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Global genetic analysis in mice unveils central role for cilia in congenital heart disease

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¹Author Information: All mutant mouse lines recovered in this mouse mutagenesis screen and theirphenotype description and causative mutations are curated in the Mouse GenomeInformatics (MGI) database [\(www.informatix.jax.org](http://www.informatix.jax.org)) and can be retrieved from MGI byentering "b2b" in the search box.

 2 All mutant mouse lines curated in MGI can be reanimated from sperm cryopreserved in the Jackson Laboratory (JAX[®]Mice) Repository.

³All mutations recovered by mouse exome sequencing analysis are searchable together with phenotype information via the public Bench to Bassinet Congenital Heart Disease Mouse Mutation Database ([http://benchtobassinet.com/ForResearchers/](http://benchtobassinet.com/ForResearchers/BasicScienceDataResourceSharing/GeneDiscoveryinMouseModels.aspx) [BasicScienceDataResourceSharing/GeneDiscoveryinMouseModels.aspx](http://benchtobassinet.com/ForResearchers/BasicScienceDataResourceSharing/GeneDiscoveryinMouseModels.aspx))

⁴The mouse exome datasets are available from the GNomEx CardiovascularDevelopment Consortium (CvDC) Datahub [\(https://](http://https://b2b.hci.utah.edu/gnomex/gnomexGuestFlex.jsp?topicNumber=67) [b2b.hci.utah.edu/gnomex/gnomexGuestFlex.jsp?topicNumber=67\)](http://https://b2b.hci.utah.edu/gnomex/gnomexGuestFlex.jsp?topicNumber=67)

Supplemental Information: A. Extended data figure legends

B. Supplemental spreadsheets

C. Supplemental movie legends.

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Abstract

Congenital heart disease (CHD) is the most prevalent birth defect, affecting nearly 1% of live births¹, but the incidence of CHD is up to ten fold higher in human fetuses^{2,3}. A genetic contribution is strongly suggested by the association of CHD with chromosome abnormalities and high recurrence risk⁴. Here we report findings from a recessive forward genetic screen in fetal mice, showing the cilium and cilia transduced cell signaling play important roles in the pathogenesis of CHD. The cilium is an evolutionarily conserved organelle projecting from the cell surface with essential roles in diverse cellular processes. Using echocardiography, we ultrasound scanned 87,355 chemically mutagenized C57BL/6J fetal mice and recovered 218 CHD mouse models. Whole exome sequencing identified 91 recessive CHD mutations in 61 genes. This included 34 cilia-related genes, 16 genes involved in cilia transduced cell signaling, and 10 genes regulating vesicular trafficking, a pathway important for ciliogenesis and cell signaling. Surprisingly, many CHD genes encoded interacting proteins, suggesting an interactome protein network may provide a larger genomic context for CHD pathogenesis. These findings provide novel insights into the potential Mendelian genetic contribution to CHD in the fetal population, a segment of the human population not well studied. We note pathways identified show overlap with CHD candidate genes recovered in CHD patients⁵, suggesting they may have relevance to the more complex genetics of CHD overall. These CHD mouse models and >8,000 incidental mutations are sperm archived, creating a rich public resource for human disease modeling.

> Inbred C57BL/6J mice mutagenized with ethylnitrosourea (ENU) were bred to recover recessive coding mutations (Extended Data Fig. 1). Phenotyping was conducted using noninvasive fetal echocardiography, an ultrasound imaging modality also employed clinically for CHD diagnosis. This unbiased study design allows detection of even those CHD mutants inviable to term⁶, a segment of CHD cases that would be largely clinically inaccessible for genetic analysis. Using combination of color flow, 2D, spectral Doppler and M-mode imaging, a wide spectrum of CHD phenotypes were recovered, including cardiac looping defects, OFT malalignment/septation defects, ventricular/atrioventricular septal defects, and various right/left heart obstructive lesions⁶ (Figure 1; Supplemental Movies S1-S3). The CHD diagnoses were confirmed with microCT/microMRI, necropsy, and histopathology (Extended Data Fig. 1). Heritability was ascertained with recovery of two or more G3 fetuses with the same CHD phenotype $(n=4.6\pm 2.6)$. Ultrasound scanning of 87,355 G3 fetuses from 2,651 mutant lines (defined by the G1 sire) recovered 218 CHD mutant lines. These were curated in the Mouse Genome Informatics Database [\(http://](http://www.informatics.jax.org/searchtool/Search.do?query=b2b&submit=Quick%0D%0ASearch) [www.informatics.jax.org/searchtool/Search.do?query=b2b&submit=Quick%0D](http://www.informatics.jax.org/searchtool/Search.do?query=b2b&submit=Quick%0D%0ASearch) [%0ASearch\)](http://www.informatics.jax.org/searchtool/Search.do?query=b2b&submit=Quick%0D%0ASearch), with G1 sperm cryopreserved in the Jackson Laboratory (JAX®Mice).

> Many mutant lines (30%) exhibited complex CHD associated with heterotaxy, the randomization of left-right patterning. These heterotaxy mutants often died prenatally. We note clinical studies show 16% of human fetuses with complex CHD have heterotaxy⁷, and

these also exhibit high prenatal/intrauterine death $(30\n-60\%)^{8,9}$. Also commonly observed in mutant lines with or without laterality defects are double outlet right ventricle (DORV) and atrioventricular septal defects (AVSD), phenotypes that usually resulted in prenatal lethality. We note DORV and AVSD are also observed with high prevalence in aborted/stillborn human fetuses³. Most heterotaxy mutant lines exhibited three distinct visceral organ situs phenotypes: normal situs solitus, mirror symmetric situs inversus, or randomization with heterotaxy, with complex CHD observed only with heterotaxy (Extended Data Fig. 2). These three phenotypes are found in patients and mice with mutations causing primary ciliary dyskinesia (PCD)^{10,11}, a sinopulmonary disease arising from immotile/dyskinetic respiratory cilia. This reflects the common requirement for motile cilia in airway clearance and left-right patterning^{11,12}. Hence, we conducted videomicroscopy of the tracheal epithelia to assess cilia motility as a proxy for the node.

Mutation recovery was conducted with whole exome sequencing analysis of a single mutant from each of 113 mutant lines. Cumulatively this yielded 7,996 coding mutations in 4,809 genes (Extended Data Fig. 3a). Genotyping analysis identified the pathogenic mutation as one consistently homozygous across all G3 mutants bearing the same phenotype. In mutant lines with multiple homozygous mutations on the same chromosome linked to the CHD phenotype, the pathogenic mutation was identified with segregation analysis of additional mutants, and/or based on phenotype comparison to existing knockout/mutant alleles. For five lines $(b2b002/b2b012/b2b284/b2b1519/b2b1146)$, the mutation was confirmed with mapping analyses¹³.

In this manner, 91 pathogenic mutations were recovered in 61 genes (Supplemental Spreadsheet 1). The distribution of missense/splicing/nonsense mutations were similar to other ENU mutagenesis studies¹⁴ (Extended Data Fig. 3a). All mutations except one were in highly conserved amino acids (Supplemental Spreadsheet 2). Five of the 19 splicing mutations are >2-bases from the canonical splice donor-acceptor sites, the farthest being 10 bases apart (*Dnah5c.*13329-10T>A;b2b1537; validated by cDNA sequencing, Extended Data Fig. 4). Multiple alleles were recovered in 15 genes (Extended Data Table 1). Of 61 CHD genes recovered, 27 were not previously annotated to cause CHD (Extended Data Fig. 3b), either because no mutant/knockout mice were available, or the CHD phenotype was not investigated (Supplemental Spreadsheet 1). In some instances, the existing mutants died early, precluding CHD analysis, such as the *Smarca4* knockout mouse with periimplantation lethality15. A *Hectd1* mutant was previously described only with neural tube defects16 versus our *Hectd1b2b327* mutant shown to have aortic atresia (Figure 1c,d). The identical *Adamts6* mutation was found in 3 lines, shown to be a spontaneous mutation in the C57BL6/J support colony (Supplemental Spreadsheet 1).

Thirty-four of the 61 CHD genes are cilia-related (Figure 2), 23 in laterality mutant lines (Extended Data Table 2, Fig.3a,5). Twelve are required for motile cilia function, with 8 clinically known to cause PCD and 3 likely novel PCD genes *(Ccdc151,Daw,Pkd1l1)* (Extended Data Tables 2,3; Supplemental Spread Sheet 1). A mutation was recovered in *Foxj1*, a transcription factor known to regulate ciliogenesis. While *Foxj1* knockout mice have no cilia in the airway17, our *Foxj1b2b774* mutant harboring a missense mutation in the

DNA binding domain has ciliated trachea with robust ciliary motion (Supplemental Movie S4), but with no nodal flow (Supplemental Movie S5).

Mutations in 22 ciliome genes affect primary cilia - 11 in laterality and 11 in nonlaterality mutant lines (Extended Data Table 2, Fig. 3a,5). Among nonlaterality mutants are *Cep110* centrosome component, *Jbts17* - cilia transition zone protein, and four other genes (*Fuz,Myh10,Dctn5,Lrp2)* that also play important roles in vesicular/endocytic trafficking, a biological process essential for ciliogenesis^{18,19} (Figure 2). Many genes affecting laterality are associated with non-PCD ciliopathies *(Anks6,Bicc1,Tbc1d32,*

Cep290,Dync2h1,Ift74,Ift140,Nek8,Pcsk5,Pskh1,Cc2d2a,Tmem67; Extended Data Table 3)20,21. Analysis of *Cc2d2a* mutant embryo by confocal imaging showed shorter and fewer cilia throughout the embryo (Figure 1s-x). In *Cc2d2a* mutant embryo, while cilia were abundant in outflow cushions, they were absent in AV cushions (Figure 1p,r). Consistent with this, *Cc2d2a* mutant embryos die prenatally with AVSD (Figure 1l,n), but with normal semilunar valves (Figure 1m,n).

Of the 26 non-ciliome CHD genes, 15 are known to mediate cell signaling, including SHH (*Fuz,Kif7,Lrp2,Sufu,Tbc1d32*), WNT/planar cell polarity (*Ptk7,Prickle 1,Fuz*), TGF-p/BMP (*Cfc1,Ltbp1,Megf8, Pcsk5,Smad6,Tab1*), and calcium signaling (*Pkd1l1,Pkd1*) (Figure 2). Five of these were recovered in the laterality mutant lines

(*Tbc1d32,Cfc1,Megf8,Pcsk5,Pkd1l1*). These pathways are all transduced or modulated by the cilium, and play significant roles in cardiovascular development and/or left-right patterning.

We also recovered 10 CHD genes mediating vesicular/endocytic trafficking, including four (*Lrp2,Myh10,Dctn5*m*Fuz*) that are ciliome related (Figure 2). The enrichment for endocytic genes may be mechanistically linked to cilia, as vesicular trafficking at the cilia base has important roles in both ciliogenesis and cilia transduced cell signaling^{18,19,22}. These endocytic genes caused a similar spectrum of OF malalignment and septation defects (Extended Data Fig. 6). Only *Ap1b1*, an adaptin subunit mediating endocytic protein sorting in the Golgi was observed to cause laterality defects (b2b1660; Extended Data Fig. 2). While *Ap1b1* mutants showed normal airway and embryonic node cilia motility (Supplemental Movie S6,S7), *Ap1b1* mutant embryonic fibroblasts exhibited ciliogenesis defect (65% vs. 85% ciliation in *Ap1b1* mutant versus wildtype fibroblasts; $p=5.90\times10^{-6}$). *Ap2b1*, an adaptin protein complex 2 subunit homologous to *Ap1b1*, functions in clathrin mediated endocytosis. *Snx17*, known to regulate endocytic receptor recycling, has a mutation in the cargo binding FERM domain, region known to interact with the NPXY motif of endocytic protein LRP1, which was also recovered in our screen (Extended Data Fig.3b).

Other CHD genes recovered included a novel zinc finger protein *Zbtb14*, and two genes modulating chromatin, *Smarca4* and *Prdm1*. Also recovered were six extracellular matrix related genes (*Acan,Adamts6, Frem2,Lox,Mmp21,Ndst1*), one (*Lox*) identified as ciliarelated, three novel genes (*Cml5,Gm572,Mmp21*) causing *CHD* with laterality defects, and two genes (*Acan, Pkd1*) causing biventricular hypertrophy without other structural heart defects.

Many of the CHD genes encode proteins known to physically interact or are in the same multiprotein complexes. For example, ANKS6 can bind BICC1 and also NEK8, with NEK8/ ANKS6 colocalizing in the cilia inversin compartment 24,25 . TMEM67, CEP290, JBTS17, and CC2D2A are colocalized in the NPHP1-4-8 multiprotein complex in the cilia transition zone²³ . *DNAH5, DNAH11, DNAI1* and *DAW1* are associated with the outer dynein arm complex of motile cilia, while IFT140 and IFT74 are intraflagellar transport protein components that together with DYNC2H1 mediate protein transport in the cilium (Figure $2)^{18,20}$. SNX17 can directly bind LRP1 to promote LRP1 cell surface recycling²⁶. These findings prompted an examination of the 113 exomes for the prevalence of additional mutations in the 61 CHD genes. This showed 58 additional incidental mutations in 32 of the CHD genes, a significant enrichment compared to random simulations $(P=0.00114)$; Online Methods), suggesting possible modifier effects.

To further assess for potential protein-protein interactions (PPI), we constructed an interactome of CHD genes using known PPIs in the public databases and our own computationally predicted PPIs (Online Methods). This yielded an interactome of 778 genes, 292 are predicted PPIs (Supplemental Spreadsheet 3;Figure 3a). The average shortest distance between CHD genes is 4.3 ± 2.5 edges, whereas random genes of matched degree distribution had a larger distance of 5.7 ± 4.4 edges (P=0.01). Statistical analysis of the interactome revealed significant Go Ontology term enrichment related to development, including heart development terms (Supplemental Spreadsheet 3;Figure 3b). Pathways identified included "clathrin-mediated endocytosis signaling", "TGFβ signaling", "BMP signaling" and "axon pathfinding" (Supplemental Spreadsheet 3). Several CHD genes recovered are known to regulate axon guidance and neurogenesis, including *Plxnd1*, *Robo1*, and *Cxcr4*, while *Pde2a* regulates synaptic plasticity and long term potentiation, and *Myh10* is required for synaptic membrane recycling (Extended Data Fig.7).

Overall, our study provides compelling evidence that the cilium plays a critical role in CHD pathogenesis. The observed enrichment for cilia and cilia-related genes emerged from a phenotype driven forward genetic screen agnostic to the specific genes that may be recovered. The finding of ciliome mutations in CHD mutant lines with and without laterality defects would suggest a broad role for cilia in CHD pathogenesis. While our study is focused on monogenic recessive coding mutations, we noted striking overlap of genes recovered in the mouse screen versus heterozygous de novo coding mutations in CHD candidate genes identified in CHD patients⁵. Of 28 CHD genes identified in the human study - 11 are cilia-related, 7 are in TGFb/SHH/WNT signaling, and 2 in vesicular/endocytic trafficking (Supplemental Spread Sheet 4). Heterozygous mutation in *PITX2*, a gene essential for left/right patterning¹², was recovered in a non-heterotaxy CHD patient, suggesting a broader role for left-right patterning in CHD pathogenesis. The human study identified an important role for genes regulating chromatin. Consistent with this, our screen recovered two mouse CHD genes modulating chromatin, *Smarca4* and *Prdm1*⁵ . Hence, findings from our fetal mouse screen may provide insights not only on Mendelian recessive genetic contribution to CHD in the unborn, a segment of the CHD population not well studied, but these findings also may have relevance to the complex genetics of CHD overall. The CHD mouse models generated in this study are invaluable resources for interrogating

CHD pathogenesis, with the cryopreserved mutant lines providing access to a large library of mutations, including null mutations for genes without KOMP alleles.

Online Methods

Congenital Heart Defect Phenotyping

C57BL/6J mice were chemically mutagenized using ethylnitrosourea and subject to a two generation backcross breeding scheme27. To identify CHD mutants, G3 fetuses were ultrasound scanned with a two-tier ultrasound phenotyping strategy using the Acuson Sequoia and Vevo2100 ultrasound systems as previously described⁶. The fetal ultrasound imaging was conducted at E13.5-15.5, after completion of major cardiovascular developmental processes, including outflow tract septation and ventricular chamber septation. All of the CHD diagnoses were confirmed or refined by additional analysis using micro-CT/micro-MRI analyses and 3D histopathology using episcopic confocal microscopy^{6,28} (Extended Data Figure 1). The summative CHD diagnosis and phenotype description are curated in the public Mouse Genome Informatics (MGI) database [\(www.informatix.jax.org](http://www.informatix.jax.org); enter search box "b2b" will pull up all the lines or type in specific line ID or MGI ID to go directly to a specific mutant line). Included in each mutant line MGI record are sample images and videos collected from various different imaging modalities, including ultrasound images and videos, necropsy images, microCT/microMRI scans, episcopic confocal microscopy image stacks and 3D reconstructions, histology, and high speed videos for analysis of tracheal airway cilia motility.

Cilia Videomicroscopy

Trachea of newborn mice were harvested and mounted as previously described. For nodal cilia imaging, the node-containing region of E7.5-E7.75 embryos (3-6 somite stages) was dissected and mounted on a glass coverslip¹⁰. Videomicroscopy was carried out using a Leica DMIRE2 inverted microscope at 37°C with a 100× oil objective, and DIC optics. To examine flow, 0.35 μm microspheres were added to the medium bathing the ciliated tissue samples (\sim 1 × 10¹¹ particles/ml, Polysciences, Inc.). High-speed videos (200 fps) were collected using a Phantom v4.2 camera (Vision Research, NJ).

Mutation Recovery with Whole Exome Sequencing Analysis

Genomic DNA from CHD mutant mice were sequence captured using Agilent SureSelect Mouse All Exon kit V1, and sequenced using Illumina HiSeq 2000 with minimum average 50× target sequence coverage (BGI Americas). Sequence reads were aligned to C57BL/6J mouse reference genome (mm9) and analyzed using CLCBio Genomic Workbench and GATK software. To minimize false-negatives, variant calls were set at $5\times$ minimum coverage and >20% alternate reads. Sequence variants were annotated with annovar ([http://](http://www.openbioinformatics.org/annovar/) [www.openbioinformatics.org/annovar/\)](http://www.openbioinformatics.org/annovar/) and filtered against dbSNP128 and our in-house mouse exome databases with custom scripts. Intronic variants within 10bp from the splice junction were annotated as potential splicing mutation. All of the mutations recovered are searchable together with phenotype information via the public Bench to Bassinet Congenital Heart Disease Mouse Mutation Database ([http://benchtobassinet.com/ForResearchers/](http://benchtobassinet.com/ForResearchers/BasicScienceDataResourceSharing/GeneDiscoveryinMouseModels.aspx) [BasicScienceDataResourceSharing/GeneDiscoveryinMouseModels.aspx](http://benchtobassinet.com/ForResearchers/BasicScienceDataResourceSharing/GeneDiscoveryinMouseModels.aspx)). The exome

datasets are available from the GNomEx CvDC Datahub ([https://b2b.hci.utah.edu/gnomex/](https://b2b.hci.utah.edu/gnomex/gnomexGuestFlex.jsp?topicNumber=67) [gnomexGuestFlex.jsp?topicNumber=67](https://b2b.hci.utah.edu/gnomex/gnomexGuestFlex.jsp?topicNumber=67)).

Ciliome Gene Annotation

Ciliome genes were derived from a compilation of multiple bioinformatics, genomic and proteomic studies in different species²⁹. This included a bioinformatics study of X-box containing genes in *C. elegans* and several proteomic and comparative genomic studies comprising ciliated organisms in several species (*C. elegans, Drosophila, Human, Chlamydomonas, Plasmodium falciparum* and *Trypanosoma*). In addition, we also included genes recently identified in the cilia transition zone complex²³ and genes identified to cause Primary Ciliary Dyskinesia [\(http://ghr.nlm.nih.gov/condition/primary-ciliary-dyskinesia/](http://ghr.nlm.nih.gov/condition/primary-ciliary-dyskinesia/show/Related+Gene(s)) [show/Related+Gene\(s\)\)](http://ghr.nlm.nih.gov/condition/primary-ciliary-dyskinesia/show/Related+Gene(s)).

Analysis of Splicing Defect Mutations

For analysis of splicing defect mutations, RNA was isolated from skin, trachea, or heart tissue and reverse transcribed to generate cDNA using a High Capacity RNA-to-cDNA Kit (Life Technologies, Inc.). PCR amplification of the cDNA was carried out with primers spanning the affected splice junction using AmpliTaq Gold™ DNA polymerase system (Life Technologies) (95°C for 5 min, 40 cycles at 95°C for 30 s, 58°C for 30 s at 72°C for 1 min, 72°C for 5 min). The amplified products were separated on a 3% agarose gel and the bands were excised using the QIAquick Gel Extraction Kit (Qiagen) and analyzed by Sanger capillary sequencing.

Simulation-based Mutation Enrichment Analysis

A simulation approach was used to test whether mutations in the 61 CHD genes are enriched in the mouse exome datasets generated from the 113 CHD mutant mouse lines. From the 113 exomes, we recovered 149 mutations in the 61 CHD genes, 91 of which were identified as pathogenic, yielding an excess of 58 incidental mutations. For this simulation, all the genes from the mouse genome were grouped in bins of 500 genes based on coding DNA sequence (CDS) length. Then 61 genes with the same size distribution as the observed 61 CHD genes were randomly sampled. For each bin that contained k of our 61 CHD genes, we randomly sampled k genes, and counted the number of mutations in these genes in the 113 mouse exomes. Based on 50,000 sets of 61 randomly sampled genes, we calculated a pvalue based on the count of random gene sets that harbored 149 or more mutations. To take potential gene coverage bias into account, we limited our random gene selection to genes with at least one coding mutation in our CHD exomes, which yielded p-value of 0.00114. When we choose random genes from all genes, including genes not found in our exome dataset, p-value is <0.00002.

Interactome Analysis

To construct the interactome, each of the mouse CHD genes was mapped to its human ortholog, and PPIs of these genes were extracted from HPRD [\(www.hprd.org\)](http://www.hprd.org) and BioGRID [\(thebiogrid.org](http://thebiogrid.org)). The interactome is augmented with PPIs discovered computationally using the recently developed HiPPIP model (unpublished results). Pathway and Gene Ontology

term enrichment analysis of the interactome were carried out using Ingenuity Pathway Analysis suite and BiNGO³⁰ plugin of Cytoscape ([http://www.cytoscape.org/\)](http://www.cytoscape.org/). P-value for each pathway and GO term was calculated using Fisher's exact test with Benjamini-Hochberg correction (Supplementary Spread Sheet 3). Shortest paths were computed using Dijkstra's algorithm implemented in the networkx package of python. Average length of the shortest paths between pairs of CHD genes was compared to that of 61 random genes, where random genes were sampled to have similar degree distribution as the 61 CHD genes. For this, all human genes were categorized into 7 bins based on their degree in the interactome, (0, 1-5, 6-25, 26-50, 51-75, 75-100, >100). As many random genes were selected from any bin as the number of CHD genes in that bin. This process was repeated 1,500 times, and average length of the shortest paths is computed each time. P-value is computed empirically to determine statistical significance.

Extended Data

Extended Data Table 1 CHD Genes with Multiple Alleles

a **I**I Identical mutation was recovered from two different mutant lines.

b Identical mutation was recovered from three different mutant lines, later confirmed to be a spontaneous mutation in the support colony.

> **Extended Data Table 2 Ciliome Mutations in Laterality and Non-Laterality Lines**

*** m: mutation affects motile cilia function

Extended Data Table 3 Mouse CHD genes and associated human diseases

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

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Figure 1. Ultrasound diagnoses of CHD and cilia defects in CHD mutants

Vevo 2100 color flow imaging showed criss-crossing of blood flow indicating normal aorta (Ao) and pulmonary artery (PA) alignment (a, Supplemental Movie S1), confirmed by histopathology (b). E16.5 mutant (line b2b327) exhibited blood flow pattern indicating single great artery (PA) and ventricular septal defect (VSD) (c, Supplemental Movie S2), suggesting aortic atresia with VSD, confirmed by histopathology (d). Color flow imaging of E15.5 mutant (line b2b2025) with heterotaxy (stomach on right; Supplemental Movie S3c) had side-by-side Ao/PA with Ao emerging from right ventricle (RV), indicating DORV/VSD (e,f,Supplemental Movie S3a), and presence of AVSD (g,h,Supplemental Movie S3b,S3c). Histopathology also showed bicuspid aortic valve (BAV,i), interrupted aortic arch (IAA,j), and common AV valve (k). (l-n). *Cc2d2a* mutant exhibits dextrocardia with ventricular inversion (dextroversion) (m), and AVSD (l) with malformed AV cushions (n), but normal outflow cushions. (o-x). Confocal imaging of E12.5 *Cc2d2a* mutant (m/m) vs. wildtype $(+/+)$ embryo sections showed no cilia in AV cushion (o,p), but normal ciliation in outflow cushion (q,r). Fewer and shorter cilia were observed in other mutant embryo tissues (s-x). Red:acetylated tubulin;green:IFT88.

Figure 2. Congenital heart disease genes recovered from mouse mutagenesis screen

Diagrams illustrate biological context of CHD gene function (color-highlighting indicate CHD genes recovered; asterisk denote CHD genes recovered from previous screen²⁷). For clarity, ciliome genes (*Dctn5,Fuz*) with endocytic function and/or involved in ciliatransduced signaling were not shown in the ciliogenesis panel.

Figure 3. Interactome network of CHD genes with known and predicted interactors

An interactome network was constructed (a) comprising the 61 CHD genes (magenta squares) and their known (blue edges) and predicted (red edges) interactions. The CHD interactome yielded significant enrichment of GO terms related to developmental processes. Circle size proportional to number of genes associated with GO terms.