1	Hnrnpul1 loss of function affects skeletal and limb development
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32 Abstract: (180 words)

- 33 Mutations in RNA binding proteins can lead to pleiotropic phenotypes including craniofacial, skeletal,
- 34 limb and neurological symptoms. Heterogeneous Nuclear Ribonucleoproteins (hnRNPs) are involved
- in nucleic acid binding, transcription and splicing through direct binding to DNA and RNA, or through
- interaction with other proteins in the spliceosome. Here, we show a developmental role for *hnrnpul1* in
- 37 zebrafish fin and craniofacial development, and in adult onset scoliosis. Furthermore, we demonstrate
- a role of *hnrnpul1* in alternative splicing regulation. In two siblings with congenital limb malformations,
- 39 whole exome sequencing detected a frameshift variant in *HNRNPUL1*; the developmental role of this
- 40 gene in humans has not been explored. Our data suggest an important developmental role of
- 41 hnRNPUL1 in both zebrafish and humans. Although there are differences in phenotypes between
- 42 species, our data suggests potential conservation of ancient regulatory circuits involving hnRNPUL1 in
- 43 these phylogenetically distant species.

44 Introduction

45 Mutations in proteins involved in alternative splicing (AS) lead to spliceosomopathies in humans. 46 Despite being expressed ubiquitously, mutations in core and alternative splicing factors can result in 47 tissue-restricted, cell-type specific phenotypes including craniofacial, limb, skeletal and neurological 48 syndromes (Lehalle et al., 2015). Tissue-specificity can occur because of the sensitivity of individual 49 tissues during embryonic development to AS, such as sensitivity of the neural crest in the case of craniofacial anomalies (Lehalle et al., 2015). AS is the process of producing multiple different mRNA 50 51 transcripts and protein isoforms through the differential selection of splice sites within a single premRNA molecule. AS of pre-mRNA is carried out by the spliceosome, which is a complex of small 52 nuclear RNAs and proteins. AS events mainly include exon skipping, intron retention and alternative 5' 53 54 or 3' splice sites. For example, mutations in TXNL4A (Wieczorek et al., 2014), EIF4A3 (Favaro et al., 55 2014), EFTUD2 (Lines et al., 2012), SF3B4 (Bernier et al., 2012) and SNRPB (Lynch et al., 2014) 56 cause human spliceosomopathies (Lehalle et al., 2015).

Members of the heterogeneous nuclear ribonucleoprotein (hnRNP) family are involved in nucleic acid 57 58 binding, splicing and transcription. They are present in the spliceosome and contribute directly and 59 indirectly to the processing of pre-mRNA into mature mRNA, with nearly all hnRNP proteins having RNA-binding motifs (Drevfuss et al., 1993; Geuens et al., 2016). Pathogenic variants associated with 60 61 human disease have been discovered in hnRNP family members HNRNPK (Au et al., 2015) and HNRNPU (Poot, 2019). In particular, the hnRNPU family often act as repressors of mRNA splicing 62 (Matlin et al., 2005). hnRNPU proteins are also involved in DNA repair (Hegde et al., 2012; Polo et al., 63 2012) and U2 snRNP maturation (Xiao et al., 2012). hnRNPUL1 (also known as E1B-AP5), is also a 64 65 transcriptional repressor (Kzhyshkowska et al., 2003). As little is known about hnRNPUL1 function in vivo, we studied its developmental role in the zebrafish model. Zebrafish is an ideal model for this 66 study due to conservation of developmental processes and genetic networks with human, coupled 67 with rapid development. 68

69 Zebrafish craniofacial tendons share patterning and developmental pathways with mammalian 70 tendons. Bone, cartilage and tendons of the face are derived from the neural crest. Developing 71 tendons require expression of scleraxis (scxa) for specification, followed by expression of 72 differentiation markers tenomodulin (tnmd) and collagen (col1a) (Chen and Galloway, 2014). Initial 73 tendon specification is independent of interactions with cartilage or muscle. However, fish lacking the 74 myogenic regulators myod1 and myf5 fail to maintain scxa expression. Mutants that lack cartilage 75 (sox9a and sox9b) also show abnormal scxa expression. Thus signals produced by the developing 76 muscle and cartilage are required for correct patterning and maintenance of tendons (Chen and

Galloway, 2014). Zebrafish mutations leading to a disruption of craniofacial tendon differentiation have
been linked to jaw closure defects (Mcgurk et al., 2017).

Paired fins of teleosts (including zebrafish) are ancestral to limbs in tetrapods (including humans) as

they are derived from locomotive organs in common ancestral vertebrates (Shubin et al., 1997).

Specification of limb and fin bud tissue is marked by expression of *tbx5* as early as 14- 16 hours post

fertilisation (hpf) in the zebrafish (Gibert et al., 2006). Following specification, at approximately 23-26

83 hpf condensation of mesenchymal cells forms the fin bud. Similar to mammals, the fish fin develops an

84 apical ectodermal ridge (AER) as a signalling center driving mesenchymal cell proliferation and

growth. In fish, the AER transforms into the apical fold at approximately 36 hpf. The limb/fin bud

86 actively grows as mesenchymal cells organise and begin to differentiate into muscle masses around

46-48 hpf (Grandel and Schulte-Merker, 1998).

In this study, we model loss of function of zebrafish *hnrnpul1* to understand its developmental role. We identify a multi-tissue phenotype involving limb, craniofacial and skeletal abnormalities including idiopathic scoliosis. Through RNA sequencing and alternative splicing analysis we show that alterative splicing events are disrupted in zebrafish *hnrnpul1* mutants. We also identify a homozygous frameshift variant in Heterogeneous Nuclear Ribonucleoprotein U Like 1 (*HNRNPUL1*) gene in two siblings with craniofacial and limb anomalies underscoring the importance to better understand the role of this gene

94 across vertebrate development.

95

96 **Results**

97 Zebrafish hnrnpul1 and hnrnpul1/ loss of function mutations are homozygous viable

98 hnRNPUL1 has been studied in cell lines, however there are no data on its role at the organismal and 99 developmental level. Therefore, due to our interest in RNA binding proteins in human craniofacial 100 anomalies, we wanted to understand whether mutations in *hnrnpul1* in an animal model would result in 101 developmental anomalies. We use the zebrafish model because of ease of genetic analysis. Due to the genome duplication in the teleost lineage, there are two closely related HNRNPUL1 orthologues in 102 zebrafish, *hnrnpul1* and *hnrnpul1* and therefore we used a double knockout strategy. Human 103 104 HNRNPUL1 protein sequence shows 65% similarity with zebrafish Hnrnpul1 (chromosome 18) and 105 67% with Hnrnpul1I (chromosome 5) respectively, with the DNA binding (SAP) and protein-protein interaction (SPRY) domains showing higher conservation (76% and 77% similarity for Hnrnpul1 and 106 107 83% and 78% similarity for Hnrnpul1I in the SAP and SPRY domains; Fig. 1A). Two siblings with craniofacial and limb malformations (see results below) have a homozygous frameshift variant 108 109 (NM 007040.5:c.1673dup, p.(Glu560Argfs*17)); thus, we targeted CRISPR guides to make loss of

110 function alleles in zebrafish with mutations near the human mutation site. To ensure loss of function mutation, a homology-directed repair 'stop cassette' with stop codons in three reading frames was 111 included in the CRISPR-Cas9 injections. *hnrnpul1*^{Ca52} and *hnrnpul1*^{Ca53} and *hnrnpul1*^{Ca54} alleles were 112 113 isolated with mutations at homologous locations to the human mutation in the DNA (Fig. S1) and protein (Fig. 1B). *hnrnpul1*^{Ca52} has a 106-nucleotide insertion, resulting in a frame shift mutation and 114 premature stop codon (Fig. S1B). This is predicted to produce a nonsense protein mutation resulting 115 in truncation after 3 amino acids (Fig. 1B). hnrnpul1^{Ca53} has a 35-nucleotide insertion and hnrnpul1^{Ca54} 116 has a 63-nucleotide insertion (Fig. S1C, D). Both mutations result in a frame shift and premature stop 117 codon resulting in truncation after 6 amino acids for Ca53 and 11 amino acids for Ca54 (Fig. 1B). All 118 three alleles are predicted to result in truncated protein. No phenotypic differences in the Ca53 and 119 120 Ca54 hnrnpul1 alleles were noted.

We next determined the expression pattern of both *hnrnpul1* and *hnrnpul1* in embryos at 24 hpf. We 121 122 find that both transcripts are expressed ubiquitously (Fig. 1C,D), in line with previous reports of ubiquitous expression of hnrnpul1 from 1 cell to Pec fin stage (60 hpf; Thisse and Thisse, 2004). No 123 previous expression analysis is available for hnmpul11. hnmpul1 and hnmpul11 mutations result in 124 125 nonsense-mediated decay of the transcript as shown by whole mount in situ hybridisation (WISH) 126 against *hnrnpul1* and *hnrnpul1* in wild type, heterozygous and homozygous mutants (Fig. 1C,D), 127 suggesting both are null alleles. Analysis of the gross morphology of hnrnpul1 and hnrnpul1 double 128 homozygous mutants (hereafter hnrnpul1/11 mutants) showed low frequency developmental 129 abnormalities including edema and embryo curvature (Fig. S2), however viable and fertile adults were obtained for all allelic combinations including hnrnpul1/11 mutants. 130

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132 *hnrnpul1* mutation results in defects in fin growth but not fin specification

To understand whether *hnrnpul1* is involved in fin development, a common system affected by
disrupted AS, we first determined if there is normal specification of fins. We tested expression of the

135 limb specification markers *gli3*, *hand2* and *tbx5* using WISH in *hnrnpul1/11* mutants and found this is

136 unchanged at 24-48 hpf (Fig. 2A-C'). We next analysed embryonic fin size by staining for *col1a1a*

- 137 which localises to the apical fold of the developing fin bud at 48 hpf (Fig. 2D). *hnrnpul1/11* mutants
- have significantly smaller fin bud area $(1.0 \pm 0.4 \text{ mm}^2)$ compared to wild types $(1.3 \pm 0.4 \text{ mm}^2)$,
- 139 p=<0.0001; Fig. 2E). To ensure that decreased fin size was not due to defective overall growth we
- 140 quantified eye size, but find no significant difference between *hnrnpul1/11* mutants and wild types,
- suggesting that the growth defect, at this stage, is specific to the fin (Fig. 2F).

142 We next tested whether fin growth is deficient at larval stages. We used Alcian blue staining at 16 dpf.

As larval fish differ in growth rates, we measured the fin length as a proportion of standard length (tip

to tail) for each animal. We find that *hnrnpul1/11* mutants have significantly shorter fins compared to

wild type with 12.8 \pm 0.7% of body length in wild type animals and 12.1 \pm 0.7% of body length in

146 *hnrnpul1/11* mutant animals (p=0.0008; Fig. 2G,H). Taken together, our data suggest that *hnrnpul1*

and *hnrnpul1l* play a role in regulating fin growth in embryos and larvae, but not in initial fin bud cellspecification.

149

150 *hnrnpul1* mutation results in defects in craniofacial tendon development

One of the most obvious phenotypes visible in *hnrnpul1/11* mutant larvae is a gaping jaw at 8 dpf as compared wild types (Fig. 3A). We tested whether the gaping jaw is due to mispatterning of pharyngeal skeletal elements. Alcian blue staining showed cartilage is correctly patterned, but the lower jaw is ventrally displaced. leading to a significantly increased incidence of open jaw (wild type =

10%, hnrnpul1^{+/+}; hnrnpul1^{f/-} = 29%, hnrnpul1^{+/-}; hnrnpul1^{f/-} = 38%, hnrnpul1^{-/-}; hnrnpul1^{f/-} = 39%; Fig.
3B-D).

As bone and cartilage development appeared normal, we analysed the development of tendons in the 157 embryonic craniofacial region. Expression of scleraxis (scxa), a tendon specific marker, was used to 158 159 visualise craniofacial tendons at 72 hpf. We find that hnrnpul1/11 mutants have a significantly shorter Sternohyoideus tendon (wild type = $0.66 \pm 0.1 \ \mu m$, hnrnpul1/1I = $0.47 \pm 0.1 \ \mu m$, p=<0.0001; Fig. 3E, 160 161 F). The distance between the most anterior points of the Sternohyoideus tendons is also significantly narrower in hnrnpul1/1 mutants compared to wild types (wild type = $0.35 \pm 0.09 \,\mu\text{m}$, hnrnpul1/1 = 162 163 $0.30 \pm 0.05 \mu m$, p=0.007; Fig. 3G). However, we find no difference in other craniofacial tendons, the Adductor Mandibulae or Palatoguadrate tendons (Fig. S3). Craniofacial tendons develop from neural 164 crest cell (NCC) populations therefore we analysed the expression of the NCC markers foxd3 and 165 sox10. Expression of these specification markers at 12 hpf was normal in hnrnpul1/11 mutants (Fig. 166 167 S5). Thus, the specification of craniofacial bone and cartilage appears normal, but shortening of the 168 Sternohyoideus tendon may contribute to the gaping jaw phenotype by not allowing the mandible to 169 close properly.

170

171 *hnrnpul1* mutation results in increased incidence of scoliosis in adult zebrafish

172 We noted that young adult *hnrnpul1/11* mutants show scoliosis at a high frequency. To determine

173 whether this is congenital or idiopathic scoliosis we tested when scoliosis is first visible. 16 dpf larvae

174 were stained with Alcian blue to visualise the maturing spinal column. Although hnrnpul1/11 mutant 175 larvae are significantly smaller (Fig. S4) the development of the spinal column and vertebral structure 176 is normal and comparable to wild type fish at this stage (Fig. 4A). We next compared the incidence of 177 scoliosis in mutants and wild types at 16 weeks, when they are sexually differentiated young adults. We carefully controlled housing density, a factor that influences growth rates. Fish were housed at a 178 density of 10 per 3L tank from 4.5 weeks until 16 weeks of age, at which point they were sacrificed 179 180 and processed for alizarin red staining to visualise bone. The relative severity of spinal curvature were scored as none, mild, moderate, or severe scoliosis (Fig. 4B). The incidence of scoliosis is significantly 181 182 higher in *hnrnpul1/11* mutants (76%) compared to wild types (28%, p=<0.0001; Fig. 4C). There is no difference in the incidence of mild or moderate scoliosis. However, the most severe phenotype only 183 184 occurs in hnrnpul1/11 mutants.

185 Overall, our data suggest that mutation of *hnrnpul1* and *hnrnpul1I* contributes to idiopathic scoliosis 186 that develops in the larval period, and is visible in the young adult.

187

188 *hnrnpul1/11* mutation leads to disruptions in transcription and alternative splicing

The hnRNP family regulates mRNA splicing, but knowledge of the specificity and targets of *hnrnpul1* is 189 limited. Thus, we performed paired-end RNA sequencing (RNAseq) to identify differentially spliced 190 191 events between wild type and *hnrnpul1/11* mutant embryos at 3 dpf. This developmental stage was 192 chosen as a stage when fins and tendons are actively differentiating. We used VAST-TOOLS to 193 identify splice junctions and characterise splicing events (Irimia et al., 2014). We observed 76 alternative splicing (AS) events: 25 skipped exons, 33 retained introns, 7 alternative 3' splice site and 194 195 11 alternative 5' splice site changes (Fig. 5C,E. Table S1). The most differentially expressed exon in 196 our AS analysis is exon 13 of hnrnpul1I, as expected from its excision via our CRISPR-Cas9 197 mutagenesis (Fig 5A,B).

198 One of the goals of this analysis is to identify potential transcripts that might explain the phenotypes of 199 hnrnpul1/11 mutants. Of interest, basigin (bsg) shows a 33% reduction in exon 2 usage in hnrnpul1/11 200 mutants compared to wild type. F-box and leucine rich repeat protein 3 (fbxl3b) shows a 31% increase 201 in exon 4 usage in hnrnpul1/11 mutants compared to wild type, while telomeric repeat binding factor a (terfa) shows a 17% increase in exon 12 usage (Fig. 5D). Heat shock protein a 9 (hspa9) shows a 202 203 37% increase in retention of intron 3-4, while chromodomain helicase DNA binding protein 4a (chd4a) showes a 14% increase in retention of intron 30–31 in *hnrnpul1/11* mutants compared to wild type. 204 Pseudouridylate synthase 7 (pus7) shows a 24% reduction in the retention of intron 13 -14 in 205

206 *hnrnpul1/11* mutants compared to wild type (Fig. 5F).

207 Differential gene expression analysis using RPKM from VAST-TOOLS output, identified 311 genes 208 downregulated by at least -1 log₂ fold change and 116 genes upregulated by at least 1 log₂ fold 209 change (Fig. 5G. Table S2). Ingenuity pathway analysis (QIAGEN, Redwood City, CA) identified the 210 photoreceptor pathway as the top differentially expressed pathway, including the down regulation of pde6c, prph2a and arl3l2. We have not explored vision defects in our animals, as the patients we 211 identified showed no eye deficiencies. We note that glypican 6a (*gpc6a*) expression is lower in 212 hnrnpul1/11 mutants. Gpc6a is linked to omodysplasia in humans which includes shortening of 213 214 extremities. Also of note is the lower expression of growth differentiation factor 3 (gdf3) in hnrnpul1/11 215 mutants, an important growth factor in vertebral and skeletal development.

216

217 HNRNPUL1 as a candidate gene for human developmental anomalies

218 Whole exome sequencing was conducted on two similarly affected sisters with craniofacial and limb 219 abnormalities. These sisters were born to consanguineous first cousin parents of Arab descent. Given 220 the similarity between the two sisters and that there was no family history of craniofacial or limb 221 abnormalities, this suggested autosomal recessive or biallelic inheritance patterns. Our analysis identified the variant c.1673dup, p.(Glu560Argfs*17) in the gene HNRNPUL1. This gene has not been 222 previously associated with a known genetic condition. We did not detect any additional patients with 223 variants in this gene using web-based tools such as Matchmaker exchange (Buske et al., 2015) or 224 225 GeneMatcher, (https://www.genematcher.org/); (Sobreira et al., 2015); networks that facilitates the matching of phenotypes and genomics. 226

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The probands both presented at birth with multiple skeletal malformations following uncomplicated 228 229 pregnancies. The older sister was born to a 27-year-old G4P4 woman. Limb malformations were noted on a 27 week ultrasound. The child was born at 38 weeks gestation by spontaneous vaginal 230 delivery with a birth weight of 3.8 kg (75-90th percentile). Outside of limb malformations and 231 dysmorphic features, the child's neonatal examination and clinical course was unremarkable. She was 232 233 born with bilateral short humeri, right absent ulna with two fixed in extension digits of the right hand; 234 five rays present but with missing carpals, abnormal nails and dorsal creases on the left hand (Fig. 6A, 235 B). Her lower limbs had mid shaft femoral pseudoarthroses, fused tibia to the femoral condyles, 236 absent fibulas and abnormal toes (Fig. 6C, D). Her karyotype showed mosaic Turner syndrome, which is thought to be an incidental finding. Her course has been mostly uncomplicated except for orthopedic 237 238 issues and intelligence is in the normal range. She is minimally dysmorphic with hypertelorism, 239 upslanting palpebral fissures, prominent eves and evelashes and a high palate. 240

241 The younger sister was born at term to a 28-year-old G5P5 woman. Her birth weight was 4.03 kg (75-90th percentile) and a head circumference of 39.0 cm (+2.5 SD). She was stable as a neonate but 242 243 briefly admitted to NICU for assessment of her malformations. She had bilateral fibular agenesis, short 244 and bowed femurs and four metatarsals and tarsals bilaterally (Fig. 6F, G, and H). Upper limb development was normal (Fig. 6I) with the exception of the hands showing despite the presence of 245 246 five rays, stiff index finger dorsal creases and abnormal nails progressively more severe from ray 5 to 247 1. Her echocardiogram and abdominal ultrasounds were normal. She was felt to be minimally dysmorphic with a prominent forehead, relative macrocephaly, bitemporal narrowing, hypertelorism 248 with prominent eyes and heavy eyelashes. Her palate was high but there was no clefting. Her clinical 249 course has been mostly unremarkable outside of orthopedic complications and her intelligence is felt 250 to be within the normal range. In addition to their skeletal malformations, both had bicornuate uterus, 251 hirsutism, the first sister showed bilateral hydronephrosis, and the second sister showed Dandy 252 253 Walker malformation. Clinically the girls share some features with Al-Awadi/Raas-

Rothschild/Furhmann syndrome (OMIM 276820), which arises due to homozygous variants in *WNT7A* however *WNT7A* sequencing was negative.

256 Whole exome sequence analysis was undertaken as part of the Finding of Rare Disease Genes

257 (FORGE) Canada consortium in both affected siblings. Variants were filtered based on rarity in the

FORGE internal variant database and ExAC, along with predicted effects on protein function (Beaulieu

et al., 2014). Given the family structure, a recessive mode of inheritance was favoured, although

260 heterozygous variants present in both siblings were assessed since germline mosaicism could not be

excluded. Rare homozygous variants were identified in both affected siblings in the *PODXL*, *CFTR*,
 HNRNPUL1, and *PRKD2* genes. The rare homozygous variant in the Podocalyxin-like gene

262 HNRNPUL1, and PRKD2 genes. The rare homozygous variant in the Podocalyxin-like gene

263 (Chr7(GRCh37):g.131195974C>T, NM_001018111.2(PODXL):c.319G>A, p.(Val107Met)) was not

considered to be a likely causative candidate due to the fact that a biallelic loss of function variant in

this gene was reported in an autosomal recessive juvenile Parkinson family (Sudhaman et al., 2016)

and homozygous knockout in mouse results in perinatal lethality due to severe defects in kidney

267 development and omphalocele. Limb development is normal in these embryos (Doyonnas et al.,

268 2001). Likewise, the rare homozygous variant in protein kinase D2 gene

269 (Chr19(GRCh37):g.47204104G>A, NM_016457.4(PRKD2):c.1073C>T, p.(Ala358Val)) was not

270 considered to be candidate as *in silico* analysis (SIFT, PolyPhen2, alignGVGD, MutationTaster) did

not predict any damaging effect on the protein and either heterozygous or homozygous loss of PRKD2

in Rhesus monkey and mouse, respectively, leads to hyperinsulinemia and insulin resistance without

any reported congenital limb anomalies (Xiao et al., 2018).

274 The third homozygous variant was in the cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator gene 275 (Chr7(GRCh37):g.117232214A>T, NM_000492.3(CFTR):c.1993A>T, p.(Thr665Ser)). This variant 276 has been reported as disease-associated in the literature where is has been found in the 277 heterozygous state in two clinically affected individuals of Tunisian and Egyptian descent (Messaond 278 et al., 1996; Naguib et al., 2007). In vitro functional studies suggest potentially decreased chloride 279 currents (Vankeerberghen et al., 1998) and a splice enhancer effects leading to partial exclusion of 280 coding sequence (Aznarez et al., 2003). This finding was unexpected as neither affected individual presented with clinical features of cystic fibrosis, although this variant may be associated with a mild 281 282 presentation. Given the paucity of clinical information on the impact of this variant in the literature, it is 283 impossible to determine if homozygosity for this variant has any clinical impact. Nevertheless given the well studied nature of pathogenic variation in CFTR in humans, this gene is not a plausible candidate 284 285 for the striking developmental anomalies in these siblings.

286 Lastly, the rare homozygous variant in heterogeneous nuclear riboprotein U-like 1

287 (Chr19(GRCh37):g.41807595dup, NM 007040.5(HNRNPUL1):c.1673dup, p.(Glu560Argfs*17)) is 288 predicted to result in a frameshift and premature stop approximately two-thirds of the way through the 289 protein and may target the transcript for nonsense mediated decay. HNRNPUL1 is depleted for loss 290 of function variants in the general population. In the gnomAD database, HNRNPUL1 has a probability 291 of loss of function intolerance (pLI) of 1, suggesting that loss of function mutations in this gene may be 292 poorly tolerated in humans (Karczewski et al., 2019) and no individuals with homozygous loss of function variants are reported. Segregation of this variant by Sanger sequence analysis of both 293 294 affected individuals, both parents, and four unaffected siblings provided additional support to this 295 variant where both parents were heterozygous for the c.1673dup variant while none of the four 296 unaffected siblings were homozygous for this variant.

297

298 Discussion

Here we show that the phenotypes from loss of *hnrnpul1/11* are pleiotropic in zebrafish, and affect 299 300 multiple systems from craniofacial tendons to fin growth and skeletal morphology. We show that 301 hnrnpul1/11 controls splicing and expression of mRNAs in vivo. We demonstrate that hnrnpul1 and 302 hnrnpul1l are ubiquitously expressed in embryonic zebrafish, but produce phenotypes in a tissue-303 specific manner. Tissue specific phenotypes likely occur through varying composition of components 304 of the spliceosome within different tissues, and through varying target transcript expression in tissues 305 (reviewed in (Baralle and Giudice, 2017)). Improvements in sequencing technology have helped identify many disease-causing AS mutations, consequently our understanding of how global genome 306 307 mutations in splicing regulatory networks impact tissue-specific development and disease has also

expanded (Cieply and Carstens, 2015; Suzuki et al., 2019). We anticipate that each developmental
 phenotype we observe could be due to changes in multiple tissue-specific *hnrnpul1*, making

mechanistic analysis complex, but affirming the multi-system role of AS genes.

311

312 Involvement of Hnrnpul1 in fin growth

The roles of genes that initiate limb specification, such as retinoic acid, *tbx5*, and *fgf10* are conserved across vertebrates (Mercader, 2007). However, in zebrafish *hnrnupl1/11* mutants there is no change in expression or splicing of limb specification genes. Similarly, the siblings with the candidate variant have shortened limbs, rather than an absence of limbs. Our data suggest that the specification program is intact in zebrafish *hnrnpul1/11* mutants and human patients, however the growth program may be impaired.

319

320 Growth of the limb occurs via proliferation of limb mesenchyme, driven by Fgf signals from the Apical 321 Ectodermal Ridge (AER) in fish and tetrapods. Fgf10 induces Fgf8 via Wnt3 in chick, mouse and 322 zebrafish (Mercader, 2007; Yano and Tamura, 2013). Although both fish and other vertebrates rely on Fqf signalling, the expression pattern of specific Fqfs is slightly different (reviewed in (Yano and 323 Tamura, 2013)). We used RNA sequencing to identify transcripts and splice variants targeted by 324 325 hnrnpul1/11 that might affect limb growth, and identified some interesting candidates. We identified differential alternative splicing between hnrnpul1/11 mutant and wild type fish in basigin (bsg; also 326 327 known as CD147) exon 2. Bsg exon 2 encodes a 351 bp/ 117 amino acid immunoglobulin domain. 328 one of 3 lg domains present in this transmembrane glycoprotein. Exon 2 is also alternatively spliced in 329 human Bsg (Karczewski et al., 2019). The effect of loss of exon 2 and this Ig domain has not been 330 studied in any species. However Bsg/CD147 is stabilised by CBRN, a chaperone that can be bound by thalidomide, a known teratogen that reduces limb size (Eichner et al., 2016). Knockdown of 331 332 bsg/cd147 in zebrafish reduces pectoral fin size and phenocopies the teratogenic effects of thalidomide, suggesting that reduction in bsg expression impairs fin growth. Thalidomide is known to 333 334 have anti-proliferative effects, while bsg/CD147 promotes proliferation and invasiveness of cancer 335 cells in vitro (Yang et al., 2017). It will require additional studies to determine whether AS of bsg exon2 336 modulates its function in proliferation and growth of the fin/limb.

337

338 Hnrnpul1 roles in craniofacial tendon development

hnrnpul1/11 mutants have an unusual craniofacial phenotype of an open jaw. Despite apparent
 displacement of skeletal elements, we observed no defects in skeletal development. We thus

341 examined the development of tendons. Muscular and tendon development is coupled, as muscle 342 attachment is required for the normal maturation of craniofacial tendons (Chen and Galloway, 2014) 343 and mechanical load is needed for their differentiation (Brunt et al., 2017). Zebrafish embryos that are 344 anesthetised to prevent movement, show reduced jaw muscle activity and reduced tendon cell numbers in the jaw via reduced Wnt16 activity (Brunt et al., 2017). We observe a shorter 345 346 Sternohyoideus tendon, a tendon that connects the Sternohyoideus muscle to the hyohyal junction at 347 the second pharyngeal arch midline (Mcgurk et al., 2017). This region is referred to as the mandibulohyoid junction and is important for jaw opening. We find that tendons not associated with 348 349 this junction (Adductor Mandibulae or Palatoquadrate tendons) show no difference in size, consistent 350 with a specific defect in jaw tendon development at the midline as opposed to tendon development in general. A shorter Sternohyoideus tendon would hold the mandible open. Whether the Sternohyoideus 351 is shorter due to decreased tenocyte specification and/or proliferation, or due to decreased activity and 352 353 mechanical loading in *hnrnpul1/11* mutants is unknown.

354

355 **Development of Idiopathic scoliosis in** *hnrnpul1* **mutants**

The human patients are now entering adolescence and have not developed scoliosis, but we will 356 continue to monitor them given that we noted an unexpected scoliosis phenotype in early adult 357 358 hnrnpul1/11 zebrafish mutants. Scoliosis is defined as a three-dimensional rotation of the spine to an angle greater than 10°. Congenital scoliosis (CS) is present at birth arising due to a developmental 359 abnormality, while idiopathic scoliosis (IS) develops during childhood or adolescence with no known 360 361 cause (Goldstein and Waugh, 1973). The etiology of IS remains unknown but it does not appear to be due to vertebral abnormalities (Waichenberg et al., 2016). Neurological, muscular, growth and even 362 363 hormonal abnormalities may be associated with IS (reviewed in (Latalski et al., 2017)), however, no conclusive cause has been established. The fact that concordance is much higher in monozygotic 364 twins than dizygotic twins does suggest a genetic link (Kesling and Reinker, 1997). Human IS has 365 been difficult to study in mammalian models because common models such as mouse are 366 367 guadrupeds and show a difference in spine structure and gravitational load (Ouellet and Odent, 2013). 368 The zebrafish has recently emerged as an excellent model for IS, due to a similar cranial to caudal 369 spinal load and the ease of genetic manipulation, which makes them susceptible to late onset spinal 370 curvatures (Gorman and Breden, 2009). Therefore, we searched for a link between Hnrnpul1 proteins 371 and known genes leading to scoliosis in zebrafish. Zebrafish mutants in *ptk7*, a regulator of Wnt 372 signalling required in ciliated lineages for cilia motility, show late onset scoliosis. Defective cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) flow as a result of *ptk7* mutation leads to scoliosis, potentially by inducing 373 374 neuroinflammation (Grimes et al., 2016; Hayes et al., 2014; Van Gennip et al., 2018). CSF circulation

375 is also important for circulation of neurotensin neuropeptides (Zhang et al., 2018) and 376 mechanosensation by Pkd2l1 (Sternberg et al., 2018) and mutants in these genes develop IS. Thus, 377 disruption in CSF circulation leads to multiple downstream consequences that can result in the failure 378 of spine straightening. While we did not find changes in expression or splicing of ptk7, urps or pkd211 using whole embryo RNA sequencing, it is possible that signal from tissue specific differences may 379 380 have masked by using bulk sequencing of whole embryo tissue. However, we do find decreased expression of gdf3 in hnrnpul1/11 mutants. Mutations in human GDF3 cause skeletal abnormalities 381 including vertebral fusion and in some patients, mild scoliosis (Ye et al., 2009). Additionally, as 382 383 idiopathic scoliosis is late-developing, the RNAseq we undertook at 3 dpf may have been too early to 384 detect changes relevant to motile cilia and CSF circulation. We did however find a decrease in 385 expression of arl3l2. ARL3 proteins are present in the cilia and mutations lead to Joubert syndrome in 386 humans (Alkanderi et al., 2018; Powell et al., 2019). Whether arl3/2 plays a role in cilia activity in the

- zebrafish is currently unknown but may provide a mechanistic link between *hnrnpul1/11* and scoliosis.
- 388

389 Alternative splicing changes after loss of Hnrnpul1/11

Hnrnpul1 has been implicated, but never demonstrated, to be a protein involved in alternative splicing.
We provide the first evidence for its role in AS in zebrafish by demonstrating alternative exon usage,
intron retention, and alternative 3' and 5' splice sites in *hnrnpul1/1I* mutants.

Interestingly, we show that *hnrnpul1/1I* mutants are smaller at larval stages. Some of the genes we found with alternative splicing changes in zebrafish have been associated with short stature in humans. For instance human *PUS7* (de Brouwer et al., 2018), *CHD4A* (Weiss et al., 2016), and *FBXL3* are associated with short stature in humans, and are orthologs of *pus7*, *chd4a* and *fbxl3a* identified in our study (Ansar et al., 2019). The role of *hnrnpul1* in AS of *pus7* and *fbxl3a* should be investigated as possible causes of defective growth.

A large scale zebrafish mutagenesis screen identified *telemetric repeat factor a* (*terfa*) mutants as having a protruding jaw phenotype (Golling et al., 2002). Interestingly, *terfa* has altered AS in *hnrnpul1/11* mutants. While the function of *terfa* in normal jaw development is not understood, it is possible that disrupted splicing of this gene could be contributing to the phenotype in *hnrnpul1/11* mutants.

Identification of altered AS of *chd4a* in *hnrnpul1/1l* mutants is particularly interesting. CHD4, a
chromodomain helicase DNA Binding protein also participates in DNA repair (Pan et al., 2012). Loss
of CHD4 impairs recruitment of BRCA1 to sites of DNA damage. This is intriguing because a second
known role for human HNRNPUL1 is directly in DNA repair. HNRNPUL1 is recruited by the MRN

408 complex to sites of DNA damage to promote DNA resection (Polo et al., 2012), a role separate from its 409 AS and RNA activity that we have examined here. Control of DNA repair directly at the double strand

410 break site as well as through AS of essential DNA repair regulators such as CHD4 highlights a

411 potential dual role for HNRNPUL1 in DNA repair. Whether DNA repair defects contribute to any of the

- 412 phenotypes in embryonic or adult zebrafish *hnrnpul1/11* mutants could be investigated going forward.
- 413

414 Relationship of the zebrafish *hnrnpul1/11* mutants to human variants in *HNRNPUL1*

415 We generated a zebrafish model for loss of *hnrnpul1/11* genes prompted by the identification of two 416 human siblings with a homozygous *HNRNPUL1* frameshift variant and skeletal and limb anomalies. 417 As no animal loss of function model had been previously generated, our hnrnpul1/11 zebrafish mutants 418 were used to test whether *hnrnpul1* mutants had disruptions in alternative splicing and conservation of 419 phenotypic traits in limb and craniofacial development compared with the human patients with a 420 variant in the orthologous gene. Our data suggests that *hnrnpul1* is a ubiquitously expressed gene that 421 shows a remarkable conservation in function in zebrafish and humans. Despite tissue-specific 422 differences, this suggests there are deep similarities in the regulatory circuits in which hnRNPUL1 is 423 involved. Additional mechanistic experiments are needed to fully understand whether the patients' HNRNPUL1 variant is the cause of their disease, as our analysis is correlative. The patients have 424 variable loss and shortening of bones with some limbs unaffected and others severely affected. 425 426 Overall, both parents show shortening of elements of the limb zeugopod (humerus and fibula) and variable agenesis of elements in the stylopod (ulna and tibia). The fish does not have correlates of 427 428 these bones, however mesenchymal outgrowth that forms the fins and limbs (including bones) occurs via a homologous process. 429

430 Interestingly, the three strongest phenotypes in the zebrafish mutants (fin defects, craniofacial tendon 431 development and scoliosis) all have links to Wnt signalling. The patients appear to have a very similar phenotype to Fuhrmann or Al-Awadi/Raas-Rothschild/Schinzel phocomelia syndromes, both caused 432 433 by loss of WNT7A (Woods et al., 2006). Furthermore, pathogenic variants in WNT5A in humans lead 434 to autosomal dominant Robinow syndrome, and mutations in its receptor ROR2 lead to recessive 435 Robinow syndrome in humans (Person et al., 2010; Van Bokhoven et al., 2000). Robinow syndrome is 436 characterised by craniofacial defects, short stature and vertebral segmentation defects. Although we have not detected members of the canonical Wnt pathway undergoing AS in *hnrnpul1* mutants, the 437 438 phenotypes that we observe are very consistent with disruption of Wnt signalling. It is possible that 439 What is regulated secondarily through other *hnrnpul1* targets that are alternatively spliced, potentially 440 including cilia genes such as arl3/2. Thus, even though the link is between hnrnpul1 and regulation of

- 441 developmental processes also regulated by Wnt signaling is still unknown, the phenotypic similarities
- and affected developmental structures suggest similar underlying mechanisms should be explored.

443

444

446 Materials and Methods

447 Animal and patient data

- 448 All Zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) strains were maintained and raised under established protocols
- 449 (Westerfield, 2000) and all animal procedures were approved by the University of Calgary Animal
- 450 Care Committee (protocol AC17-0189). Zebrafish embryos were collected and incubated at 28.5°C in
- 451 E3 medium (5 mM NaCl, 170 μM KCl, 330 μM CaCl₂, 300 μM MgSO₄, 223μM Methylene blue) and
- 452 staged in hours post fertilisation (hpf) or days post fertilisation (dpf). When required endogenous
- pigmentation was inhibited from 24 hpf by addition of 0.003% 1-phenyl-2-thiourea (PTU, Sigma
- 454 Aldrich) in E3 medium.
- This study was part of the Finding of Rare Disease Genes in Canada (FORGE Canada) consortium and approved by the University of Calgary Conjoint Health Research Ethics Board (REB# 23927).
- 457 DNA was extracted from all family members from whole blood using Puregene chemistry (Qiagen).
- 458 Exome capture was undertaken in both affected individuals using the SureSelect 50 Mb All Exon Kit
- 459 v3 (Agilent) followed by sequencing with a HiSeq2000 (Illumina). Variant calling and annotation were
- as described in Lynch et al. (2014). Confirmation and segregation of the *HNRNPUL1* c.1406dup
- variant was performed by PCR amplification (HotStar Taq Plus, Qiagen, Toronto, ON) from genomic
- 462 DNA and Sanger sequencing with the ABI BigDye Terminator Cycle Sequencing Kit v1.1 (Life
- 463 Technologies, Burlington, ON) on a 3130xl genetic analyzer (Life Technologies). Sequence
- subtraction and analysis was performed using Mutation Surveyor software (SoftGenetics, State
- 465 College, PA).

466 **Generation of** *hnrnpul1* **and** *hnrnpul11* **mutant Zebrafish**

467 CRISPR mutations were created in both the *hnrnpul1* and *hnrnpul1I* genes by injection of guide RNAs 468 at the single cell stage in conjunction with Cas9 mRNA and a homology-directed repair STOP cassette 469 sequence oligonucleotide (Table S3). Guide RNAs were designed to target a location close to the 470 human mutation. Founders were identified by genomic PCR analysis using primers in Table S3. DNA 471 from F1 heterozygotes was cloned into pCR[™]Blunt II-TOPO® vector (Thermofisher) and sequenced. 472 Mutants are genotyped by PCR using primers described in Table S3, detailed protocol in

- 473 Supplementary methods.
- 474

475 Whole mount in situ hybridisation (WISH)

Embryos were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde in PBS with 0.1% Tween-20 (PFA) at 4°C overnight and stored in 100% methanol at -20°C until required. All whole-mount *in situ* hybridisation was carried out

- 478 according to standard protocols (Lauter et al., 2011). Antisense probes for *hnrnpul1*, *hnrnpul1*, *scxa*,
- 479 *hand2, tbx5, foxd3* and *sox10* were produced by in vitro transcription using T7 polymerase (Roche), in
- the presence of digoxigenin-11-UTP (Sigma), from PCR fragments amplified from embryonic zebrafish
- 481 cDNA (Table S3). Antisense probes for *gli3* and *col1a1a* were a gift from Peng Huang and produced
 482 from plasmid clones.
- 483

484 Alcian blue and Alizarin red staining

Alcian blue staining of 16 dpf zebrafish was carried out as previously described (Walker and Kimmel,
2007). In brief fish were fixed in 4% PFA overnight at 4°C and stained in 0.04% Alcian blue in 100 mM
Tris-HCl/ 10 mM MgCl₂. Following staining, fish were washed in decreasing concentration of
Ethanol/100 mM Tris-HCl to remove excess stain. Fish were bleached in 3% H₂0₂/ 0.5% KOH until
pigment was lost. Fish were then washed in increasing concentrations of glycerol in 1% KOH until
100% glycerol. Fish were imaged in 100% glycerol.

Alizarin red staining of adult zebrafish was carried out as previously described (Connolly and Yelick, 2010). In brief, adult zebrafish were eviscerated and fixed for 48hrs in 4% PFA at 4°C. Zebrafish were bleached in 30% $H_2O_2/1\%$ KOH for 2 hours followed by 2 hours in 15% $H_2O_2/0.5\%$ KOH. Zebrafish were cleared in 1% trypsin/2% borax solution overnight and stained in 1mg/ml alizarin red in 1% KOH over night. Following staining fish were washed in increasing concentrations of glycerol in 1% KOH until 100% glycerol. Fish were imaged in 100% glycerol.

497

498 RNA sequencing

499 Zebrafish were genotyped from excised tail tissue, while matching head tissue from the same embryo was snap frozen at -80°C for RNA extraction after genotyping. Tails were exposed to 25mM NaOH at 500 501 55°C for 30 minutes then neutralised with 40mM Tris HCl pH5 to extract genomic DNA (Meeker et al., 2007) followed by PCR genotyping. 8 embryos of each genotype were pooled per replicate and total 502 RNA was purified using RNeasy Plus mini kit (Qiagen). Three replicates each of wild type sibling and 503 hnrnpul1/11 mutants were sequenced using paired end reads on Illumina NextSeg500 to a read depth 504 505 of ~100M reads. RNA libraries were prepared using NEBNext Ultra II Directional RNA Library Prep kit 506 (New England Biolabs). Alternative splicing analysis of RNA sequencing data was completed using the Vertebrate Alternative Splicing and Transcript Tools (VAST-TOOLS) v2.2.2, using genome release 507 508 danRer10 (Irimia et al., 2014). For all events, a minimum read coverage of 10 actual reads per sample 509 was required, as described (Irimia et al., 2014). PSI values for single replicates were quantified for all

- 510 types of alternative events, including single and complex exon skipping events (S, C1, C2, C3, ANN),
- 511 microexons (MIC), alternative 5'ss and 3'ss (Alt5, Alt3) and retained introns (IR-S, IR-C). A minimum
- 512 \triangle PSI of 10% was required to define differentially spliced events upon each knockdown, as well as a
- 513 minimum range of 5% between the PSI values of the two samples.
- 514 Differential gene expression analysis was performed using RPKM output from VAST-TOOL analysis.
- 515 For each gene p-values were determined by Student's T-test of RPKM values from 3 biological
- 516 replicates. Log₂ FC was calculated using the mean RPKM for each genotype. A log₂ FC of ≤-1 or ≥1
- and a p-value of ≤ 0.05 were required to define a gene as differentially expressed.
- 518

519 Imaging and analysis

- 520 All images were taken on a Zeiss Stemi SV 11 microscope with a Zeiss Axiocam HRc camera. Area
- and length measurements were completed in ImageJ using the line and measure tools or Zen Blue
- 522 (Zeiss) using the line tool.

523 Statistical analysis

- 524 All experiments were performed in at least 3 independent biological replicates. All quantitative data are
- 525 presented as mean ± standard deviation. Statistical analysis was performed using PRISM Graph Pad
- 526 Software. ns, P>0.05, *P≤0.05, **P≤0.01, ***P≤0.001, ****P≤0.0001.
- 527

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- 539

540 Competing interests:

541 No competing interests declared.

542

543 Data availability:

- 544 All RNASeq reads have been deposited with the National Centre for Biotechnology Information in the
- 545 Gene Expression Omnibus database and are available under the accession GSE144754.

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Figure 1 – Mutation of human HNRNPUL1 and zebrafish hnrnpul1 and hnrnpul1

A) Schematic showing domains of human HNRNPUL1 and zebrafish Hnrnpul1 and Hnrnpul1 proteins. The mutation location in human HNRNPUL1 and equivalent sequence in zebrafish is marked by *. B) Amino acid sequence of mutations, red boxes indicate nonsense sequence. C,D) whole mount *in situ* hybridisation (WISH) staining for *hnrnpul1^{Ca52}* (C) and *hnrnpul11^{Ca53}* (D), at 24 hpf reveals ubiquitous expression of both genes in wild types and nonsense mediated mRNA decay of mutant transcripts. Scale bars = 200 µm.



Figure 2 – Loss of *hnrnpul1* and *hnrnpul1l* does not affect fin specification, but leads to decreased fin growth in embryos and larvae

A-C') WISH staining for fin specification markers *tbx5* (A, A') at 24 hpf, *hand2* (B, B') and *gli3* (C, C') at 48 hpf in wild type (A-C) and *hnrnpul1*^{-/-};*hnrnpul1*^{-/-} double mutant (A'-C') embryos. D) WISH staining for *col1a1a* in wild type and *hnrnpul1*^{-/-};*hnrnpul1*^{-/-} double mutant embryos at 49

hpf. E and F) Quantification of fin area or eye size in wild type and $hnrnpul1^{-/-};hnrnpul1l^{-/-}$ double mutant *col1a1a* stained embryos at 49 hpf. Wild type n= 79, $hnrnpul1^{-/-};hnrnpul1l^{-/-}$ n= 68, from 2 trials. G) Alcian blue cartilage staining of wild type and $hnrnpul1^{-/-};hnrnpul1l^{-/-}$ double mutant fish at 16 dpf. H) Quantification of fin length at 16 dpf as a percentage of body length. Wild type n= 28, $hnrnpul1^{-/-};hnrnpul1l^{-/-}$ n= 27, from 2 trials. Scale bars = 100 µm. ***=P≤0.001, **** = P≤0.0001, ns = P>0.05, determined using Student's T-test.



Figure 3 – *hnrnpu1/11* double mutants show a craniofacial phenotype due to shortened Sternohyoideus tendon

A) Images of live 8 dpf wild type and $hnrnpul1^{-/-}$; $hnrnpul1^{1/-}$ double mutant larvae. B-C") Alcian blue staining at 8 dpf. Lateral (B, C), ventral (B', C') and dorsal (B", C") views shown. Example of

a normal jaw phenotype in *hnrnpul1*^{-/-} single mutant (B) and a gaping jaw phenotype in *hnrnpul1*^{-/-}; *hnrnpul1*^{-/-} double mutant (C). D) Quantification of the proportion of fish showing a gaping jaw phenotype. Wild type n=283, *hnrnpul1*^{-/-}; *hnRNPUL1*^{+/+} n=24, *hnrnpul1*^{-/-}; *hnrnpul1*^{+/-} n=64, *hnrnpul1*^{-/-}; *hnrnpul1*^{-/-} n=84 from 5 trials. * = P≤0.05, **** = P≤0.0001, determined by Fisher's test. E) WISH staining for *scleraxis (scxa)* in the Sternohyoideus tendon (arrow heads) in wild type and *hnrnpul1*^{-/-}; *hnrnpul1*^{-/-} double mutant embryos at 72 hpf. F, G) Quantification of the length of, and width between the Sternohyoideus tendons in wild type (n= 51) and *hnrnpul1*^{-/-}; *hnrnpul1*^{-/-} double mutant (n= 50) embryos, from 3 trials. Scale bars = 100 µm. * = P≤0.05, **** = P≤0.0001 determined by Student's T-test.



Figure 4 – Loss of hnrnpu11; hnrnpu11 leads to idiopathic scoliosis

A) Alcian blue cartilage staining of wild type and *hnrnpul1*^{-/-}; *hnrnpul1*^{-/-} double mutant fish at 16 dpf showing normal larval spinal development. B-B''') Alizarin red bone staining of wild type (B) and *hnrnpul1*^{-/-}; *hnrnpul1*^{-/-} double mutant (B'-B''') fish at 16 weeks of age. Example images of relative mild (B'), moderate (B'') and severe (B''') scoliosis. C) Quantification of the proportion of fish with none, mild, moderate or severe scoliosis. Wild type n=18, *hnrnpul1*^{-/-}; *hnrnpul1*^{1-/-} double mutant n=26, from 3 trials. ** = P≤0.01, **** = P≤0.0001 determined by Fisher's test. Scale bar = 500 µm (A) 1000 µm (B-B''').





A) Schematic showing the processing of *hnrnpul11* to form standard transcript and alternative splicing of exon 13 of the *hnrnpul11* gene as a result of CRISPR-Cas9 targeted mutatgenesis. B) Percent Spilced In (PSI) for exon 13 of *hnrnpul11* in wild type and *hnrnpul1^{-/-}*; *hnrnpul11^{-/-}* double

mutant embryos at 3 dpf. C) Change in PSI of all exon skipping events in *hnrnpul1*^{-/-}; *hnrnpul1*^{-/-}; *double* mutant embryos compared to wild type. D) Detailed view of PSI of genes associated with phenotypes, points represent each biological replicate. E) Change in Percent Intron Retention (PIR) of all intron retention events in *hnrnpul1*^{-/-}; *hnrnpul1*^{-/-} double mutant embryos compared to wild type. F) Detailed view of PIR of genes associate with phenotypes, points represent each biological replicate. Details of affected exon/intron in Table S1. G) Volcano plot showing all differentially expressed genes. Grey points = 1>Log2 FC>-1 or P>0.05, orange points = 1<Log2 FC<-1 and P≤0.05, green points = 1<Log2 FC<-1 and P≤0.01. H) qPCR validation of knock down of *hnrnpul1* and *hnrnpul11* expression in *hnrnpul1*^{-/-}; *hnrnpul11*^{-/-}





Younger sibling



Figure 6 - Radiographic features of affected siblings.

A-E) Xray images of older sibling. Right arm showing short humerus and absent ulna with 2 fixed in extension digits of the right hand (A). Left arm showing short humerus and normal upper arm (B). Right (C) and Left (D) legs showing mid shaft femoral pseudoarthroses, fused tibia to the femoral condyles, absent fibulas and abnormal toes. F-J) X-ray images of the younger sibling Right (F) and Left (G) legs showing bilateral fibular agenesis, short and bowed femurs and four metarsals and tarsals (H). Right arm (I) showing normal upper limb development.