/Y$ </sup> hemizygous males, but ectopically imposed in Efnb1<sup>+ $\Delta/Y</sup>$  embryos. Further</sup> 414 studies will be needed to determine how these aberrant boundaries and/or disruption of boundary maintenance 415 416 contribute to craniofacial phenotypes.

Although segregation occurs dramatically in neural precursor cells at the neural plate and is present in 417 the brains of Efnb1<sup>+//2</sup> embryos later in development, restriction of ephrin-B1 mosaicism to neural progenitor 418 cells in Efnb1+//ox: Sox1<sup>Cre/+</sup> embryos does not result in changes to craniofacial structures or changes to face 419 420 shape, although segregation in the brain remains equally robust in these embryos. Although previous studies have shown that changes to the structure of the brain can alter the shape of the face [11,12], we demonstrate 421 that this is not the case for the developmental etiology of craniofacial dysmorphology in CFNS. This is 422 somewhat surprising, given 1) the high level of expression of ephrin-B1 in the developing brain and 2) dramatic 423 disruptions of neuroepithelium morphogenesis reported in Efnb1<sup>+////</sup> mouse embryos [52]. Rather, tissue-424 specific mosaicism in NCC-derived facial tissues leads to facial dysmorphology that is similar in nature to the 425 effects of global mosaicism. There is overlap in the range of facial phenotypes displayed by  $Efnb1^{+/\Delta}$  and 426 Efnb1<sup>+//ox</sup>: Sox10-Cre<sup>Tg/0</sup> embryos along two major axes of facial shape variation. However, the average facial 427 shape of Efnb1<sup>+/ $\Delta$ </sup> mice is more different from wildtype facial shape than that of Efnb1<sup>+//ox</sup>; Sox10-Cre<sup>Tg/0</sup> mice, 428 which we interpret as greater severity of facial dysmorphology. This difference suggests that NCC-specific 429 Efnb1 mosaicism does not account for all of the facial dysmorphology noted in Efnb1<sup>+////</sup> mice. There are 430 multiple possible reasons for this. First, it is possible that mosaicism in other tissues may exacerbate 431 432 dysmorphology that is primarily driven by NCC-specific mosaicism. Potential interacting tissues include mesoderm-derived cell populations that give rise to cranial base skull bones. It is possible that a reduction in 433

434 cranial base bone length may also contribute to increased apparent facial shortening [24]. It is also possible 435 that neural tissue-specific changes may exacerbate facial dysmorphology even if neural tissue-specific 436 changes are not their primary driver.

As a signaling partner for EphB receptor tyrosine kinases, ephrin-B1 has complex signaling 437 mechanisms with multiple possible receptors, as well as proposed receptor-independent functions [33,63,64]. 438 Quantitative analysis of face shape in a triple compound mutant series null for different combinations of Ephb1, 439 Ephb2, and Ephb3 provides the first analysis of the particular signaling interactions that are critical for normal 440 face shape development relevant to CFNS. Ephb1 homozygous null mutation contributes little to facial 441 dysmorphology when compared to the other receptors. Ephb2, in particular, appears critical for normal facial 442 development. Although homozygous loss of Ephb3 led to intermediate dysmorphology, the homozygous loss 443 of Ephb2 led to dysmorphology similar in nature to that seen in Efnb1<sup> $\Delta/Y$ </sup> embryos and similar to the 444 dysmorphology noted in embryos with homozygous compound loss of function of all three receptors. Ephb2<sup>+/-</sup>: 445 Ephb3<sup>+/-</sup> compound mutants exhibited genetic interaction, displaying dysmorphology that was absent in either 446 Ephb2<sup>+/-</sup> or Ephb3<sup>+/-</sup> individual mutants. In summary, the range of variation in this sample indicates that the loss 447 of EphB receptors leads to facial phenotypes like that noted in Efnb1<sup> $\Delta/Y$ </sup> mice, although Ephb2 genotype 448 appears to have the most pronounced effect, particularly in combination with Ephb3, while Ephb1 has a 449 minimal effect. Loss of all three EphB receptors did not recapitulate the severity of the Efnb1<sup>+/Δ</sup> phenotypes. 450 This is consistent with the observation that XCI-driven mosaicism followed by cell segregation underlies 451 severity of phenotypes. Complete loss of EphB receptors does not have a mosaic effect, and extensive ephrin-452 B1-mediated cell segregation in the craniofacial mesenchyme requires receptor expression. Though complete 453 loss of EphB1, EphB2, and EphB3 resulted in a dramatic reduction in cell segregation in Efnb1<sup>+/2</sup>: Ephb1<sup>-/-</sup>: 454 Ephb2<sup>-/-</sup>; Ephb3<sup>-/-</sup> embryos, segregation was not completely abolished, suggesting that additional receptors 455 may play a role. Several EphA receptors are strongly expressed in the secondary palate mesenchyme, 456 including EphA4, which was reported to interact with ephrin-B1 when overexpressed in Cos7 cells [65,66]. 457

Our improved understanding of the timing and receptor partners involved in cell segregation and craniofacial morphogenesis might ultimately be useful for designing molecular therapies that block Eph/ephrin cell segregation, thus potentially ameliorating more severe CFNS phenotypes. Though we have mainly

focused on the relative severity of  $Efnb1^{+/4}$  mutant phenotypes, it is important to stress, however, that  $Efnb1^{+/4}$ and Ephb1; Ephb2; Ephb3 compound mutant mouse embryos exhibit significant craniofacial dysmorphogenesis that includes hypertelorism, frontonasal dysplasia, and cleft secondary palate [8,41,57–59]. Though cleft lip and palate are relatively uncommon in CFNS patients relative to other craniofacial features, a recent genome-wide association study suggested that the *EFNB1* locus may also be relevant to non-syndromic cleft lip with or without cleft palate, which underscores the importance of this pathway in normal development as well as in X-linked CFNS [67].

468

# 469 Materials and Methods

Mouse lines. All animal experiments were performed in accordance with the protocols of the University of 470 California, San Francisco Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee. Mice were socially housed under a 471 twelve-hour light-dark cycle with food and water ad libitum. If single housing was required for breeding 472 purposes, additional enrichment was provided. All alleles used for the experiments herein have been 473 474 previously described. All mice were backcrossed and maintained on a congenic C57BL/6J genetic background. Efnb1<sup>lox</sup>, MGI: 3039289 [8]; X<sup>GFP</sup>, MGI: 3055027 [46]; Actin-Cre, MGI: 2176050 [68]; Sox10-Cre, MGI: 3586900 475 [69]; Shox2<sup>lresCre</sup>, MGI: 5567920 [50]; Sox1<sup>Cre</sup>, MGI: 3807952 [55]; ROSA26<sup>mTmG</sup>, MGI: 3716464 [70]; Ephb1<sup>-</sup>, 476 MGI: 2677305 [61]; Ephb2, MGI: 2149765 [60]; Ephb3, MGI: 2149669 [58]. For a full description of genetic 477 478 crosses used to generate embryos; strain background, sex, and stage of embryos; and numbers of embryos 479 analyzed, please refer to Table S1.

480

*Generation of embryos for analysis of cell segregation.* An X-linked beta-actin GFP transgene (XGFP) that demonstrates a fine-grained mosaic pattern of GFP expression after random XCI in female embryos [42,46,47] was used to visualize XCI as well as cell segregation in all mosaic embryos. Full ephrin-B1 heterozygotes were generated using Actin-Cre mice [68]. *Actin-Cre<sup>Tg/0</sup>; X<sup>GFP</sup>/Y* male mice were crossed to *Efnb1<sup>lox/lox</sup>* female mice to generate both *Efnb1<sup>+XGFP/lox</sup>; Actin-Cre<sup>Tg/0</sup>* and *Efnb1<sup>+XGFP/lox</sup>* control embryos (referred to in the text and figures as *Efnb1<sup>+XGFP/Lox</sup>* and *Efnb1<sup>+XGFP/lox</sup>*, respectively). Embryos mosaic for ephrin-B1 expression specifically in the neural crest cell (NCC) lineage were generated using Sox10-Cre mice [69], which were crossed to *Efnb1<sup>lox/lox</sup>* 

female mice to generate both Efnb1+XGFP/lox; Sox10-Cre<sup>Tg/0</sup> heterozygous mutant and Efnb1+XGFP/lox control 488 489 embryos. Embryos mosaic for ephrin-B1 expression specifically in the palate mesenchyme were generated using Shox2<sup>/resCre</sup> [50]. Shox2<sup>/resCre/+</sup>; X<sup>GFP</sup>/Y male mice were crossed to Efnb1<sup>/ox/lox</sup> female mice to generate both 490 Efnb1+XGFP/lox: Shox2<sup>IresCre/+</sup> heterozygous mutant and Efnb1+XGFP/lox control embryos. Embryos mosaic for 491 ephrin-B1 expression in early neural progenitor cells were generated using Sox1<sup>Cre</sup>, which drives 492 recombination in neural plate neuroepithelial cells at E8.5 [55]. Sox1<sup>Cre/+</sup>; X<sup>GFP</sup>/Y male mice were crossed to 493 Efnb1<sup>lox/lox</sup> female mice to generate both Efnb1<sup>+XGFP/lox</sup>; Sox1<sup>Cre/+</sup> heterozygous mutant and Efnb1<sup>+XGFP/lox</sup> control 494 embryos. For EphB receptor compound mutants, Efnb1<sup>/ox/y</sup>; Ephb1; Ephb2; Ephb3 male mice carrying differing 495 numbers of EphB mutant receptor alleles were crossed to EphB1; EphB2; EphB3; Actin-Cre<sup>Tg/0</sup> female mice 496 carrying differing numbers of EphB mutant alleles to generate Efnb1<sup>+////</sup> embryos with various combinations of 497 EphB1-3 mutations (Table S1). 498

499

500 Immunofluorescence. Embryos were fixed in 4% PFA in PBS, dehydrated through sucrose, embedded in OCT, and frozen in dry ice/ethanol. 12 um sections were cut using an HM550 (Thermo Scientific) or a CM1900 501 (Leica) crvostat. Slides were washed with PBS. blocked in 5% normal donkey serum (Jackson 502 ImmunoResearch) and 0.1% Triton-X-100 in PBS, incubated in primary antibody overnight at 4°C, washed with 503 PBS, and incubated in secondary antibody at room temperature (for antibody information, please refer to Table 504 8). Slides were counterstained in DAPI (Millipore) in PBS and coverslips were mounted on slides using 505 Aquamount (Thermo Scientific) for imaging. Images were obtained on an Axio Imager.Z2 upright microscope 506 using an AxioCamMR3 camera and AxioVision Rel.4.8 software (Zeiss). 507

508

509 *Morphometrics specimen and data acquisition.* Embryos were collected at embryonic days E11.5, E12.5, 510 E13.5, and E14.5. Embryos were fixed and stored in a mixture of 4% PFA and 5% glutaraldehyde in PBS. After 511 approximately an hour soaking in Cysto-Conray II (Liebel-Flarsheim Canada), micro-computed tomography 512 (μCT) images of embryo heads were acquired with a Scanco μ35 at the University of Calgary or a Scanco μ40 513 at Stony Brook University with 45kV/177μA for images of 0.012 mm<sup>3</sup> voxel size. All facial landmarks were 514 collected on minimum threshold based ectodermal surfaces (downsampled x2) from the μCT images in Amira

(Thermo-Fisher). Because of striking changes in the morphology of the face between E11.5 and E14.5, two different landmark sets were required to quantify facial shape across this period. Previously defined ectodermal landmarks [45], minus those previously identified as problematic (i.e. landmarks 2, 7(24), 10(27), 13(30), 17(34), 18(35), 21(38), 22), were used to quantify facial form of E11.5 embryos. A modified and reduced version of this published landmark set was developed to allow for comparison of ectodermal facial form between E12.5 and E17.5, which we used to quantify facial form of our E12.5, E13.5, and E14.5 embryos (Fig. S2; Table 9).

- 522
- 523 Morphometric analysis of Efnb1 constitutive mutant embryos

Facial landmarks were collected from hemizygote males (*Efnb1*<sup> $\Delta/Y$ </sup>), heterozygote females (*Efnb1*<sup> $+\Delta/Y</sup>),</sup>$ 524 and control specimens that were sometimes littermates of affected specimens and sometimes came from 525 separate crosses of Actin-Cre and C57BL/6J mice. Separate geometric morphometric analyses were carried 526 out for E11.5 specimens and a combination of E12.5-E14.5 specimens using geomorph [71] in R Statistical 527 528 Software (R Developmental Core Team, 2008). The procedure is described for the E12.5-E14.5 sample first. Procrustes superimposition was performed on landmarks to align each specimen and remove scale from 529 analysis. Procrustes ANOVA analysis, with permutation-based tests for significance, was used to determine 530 whether size (numeric; centroid size), genotype (factor;  $Efnb1^{+/\Delta}$ ,  $Efnb1^{-/Y}$ ,  $Efnb1^{wt}$ ), age (numeric; 12.5, 13.5, 531 532 14.5) and their interactions have a significant influence on facial shape ( $\alpha$ =0.05). We visualized the effects of *Efnb1*<sup>+/ $\Delta$ </sup> and *Efnb1*<sup> $\Delta$ /Y</sup> genotypes on facial shape by plotting differences between predicted genotype-specific 533 shapes estimated from the Procrustes ANOVA multivariate linear model (assuming E14.5 age and average 534 E14.5 centroid size). Given the strong changes in facial shape that normally occur between E12.5 and 14.5, 535 536 we completed a multivariate regression of facial shape on centroid size to estimate allometry and used the rescaled residuals of that regression as "allometry-corrected" coordinates for further analysis. Principal 537 component analyses of coordinate values were completed both before and after "allometry correction" to 538 visualize patterns of specimen clustering along major axes of facial shape covariation within the sample. 539 540 Procrustes distances between mean control and affected facial shapes were calculated from residual landmark coordinates at each age to determine whether genotypes displayed significantly different facial shapes. 541

Significance was determined by comparing Procrustes distances to 95% age-specific confidence intervals that 542 543 were estimated with 1000 permutations of distances between two randomly selected control groups of 15 specimens. Geometric morphometric analysis of the E11.5 sample was completed in the same way, except 544 without age as a factor in the Procrustes ANOVA analysis and without allometry correction, because only one 545 age was under analysis. The Procrustes distance values, Procrustes ANOVA output values, and other values 546 547 are not directly comparable between the E11.5 and the E12.5-E14.5 analyses, because a different set of landmarks undergoing independent Procrustes superimpositions were completed for each age group. 548 However, comparisons of the type of facial shape changes associated with genotype within each age group 549 are valuable to determine if phenotypes are affected similarly in both age groups. 550

551

Facial shape comparison of Efnb1 tissue-specific and EphB series mutant embryos. E14.5 embryos were 552 collected from crosses of Sox10-Cre<sup>Tg/0</sup> or Sox1<sup>Cre/+</sup> males with Efnb1<sup>lox/lox</sup> females to generate embryos to 553 554 quantify the effects of tissue specific Efnb1 loss on facial shape (Table S1). We intercrossed compound EphB1; EphB2; EphB3 mutants to generate E14.5 embryos with all possible combinations of EphB1, B2, and 555 B3 null allele genotypes to compare the effects of receptor loss with the effects of Efnb1 ligand loss. Separate 556 557 Procrustes ANOVA analyses were used to identify significant effects of size (numeric; centroid size) and genotype (factor, Cre; Efnb1<sup>+//ox</sup>, Cre; Efnb1<sup>/ox/Y</sup>, Efnb1<sup>+//ox</sup>) for the Sox1<sup>Cre</sup> and Sox10-Cre samples. Procrustes 558 559 ANOVA analysis of the EphB series was completed using the number of null alleles for each EphB receptor as separate numeric factors. To visualize the facial shape effects of these genotypes across E14.5 specimens in 560 relation to full Efnb1<sup>+/Δ</sup> or Efnb1<sup>Δ/Y</sup> genotype effects, each specimen was projected onto principal component 561 axes defined with an E14.5 Efnb1<sup>+/ $\Delta$ </sup>-, Efnb1<sup> $\Delta/\gamma$ </sup>-, or Efnb1<sup>wt</sup>-specific PCA. The 95% confidence intervals of the 562 facial shape of Efnb1<sup>+/ $\Delta$ </sup>, Efnb1<sup> $\Delta/Y$ </sup>, and Efnb1<sup>wt</sup> genotypes serve as a standard visual baseline across many of 563 the associated figure panels. Procrustes distances between wildtype specimens and each Efnb1 mutant 564 genotype were calculated to determine whether tissue-specific expression of Efnb1 null mutations led to 565 significant facial dysmorphology. 566

567

#### 568 Acknowledgements

- We are grateful for the advice and generous support received from Dr. Benedikt Hallgrimsson during the early phases of this research project. We acknowledge Dr. Francis Smith for collecting landmarks for E11.5 morphometrics comparisons and to Isabel Mormile for collecting some of the µCT images. Thanks go to Ace Lewis and Dr. Camilla Teng for contributing images for use in the model figure. Outstanding technical genotyping support was provided by Fang-Shiuan Leung. We are grateful to our colleagues Dr. Ralph Marcucio and Dr. Licia Selleri for their insightful comments. This work was supported by R01DE023337 from NIH/NIDCR to J.O.B.
- 576

#### 577 Figures

Figure 1. Efnb1 mutant embryos have guantitative facial shape effects that mimic CFNS. (A-F) Facial 578 landmarks identified on representative Efnb1<sup>wt</sup> (A-B). Efnb1<sup> $\Delta/Y$ </sup> (C-D), and Efnb1<sup>+/ $\Delta$ </sup> (E-F) E14.5 specimen 579 surfaces. (G-H) Common facial shape effects of  $Efnb1^{\Delta/Y}$  (cyan) and  $Efnb1^{+/\Delta}$  (red) genotypes on facial 580 landmark position, compared to Efnb1<sup>wt</sup> (black) from the (G) anterior and (H) lateral views. The lengths of 581 these shape difference vectors are magnified three times to allow for easy comparison. Thin black lines are 582 placed for anatomical reference. (I-L) Plots to illustrate facial shape variation of  $Efnb1^{\Delta/Y}$  (cvan) and  $Efnb1^{+/\Delta}$ 583 (red) and Efnb1<sup>wt</sup> (black) genotypes across E12.5 (triangle), E13.5 (square), and E14.5 (circle). (I) Facial 584 shape variation across E12.5-14.5 specimens is illustrated along the first two principal components. (J) A linear 585 relationship exists between facial size and a multivariate summary score of facial shape, which indicates a 586 strong allometric effect across this period of development. (K) The first two principal components of facial 587 shape after accounting for this developmental allometry illustrate a common genotype effect across ages. (L) 588 Facial shape variation of only E14.5 specimens, with 95% confidence intervals, illustrates similarities in the 589 590 effect of both genotypes compared to control specimens.

591

Figure 2. Post-migratory neural crest cells mosaic for ephrin-B1 expression undergo cell segregation 592 in craniofacial primordia. (A, A') Immunostaining E11.5 frontal sections for ephrin-B1 (magenta) and GFP 593 (green) reveals that Efnb1+XGFP/lox control embryos demonstrate a fine-grained mosaic pattern of XGFP 594 expression, and ephrin-B1 expression is strong in the maxillary prominences and (B, B') the lateral FNP. (C, 595 C') Efnb1+XGFP/A; Sox10-Cre<sup>Tg/0</sup> embryos with ephrin-B1 mosaicism specifically in NCCs show dramatic cell 596 segregation in the maxillary prominences and (D, D') the lateral FNP, indicating that NCCs are capable of 597 undergoing ephrin-B1-mediated segregation resulting in aberrant ephrin-B1 expression patterns in craniofacial 598 mesenchyme. Scale bars, 200 µm. 599

600

Figure 3. Craniofacial mesenchyme cell segregation correlates with local dysmorphology in the secondary palate and FNP. (A, A') Immunostaining E13.5 frontal sections for ephrin-B1 (magenta) and GFP (green) reveals that ephrin-B1 protein is strongly expressed in the anterior-middle palatal shelves. Evenly

distributed and intermixed XGFP expressing cells are apparent in control Efnb1+XGFP/lox embryos. (B, B') Cell 604 segregation is visible in the palatal shelves of Efnb1<sup>+XGFP/Δ</sup> embryos as large patches of ephrin-B1 and GFP 605 expression in these structures. The palatal shelves are also smaller and dysmorphic, with changes in shape 606 occurring at boundaries between ephrin-B1 expressing and non-expressing domains (white arrow). (C, C') 607 Generation of ephrin-B1 mosaicism specifically in neural crest cells using Sox10-Cre results in dramatic cell 608 segregation in *Efnb1<sup>+XGFP/Δ</sup>*: Sox10-Cre<sup>Tg/0</sup> palatal shelves, which are smaller and dysmorphic, with regions of 609 dysmorphogenesis correlating with ephrin-B1 expression boundaries (yellow arrow). (D, D') Ephrin-B1 610 mosaicism in Shox2<sup>lresCre</sup>-expressing cells results in cell segregation in Efnb1<sup>+XGFP/Δ</sup>; Shox2<sup>lresCre/+</sup> palatal 611 shelves. Areas of dysmorphogenesis are visible at the interface between ephrin-B1 expression and non-612 expression domains (blue arrow). (E, E') Immunostaining of frontal sections of control Efnb1+XGFP/lox embryos at 613 E13.5 for ephrin-B1 (magenta) demonstrates strong expression in the LNP lateral to the nasal concha of the 614 anterior frontonasal process (FNP). XGFP (green)-expressing cells are evenly distributed and intermixed with 615 GFP non-expressing cells. (F, F') In *Efnb1*<sup>+XGFP/Δ</sup> embryos with ubiquitous mosaicism for ephrin-B1 expression, 616 cell segregation is evident throughout the anterior FNP, and bifurcation of the nasal concha occurs at an 617 aberrant ephrin-B1 expression boundary (white arrowhead). (G, G') Generation of ephrin-B1 mosaicism 618 specifically in neural crest cells in Efnb1+XGFP/A; Sox10-CreTg/0 embryos results in cell segregation visible 619 throughout the anterior FNP and bifurcation of the nasal concha visible at ephrin-B1 expression boundaries 620 621 (yellow arrowhead). (H, H') Restriction of ephrin-B1 mosaicism to post-migratory neural crest cells using Shox2<sup>lresCre</sup> does not cause cell segregation or dysmorphology in the nasal concha of the anterior FNP, as 622 Shox2 is not expressed in this region. Scale bars, 200 µm. 623

624

Figure 4. Ephrin-B1 mosaicism in neural progenitors produces cell segregation in the brain. (A, A') Immunostaining of E13.5 coronal sections for ephrin-B1 (magenta) and GFP (green) shows high ephrin-B1 expression, with an absence of cell segregation as shown by the fine-grained mosaic pattern of XGFP expression. (B, B') In *Efnb1*<sup>+XGFP/Δ</sup> embryos with ubiquitous mosaicism for ephrin-B1 expression, cell segregation is evident throughout the brain as large patches of ephrin-B1 and GFP expression. (C, C') Generation of ephrin-B1 mosaicism specifically in neural progenitor cells using Sox1<sup>Cre</sup> results in dramatic

631 segregation throughout the brain of E13.5 *Efnb1*<sup>+ $XGFP/\Delta$ </sup>; *Sox1*<sup>*Cre/+*</sup> embryos, visible as large patches of ephrin-632 B1 and GFP expression.

633

Figure 5. Disruption of *Efnb1* in NCCs results in face shape changes but disruption in brain does not. 634 (A-D) Genotype-specific facial shape effects are plotted between predicted E14.5 facial shape landmark 635 positions for *Efnb1<sup>wt</sup>* (grey points) and *Efnb1<sup>+/lox</sup>;* Sox1<sup>Cre/+</sup> (orange points) from the (A) anterior and (C) lateral 636 views and between Efnb1<sup>wt</sup> (grey points), Efnb1<sup>+//ox</sup>; Sox10-Cre<sup>Tg/0</sup> (orange points), and . Efnb1<sup>/ox/Y</sup>: Sox10-637  $Cre^{Tg/0}$  (blue points) from the (B) anterior and (D) lateral views. The lengths of these shape difference vectors 638 are magnified three times to allow for easy comparison of shape effects. Thin black lines are placed for 639 anatomical reference. (E-F) Facial shape variation of indicated genotypes is projected along the first two 640 principal components from Fig. 1L for direct comparison of Sox1<sup>Cre</sup> and Sox10-Cre Efnb1 genotype effects with 641 full Efnb1 genotype effects. The large ovals are the 95% confidence intervals from Fig. 1L. 642

643

# Figure 6. Distinct EphB receptors exhibit additive non-equal quantitative effects on face shape.

A sample of all possible Ephb1, Ephb2, and Ephb3 null allele genotype combinations displays wide facial 645 variation across the first two principal component axes representing allele facial shape variation (95% CIs from 646 Fig. 1L) defined by Efnb1<sup>wt</sup> (black ellipses), Efnb1<sup> $\Delta/Y$ </sup> (cyan ellipses) and Efnb1<sup> $+/\Delta$ </sup> mutant (red ellipses). (A) 647 Ephb null series specimens are colored by total number of null alleles. A subset of these specimens that are 648 homozygous null for only one Ephb gene (B) or two Ephb genes (C) are plotted alongside EphB wt controls 649 and "all null" specimens that are triple Ephb1<sup>-/-</sup>; Ephb2<sup>-/-</sup>; Ephb3<sup>-/-</sup> homozygous mutants. In (B, C), unlisted 650 Ephb genotypes include both +/+ and +/-, but not -/-, genotypes. Comparisons of specific genotypes illustrate 651 the influence of homozygous and heterozygous genotypes across Ephb1 (D), Ephb3 (E), and Ephb1; b3 652 homozygous null specimens (F). 653

654

Figure 7. EphB2 and EphB3 receptors mediate cell segregation in secondary palatal shelves. Secondary palatal shelves of E13.5 embryos harboring compound loss of *Ephb1-3* receptors in combination with *Efnb1<sup>+/Δ</sup>* heterozygosity with specific genotype combinations shown. Immunostaining for ephrin-B1 expression (white)

658	and DAPI (blue) is highlighted with a yellow dashed line at high magnification to demarcate cell segregated
659	patches. (A-F) Compound loss of some EphB receptors does not reduce apparent ephrin-B1 driven cell
660	segregation, with a relatively small number of large patches of cells observed. (G, G') Compound loss of
661	EphB2 and EphB3 receptor resulted in smaller patches, with greater intermingling of ephrin-B1 positive and
662	negative cells. (H, H') Loss of all known ephrin-B1 receptors (EphB1, EphB2, EphB3) also resulted in loss of
663	cell segregation, but with the persistence of small patches of ephrin-B1 negative cells. Scale bars, 100 $\mu$ m.
664	

- **Figure 8. Model of cell segregation and craniofacial dysmorphology in** *Efnb1*<sup>+/-</sup> **mutant embryos**
- 667 Supplemental Figures

Figure S1. Facial Shape Effects of Genotype (E11.5). (A-F) Facial landmarks identified on representative  $Efnb1^{wt}$  (A-B),  $Efnb1^{\Delta/Y}$  (C-D), and  $Efnb1^{+/\Delta}$  (E-F) E11.5 specimen surfaces. (G-H) Common facial shape effects of  $Efnb1^{'\Delta/Y}$  (cyan) and  $Efnb1^{+/\Delta}$  (red) cyan genotypes on facial landmark position, compared to  $Efnb1^{wt}$ (black) from the anterior (G) and lateral (H) views. The lengths of these shape difference vectors are magnified three times to allow for easy comparison. Thin black lines are placed for anatomical reference.

673

Figure S2. Facial landmark definitions (E12.5-E14.5). Facial landmarks used in morphometric analysis of
 E12.5-E14.5 samples, based on definitions found in Table 9, identified on lateral (left) and anterior (right) views
 of a representative E13.5 wildtype specimen.

677

Figure S3. Craniofacial cell segregation first occurs in the post-migratory neural crest-derived mesenchyme, correlating with the onset of upregulation of ephrin-B1. (A, A') Sox10-Cre drives recombination in the NCC-derived MXP mesenchyme and (B, B') frontonasal prominence (FNP) of *Sox10-* $Cre^{Tg/0}$ ;  $ROSA26^{mTmG/+}$  embryos at E10.5. (C, C')  $Efnb1^{+XGFP/lox}$  control MXP and (D, D') FNP demonstrate a fine-grained mosaic pattern of XGFP expression at E10.5. Ephrin-B1 expression is not strong in the maxillae but has begun to be upregulated in the FNP at this stage. (E, E') Likewise, neural crest-specific  $Efnb1^{+XGFP/lox}$ ;  $Sox10-Cre^{Tg/0}$  heterozygous embryos demonstrate a fine-grained mosaic pattern of XGFP expression in the

maxillary prominences at E10.5, indicating that segregation is not carried through from migratory NCCs. (F, F') The FNP of E10.5 *Efnb1*<sup>+XGFP/lox</sup>; *Sox10-Cre<sup>Tg/0</sup>* heterozygous embryos shows a small amount of segregation, visible as patches of GFP expression and non-expression, likely because ephrin-B1 has begun to be expressed in the FNP at this stage. (G, G') The maxillae of full *Efnb1*<sup>+/Δ</sup> (recombination mediated by Actin-Cre) are also not segregated at E10.5, but segregation can be seen in the neural tissues of these embryos. (H, H') Segregation is visible in the developing LNP and in neural tissues of full ephrin-B1 heterozygotes.

691

Figure S4. Palate-specific ephrin-B1 mosaicism results in cell segregation in the anterior palate 692 mesenchyme after E11.5. (A, A') Shox2<sup>lresCre</sup> drives minimal recombination in the maxillary prominences of 693 Shox2<sup>IresCre/+</sup>; ROSA26<sup>mTmG/+</sup> embryos at E11.5. (B, B') Most membrane GFP-expressing cells also express 694 neurofilament (2H3) and are likely nerve cells of the maxillary trigeminal ganglion; only a few mesenchymal 695 cells have undergone recombination at this stage (white arrows). (C, C') By E12.5, Shox2<sup>lresCre/+</sup>: 696 ROSA26<sup>mTmG/+</sup> embryos express membrane GFP in the palatal shelf mesenchyme as well as (D, D') in the 697 nerve cells of the maxillary trigeminal ganglion. (E. E') At E11.5, the maxillae of Efnb1+XGFP/lox control and (F. 698 F') Efnb1<sup>+XGFP/lox</sup>; Shox2<sup>lresCre/+</sup> heterozygous embryos are indistinguishable; both genotypes demonstrate a 699 fine-grained mosaic pattern of XGFP expression in the maxillary prominences, indicating that no cell 700 segregation has taken place. (G, G') At E12.5, control palatal shelves show a fine-grained mosaic pattern of 701 XGFP expression. (H, H') Small patches of ephrin-B1/XGFP expressing and non-expressing cells are visible in 702 the palatal shelves of Efnb1+XGFP/lox; Shox2/resCre/+ heterozygous embryos at E12.5, demonstrating that post-703 migratory neural crest cells are also subject to segregation mediated by ephrin-B1 mosaicism. Scale bars, 200 704 705 μm.

706

**Figure S5. Ephrin-B1-mediated cell segregation in the brain does not affect development of craniofacial structures. (A, A')** Recombination of the *ROSA26* locus in *Sox1<sup>Cre/+</sup>; ROSA26<sup>mTmG/+</sup>* embryos leads to widespread membrane GFP expression throughout the brain at E13.5, but minimal membrane GFP expression in **(B, B')** anterior palatal shelves or **(C, C')** anterior frontonasal prominence (FNP). **(D, D')** Ephrin-B1 mosaicism in early neural progenitor cells mediated by Sox1<sup>Cre</sup> does not drive segregation in neural crest-

derived craniofacial structures such as the anterior palatal shelves or (E, E') FNP. Ephrin-B1 expression and
 craniofacial morphology appear normal in these embryos, indicating that neural progenitor cell segregation is
 an independent process. *Scale bars*, *200 µm*.

715

Figure S6. EphB2 and EphB3 receptors mediate cell segregation in FNP. Frontonasal processes of E13.5 716 embryos harboring compound loss of *Ephb1-3* receptor genes in combination with *Efnb1<sup>+///</sup>* heterozygosity with 717 specific genotype combinations shown. Immunostaining for ephrin-B1 expression (white) and DAPI (blue) is 718 highlighted with a vellow dashed line at high magnification to demarcate cell segregated patches. (A-F) 719 Compound loss of some EphB receptors does not reduce apparent ephrin-B1-driven cell segregation, with a 720 relatively small number of large patches of cells observed. (G, G') Compound loss of EphB2 and EphB3 721 receptor resulted in smaller patches, with greater intermingling of ephrin-B1 positive and negative cells. (H, H') 722 Loss of all known ephrin-B1 receptors (EphB1, EphB2, EphB3) also resulted in loss of cell segregation, but 723 with the persistence of small patches of ephrin-B1 negative cells. Scale bars, 100 µm. 724

725

Figure S7. EphB receptor combinations mediating cell segregation in the brain. The telencephalon 726 region of the brain of E13.5 embryos harboring compound loss of *Ephb1-3* receptor genes in combination with 727 Efnb1<sup>+//2</sup> heterozygosity with specific genotype combinations shown. Immunostaining for ephrin-B1 expression 728 729 (white) and DAPI (blue) is highlighted with a yellow dashed line at high magnification to demarcate cell segregated patches. (A-D) Cell segregation was robust, but variable in its pattern with haploinsufficiency for 730 various EphB receptors. (E, E') Compound loss of EphB1 and EphB2 consistently resulted in a dramatic 731 reduction in cell segregation, whereas (F, F') compound loss of EphB1 and EphB3 exhibited no apparent 732 reduction in cell segregation and (G, G') compound loss of EphB2 and EphB3 was intermediate. (H, H') 733 Complete loss of all three EphB receptors resulted in a dramatic reduction in cell segregation that was similar 734 to compound loss of EphB1 and EphB2. Scale bars, 100 µm. 735

736

737 Tables

# 738 Table 1. Significant influences on facial shape at E11.5 (Procrustes ANOVA)

28

	Df	SS	MS	Rsq <sup>c</sup>	F	Z	Pr(>F)
Size <sup>a</sup>	1	0.141	0.141	0.229	24.719	6.274	0.001*
<b>Genotype</b> <sup>b</sup>	2	0.069	0.034	0.111	6.005	5.970	0.001*
Residuals	71	0.406	0.006				
Total	74	0.615		-			

### 739

<sup>a</sup>Estimate of the influence of overall size (estimated as centroid size) on facial shape.

<sup>b</sup>Estimate of the influence of genotype (as a factor) on facial shape.

<sup>c</sup>Rsq provides an estimate of how much facial shape variance a given covariate explains.

\* indicates a significant effect on facial shape, as calculated using a permutation test.

744

# 745 Table 2. Significant influences on facial shape from E12.5-E14.5 (Procrustes ANOVA)

	Df	SS	MS	<b>Rsq</b> <sup>e</sup>	F	Z	Pr(>F)
Size <sup>a</sup>	1	1.706	1.706	0.772	1083.475	7.158	0.001*
<b>Genotype</b> <sup>b</sup>	2	0.145	0.072	0.066	46.005	13.728	0.001*
Age <sup>c</sup>	1	0.011	0.011	0.005	7.287	9.243	0.001*
Genotype:Age <sup>d</sup>	2	0.016	0.008	0.007	5.207	10.914	0.001*
Residuals	210	0.331	0.002				
Total	216	2.210		-			

# 746

<sup>a</sup>Estimate of the influence of overall size (estimated as centroid size) on facial shape.

<sup>b</sup>Estimate of the influence of genotype (as a factor) on facial shape.

<sup>c</sup>Estimate of the influence of age (as continuous) on facial shape across E12.5-E14.5 specimens.

<sup>d</sup>Genotype:Age is the interaction effect of genotype and age.

<sup>e</sup>Rsq provides an estimate of how much facial shape variance a given covariate explains.

\* indicates a significant effect on facial shape, as calculated using a permutation test.

753

# Table 3. Age-specific comparisons of the Procrustes distances between the mean shape of affected and control genotypes, after accounting for allometry

		Efnb1 genotype		
	wildtype (95% Cl)	<b>Δ/Y</b> <sup>a</sup>	<b>+∕∆</b> a	
E11.5^	0.07-0.18^	0.22*^	0.32*^	
E12.5	0.04-0.09	0.15*	0.23*	
E13.5	0.03-0.06	0.19*	0.28*	
E14.5	0.03-0.06	0.18*	0.29*	

<sup>756</sup> 

<sup>a</sup> Higher values represent a greater difference in facial shape, a proxy for severity of dysmorphology.

\* indicates a significantly different facial shape than control, based on the 95% control confidence intervals
 produced by bootstrapping the control sample.

<sup>760</sup> ^ indicates that E11.5 Procrustes distance values cannot be directly compared to E12.5-E14.5 values, because 761 they are based on a different landmark set and separate Procrustes superimposition. However, the pattern of 762 the ordering of Procrustes distance values within ages can be compared and show similar patterns of 763 significance.

764

# Table 4. Significant influence of facial size but not *Efnb1; Sox1-Cre* genotype on facial shape at E14.5 (Procrustes ANOVA)

	Df	SS	MS	Rsq°	F	Z	Pr(>F)
Size <sup>a</sup>	1	0.009	0.009	0.274	8.159	3.895	0.001*
<b>Genotype</b> <sup>b</sup>	1	0.001	0.001	0.021	0.617	-0.039	0.464
Residuals	21	0.023	0.001				
Total	23	0.033		_			

768

<sup>a</sup>Estimate of the influence of overall size (estimated as centroid size) on facial shape.

<sup>b</sup>Estimate of the influence of genotype (as a factor) on facial shape.

<sup>c</sup>Rsq provides an estimate of how much facial shape variance a given covariate explains.

\* indicates a significant effect on facial shape, as calculated using a permutation test.

773

# Table 5. Significant influences of facial size and *Efnb1; Sox10-Cre* genotype on facial shape at E14.5 (Procrustes ANOVA)

776

	Df	SS	MS	Rsq <sup>°</sup>	F	Z	Pr(>F)
Size <sup>a</sup>	1	0.011	0.011	0.163	12.170	4.585	0.001*
<b>Genotype</b> <sup>b</sup>	3	0.024	0.008	0.367	9.097	6.514	0.001*
Residuals	35	0.031	0.001				
Total	39	0.066					

777

<sup>a</sup>Estimate of the influence of overall size (estimated as centroid size) on facial shape.

<sup>b</sup>Estimate of the influence of genotype (as a factor) on facial shape.

780 <sup>c</sup>Rsq provides an estimate of how much facial shape variance a given covariate explains.

\* indicates a significant effect on facial shape, as calculated using a permutation test.

782 783

Table 6. Procrustes distances<sup>a</sup> of E14.5 facial shapes of *Efnb1* mutant genotypes using tissue-specific
 Cre alleles

	<b>Control Male</b>	<b>Control Female</b>	Hemizygous	Heterozygous
Actin-Cre	0.03-0.0	8 (95% CI)	0.14*	0.28*
Sox10-Cre	0.07	0.07	0.16*	0.24*
Sox1 <sup>Cre</sup>	NA	0.10*	NA	0.09*

786

<sup>a</sup> Higher values represent a greater difference in facial shape, a proxy for severity of dysmorphology.

\* indicates a significantly different facial shape than E14.5 *Enb1<sup>wt</sup>* controls used for comparison to *Efnb1<sup>+/Δ</sup>* and *Efnb1<sup>Δ/Y</sup>*; based on the 95% control confidence intervals produced by bootstrapping.

Although both Sox1<sup>Cre</sup> controls and heterozygote facial shapes are significantly different than ß-actin-cre controls, they are not significantly different from each other.

792

793 Table 7. Significant influences of facial size and *Ephb* receptor genotype on facial shape at E14.5

	Df	SS	MS	Rsq <sup>c</sup>	F	Z	Pr(>F)
Size <sup>a</sup>	1	0.049	0.049	0.247	49.583	7.546	0.001*
EphB1 <sup>⊳</sup>	1	0.002	0.002	0.011	2.247	2.881	0.005*
EphB2 <sup>⊳</sup>	1	0.012	0.012	0.060	12.078	6.915	0.001*
EphB3 <sup>⊳</sup>	1	0.019	0.019	0.098	19.589	8.411	0.001*

Residuals	117	0.114	0.001
Total	121	0.196	

<sup>a</sup>Estimate of the influence of overall size (estimated as centroid size) on facial shape.

<sup>b</sup>Estimate of the additive influence of a specific EphB genotype (as a factor) on facial shape. 

<sup>c</sup>Rsq provides an estimate of how much facial shape variance a given covariate explains. 

\*indicates a significant effect on facial shape, as calculated using a permutation test.

# 

#### Table 8. Antibody information for immunofluorescence (IF)

Primary Antibodies	Source	Catalog #	Dilution
Ephrin-B1	R&D Systems	AF473	0.2 µg/mL
EphB2	R&D Systems	AF467	1:10
EphB3	R&D Systems	AF432	1:20
GFP	Abcam	ab13970	1:500
2H3 (neurofilament)	DSHB	2H3	2 µg/mL
Secondary Antibodies	Source	Catalog #	Dilution
Donkey anti-rabbit Alexa Fluor	Jackson IR	711-165-152	1:400
488			
Donkey anti-mouse Cy2	Jackson IR	715-225-150	1:400
Donkey anti-chicken Cy2	Jackson IR	703-225-155	1:350
Donkey anti-goat Cy3	Jackson IR	705-165-003	1:300

#### Table 9. Landmarks for E12.5-E14.5 morphometrics analysis

Landmark Number	Landmark Definition
1	Most rostral midline point on the developing rostrum
2	The ventral most midline point along the developing lip
3 (15)	Dorso-caudal corner of the whisker field, taken on the skin right next to the plateau of the whisker field, rather than on the field itself
4 (16)	Ventro-rostral tip of the plateau on the ventro-rostral member of the supra-orbital vibrissae pair that is found dorsal to the eye
5 (17)	Rostral apex of the forming Medial Canthus of the eye
6 (18)	Caudal apex of the forming Lateral Canthus of the eye
7 (19)	Center of the infraorbital vibrissa found ventral to the eye
8 (20)	Point at the rostral base of the dorso-caudal portion of the developing pina of the ear
9 (21)	Point at the rostral base of the ventro-rostral portion of the developing pina of the ear
10 (22)	Point at the edge of the whisker margin between the second and third whisker rows, counting from the top. This point is frequently next to the second large mystacial vibrissa.
11 (23)	Ventro-caudal corner of the whisker field, taken on the skin right next to the plateau of the whisker field, rather than on the field itself
12 (24)	Medial point on edge of nasal aperture at the point of inflection between the lower vertical portion and the upper diagonal portion of the nasal aperture
13 (25)	Point at dorso-lateral most extent of nasal aperture
14 (26)	Caudo-lateral most point on the upper lip, where it meets the lower lip

## 809 **References**

- Shaw W. Global strategies to reduce the health care burden of craniofacial anomalies: report of WHO
   meetings on international collaborative research on craniofacial anomalies. Cleft Palate-Craniofacial J Off
   Publ Am Cleft Palate-Craniofacial Assoc. 2004;41: 238–243. doi:10.1597/03-214.1
- Twigg SRF, Wilkie AOM. New insights into craniofacial malformations. Hum Mol Genet. 2015;24: R50-59.
   doi:10.1093/hmg/ddv228
- 815 3. Cohen MM Jr. Craniofrontonasal dysplasia. Birth Defects Orig Artic Ser. 1979;15: 85–9.
- Twigg SRF, Kan R, Babbs C, Bochukova EG, Robertson SP, Wall SA, et al. Mutations of ephrin-B1
   (EFNB1), a marker of tissue boundary formation, cause craniofrontonasal syndrome. Proc Natl Acad Sci
   U S A. 2004;101: 8652–8657. doi:10.1073/pnas.0402819101
- 5. Wieland I, Jakubiczka S, Muschke P, Cohen M, Thiele H, Gerlach KL, et al. Mutations of the ephrin-B1 gene cause craniofrontonasal syndrome. Am J Hum Genet. 2004;74: 1209–1215. doi:10.1086/421532
- 6. Wieacker P, Wieland I. Clinical and genetic aspects of craniofrontonasal syndrome: towards resolving a genetic paradox. Mol Genet Metab. 2005;86: 110–116. doi:10.1016/j.ymgme.2005.07.017
- van den Elzen MEP, Twigg SRF, Goos J a. C, Hoogeboom AJM, van den Ouweland AMW, Wilkie AOM,
   et al. Phenotypes of craniofrontonasal syndrome in patients with a pathogenic mutation in EFNB1. Eur J
   Hum Genet EJHG. 2014;22: 995–1001. doi:10.1038/ejhg.2013.273
- 826 8. Davy A, Aubin J, Soriano P. Ephrin-B1 forward and reverse signaling are required during mouse 827 development. Genes Dev. 2004;18: 572–83. doi:10.1101/gad.1171704
- Davy A, Bush JO, Soriano P. Inhibition of gap junction communication at ectopic Eph/ephrin boundaries underlies craniofrontonasal syndrome. PLoS Biol. 2006;4: e315. doi:10.1371/journal.pbio.0040315
- Nguyen TM, Arthur A, Paton S, Hemming S, Panagopoulos R, Codrington J, et al. Loss of ephrinB1 in
   osteogenic progenitor cells impedes endochondral ossification and compromises bone strength integrity
   during skeletal development. Bone. 2016;93: 12–21. doi:10.1016/j.bone.2016.09.009
- Marcucio RS, Young NM, Hu D, Hallgrimsson B. Mechanisms that underlie co-variation of the brain and
   face. Genes N Y N 2000. 2011;49: 177–189. doi:10.1002/dvg.20710
- Marcucio R, Hallgrimsson B, Young NM. Facial Morphogenesis: Physical and Molecular Interactions
  Between the Brain and the Face. Curr Top Dev Biol. 2015;115: 299–320.
  doi:10.1016/bs.ctdb.2015.09.001
- Boughner JC, Wat S, Diewert VM, Young NM, Browder LW, Hallgrimsson B. Short-faced mice and developmental interactions between the brain and the face. J Anat. 2008;213: 646–62.
  doi:10.1111/j.1469-7580.2008.00999.x
- Weinberg SM, Andreasen NC, Nopoulos P. Three-dimensional morphometric analysis of brain shape in nonsyndromic orofacial clefting. J Anat. 2009;214: 926–936. doi:10.1111/j.1469-7580.2009.01084.x
- Parsons TE, Schmidt EJ, Boughner JC, Jamniczky HA, Marcucio RS, Hallgrímsson B. Epigenetic
   integration of the developing brain and face. Dev Dyn Off Publ Am Assoc Anat. 2011;240: 2233–2244.
   doi:10.1002/dvdy.22729

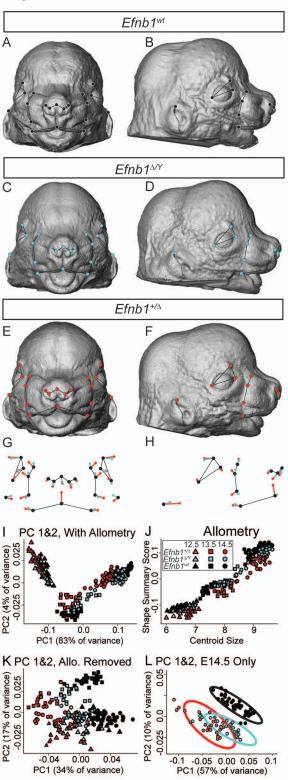
- Young NM, Wat S, Diewert VM, Browder LW, Hallgrímsson B. Comparative morphometrics of embryonic
  facial morphogenesis: implications for cleft-lip etiology. Anat Rec Hoboken NJ 2007. 2007;290: 123–139.
  doi:10.1002/ar.20415
- 17. Hu D, Young NM, Xu Q, Jamniczky H, Green RM, Mio W, et al. Signals from the brain induce variation in avian facial shape. Dev Dyn. 2015;244: 1133–1143. doi:10.1002/dvdy.24284
- 18. Marcucio RS, Cordero DR, Hu D, Helms JA. Molecular interactions coordinating the development of the forebrain and face. Dev Biol. 2005;284: 48–61. doi:10.1016/j.ydbio.2005.04.030
- 19. Schneider RA, Hu D, Rubenstein JLR, Maden M, Helms JA. Local retinoid signaling coordinates forebrain and facial morphogenesis by maintaining FGF8 and SHH. Development. 2001;128: 2755–2767.
- Young NM, Chong HJ, Hu D, Hallgrímsson B, Marcucio RS. Quantitative analyses link modulation of
  sonic hedgehog signaling to continuous variation in facial growth and shape. Dev Camb Engl. 2010;137:
  3405–3409. doi:10.1242/dev.052340
- Hukki J, Saarinen P, Kangasniemi M. Single suture craniosynostosis: diagnosis and imaging. Craniofacial
   Sutures. Karger Publishers; 2008. pp. 79–90.
- Heuzé Y, Martínez-Abadías N, Stella JM, Senders CW, Boyadjiev SA, Lo L-J, et al. Unilateral and
   bilateral expression of a quantitative trait: asymmetry and symmetry in coronal craniosynostosis. J Exp
   Zoolog B Mol Dev Evol. 2012;318: 109–122.
- Bastir M, Rosas A. Correlated variation between the lateral basicranium and the face: a geometric
   morphometric study in different human groups. Arch Oral Biol. 2006;51: 814–824.
- Parsons TE, Downey CM, Jirik FR, Hallgrimsson B, Jamniczky HA. Mind the Gap: Genetic Manipulation
   of Basicranial Growth within Synchondroses Modulates Calvarial and Facial Shape in Mice through
   Epigenetic Interactions. PLoS ONE. 2015;10: 1–22. doi:10.1371/journal. pone.0118355
- Martínez-Abadías N, Percival C, Aldridge K, Hill C, Ryan T, Sirivunnabood S, et al. Beyond the closed
   suture in Apert mouse models: evidence of primary effects of FGFR2 signaling on facial shape at P0. Dev
   Dyn. 2010;239: 3058–3071.
- Hill CA, Martínez-Abadías N, Motch SM, Austin JR, Wang Y, Jabs EW, et al. Postnatal brain and skull
   growth in an Apert syndrome mouse model. Am J Med Genet A. 2013;161: 745–757.
- Li X, Young NM, Tropp S, Hu D, Xu Y, Hallgrímsson B, et al. Quantification of shape and cell polarity
   reveals a novel mechanism underlying malformations resulting from related FGF mutations during facial
   morphogenesis. Hum Mol Genet. 2013;22: 5160–5172. doi:10.1093/hmg/ddt369
- Batlle E, Wilkinson DG. Molecular Mechanisms of Cell Segregation and Boundary Formation in
  Development and Tumorigenesis. Cold Spring Harb Perspect Biol. 2012;4: a008227–a008227.
  doi:10.1101/cshperspect.a008227
- Fagotto F, Winklbauer R, Rohani N. Ephrin-Eph signaling in embryonic tissue separation. Cell Adhes
   Migr. 2014;8: 308–326. doi:10.4161/19336918.2014.970028
- Kania A, Klein R. Mechanisms of ephrin-Eph signalling in development, physiology and disease. Nat Rev
   Mol Cell Biol. 2016;advance online publication. doi:10.1038/nrm.2015.16
- Klein R, Kania A. Ephrin signalling in the developing nervous system. Curr Opin Neurobiol. 2014;27: 16–
  doi:10.1016/j.conb.2014.02.006

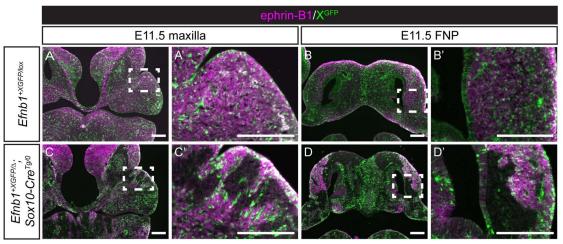
- Kullander K, Klein R. Mechanisms and functions of Eph and ephrin signalling. Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol.
   2002;3: 475–486. doi:10.1038/nrm856
- Niethamer TK, Bush JO. Getting direction(s): The Eph/ephrin signaling system in cell positioning. Dev
   Biol. 2019;447: 42–57. doi:10.1016/j.ydbio.2018.01.012
- Pasquale EB. Eph receptor signalling casts a wide net on cell behaviour. Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol. 2005;6:
   462–475. doi:10.1038/nrm1662
- 891 35. Pasquale EB. Eph-ephrin bidirectional signaling in physiology and disease. Cell. 2008;133: 38–52.
   892 doi:10.1016/j.cell.2008.03.011
- Wilkinson DG. Multiple roles of EPH receptors and ephrins in neural development. Nat Rev Neurosci.
   2001;2: 155–164. doi:10.1038/35058515
- Wieland I, Makarov R, Reardon W, Tinschert S, Goldenberg A, Thierry P, et al. Dissecting the molecular
   mechanisms in craniofrontonasal syndrome: differential mRNA expression of mutant EFNB1 and the
   cellular mosaic. Eur J Hum Genet EJHG. 2008;16: 184–191. doi:10.1038/sj.ejhg.5201968
- Twigg SRF, Matsumoto K, Kidd AMJ, Goriely A, Taylor IB, Fisher RB, et al. The origin of EFNB1
   mutations in craniofrontonasal syndrome: frequent somatic mosaicism and explanation of the paucity of
   carrier males. Am J Hum Genet. 2006;78: 999–1010. doi:10.1086/504440
- 39. Twigg SRF, Babbs C, van den Elzen MEP, Goriely A, Taylor S, McGowan SJ, et al. Cellular interference
   in craniofrontonasal syndrome: males mosaic for mutations in the X-linked EFNB1 gene are more
   severely affected than true hemizygotes. Hum Mol Genet. 2013;22: 1654–1662. doi:10.1093/hmg/ddt015
- Babbs C, Stewart HS, Williams LJ, Connell L, Goriely A, Twigg SRF, et al. Duplication of the EFNB1 gene
   in familial hypertelorism: imbalance in ephrin-B1 expression and abnormal phenotypes in humans and
   mice. Hum Mutat. 2011;32: 930–938. doi:10.1002/humu.21521
- 41. Bush JO, Soriano P. Ephrin-B1 forward signaling regulates craniofacial morphogenesis by controlling cell proliferation across Eph-ephrin boundaries. Genes Dev. 2010;24: 2068–2080. doi:10.1101/gad.1963210
- 42. Compagni A, Logan M, Klein R, Adams RH. Control of skeletal patterning by ephrinB1-EphB interactions.
   Dev Cell. 2003;5: 217–30.
- 43. Niethamer TK, Larson AR, O'Neill AK, Bershteyn M, Hsiao EC, Klein OD, et al. EPHRIN-B1 Mosaicism
  Drives Cell Segregation in Craniofrontonasal Syndrome hiPSC-Derived Neuroepithelial Cells. Stem Cell
  813 Rep. 2017;8: 529–537. doi:10.1016/j.stemcr.2017.01.017
- 914 44. O'Neill AK, Kindberg AA, Niethamer TK, Larson AR, Ho H-YH, Greenberg ME, et al. Unidirectional
  915 Eph/ephrin signaling creates a cortical actomyosin differential to drive cell segregation. J Cell Biol.
  916 2016;215: 217–229. doi:10.1083/jcb.201604097
- 45. Percival CJ, Green R, Marcucio R, Hallgrímsson B. Surface landmark quantification of embryonic mouse craniofacial morphogenesis. BMC Dev Biol. 2014;14: 31. doi:10.1186/1471-213X-14-31
- 46. Hadjantonakis AK, Gertsenstein M, Ikawa M, Okabe M, Nagy A. Non-invasive sexing of preimplantation
  stage mammalian embryos. Nat Genet. 1998;19: 220–2. doi:10.1038/893
- 47. Hadjantonakis AK, Cox LL, Tam PP, Nagy A. An X-linked GFP transgene reveals unexpected paternal X chromosome activity in trophoblastic giant cells of the mouse placenta. Genesis. 2001;29: 133–40.

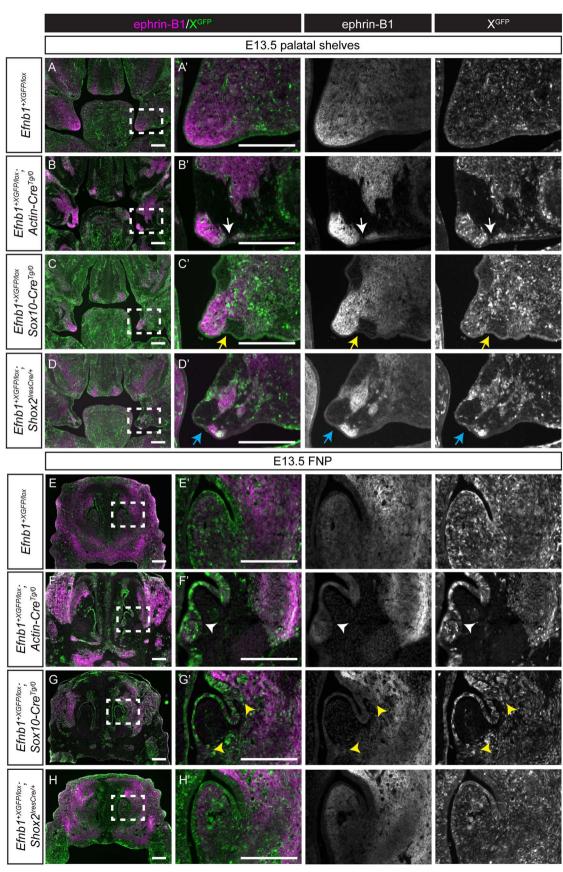
- 48. Inoue Y, Sakamoto Y, Sugimoto M, Inagaki H, Boda H, Miyata M, et al. A Family with Craniofrontonasal
  Syndrome: The First Report of Familial Cases of Craniofrontonasal Syndrome with Bilateral Cleft Lip and
  Palate. Cleft Palate-Craniofacial J Off Publ Am Cleft Palate-Craniofacial Assoc. 2018;55: 1026–1029.
  doi:10.1597/15-347
- 49. Shotelersuk V, Siriwan P, Ausavarat S. A novel mutation in EFNB1, probably with a dominant negative
   effect, underlying craniofrontonasal syndrome. Cleft Palate-Craniofacial J Off Publ Am Cleft Palate Craniofacial Assoc. 2006;43: 152–154. doi:10.1597/05-014.1
- 50. Dougherty KJ, Zagoraiou L, Satoh D, Rozani I, Doobar S, Arber S, et al. Locomotor Rhythm Generation
  Linked to the Output of Spinal Shox2 Excitatory Interneurons. Neuron. 2013;80: 920–933.
  doi:10.1016/j.neuron.2013.08.015
- 51. Yu L, Gu S, Alappat S, Song Y, Yan M, Zhang X, et al. Shox2-deficient mice exhibit a rare type of
  incomplete clefting of the secondary palate. Dev Camb Engl. 2005;132: 4397–4406.
  doi:10.1242/dev.02013
- 52. Arvanitis DN, Béhar A, Tryoen-Tóth P, Bush JO, Jungas T, Vitale N, et al. Ephrin B1 maintains apical adhesion of neural progenitors. Development. 2013;140: 2082–2092. doi:10.1242/dev.088203
- 53. Jones NC, Lynn ML, Gaudenz K, Sakai D, Aoto K, Rey JP, et al. Prevention of the neurocristopathy
  Treacher Collins syndrome through inhibition of p53 function. Nat Med. 2008;14: 125–33.
  doi:10.1038/nm1725
- 54. Sakai D, Dixon J, Achilleos A, Dixon M, Trainor PA. Prevention of Treacher Collins syndrome craniofacial anomalies in mouse models via maternal antioxidant supplementation. Nat Commun. 2016;7: 10328.
  943 doi:10.1038/ncomms10328
- 55. Takashima Y, Era T, Nakao K, Kondo S, Kasuga M, Smith AG, et al. Neuroepithelial cells supply an initial transient wave of MSC differentiation. Cell. 2007;129: 1377–1388. doi:10.1016/j.cell.2007.04.028
- 56. Blits-Huizinga CT, Nelersa CM, Malhotra A, Liebl DJ. Ephrins and their receptors: binding versus biology. IUBMB Life. 2004;56: 257–265. doi:10.1080/15216540412331270076
- 57. Dravis C, Henkemeyer M. Ephrin-B reverse signaling controls septation events at the embryonic midline
  through separate tyrosine phosphorylation-independent signaling avenues. Dev Biol. 2011;355: 138–151.
  doi:10.1016/j.ydbio.2011.04.020
- 58. Orioli D, Henkemeyer M, Lemke G, Klein R, Pawson T. Sek4 and Nuk receptors cooperate in guidance of commissural axons and in palate formation. EMBO J. 1996;15: 6035–6049.
- 53. Risley M, Garrod D, Henkemeyer M, McLean W. EphB2 and EphB3 forward signalling are required for palate development. Mech Dev. 2009;126: 230–239. doi:10.1016/j.mod.2008.10.009
- 60. Henkemeyer M, Orioli D, Henderson JT, Saxton TM, Roder J, Pawson T, et al. Nuk controls pathfinding of commissural axons in the mammalian central nervous system. Cell. 1996;86: 35–46.
- 61. Williams SE, Mann F, Erskine L, Sakurai T, Wei S, Rossi DJ, et al. Ephrin-B2 and EphB1 mediate retinal axon divergence at the optic chiasm. Neuron. 2003;39: 919–935.
- Rollnick B, Day D, Tissot R, Kaye C. A pedigree possible evidence for the metabolic interference
   hypothesis. Am J Hum Genet. 1981;33: 823–826.
- 63. Bush JO, Soriano P. Eph/ephrin signaling: genetic, phosphoproteomic, and transcriptomic approaches.
   Semin Cell Dev Biol. 2012;23: 26–34. doi:10.1016/j.semcdb.2011.10.018

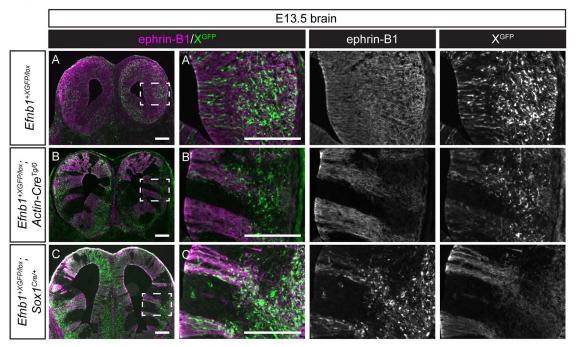
bioRxiv preprint doi: https://doi.org/10.1101/704619; this version posted July 16, 2019. The copyright holder for this preprint (which was not certified by peer review) is the author/funder, who has granted bioRxiv a license to display the preprint in perpetuity. It is made available under a CC-BY 4.0 International license.

- 64. Davy A, Soriano P. Ephrin signaling in vivo: look both ways. Dev Dyn Off Publ Am Assoc Anat. 2005;232:
   1–10. doi:10.1002/dvdy.20200
- Agrawal P, Wang M, Kim S, Lewis AE, Bush JO. Embryonic expression of EphA receptor genes in mice
   supports their candidacy for involvement in cleft lip and palate. Dev Dyn Off Publ Am Assoc Anat. 2014;
   doi:10.1002/dvdy.24170
- 66. North HA, Zhao X, Kolk SM, Clifford MA, Ziskind DM, Donoghue MJ. Promotion of proliferation in the developing cerebral cortex by EphA4 forward signaling. Dev Camb Engl. 2009;136: 2467–2476.
  970 doi:10.1242/dev.034405
- 67. Skare Ø, Gjessing HK, Gjerdevik M, Haaland ØA, Romanowska J, Lie RT, et al. A new approach to
  67. Skare Ø, Gjessing HK, Gjerdevik M, Haaland ØA, Romanowska J, Lie RT, et al. A new approach to
  67. chromosome-wide analysis of X-linked markers identifies new associations in Asian and European case67. parent triads of orofacial clefts. PLOS ONE. 2017;12: e0183772. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0183772
- 68. Lewandoski M, Meyers EN, Martin GR. Analysis of Fgf8 gene function in vertebrate development. Cold Spring Harb Symp Quant Biol. 1997;62: 159–168.
- 69. Matsuoka T, Ahlberg PE, Kessaris N, Iannarelli P, Dennehy U, Richardson WD, et al. Neural crest origins of the neck and shoulder. Nature. 2005;436: 347–355. doi:10.1038/nature03837
- Muzumdar MD, Tasic B, Miyamichi K, Li L, Luo L. A global double-fluorescent Cre reporter mouse. Genes
   N Y N 2000. 2007;45: 593–605. doi:10.1002/dvg.20335
- 71. Adams DC, Otárola-Castillo E. geomorph: an r package for the collection and analysis of geometric morphometric shape data. Methods Ecol Evol. 2013;4: 393–399. doi:10.1111/2041-210X.12035
- 982









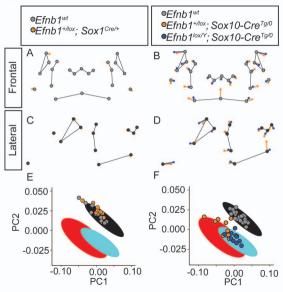
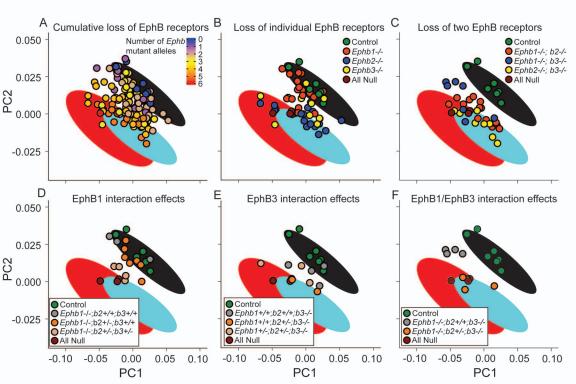
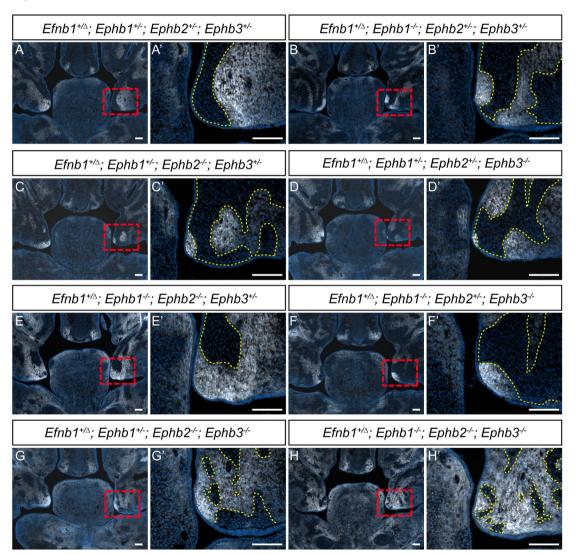
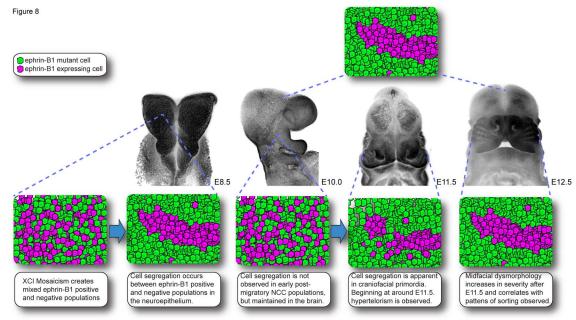
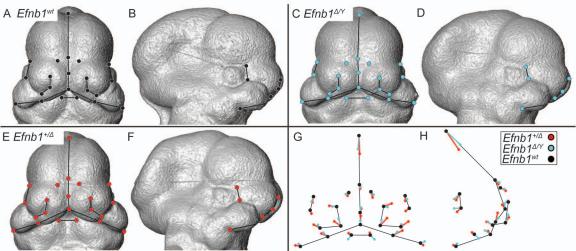


Figure 6









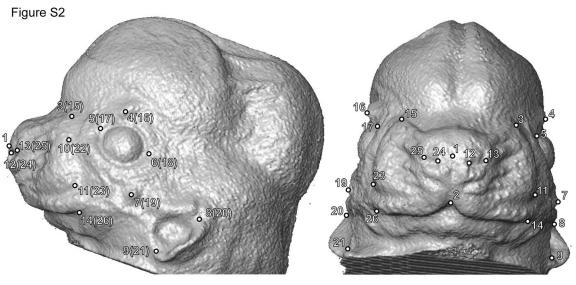


Figure S3

