Cell Reports, Volume 23

# **Supplemental Information**

# **High-Resolution Epigenomic Atlas**

## of Human Embryonic Craniofacial Development

Andrea Wilderman, Jennifer VanOudenhove, Jeffrey Kron, James P. Noonan, and Justin Cotney

#### **Supplemental Experimental Procedures**

## EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND SUBJECT DETAILS

## **Tissue Collection and fixation**

Use of human fetal tissue was reviewed and approved by the Human Subjects Protection Program at UConn Health. Human embryonic craniofacial tissue was collected, staged and provided by the Joint MRC/Wellcome Trust Human Developmental Biology Resource (www.hdbr.org). Tissues were flash frozen upon collection and stored at -80°C. Fixation for ChIP-Seq was performed as described in Cotney and Noonan, 2015 (Cotney and Noonan, 2015). Briefly, each tissue sample was rapidly thawed in 1 mL of ice cold phosphate buffered saline (PBS) and briefly homogenized with a disposable plastic pestle in a 1.5 mL microcentrifuge tube. Samples were then fixed by the addition of formaldehyde to a final concentration of 1% and incubated at room temperature on a rotisserie for 15 minutes. Samples were then quenched with 150 mM glycine at 10 minutes at room temperature. Tissue was collected by centrifugation (5 min, 2500g, 4°C) and washed with 1 mL of fresh PBS. Fixed tissue pellets were then rapidly frozen in a dry ice/alcohol bath and stored at -80°C until batch processing for chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP).

#### **METHOD DETAILS**

## ChIP-Seq

Fixed tissue pellets were processed for ChIP as previously described (Cotney and Noonan, 2015). Briefly, samples were thawed in 1 mL of 1x Cell Lysis buffer and incubated on ice for 20 minutes. Cells were lysed with dounce homogenization and nuclei were collected by centrifugation (5 min, 2500g, 4°C). Nuclei were resuspended in 300  $\mu$ L of 1x Nuclear Lysis buffer + 0.3% SDS + 2 mM sodium butyrate and incubated on ice for 20 minutes. Chromatin was sheared with a Qsonica Q800R1 sonicator system operating at amplitude 20 and 2°C for 30 minutes (10 seconds duty, 10 seconds rest). Samples were cleared by centrifugation (5 min, 20,000g, 4°C) and soluble chromatin was transferred equally into six separate tubes with 10% reserved as an input control. SDS concentration was reduced to 0.18% with ChIP Dilution buffer. Protein G Dynabeads (ThermoFisher) separately preloaded with 2  $\mu$ g of antibodies were

added to each chromatin aliquot. Antibodies used in this study: anti-H3K27ac (ab4729, Abcam), anti-H3K4me1 (ab8895, Abcam), anti-H3K4me2 (ab7766, Abcam), anti-H3K4me3 (ab8580, Abcam), anti-H3K27me3 (07-449, EMD Millipore), anti-H3K36me3 (ab9050, Abcam). Specificity of all antibodies was validated using Absurance H3 Histone Peptide Array (16-667, Millipore). ChIP samples were incubated overnight at 4°C on a rotisserie. Chromatin was then immunoprecipitated on a magnet and supernatant was discarded. Beads were washed 8 times with 1 mL of 500 mM LiCl ChIP-Seq Wash Buffer and once with 1 mL of TE. Chromatin was eluted from the beads twice with ChIP Elution buffer at 65°C for 10 minutes with constant agitation. Combined eluates for each ChIP were subjected to crosslink reversal overnight at 65°C. Samples were then sequentially treated with RNAse A and proteinase K, purified with a PCR Purification Kit (Qiagen), and eluted in 50 uL of EB. ChIP samples were then quantified with picoGreen (ThermoFisher) and prepared for sequencing on Illumina instruments using the Thruplex 48S Library Prep kit (Rubicon Genomics) according to manufacturer's instructions. Final libraries were quantified by QPCR (NEBNext Library Quant Kit for Illumina), multiplexed, and sequenced for 75 cycles across multiple flow cells on an Illumina NextSeq 500 instrument.

#### **QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS**

#### Primary ChIP-Seq Data Analysis

Sequencing data was directly retrieved from Illumina's Basespace Cloud service using Basemount command line tools provided by Illumina. Multiple FASTQs for each ChIP were combined and assessed for quality using FASTQC (v0.11.2) (Andrews, 2010) and compared visually using MultiQC (v0.9) (Ewels et al., 2016). Reads were then aligned to the human genome (hg19) using Bowtie2 (v2.2.5) (Langmead and Salzberg, 2012) keeping only uniquely mapped reads. Fragment sizes of each library were estimated using PhantomPeakQualTools (v.1.14) (Landt et al., 2012). Histone modification enriched regions were identified and annotated using HOMER (v4.8.3) (Heinz et al., 2010). Reproducibly enriched regions were determined by creating a union of all enriched regions for a respective histone modification from all replicates of a single Carnegie stage and filtering for regions identified in at least two biological replicates using BEDtools (v2.25.0) (Quinlan and Hall, 2010). We then generated pvalue based signal tracks relative to appropriate input controls based on estimated library fragment size using MACS2 (2.1.1.20160309) (Feng et al., 2012). All signal and enriched region files were converted for display in the UCSC Genome Browser using the Kent Source Tools (v329) (Kent et al., 2002). Correlations of ChIP-Seq signals and Principal Component Analysis across samples and marks were calculated in non-overlapping 10kb windows using deepTools2 (v2.5.0.1) (Ramírez et al., 2014).

## Roadmap Epigenome and cultured CNCC Data Retrieval

Aligned and consolidated primary ChIP-Seq reads in tagAlign format were retrieved from Roadmap Epigenome for eleven epigenomic signals: H2A.Z, H3K4me1, H3K4me2, H3K4me3, H3K9ac, H3K9me3, H3K27ac, H3K27me3, H3K36me3, H3K79me2, and H4K20me1. (http://egg2.wustl.edu/roadmap/data/byFileType/alignments/consolidated/). To ensure the most compatible signals with our data, p-value signals were generated by MACS2 from these data based on library fragment sizes reported by Roadmap Epigenome as above. DNase p-value signals were retrieved directly from Roadmap Epigenome

(http://egg2.wustl.edu/roadmap/data/byFileType/signal/consolidated/macs2signal/pval/) and converted from bigWig to bedGraph for use with ChromImpute (Ernst and Kellis, 2015) using Kent Source Tools (Kent et al., 2002). Chromatin state segmentations for 127 epigenomes and associated 15-, 18-, and 25-state model files were retrieved from Roadmap Epigenome (http://egg2.wustl.edu/roadmap/data/byFileType/chromhmmSegmentations/ChmmModels/). Raw reads for all human CNCC ChIP-Seq from Prescott et al 2015 were retrieved from GEO accession GSE70751 and processed using procedures as above.

## **Chromatin Imputation**

Bedgraph files for all p-value signals from primary ChIP-Seq data were converted to 25 bp resolution and processed for model training and generation of imputed signals for all samples using ChromImpute (v1.0.1) as previously described (Ernst and Kellis, 2015). Resulting imputed signal tracks were converted to bigWig format for display in UCSC genome browser and converted to combined signal format at 200 bp resolution for use with ChromHMM (v1.12) (Ernst and Kellis, 2012) using deepTools2 (Ramírez et al., 2014).

## **Chromatin State Segmentation**

Signal files for individual chromosomes for each craniofacial epigenome were binarized and segmentation was performed using previously published joint 15-, 18-, and 25-state chromatin models using ChromHMM as previously described(Roadmap Epigenomics et al., 2015). Following segmentation, annotation of states and generation of genome browser files was

performed based on annotations provided by Roadmap Epigenome. Individual models of 15, 18 and 25 chromatin states were also learned for each craniofacial epigenome using default settings in ChromHMM. Pearson Correlations and Principal Component Analyses were performed on total H3K27ac signals extracted observed in all imputed p-value signal tracks for craniofacial and Roadmap Epigenome samples from the union of all enhancer state segmentations (EnhA1, EnhA2, EnhAF, EnhW1, EnhW2, and EnhAc) using deepTools2 (Ramírez et al., 2014). All plots were made in R (v3.3.3) (R Core Team, 2017) using tabular data generated by deepTools2.

#### **Functional Enrichments in Craniofacial Epigenomes**

Craniofacial enhancer state segmentations (EnhA1, EnhA2, EnhAF, EnhW1, EnhW2, and EnhAc) were interrogated for tissue activity in the developing mouse embryo from the Vista Enhancer Browser (Visel et al., 2007). Significance of overlap of enhancers identified in human craniofacial tissue and shown to be active in mouse craniofacial tissue relative to all other tissue annotations was determined using Fisher's exact test. To identify totally novel craniofacial enhancers, enhancer state segmentations for all craniofacial segmentations were interrogated for single base overlap with the same states from all Roadmap Epigenomes using BEDtools (Quinlan and Hall, 2010). These novel craniofacial enhancer segmentations were assessed for gene ontology and functional enrichments based on assigned target genes using GREAT (v3.0.0) (McLean et al., 2010). Genes identified as transcriptional regulators by GREAT were assessed for enrichment of anatomical expression using default parameters in GeneORGANizer (Gokhman et al., 2017). Sequence from novel craniofacial enhancer segmentations was extracted from hg19 using fastaFromBed within BEDTools (Quinlan and Hall, 2010). The resulting sequences were assessed for transcription factor motif enrichment using HOMER (Heinz et al., 2010). Enhancer state segmentations from craniofacial epigenomes and all Roadmap epigenomes were interrogated for significance of overlap with GWAS tag SNPs associated with orofacial clefting and craniofacial morphology (Beaty et al., 2011; Birnbaum et al., 2009; Grant et al., 2009; Ludwig et al., 2012; Mangold et al., 2010; Shaffer et al., 2016; Shi et al., 2012) obtained from the GWAS Catalog (retrieved 2017-02-20)(Welter et al., 2014) using Fisher's exact test within BEDTools (Quinlan and Hall, 2010). Adjusted p-value thresholds for 154 comparisons were determined using the Benjamini-Hochberg method (Benjamini and Hochberg, 1995).

## **Identification of Enhancer Clusters**

Enhancers have been shown to cluster spatially over long distances and within topological domains (Ing-Simmons et al., 2015), thus to identify clusters of craniofacial enhancers we first generated overlapping 200kb windows (median contact domain size from high resolution Hi-C (Rao et al., 2014)) with a 50kb step size using BEDtools (Quinlan and Hall, 2010). Next, we intersected these windows with all enhancer chromatin state segmentations from craniofacial tissues. We then calculated the fraction of each window annotated as an enhancer state. We tested for enrichment of enhancers in each window using permutation testing by randomly shuffling the craniofacial enhancer segments across the genome 1000 times using BEDtools (Quinlan and Hall, 2010) and determining the fraction of each window annotated as an enhancer. Permutation p-values were corrected using the Benjamini-Hochberg method (Benjamini and Hochberg, 1995) for 60739 200kb windows and additionally filtered for a minimum fraction of enhancer states of 0.15 to ensure strong enhancer activation. Overlapping windows passing these criteria were merged into a single contiguous region. Final enriched regions were assessed for overlap with gene annotations and validated craniofacial enhancers using BEDtools (Quinlan and Hall, 2010). We also identified super-enhancer regions using H3K27ac ChIP-Seg reads at all craniofacial enhancer segments with default parameters in ROSE (Whyte et al. 2013).

## DATA AND SOFTWARE AVAILABILITY

All data can be visualized in the UCSC Genome Browser using publically available track hub functionality. Hub files and interesting browser examples can be found on our website: <a href="http://cotney.research.uchc.edu/data/">http://cotney.research.uchc.edu/data/</a>

ChIP-Seq signals, peak calls, chromatin state segmentations are available at GEO accession GSE97752.

All generic scripts used in processing ChIP-Seq and generating chromatin states are available on github: <u>https://github.com/cotneylab/ChIP-Seq</u>

#### **RESOURCES TABLE**

REAGENT or RESOURCE	SOURCE	IDENTIFIER
Antibodies		
Rabbit Polyclonal Anti-H3K27ac	Abcam	Cat# ab4729; RRID: AB 2118291
Rabbit Polyclonal Anti-H3K4me1	Abcam	Cat# ab8895; RRID: AB 306847
Rabbit Polyclonal Anti-H3K4me2	Abcam	Cat# ab7766; RRID: AB 2560996
Rabbit Polyclonal Anti-H3K4me3	Abcam	Cat# ab8580; RRID: AB 306649
Rabbit Polyclonal Anti-H3K27me3	EMD Millipore	Cat# 07-449; RRID: AB_310624
Rabbit Polyclonal Anti-H3K36me3	Abcam	Cat# ab9050; RRID: AB_306966
Biological Samples		
Human embryonic craniofacial tissue	Joint MRC/Wellcome Trust Human Developmental Biology Resource	www.hdbr.org
Critical Commercial Assays		
Absurance H3 Histone Peptide Array	Millipore	16-667
Thruplex 48S Library Prep kit	Takara Bio	R400427
NextSeq 500/550 High Output v2 kit (75 cycles)	Ilumina	FC-404-2005
NEBNext Library Quant Kit for Illumina	New England Biolabs	E7630S
Deposited Data		
ChIP-Seq signals, peak calls, chromatin state segmentations	This Paper	GEO: GSE97752
UCSC Genome Browser Track Hubs	This Paper	https://cotneylab.ca m.uchc.edu/~jcotney /CRANIOFACIAL_H UB/Craniofacial_Dat a_Hub.txt
Software and Algerithms		
		http://bog.com.com/ / -
Basemount	Illumina	https://basemount.ba sespace.illumina.co m/
FASTQC (v0.11.2)	Andrews, 2010	http://www.bioinform atics.babraham.ac.u k/projects/fastqc/ RRID:SCR_014583
MultiQC (v0.9)	Ewels et al., 2016	http://multiqc.info/ RRID:SCR_014982
Bowtie2 (v2.2.5)	Langmead and Salzberg, 2012	http://bowtie- bio.sourceforge.net/ bowtie2/index.shtml

PhantomPeakQualTools (v.1.14)	Landt et al., 2012	https://code.google.c om/p/phantompeakq ualtools/ RRID:SCR_005331
HOMER (v4.8.3)	Heinz et al., 2010	http://homer.ucsd.ed u/homer/ RRID:SCR_010881
BEDtools (v2.25.0)	Quinlan and Hall, 2010	https://github.com/ar g5x/bedtools2 RRID:SCR_006646
MACS2 (2.1.1.20160309)	Feng et al., 2012	https://github.com/ta oliu/MACS/
Kent Source Tools (v329)	Kent et al., 2002	https://github.com/E NCODE- DCC/kentUtils
deepTools2 (v2.5.0.1)	Ramírez et al., 2014	https://github.com/fid elram/deepTools
ChromImpute (v1.0.1)	Ernst and Kellis, 2015	http://www.biolchem. ucla.edu/labs/ernst/ ChromImpute/
ChromHMM (v1.12)	Ernst and Kellis, 2012	http://compbio.mit.ed u/ChromHMM/
R Project for Statistical Computing (v3.3.3)	R Core Team, 2017	http://www.r- project.org/ RRID:SCR_001905
GREAT (v3.0.0)	McLean et al., 2010	http://great.stanford. edu/public/html/splas h.php RRID:SCR_005807
GeneORGANizer	Gokhman et al., 2017	http://geneorganizer. carmelab.huji.ac.il/
GWAS Catalog (retrieved 2017-02-20)	Welter et al., 2014	http://www.ebi.ac.uk/ gwas/home RRID:SCR_012745
SOMatic	Mortazavi et al., 2013	https://github.com/cs jansen/SOMatic
Cluster (v3.0)	de Hoon et al., 2004	http://bonsai.hgc.jp/~ mdehoon/software/cl uster/software.htm RRID:SCR_013505
Java TreeView	Saldanha, 2004	http://jtreeview.sourc eforge.net/
Motif Enrichment	Kheradpour and Kellis, 2014	http://compbio.mit.ed u/encode-motifs/
Cutadapt (v1.8.3)	Martin, 2011	https://cutadapt.read thedocs.io/en/stable/ RRID:SCR_011841
GREGOR (v1.4.0)	Schmidt et al., 2015	https://genome.sph. umich.edu/wiki/GRE GOR

#### **Supplemental Figures**

**Figure S1. Detailed Histone Modification Profiles in Human Craniofacial Development. a.** Heatmap and hierarchical clustering of pairwise Pearson correlations for 114 individual histone modification profiles from human craniofacial tissues. Darker orange indicates positive correlation between datasets. Enlarged from **Fig. 2a** to include sample details, showing samples cluster closely by histone mark. **b.** Correlation of only H3K27ac data contained in the area boxed in black in part **a**. Heatmap and hierarchical clustering show that the samples cluster well into groups by early or late stage of development. **c.** Genomic feature annotations identified by peak calls from six histone modification profiles from all craniofacial samples, across all Carnegie stages, plotted as cumulative percentage of total peaks. Peak enrichments and genomic annotations were performed using HOMER (Heinz et al., 2010). **d.** Heatmap and hierarchical clustering of pairwise Pearson correlations for imputed histone modification profiles from human craniofacial tissues. Darker orange indicates positive correlation between datasets. **e.** Heatmap and hierarchical clustering of pairwise Pearson correlations for imputed and primary histone modification profiles from human craniofacial tissues. Darker orange indicates positive correlations for imputed and primary histone modification profiles from human craniofacial tissues. Darker orange indicates positive correlation between datasets. Related to Figure 2.







Early Embryonic Development

Late Embryonic / Fetal Development **Figure S1. Detailed Histone Modification Profiles in Human Craniofacial Development. a.** Heatmap and hierarchical clustering of pairwise Pearson correlations for 114 individual histone modification profiles from human craniofacial tissues. Darker orange indicates positive correlation between datasets. Enlarged from **Fig. 2a** to include sample details, showing samples cluster closely by histone mark. **b.** Correlation of only H3K27ac data contained in the area boxed in black in part **a**. Heatmap and hierarchical clustering show that the samples cluster well into groups by early or late stage of development. **c.** Genomic feature annotations identified by peak calls from six histone modification profiles from all craniofacial samples, across all Carnegie stages, plotted as cumulative percentage of total peaks. Peak enrichments and genomic annotations were performed using HOMER (Heinz et al., 2010). **d.** Heatmap and hierarchical clustering of pairwise Pearson correlations for imputed histone modification profiles from human craniofacial tissues. Darker orange indicates positive correlation between datasets. **e.** Heatmap and hierarchical clustering of pairwise Pearson correlations for imputed and primary histone modification profiles from human craniofacial tissues. Darker orange indicates positive correlations between datasets. Related to Figure 2.



# Figure S2. Imputation of Craniofacial Epigenomic Signals and Chromatin State Segmentation in the 15-State (Primary) and 18-State (Auxiliary) ChromHMM models. a.

Numbers of individual chromatin state segments identified by each of the color- coded 15 states of chromatin activity based on imputed epigenomic signals for each of the 21 tissue samples profiled. b. Comparison of cumulative percentage of each chromatin state between craniofacial samples profiled here and 127 segmentations generated by Roadmap Epigenome (Roadmap Epigenomics et al., 2015). c. Mean numbers of segments annotated in each of the 15 states across 21 craniofacial samples (orange) and 127 Roadmap Epigenomes (gray). d. Mean percentages of segments annotated in each of the 15 states across 21 craniofacial samples (orange) and 127 Roadmap Epigenomes (gray). e. Same as in panel a, but for 18-State Model. f. Same as in panel b, but for 18-State Model. g. Same as in panel c, but for 18-State Model. h. Same as in panel d, but for 18-State Model. Overall chromatin state segmentation in craniofacial samples identifies similar numbers and percentages of each of the states published by Roadmap Epigenome (Roadmap Epigenomics et al., 2015). i. Numbers of individual chromatin state segments for each of the colored 25 states in human craniofacial tissues and CNCCs. j. Mean numbers of segments annotated in each of the 25 states across craniofacial samples (orange), Roadmap (grey), and CNCCs (black). Error bars in all plots represent standard deviation. Related to Figure 3.



**Figure S3. Large Bivalent Domains at Gene Pair** *DLX5* and *DLX6.* UCSC Genome Browser shot of locus encompassing the *DLX5/DLX6* locus. At top are chromatin state segmentations for all tissue samples. See Figure S2 for color code. Purple states indicate bivalent regions. Imputed signals and peak calls for representative samples from each stage and for each mark are shown below. Related to Figure 4.



#### Figure S4. Overlap with CNCC enhancers and All Enhancers Tested for Craniofacial

**Activity a.** Distribution of overlaps of CNCC active enhancer regions with 10,000 trials of random enhancer sets equal in number, length, and chromosomal distribution to the top 10% of craniofacial enhancer segments (n=7500). Red vertical line indicates observed number of overlaps between CNCC enhancers and craniofacial enhancers. **b.** Distribution of overlaps of human biased CNCC enhancer regions with 10,000 trials of random enhancer sets equal in number, length, and chromosomal distribution to the top 10% of craniofacial enhancer segments (n=7500). Red vertical line indicates observed number of overlaps between human biased CNCC enhancers observed number of overlaps between human biased CNCC enhancers and craniofacial enhancers. **c.** All enhancers identified and tested by this study from the Vista Enhancer Browser. Enhancers with hs prefix indicated the human genomic sequence was tested while those with the mm prefix indicate that the orthologous sequence from mouse identified by this study was tested. Related to Figure 5.



Principal Component Analysis of H3K27ac Signals







group
e
Adpose
e
Canidacial
e
Epithelal
e
Heart
e
PSC
e
Moral
%
X\_March

e
Blood\_T\_cell
e
Egitetival
e
Egitetival
e
Moral
%
X\_March
%
Nonzal
%
X\_March
%</t

b

### Figure S5 H3K27ac Signal at Enhancer Segments Allows for Correlation by Tissue Type.

**a.** Heatmap and hierarchical clustering of pairwise comparisons of H3K27ac signals at all enhancer segments in our craniofacial data and the 127 samples from Roadmap Epigenome. Red coloring indicates positive correlation between datasets, blue indicates less correlation. **b.** Principal component analyses of the first four component dimensions of H3K27ac signals in a serial progressive fashion (i.e PC1 vs PC2, PC2 vs PC3, etc.). Samples are color coded by tissue type. Related to Figure 5.



#### Figure S6. Identification of Craniofacial-specific Enhancers Flanking MSX2 and BMP4. a.

Enhancer states annotated by the 25-state model that are found only in craniofacial tissue but not the 127 samples from Roadmap Epigenome are located upstream and downstream of *MSX2*, a gene implicated in multiple craniofacial abnormalities. The enhancer states fall within a region of conservation and are supported at top by ChIP signals from a single human craniofacial tissue sample. **b.** Targeted sequencing of 13 Loci Identified by GWAS studies to be important In craniofacial development misses a regulatory region in *BMP4*. The study by Leslie et al. (Leslie et al., 2015) performed targeted sequencing of a region of ~60 kb surrounding the BMP4 gene (black bar at top of figure). This region excluded a region immediately adjacent (outlined by green box) identified as an enhancer by the 25-State, Imputed ChromHMM model in all 21 craniofacial tissues analyzed. Related to Figure 5.



**Figure S7. The** *PRDM16* **locus is a Super-enhancer region**. UCSC Genome Browser shot of locus encompassing the *PRDM16* locus and the noncoding region upstream. Super-enhancer regions as identify by ROSE are indicated by orange bars (Whyte et al., 2013). Craniofacial specific enhancers indicated by darker orange bars. Numerous craniofacial enhancer segments are annotated throughout this regions in all samples profiled. Related to Figure 7.



NEE Interval

**Figure S8. Human Craniofacial Enhancer States prioritize regions within the 8q24 Clefting locus. a.** UCSC Genome Browser shot of 8q24 locus implicated in orofacial clefting in humans and mice. This region has been examined using multiple mouse deletion lines as indicated by black bars and deletion number (Uslu et al., 2014). Two regions implicated as harboring important regulatory elements are indicated by MNE and NEE. Strongest risk allele position from orofacial clefting GWAS indicated in purple (Birnbaum et al., 2009). **b.** Enlarged region encompassing the rs987525 position. A consistent craniofacial enhancer segment is identified less than 2kb downstream of this risk position. **c.** Enlarged region encompassing the MNE interval. A reproducibly strong human craniofacial enhancer state is located in this region rs7821930. **d.** Enlarged region encompassing the NEE interval. A reproducibly strong human craniofacial enhancer state is located in this region rs7821930. **d.** Enlarged region encompassing the NEE interval. A reproducibly strong human craniofacial enhancer state is located in this region rs7821930. **d.** Enlarged region encompassing the NEE interval. A reproducibly strong human craniofacial enhancer state is located in this region rs7821930. **d.** Enlarged region encompassing the NEE interval. A reproducibly strong human craniofacial enhancer state is located in this region rs7821930. **d.** Enlarged region encompassing the NEE interval. A reproducibly strong human craniofacial enhancer state is located in the center of this interval as indicated by red box. Related to Figure 7.



**Figure S9. Significant enrichment of orofacial GWAS SNPs but not Crohn's GWAS SNPs in human craniofacial enhancers. a.** Enrichment of Crohn's GWAS tag SNPs retrieved from the GWAS Catalog in enhancer segmentations assessed using GREGOR (Schmidt et al., 2015). Orange circles indicate craniofacial enhancer annotations identified by a 25 State chromatin model from this study while grey circles indicate those previously published by Roadmap Epigenome (Roadmap Epigenomics et al., 2015). No significant enrichment was detected for craniofacial segmentations, but was observed for multiple immune cell types. b. Same analysis as in a using GWAS tag SNPs reported for 24 regions by Ludwig et al 2017. Related to Figure 7.



**Figure S10 Orofacial Clefting Locus 1p36.13 PAX7** Approximately 2Mb window surrounding *PAX7* (**A**). The region selected for targeted sequencing (Leslie et al. 2015). The lead SNP rs742071 and the associated SNP by sequencing, rs1339062, are shown. The *PAX7* promoter region was also investigated in Ludwig et al. (2017) where rs4920524 was identified as contributing the largest posterior probability risk. Bivalent states (purple) are present at the *PAX7* promoter and the promoter of *IGSF21*. A craniofacial superenhancer overlaps the *PAX7* bivalent region (**B**) and SNPs including rs1339062, rs742071 and rs4920524 are present within a portion of the superenhancer region that has not been identified as a superenhancer in any tissues or cell types in the dbSuper database (Khan and Zhang, 2016). Other large craniofacial superenhancers carrying craniofacial-specific enhancers are within 1Mb of *PAX7*. The region near *IFFO2* (**C**) is shown as an example. Related to Figure 7.



**Figure S11 Orofacial Clefting Locus 1p36.11 GRHL3** Approximately 2Mb region surrounding *GRHL3*, a gene implicated in Van der Woude syndrome and non-syndromic cleft palate only (Peyrard-Janvid et al., 2014). (**A**). *GRHL3* itself shows a poised promoter state. Amplicons for targeted sequencing in cases of individuals with non-syndromic orofacial clefts by Mangold et al. (Mangold et al., 2016), truncations mutations and the likely deleterious SNP rs41268753 are shown in panel **B**. Additionally, an intronic region between amplicons 7 and 8 contains enhancer states in all craniofacial timepoints surveyed. Regions to either side of *GRHL3* contain craniofacial superenhancers and many enhancer states, including craniofacial-specific enhancers suggesting this area may contain several genes important in early craniofacial development (**C**,**D**). Related to Figure 7.



**Figure S12 Orofacial Clefting Locus 1p22.1 ARHGAP29** Approximately 2Mb region surrounding rs560426 (**A**). The region was selected for targeted sequencing (Leslie et al. 2015). The region also contains rs35298667, identified as a likely significant contributor to nsCL/P (Ludwig et al., 2017) and multiple SNPs identified in GWAS for non-syndromic orofacial clefting (Yu et al. 2017 and Leslie et al. 2017 reported loci) are present within craniofacial superenhancer within the region of targeted resequencing (**B**). Additional craniofacial superenhancers including craniofacial-specific superenhancer regions neighboring the region of targeted resequencing (**C**). Related to Figure 7.



**Figure S13 Orofacial Clefting Locus 1q32.2 IRF6** Approximately 2Mb region surrounding *IRF6*. (**A**) The lead SNP rs642961 falls within a region marked as an active enhancer in embryonic craniofacial tissue (arrow, **B**). Additional SNPs identified through targeted sequencing (Leslie et al., 2015) or GWAS (Yu et al., 2017; Leslie et al., 2017) are found near enhancers active in craniofacial tissue. (**B**) Craniofacial-specific enhancers and craniofacial-specific superenhancers located adjacent to the region of targeted sequencing (**C**). Related to Figure 7.



**Figure S14 Orofacial Clefting Locus 10q25.3 VAX1** Approximately 1.5Mb region surrounding *VAX1* (**A**). The *VAX1* promoter region contains a bivalent chromatin state and SNPs associated with non-syndromic oral clefts are located near a craniofacial-specific enhancer (**B**). The neighboring gene *EMX2* also shows a bivalent chromatin state as well as proximity to a craniofacial-specific enhancer (**C**). Related to Figure 7.



**Figure S15 Orofacial Clefting Locus 15q13.3 GREM1** Approximately 2Mb region containing the intergenic region between *GREM1* and *FMN1*, found to have a strong association with nsCL/P and to be predominant in a rare form of clefting with lip and soft palate cleft but intact hard palate (Ludwig et al. 2016) (**A**). SNPs identified in the intergenic region and in the promoter and intronic region of FMN1 are shown in panel **B**. The SNP rs17816375, found to have the strongest eQTL effect by Ludwig et al. is near craniofacial-specific enhancers in the intron of *FMN1*. Additionally, *FMN1* introns contain many enhancer states with patterns that suggest differences in enhancer activity between embryonic and fetal craniofacial development (**C**). Related to Figure 7.



**Figure S16 Orofacial Clefting Locus 17q22 NOG** Approximately 2Mb region surrounding the gene for the BMP antagonist *NOG* (**A**). The active promoter and bivalent states of *NOG* at different stages of embryonic and fetal development reflect the expression of *NOG* in early craniofacial development (Matsui and Klingensmith, 2014). SNPs associated with non-syndromic oral clefts reside near or in enhancer states active in early craniofacial development (**B**,**C**). Related to Figure 7.



**Figure S17 Orofacial Clefting Locus 20q12 MAFB** Approximately 2Mb region around *MAFB* (**A**). SNPs associated with non-syndromic oral clefts reside in or near enhancer states active in early craniofacial development (**B**). A region <1Mb away from *MAFB* contains several craniofacial-specific enhancers and patterns of enhancer state that may suggest differences in early vs. late craniofacial development (**C**). Related to Figure 7.

#### Supplemental References

Andrews, S. (2010). FastQC: a quality control tool for high throughput sequence data. In Genome Biology.

Beaty, T.H., Ruczinski, I., Murray, J.C., Marazita, M.L., Munger, R.G., Hetmanski, J.B., Murray, T., Redett, R.J., Fallin, M.D., Liang, K.Y., *et al.* (2011). Evidence for gene-environment interaction in a genome wide study of nonsyndromic cleft palate. Genet Epidemiol *35*, 469-478. Benjamini, Y., and Hochberg, Y. (1995). Controlling the False Discovery Rate - a Practical and Powerful Approach to Multiple Testing. Journal of the Royal Statistical Society Series B-Methodological *57*, 289-300.

Birnbaum, S., Ludwig, K.U., Reutter, H., Herms, S., Steffens, M., Rubini, M., Baluardo, C., Ferrian, M., Almeida de Assis, N., Alblas, M.A., *et al.* (2009). Key susceptibility locus for nonsyndromic cleft lip with or without cleft palate on chromosome 8q24. Nat Genet *41*, 473-477. Cotney, J.L., and Noonan, J.P. (2015). Chromatin immunoprecipitation with fixed animal tissues and preparation for high-throughput sequencing. Cold Spring Harb Protoc *2015*, 191-199. Ernst, J., and Kellis, M. (2012). ChromHMM: automating chromatin-state discovery and characterization. Nat Methods *9*, 215-216.

Ernst, J., and Kellis, M. (2015). Large-scale imputation of epigenomic datasets for systematic annotation of diverse human tissues. Nat Biotechnol *33*, 364-376.

Ewels, P., Magnusson, M., Lundin, S., and Kaller, M. (2016). MultiQC: summarize analysis results for multiple tools and samples in a single report. Bioinformatics *32*, 3047-3048. Feng, J., Liu, T., Qin, B., Zhang, Y., and Liu, X.S. (2012). Identifying ChIP-seq enrichment using MACS. Nat Protoc *7*, 1728-1740.

Gokhman, D., Kelman, G., Amartely, A., Gershon, G., Tsur, S., and Carmel, L. (2017). Gene ORGANizer: linking genes to the organs they affect. Nucleic Acids Res, 106948.

Grant, S.F., Wang, K., Zhang, H., Glaberson, W., Annaiah, K., Kim, C.E., Bradfield, J.P., Glessner, J.T., Thomas, K.A., Garris, M., *et al.* (2009). A genome-wide association study identifies a locus for nonsyndromic cleft lip with or without cleft palate on 8q24. J Pediatr *155*, 909-913.

Heinz, S., Benner, C., Spann, N., Bertolino, E., Lin, Y.C., Laslo, P., Cheng, J.X., Murre, C., Singh, H., and Glass, C.K. (2010). Simple combinations of lineage-determining transcription factors prime cis-regulatory elements required for macrophage and B cell identities. Mol Cell *38*, 576-589.

Ing-Simmons, E., Seitan, V.C., Faure, A.J., Flicek, P., Carroll, T., Dekker, J., Fisher, A.G., Lenhard, B., and Merkenschlager, M. (2015). Spatial enhancer clustering and regulation of enhancer-proximal genes by cohesin. Genome Res *25*, 504-513.

Kent, W.J., Sugnet, C.W., Furey, T.S., Roskin, K.M., Pringle, T.H., Zahler, A.M., and Haussler, D. (2002). The human genome browser at UCSC. Genome Res *12*, 996-1006.

Khan, A., and Zhang, X. (2016). dbSUPER: a database of super-enhancers in mouse and human genome. Nucleic Acids Res *44*, D164-171.

Landt, S.G., Marinov, G.K., Kundaje, A., Kheradpour, P., Pauli, F., Batzoglou, S., Bernstein, B.E., Bickel, P., Brown, J.B., Cayting, P., *et al.* (2012). ChIP-seq guidelines and practices of the ENCODE and modENCODE consortia. Genome Res *22*, 1813-1831.

Langmead, B., and Salzberg, S.L. (2012). Fast gapped-read alignment with Bowtie 2. Nat Methods 9, 357-359.

Leslie, E.J., Taub, M.A., Liu, H., Steinberg, K.M., Koboldt, D.C., Zhang, Q., Carlson, J.C., Hetmanski, J.B., Wang, H., Larson, D.E., *et al.* (2015). Identification of functional variants for

cleft lip with or without cleft palate in or near PAX7, FGFR2, and NOG by targeted sequencing of GWAS loci. Am J Hum Genet *96*, 397-411.

Ludwig, K.U., Mangold, E., Herms, S., Nowak, S., Reutter, H., Paul, A., Becker, J., Herberz, R., AlChawa, T., Nasser, E., *et al.* (2012). Genome-wide meta-analyses of nonsyndromic cleft lip with or without cleft palate identify six new risk loci. Nat Genet *44*, 968-971.

Mangold, E., Bohmer, A.C., Ishorst, N., Hoebel, A.K., Gultepe, P., Schuenke, H., Klamt, J., Hofmann, A., Golz, L., Raff, R., *et al.* (2016). Sequencing the GRHL3 Coding Region Reveals Rare Truncating Mutations and a Common Susceptibility Variant for Nonsyndromic Cleft Palate. Am J Hum Genet *98*, 755-762.

Mangold, E., Ludwig, K.U., Birnbaum, S., Baluardo, C., Ferrian, M., Herms, S., Reutter, H., de Assis, N.A., Chawa, T.A., Mattheisen, M., *et al.* (2010). Genome-wide association study identifies two susceptibility loci for nonsyndromic cleft lip with or without cleft palate. Nat Genet *42*, 24-26.

Matsui, M., and Klingensmith, J. (2014). Multiple tissue-specific requirements for the BMP antagonist Noggin in development of the mammalian craniofacial skeleton. Dev Biol *392*, 168-181.

McLean, C.Y., Bristor, D., Hiller, M., Clarke, S.L., Schaar, B.T., Lowe, C.B., Wenger, A.M., and Bejerano, G. (2010). GREAT improves functional interpretation of cis-regulatory regions. Nat Biotechnol *28*, 495-501.

Peyrard-Janvid, M., Leslie, E.J., Kousa, Y.A., Smith, T.L., Dunnwald, M., Magnusson, M., Lentz, B.A., Unneberg, P., Fransson, I., Koillinen, H.K., *et al.* (2014). Dominant mutations in GRHL3 cause Van der Woude Syndrome and disrupt oral periderm development. Am J Hum Genet *94*, 23-32.

Quinlan, A.R., and Hall, I.M. (2010). BEDTools: a flexible suite of utilities for comparing genomic features. Bioinformatics (Oxford, England) *26*, 841-842.

R Core Team (2017). R: A language and environment for statistical computing. (Vienna, Austria: R Foundation for Statistical Computing).

Ramírez, F., Dündar, F., Diehl, S., Grüning, B.A., and Manke, T. (2014). deepTools: a flexible platform for exploring deep-sequencing data. Nucleic Acids Research *42*, W187-191.

Rao, S.S.P., Huntley, M.H., Durand, N.C., Stamenova, E.K., Bochkov, I.D., Robinson, J.T., Sanborn, A.L., Machol, I., Omer, A.D., Lander, E.S., *et al.* (2014). A 3D Map of the Human Genome at Kilobase Resolution Reveals Principles of Chromatin Looping. Cell *159*, 1665-1680. Roadmap Epigenomics, C., Kundaje, A., Meuleman, W., Ernst, J., Bilenky, M., Yen, A., Heravi-Moussavi, A., Kheradpour, P., Zhang, Z., Wang, J., *et al.* (2015). Integrative analysis of 111 reference human epigenomes. Nature *518*, 317-330.

Schmidt, E.M., Zhang, J., Zhou, W., Chen, J., Mohlke, K.L., Chen, Y.E., and Willer, C.J. (2015). GREGOR: evaluating global enrichment of trait-associated variants in epigenomic features using a systematic, data-driven approach. Bioinformatics (Oxford, England) *31*, 2601-2606. Shaffer, J.R., Orlova, E., Lee, M.K., Leslie, E.J., Raffensperger, Z.D., Heike, C.L., Cunningham, M.L., Hecht, J.T., Kau, C.H., Nidey, N.L., *et al.* (2016). Genome-Wide Association Study Reveals Multiple Loci Influencing Normal Human Facial Morphology. PLoS genetics *12*, e1006149-1006121.

Shi, M., Murray, J.C., Marazita, M.L., Munger, R.G., Ruczinski, I., Hetmanski, J.B., Wu, T., Murray, T., Redett, R.J., Wilcox, A.J., *et al.* (2012). Genome wide study of maternal and parent-of-origin effects on the etiology of orofacial clefts. American journal of medical genetics Part A *158A*, 784-794.

Uslu, V.V., Petretich, M., Ruf, S., Langenfeld, K., Fonseca, N.A., Marioni, J.C., and Spitz, F. (2014). Long-range enhancers regulating Myc expression are required for normal facial morphogenesis. Nature genetics.

Visel, A., Minovitsky, S., Dubchak, I., and Pennacchio, L.A. (2007). VISTA Enhancer Browser--a database of tissue-specific human enhancers. Nucleic Acids Research *35*, D88-92.

Welter, D., MacArthur, J., Morales, J., Burdett, T., Hall, P., Junkins, H., Klemm, A., Flicek, P., Manolio, T., Hindorff, L., *et al.* (2014). The NHGRI GWAS Catalog, a curated resource of SNP-trait associations. Nucleic Acids Research *42*, D1001-1006.

Whyte, W.A., Orlando, D.A., Hnisz, D., Abraham, B.J., Lin, C.Y., Kagey, M.H., Rahl, P.B., Lee, T.I., and Young, R.A. (2013). Master transcription factors and mediator establish superenhancers at key cell identity genes. Cell *153*, 307-319.