Title: Chromatin regulatory dynamics of early human small intestinal development using a directed

differentiation model

Authors: Yu-Han Hung[1], Sha Huang[2,3], Michael K. Dame[3], Qianhui Yu[4], Qing Cissy Yu[5], Yi Arial

Zeng[5], J. Gray Camp[4, 6, 7], Jason R. Spence[2,3], Praveen Sethupathy[1]

[1]Department of Biomedical Sciences, College of Veterinary Medicine, Cornell University, Ithaca, NY,

USA

[2]Department of Cell and Developmental Biology, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI, USA

[3]Department of Internal Medicine, Division of Gastroenterology, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI,

USA

[4]Institute of Molecular and Clinical Ophthalmology, Basel, Switzerland

[5]State Key Laboratory of Cell Biology, CAS Center for Excellence in Molecular Cell Science, Shanghai

Institute of Biochemistry and Cell Biology, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Shanghai, 200031, China

[6]University of Basel, Basel, Switzerland

[7]Department of Ophthalmology, University of Basel, Switzerland

Correspondence: Praveen Sethupathy, Address: Department of Biomedical Sciences, Cornell University,

Ithaca, NY, USA. E-mail: pr46@cornell.edu, Phone: 607-253-4375

Abstract

Background: The establishment of the small intestinal (SI) lineage during human embryogenesis is critical for the proper development of neonatal gut functions, including nutrient absorption and immune defense. The chromatin dynamics and regulatory networks that drive human SI lineage formation and regional patterning are essentially unknown. To fill this knowledge void, we apply a cutting-edge genomic technology to a state-of-the-art human model of early SI development. Specifically, we leverage chromatin run-on sequencing (ChRO-seq) to define the landscape of active promoters, enhancers, super enhancers, and gene bodies across distinct stages of directed differentiation of human pluripotent stem cells (hPSCs) into SI spheroids with regional specification. **Results:** Through comprehensive ChRO-seq analysis we identify candidate stage-specific chromatin activity states, novel markers, and enhancer hotspots during the directed differentiation process. Moreover, we propose a detailed transcriptional network associated with SI lineage formation or initial regional patterning. Among our findings is a unique pattern of enhancer activity and transcription at HOX gene loci that is previously undescribed. Analysis of single cell RNA-seq data from human fetal SI at early developmental time points shed further light on the unique HOX gene temporal dynamics that underlies SI regional patterning. **Conclusions:** Overall, the results lead to a new proposed working model for the regulatory underpinnings of human SI lineage formation and regional patterning, thereby adding a novel dimension to the literature that has thus far relied almost exclusively on non-human models.

Key words: small intestine; human development; chromatin run-on sequencing (ChRO-seq); enhancer; transcriptional regulatory elements; directed differentiation; HOX genes

Introduction

The embryonic development of the small intestine (SI) is critical for a fetus to thrive and grow. The genetic programming of SI cell identity and regional specification during early development is fundamental to ensure proper SI morphogenesis and maturation with specialized functions, including nutrient digestion and absorption, energy balance, and pathogen defense. Several seminal studies have identified important molecular regulators associated with gut development [1-5], and more recent studies have leveraged advanced genomic technologies (e.g., single cell RNA-seq and bulk ATAC-seq) to provide insights at a more granular level into gut development [6-11]; however, this work relies almost exclusively on animal models. Studies of human SI development have been few [7, 12, 13], due in large part to limited access to primary human fetal tissues. Initial human SI lineage formation from the endodermal germ layer, which occurs much prior to the developmental time points at which human fetal tissues are generally available, is essentially uncharacterized. In this study, we sought to fill this important knowledge gap by profiling for the first time the chromatin regulatory dynamics and transcriptional programs that are associated with human SI lineage formation and initial regional patterning.

Robust temporal and spatial regulation of gene expression is fundamental to all biological processes including development [14, 15]. Transcriptional programs are precisely controlled by promoters and distal *cis*-regulatory regions known as enhancers. Enhancers harbor binding sites for transcription factors (TFs), activate long-range gene transcription, and are often cell-type specific [16, 17]. RNA polymerases are known to be recruited to active enhancers, generating divergent short transcripts (also known as enhancer RNA or eRNAs) [18, 19]. Recently, an approach called chromatin run-on sequencing (ChRO-seq) [20] was developed for genome-wide identification of promoters, active enhancers, and actively transcribed gene bodies in a single assay. ChRO-seq represents the newest generation of nascent RNA sequencing technologies, and overcomes several limitations of previous versions including global run-on sequencing

(GRO-seq) [21] and precision run-on sequencing (PRO-seq) [22]. ChRO-seq was very recently

successfully applied to archived solid tumor tissues [20, 23].

Advances in the directed differentiation of human pluripotent stem cells (hPSCs), including human

embryonic stem cells (hESCs), provide a powerful strategy for studying the early developmental events of

human SI that would be nearly impossible otherwise [24, 25]. The multi-step process of generating human

"gut-in-a-dish" from hPSCs recapitulates many aspects of *in vivo* SI development [26-28], including

induction of the endodermal fate, formation of SI lineage (SI spheroids) with regional identities, and

maturation into 3-dimensional human intestinal organoids (HIOs) that exhibit molecular, structural, and

functional features similar to those of the human fetal SI [13, 29]. While the protocol for directed

differentiation of hPSCs into SI spheroids has been established, the molecular mechanisms governing this

process remains minimally characterized. To reveal temporal dynamics of the chromatin state during early

human SI development and regional patterning, we performed ChRO-seq across the following stages: hPSC,

definitive endoderm (DE), duodenal (proximal SI) spheroid, and ileal (distal SI) spheroid. This study

provides the first-ever view of the changing chromatin regulatory landscape, defines stage-specific

enhancer hotspots, and identifies key TF networks that underlie the acquisition of SI identity and the

initiation of ileal regional patterning. Moreover, we uncover previously undescribed dynamics at HOX

gene loci associated with these events. Additional analysis of single cell RNA-seq (scRNA-seq) of human

fetal SI tissue underscores the unique HOX gene patterns, although these results are subject to the caveat

that these tissues reflect developmental time points much later than what we have the opportunity to analyze

in the directed differentiation model. Overall, this study offers an unprecedented resource that serves as a

springboard from which the research community can develop and test targeted hypotheses about key

regulatory hotspots and molecular drivers of early events of human SI development.

Results

ChRO-seq reveals temporal dynamics of nascent transcription at gene loci in the directed differentiation model of human developing SI

The directed differentiation of hPSCs (here we used H9 hESCs) into SI spheroids with regional specification was carried out as previously described [26, 28] **(Figure 1A)**. The patterned SI spheroids represent the primitive form of the SI comprised of mainly stem/progenitor cells [30], which can give rise to different mature epithelial cell types after prolonged organoid culture, or following transplantation into a murine host [31]. In this study, we included the four stages of this model: hESC, DE, duodenum (Duo) spheroid, and ileal (Ile) spheroid **(Figure 1A)**. We carried out ChRO-seq in order to characterize the dynamics of genome-wide nascent transcriptional activity toward the goal of defining the changing landscape of promoters, enhancers, and active gene bodies across the following sequential events: DE fate induction (from hESC to DE), SI lineage formation (from DE to Duo spheroid), and initial ileal regional patterning (from Duo to Ile spheroid) **(Figure 1A)**.

To assess nascent transcription of genes, we first analyzed ChRO-seq signal within the body of annotated genes. ChRO-seq data in the first 500 bp downstream of the transcription start site, or TSS, was excluded to remove signal contributed by RNA polymerase pausing. Hierarchical clustering analysis of the gene transcriptional profiles demonstrates clean stratification of the different stages **(Figure 1B)**. The signal at gene bodies encoding TFs that are well-established markers of particular stages (*SOX2*, *GATA6*, and *CDX2*) indicate the expected specificity **(Figure 1C-D)**. Also, the very minimal expression of the mesenchymal marker *FOXF1* **(Figure 1C-D),** as well as markers of other organ lineages **(Supplementary Figure 3B),** demonstrate that the Duo and Ile spheroids are indeed dominated by early-stage SI epithelial cells. Next we sought to identify from the ChRO-seq data differentially transcribed genes during each stage transition of this model ($\log_2$ fold change > 1, average TPM > 25, padj < 0.2, p < 0.05 by Wald test; DESeq2) **(Figure 1E)**. The analyses identified 1886 differentially transcribed genes (1328 up; 558 down) during DE formation (DE vs. hESC), 4024 differentially transcribed genes (2546 up; 1478 down) during SI lineage

formation (Duo spheroids vs. DE) and 362 differentially transcribed genes (182 up; 180 down) during ileal

patterning event (Ile vs. Duo spheroids) **(Figure 1E)**. We also performed RNA-seq on the same stages to

define differentially expressed genes and the Gene Ontology (GO) term enrichment analysis between

differentially transcribed and differentially expressed genes are in general agreement **(Supplementary**

Figure 2).

The same ChRO-seq data also affords the unique opportunity to evaluate promoter activity. Therefore, we

next developed an approach to analyze promoter dynamics across all of the stages **(Supplementary Figure**

1C). We identified 9550 genes, the majority of which are protein-coding genes (n = 7651)**,** which exhibit

significantly changing patterns of promoter activity across different stages (padj < 0.05 by likelihood ratio

test; DESeq2) **(Supplementary Figure 1C)**. Notably, a subset of these protein-coding genes has low

promoter activity in both hESC and DE but high promoter activity in both Duo and Ile spheroids (n=2992).

These include *BEX5* and *PROCR* **(Figure 1F)**, which were recently observed to have robust expression in

primary human fetal SI at early developmental time points [7, 12]. Analysis of the matched RNA-seq data,

which showed a dramatic rise in *BEX5* and *PROCR* mRNA levels during formation of SI spheroids from

DE **(Figure 1G)**, confirm the findings from the promoter analysis. We also validated the upregulation of

PROCR in SI spheroids by RT-qPCR with an independent batch of samples **(Figure 1H)** and demonstrated

by *in situ* hybridization staining a robust expression of *Procr* in the midgut region of *Procr*-mGFP-2A-

LacZ mice [32] at E9.5 and E10.5 (**Figure 2I**), indicating the conserved early presence of *PROCR* in the

developing SI. Overall, these findings demonstrate that hPSC-derived SI spheroids recapitulate features of

early developing SI and therefore represent the state-of-the-art model for further study of human SI lineage

formation.

Identification of transcriptional markers of specific stages in the directed differentiation model of

human developing SI

ChRO-seq signal at gene bodies (TPM > 50 in at least one stage) reveals the changing patterns of

transcription across stages **(Figure 2A)**. We sought to identify transcriptional markers of each stage in

this model. It is important to note that previously validated SI regional markers using human fetal

duodenum and ileum ranging 14-19 weeks of gestation [28] are not sufficient to distinguish Duo from Ile

spheroids, although they are sufficient to distinguish Duo from Ile HIOs (derived after culturing the

spheroids in Matrigel for 28 days) **(Supplementary Figure 3A)**. This likely reflects the fact that

spheroids, which are newly differentiated, represent the early gut lineage whereas the HIOs represent a

more mature state. Here, by leveraging ChRO-seq signal at gene bodies as well as RNA-seq data, we

were able to define gene sets that serve as early markers of SI lineage formation and ileal regional

patterning at the levels of both transcription and steady-state expression.

We first demonstrated that ChRO-seq and RNA-seq signal for genes are reasonably well-correlated

(Pearson correlation coefficient = 0.73) **(Figure 2B; Supplementary Figure 3B-E)**, indicating that nascent

transcription profiles globally reflect steady state expression profiles in this model system (albeit not

perfectly, as expected due to other layers of gene regulation such as those at the post-transcriptional level).

To identify genes that label a specific stage at the levels of both transcription and steady-state expression,

we developed a bioinformatic pipeline to integrate ChRO-seq and RNA-seq data (Methods) and performed

this integrative analysis with genes that are actively transcribed (TPM > 50) in at least one stage. We

identified genes that are significantly elevated according to both transcription and steady-state expression

in each stage relative to all other stages: hESC (n=239), DE (n=149), SI spheroid irrespective of regional

identity (n=88), Duo spheroid (n=9), and Ile spheroid (n=40) **(Figure 2C; Supplementary Data 2)**. The

stage-specific genes we identified include well-established markers such as *POU5F1* and *SOX2* for hESCs

(Figure 2D); *NODAL*, *SOX17*, *EOMES* and *LEFTY2* for DE **(Figure 2E)**; and *CDX2* for SI spheroids

irrespective of regional identity **(Figure 2F)**. We defined additional-stage-specific markers, many of which

are previously undescribed: *HES4*, *FOXA1*, *WFDC2*, and several *HOXB* family members for SI spheroids

irrespective of regional identity; *SP5* and *SALL1* for Duo spheroids; and *FJX1*, *IGF2*, as well as several

HOXA/C/D members for Ile spheroids **(Figure 2F)**. We also identified several long, non-coding RNA

(lncRNA) and anti-sense transcript markers: *LINC00543* for SI spheroids irrespective of regional identity,

and *EVX1-AS* for Ile spheroids **(Figure 2C-F)**. Notably, while many genes were defined as markers of SI

spheroids irrespective of regional identity, the analysis identified much fewer genes as Duo-specific

markers compared than Ile-specific markers **(Figure 2C)**, which may suggest that Ile regional specification

is mainly driven by gain of additional driver genes rather than loss of genes contributing to Duo regional

identity.

Transcriptional regulatory element profiles reveal notable re-wiring of chromatin activity during

directed differentiation

Active transcriptional regulatory elements (TREs), including promoters and enhancers, are identified in

ChRO-seq data by the hallmark feature of short bi-directional transcription **(Figure 3A)**. To identify active

TREs across the entire genome, we employed dREG [33], which was developed specifically for this purpose.

Using this tool, we identified a total of 125,863 active TREs across all four stages included in this study

(Figure 3B). The length distribution of these active TREs is consistent with what has been reported

previously [34] and the vast majority of the active TREs, as expected, are located in intergenic regions,

introns, and annotated TSSs **(Figure 3C-D)**. To specifically evaluate whether the TRE landscape of SI

spheroids is more similar to developing as opposed to mature SI in humans, we leveraged data on DNase-

accessible regions in both fetal and adult human SI available from the Roadmap Epigenomics Project. We

first defined DNase-accessible regions unique to fetal or adult tissue (Methods) and then intersected those

with active TREs present in Duo and/or Ile spheroids. We found that 12,541 out of 37, 892 (~33%) open

chromatin loci specific to fetal human SI overlap with TREs present in Duo and/or Ile spheroids, whereas

only 7,504 out of 45,242 (~16%) open chromatin loci specific to adult human SI overlap with TREs present

in Duo and/or Ile spheroids. To provide a specific example of a TRE defined in this model that captures

an important regulatory region associated with human fetal SI, we turned to the very recently identified

intestinal critical region (ICR). The ICR represents an important regulatory element of the new gene

PERCC1, which exhibits transient expression in the SI during development and has been linked to

congenital diarrheal disorders in humans [35]. We identified a TRE that is highly overlapping with the ICR

and active only in SI spheroids, especially in Duo spheroids **(Figure 3F-G)**. Taken together, these

observations demonstrate that TREs in hPSC-derived SI spheroids are able to capture important features of

gene regulatory landscapes that are associated with the developing human SI.

We next categorized the identified active TREs into 49,855 proximal and 76,008 distal TREs, which from

here on in we refer to as promoters and enhancers, respectively **(Figure 3A)**. Unsupervised hierarchical

clustering analyses reveal that enhancer profiles stratify different stages more accurately and clearly than

promoters **(Figure 3H-I)**, consistent with the notion that enhancer signature is the most cell-type specific

[14, 16]. To further elucidate the dynamics of active TRE profiles across the directed differentiation process,

we identified active TREs that are unchanged, gained (enhanced), or lost (suppressed) during the transition

to DE **(Figure 3J-K)**, SI lineage formation **(Figure 3L-M),** and ileal patterning **(Figure 3N-O)** (log2FC >

2.5, padj < 0.05 by Wald test; DESeq2). We found that a much greater proportion of enhancers, relative to

promoters, exhibit significantly altered levels of activity (either gain or loss) across all stage transitions. In

contrast, enhancers and promoters were roughly equally represented among those TREs that were

unchanged in activity across stage transitions **(Figure 3K, M, O)**. This finding underscores the importance

of enhancer dynamics during SI fate acquisition.

Identification of genes associated with high a density of nearby enhancers that emerge during SI

lineage formation or ileal patterning

Next we developed an analysis pipeline to further investigate the enhancers and associated genes that

emerge during different stages of the directed differentiation **(Figure 4A)**. We focused on 'Duo-specific

enhancers' and 'Ile-specific enhancers', which are the enhancers that gain activity during Duo and Ile

spheroid formation, respectively (**Figure 3M, O**). We then determined the density of stage-specific

enhancers for every actively transcribed gene (TPM > 50 in the stage of interest) by counting stage-specific

enhancers within a 200 kb window centered on the TSS **(Figure 4A)**. The genes that are associated with

the stage-specific enhancers and also have significant activation in both ChRO-seq and RNA-seq are

eventually defined as stage-specific enhancer linked genes **(Figure 4A)**.

As defined in **Figure 3**, we identified a total of 2,787 Duo-specific and 328 Ile-specific enhancers **(Figure**

4B-C). We confirmed that genes associated with a greater number of Duo-specific enhancers also exhibit

greater increases in transcription in Duo spheroids relative to DE **(Figure 4D-E)**. Similarly, genes

associated with a greater number of Ile-specific enhancers also exhibit greater increases in transcription in

Ile relative to Duo spheroids **(Figure 4I-J)**. The results of similar analyses focused on hESC and DE are

shown in **Supplementary Figure 4**. These observations support the model in which the level of

transcriptional activation during each stage transition is strongly associated with the total number of

emerging TREs around TSSs.

Regarding the transition from DE to Duo spheroids, we identified 117 genes that are associated with at least

one Duo-specific enhancer and are significantly increased in both transcription (ChRO-seq) and steady-

state expression (RNA-seq) **(Figure 4F)**. Among these, as expected, *CDX2* is one of the top genes ranked

by the density of Duo-specific enhancers **(Figure 4G)**. Notably, even more highly ranked are the HOXB

family members **(Figure 4H)**. Regarding ileal regional patterning, we identified 35 genes that are

associated with at least one Ile-specific enhancer and are significantly increased in both transcription and

steady state-expression in Ile relevant to Duo spheroids **(Figure 4K)**. Among these, the genes associated

with the greatest number of Ile-specific enhancers include members of the *HOXA/C/D* clusters, *FJX1*

CSRNP1, and *HOTTIP* **(Figure 4L-M)**, several of which were also identified as Ile spheroid-specific

marker genes **(Figure 2G)**. These analyses together reveal previously undescribed temporal dynamics of

the HOX cluster genes during the events of SI lineage formation followed by ileal regional patterning: first,

the HOXB cluster is activated during Duo spheroid formation (likely by nearby Duo-specific enhancers),

then subsequently the other three HOX clusters are activated during ileal patterning (likely by nearby Ile-

specific enhancers) **(Figure 4H, M)**.

Identification of genes associated with enhancer 'hotspots' that emerge SI lineage formation or ileal

patterning

It has been shown in previous studies that dense clusters of highly active enhancers (which we refer to as

'hotspots') occur nearby to genes that are especially critical for defining cell identity and status [36-38].

We sought to define for the first time the changing landscape of enhancer hotspots in this human model of

SI development. To accomplish this, we adapted a previously described methodology [36, 37], which

requires ChIP-seq based datasets, to work with ChRO-seq data instead **(Figure 5A)**. By implementing this

analysis pipeline with the Duo- and Ile-specific enhancers (defined in **Figure 4B** and **C** respectively), we

were able to identify enhancer hotspots formed during SI lineage formation and ileal patterning,

respectively.

To identify enhancer hotspots and the associated candidate genes that may be critical for SI lineage

formation, we first clustered Duo-specific enhancers into 'stitched enhancers' **(Supplementary Data 3)**.

Among the 2389 stitched enhancers, we identified 145 that exhibit strong enough transcriptional activity to

be designated as Duo-specific 'enhancer hotspots' **(Figure 5B)**. We assigned each of the Duo-specific

stitched enhancers (including non-hotspots and hotspots) to its nearest active gene (TPM > 50 in ChRO-

seq) within a 100 kb window on either end of the boundaries of the stitched enhancer. We found that the

overall increase in gene body transcription is significantly greater for the set of genes associated with Duo-

specific enhancer hotspots compared to those associated with stitched enhancers that are not hotspots

(Figure 5C). This finding is consistent with the notion that hotspots exert particularly strong effects on

transcription. Among the 73 genes nearest to Duo-specific enhancer hotspots, 25 exhibit highly significant

increases in both transcription (ChRO-seq) and steady state expression (RNA-seq) in Duo spheroids relative

to DE **(Figure 5D-E)**. Many of these were defined earlier as SI or Duo-specific markers (e.g., *CDX2*,

FOXA1, *HOXB* cluster, *SALL1* and *LINC00543*) **(Figure 2)**.

We next performed a similar analysis to identify enhancer hotspots and nearby genes associated with ileal

regional specification. Among 305 stitched enhancers formed by Ile-specific enhancers (relative to Duo

spheroids) **(Supplementary Data 3)**, we defined 29 Ile-specific enhancer hotspots **(Figure 5F)**. We

assigned each of the Ile-specific stitched enhancers (including non-hotspots and hotspots) to its nearest

active gene (TPM > 50 in ChRO-seq) within a 100 kb window on either end of the boundaries of the stitched

enhancer. Similar to the observation made for the transition from DE to Duo spheroids, the genes nearest

to Ile-specific enhancer hotspots exhibit a significantly greater increase in transcription compared to those

associated with non-hotspot stitched enhancers **(Figure 5G)**. Among the 22 genes nearest to Ile-specific

enhancer hotspots, 12 exhibit highly significant increases in both transcription (ChRO-seq) and steady-state

expression (RNA-seq) in Ile relative to Duo spheroids **(Figure 5H)**. These genes include *HAND2*, *HOXC/D*

family members, *FJX1*, *DLX5*, *CSRNP1* and *PITX1* **(Figure 5I)**, many of which were also identified earlier

as Ile-specific markers **(Figure 2)**. Similar analyses were performed for the hESC and DE stages and the

results are summarized in **Supplementary Figure 5**.

Identification of candidate TF drivers and their networks relevant to SI lineage formation or ileal

patterning

To discover putative key TF drivers and their cistromes (genome-wide set of TF targets) in this model, we

first used the tool HOMER to determine motifs enriched in each set of stage-specific enhancers and then

identified genes associated enhancers that harbor specific motifs of interest **(Figure 6A)**. Expectedly,

HOMER analyses of hESC- and DE-specific enhancers revealed binding sites of POU5F1 and SMAD2 to

be the most enriched motifs, respectively **(Supplementary Figure 6A-D)**. We next performed motif

enrichment analyses on Duo- **(Figure 6B)** and Ile-specific enhancers **(Figure 6D)**.

As expected, among the 2,787 Duo-specific enhancers relative to non-Duo specific enhancers **(Figure 6B)**,

we detected significant enrichment for the binding motifs of CDX2 and many forkhead box TFs **(Figure**

6C). We also performed the same analysis with Duo-specific enhancer hotspots relative to non-hotspots

(Figure 6B) and observed significant enrichment for binding motifs of SP5 and RXR **(Figure 6C)**, the

former of which is defined as a Duo-specific gene marker **(Figure 2G)**, but neither of which have been

associated previously with early SI development. Genes that are associated with Duo-specific enhancers

harboring motifs of one or more of these TFs and that are significantly increased in transcription (ChRO-

seq) and steady-state expression (RNA-seq) are shown in **Figure 6F (see full gene list in Supplementary**

Figure 6E). The TF cistrome analysis suggests that CDX2 is a prominent transcriptional activator of the

HOXB cluster **(Figure 6F)**, which is consistent with previous observations [8]. Moreover, this analysis

reveals candidate TF activators of the gene *CDX2*. While *CDX2* locus has a CDX2 motif in its promoter

region in Duo-spheroids (data not shown) and is thus likely subject to autoregulation as previously

described [39], Duo-specific enhancers that are associated with the *CDX2* locus do not harbor any binding

motifs for CDX2 and instead have binding motifs for other TFs such as FOXA1 and FOXO3 **(Figure 6F)**.

More importantly, through this analysis we were able to identify candidate TF drivers of SI/Duo spheroid

marker genes that do not appear to be a part of the CDX2 cistrome. For example, *WFDC2* and *SALL1*

(defined earlier as a marker gene of SI and Duo spheroids respectively) are associated with FOXA1 and

FOXO3 motifs; *SP5* (defined earlier as a marker gene of Duo spheroid) is associated with the TCF3 motif

(Figure 6D).

We next performed a similar analysis for ileal regional patterning. Among the 328 Ile-specific enhancers

relative to non-Ile specific enhancers **(Figure 6D)**, we detected significant enrichment for the binding

motifs of several key TF families including CDX2, HOXC9, HOXA11 and PITX1 **(Figure 6E)**, the last of

which is itself associated with Ile-specific enhancer hotspots **(Figure 5I)**. We also performed the same

analysis with Ile-specific enhancer hotspots relative to non-hotspots but did not observed significant

enrichment for binding motifs (data not shown). Genes that are associated with Ile-specific enhancers

harboring motifs of one or more of these TFs and that are significantly increased in transcription (ChRO-

seq) and steady-state expression (RNA-seq) are shown in **Figure 6G**. This analysis led to several new

observations. Firstly, CDX2 likely plays a role in both Duo spheroid formation and ileal regional patterning,

but apparently through distinct cistromes **(Figure 6F and G)**. Notably, the activation of *HOXD* and *HOXC*

(especially *HOXC8* and *9*) loci is associated with Ile-specific TREs harboring the CDX2 motif **(Figure 6E)**.

While the HOXB cluster is induced in Duo spheroids, it remains highly transcribed in Ile spheroids, likely

due to the fact that the nearby TREs with CDX2 motifs that are activated during Duo spheroid formation

are retained during ileal regional patterning **(Figure 4H, M)**. Secondly, we found that the activation of

HOXA, C, and D families are associated with overlapping but distinct TF regulators. Specifically, while

HOXA11 seems to act on all four *HOX* clusters, PITX1 is associated only with the *HOXA* cluster and

HOXC9 is preferentially associated with the *HOXD* cluster **(Figure 6G)**. Finally, this analysis also reveals

other TF cistrome networks that do not target *HOX* genes during ileal patterning **(Figure 6G)**. For example,

CSRNP1, *FJX1* and *ID1* loci are associated with motifs of AP-1 (e.g. JUNB and FOSL2) and/or ATF factors.

(Figure 6G).

The HOX cluster dynamics observed in the directed differentiation model of SI is present in the early

developmental stages of primary human fetal SI tissue

Across various analyses in this study we repeatedly observed a previously undescribed dynamics of HOX

gene activation across SI lineage formation to ileal patterning. Notably, ChRO-seq data reveals strong

transcriptional activation of the *HOXB* cluster (particularly HOXB1) upon acquisition of SI identity (Duo

spheroids) and the sequential transcriptional activation of members of *HOXA*, *C*, *D* clusters during ileal

regional patterning (Ile spheroids) **(Figure 7A)**, which as we showed previously is also reflected in the

pattern of emergence of nearby enhancers and enhancer hotspots **(Figure 4,5)**. This unique HOX cluster

dynamics is largely reflected at the level of steady-state expression (RNA-seq) also **(Figure 7B)**, except for

the 3'-most *HOXA* genes (e.g. *HOXA1*, *A2*) and 5'-end HOXB genes (e.g. *HOXB7*, *B9*) **(Figure 7A-B)**,

which may be subject to post-transcriptional regulation.

To determine whether the differences in *HOX* gene expression between early Duo and Ile extends beyond

this *in vitro* directed differentiation model, we mined the single cell RNA-seq (scRNA-seq) dataset of

primary human Duo and Ile tissue at very early stages of fetal development [13, 40, 41]. Specifically, we

focused on matched Duo and Ile fetal tissue at week 11, 14 and 19 of gestation. It is important to note that

these developmental time points, though considered as early/mid gestation stage, represent time points

much later than what is reflected in our much earlier stage SI spheroids, and therefore exhibited weaker

overall expression of *HOX* genes. Since the SI spheroids generated from the directed differentiation method

are mainly comprised of epithelial cells but also contain some mesenchymal cells, we analyzed both cell

types from the scRNA-seq data, together and separately, in order to examine the *HOX* dynamics. At week

11 of gestation, we found that the *HOXB* cluster is active in both human fetal Duo and Ile cells (epithelium

plus mesenchyme), with *HOXB1* particularly enriched in Duo cells and 5' *HOX* genes of all four clusters

enriched in Ile cells **(Figure 7C)**. This distinct HOX pattern between primary human fetal Duo and Ile

tissues is consistent with our observations in the Duo and Ile spheroids generated from the directed

differentiation method.   Interestingly, this signal is present only at week 11 and dissipates as the

developmental process proceeds (week 14 and 19) **(Figure 7C)**. The scRNA-seq analysis also offers the

new insight that the enrichment of *HOXB1* in primary fetal Duo tissue is mainly driven by the mesenchymal

fraction, whereas the activation of 5' HOX genes of all four clusters in Ile tissue occurs in both epithelial

and mesenchymal cells **(Figure 7C)**. Overall, this analysis suggests that the Duo and Ile spheroids

generated from the directed differentiation model appear to capture the region-specific HOX features that

are transiently present in the developing human SI .

Beyond the finding of the previously undescribed temporal HOX cluster patterns highlighted here, the

ChRO-seq analyses in this study provide a comprehensive characterization of chromatin regulatory

dynamics, enhancer activity profiles, and transcriptional programs that are associated with human SI lineage

formation and regional patterning. A working model is provided in **Figure 7E**.

Discussion

By leveraging the recently developed ChRO-seq technology, we generated for the first time ever

comprehensive chromatin regulatory landscapes across the different stages of directed differentiation from

hPSC to SI spheroids with regional specification. Specifically, we defined: (1) early marker genes that

label SI lineage formation and regional specification, (2) the map of <u>active</u> regulatory elements (promoters

and enhancers) as well as enhancer hotspots associated with SI lineage formation and ileal patterning, and

(3) candidate key TF drivers and their cistromes relevant to these critical developmental events. These

findings motivate future experiments to investigate the functional role of candidate regulators and assess

the sufficiency and necessity of the associated enhancers and enhancer hotspots for controlling

transcriptional networks relevant to early human SI development and patterning.

We identified for the first time *HES4* as marker gene of SI spheroids irrespective of regional identity in the

context of gut development; one likely reason for this is that it is absent in the genome of the mouse [42],

the model organism most used previously to study gut development. Moreover, the marker genes that we

found to specifically label Duo identity include *SP5* and *SALL1*, the latter of which has been linked to

Townes-Brocks syndrome with developmental malformation of multiple organs including the limb, kidney

and gastrointestinal tract [43, 44]. While *SP5*, *SALL1* and other marker genes of Duo identity were reported

to enhance Wnt signaling [45, 46], we identified a distinct set of marker genes that specifically label Ile

identity (e.g. *HAND2*, *FJX1* and *CSRNP1*) that are also known to be downstream of Wnt signaling. *Fjx1*

has been shown to function through the Wnt/planar cell polarity (PCP) pathway to determine anterior-

posterior axis in *Drosophila* [47, 48] and is expressed in the epithelium of murine developing gut [49].

Csrnp1 is expressed in neural crest progenitors in a Wnt1/β-catenin-dependent manner and acts as a critical

effector of Wnt signaling for driving neural crest formation [50]. Together, these observations indicate that

different sets of Wnt signaling effector genes are likely induced upon different durations of exposure to the

Wnt-activating supplements during directed differentiation. Future investigation of the functional roles of

these genes in the context of early gut development is warranted. The present study also uncovers the

associated enhancers (or enhancer hotspots) and TF motifs of these marker genes, which may elucidate the

potential mechanisms through which these genes are regulated during the establishment of SI identity and

regional specification.

Although HOX genes have been reported to play important roles in proximal-distal axis patterning in the

gut, our study uncovers previously undescribed dynamics of HOX cluster genes in the directed

differentiation model of human SI development, unveiling the complexity of HOX biology in the control

of small intestinal regionalization. The early literature has observed that 3' HOX genes are relevant to

proximal gut and 5' HOX genes are restricted to distal gut (known as 'spatial collinearity' of HOX genes)

[51, 52]; however, our study shows that HOX genes do not simply follow this collinear pattern. We found

that the activation of the HOXB cluster first occurs during the formation of Duo spheroids and the other

HOX clusters (HOXA, C and D) are activated subsequently during the formation of Ile spheroids. Through

mining of a novel scRNA-seq dataset [13, 40, 41], we also showed that this distinct HOX behavior between

Duo and Ile regions is present in primary human fetal SI tissue. Through ChRO-seq analyses, we also

provided additional insights into HOX biology by elucidating candidate TF drivers and associated

enhancers and enhancer hotspots, which merits detailed investigation.

Our ChRO-seq analysis mapped the key transcriptional networks associated with SI lineage formation or

regional patterning. For example, we found that binding sites of FOXA1 and FOXO3 are enriched in active

enhancers that emerge only during SI identity acquisition, including those nearby *CDX2*, which encodes

the well-known master TF regulator of SI development. Notably, the *FOXA1* gene locus is actively up-

transcribed during the transition from definitive endoderm to SI spheroids and is associated with an

enhancer hotspot that emerges during this process. FOXA1 has been reported to regulate allocation of

murine SI secretory lineage [53] and proper gene expression in murine intestinal epithelium [54]. Recently,

dysregulation of intestinal *FOXA1* also has been linked to necrotizing enterocolitis in infants [55]. The

observations made in this study as well as previous reports together underscores the functional importance

of FOXA1 in human gut development. Also, our TF cistrome analyses indicate that CDX2 is involved in

not only in initial SI lineage establishment but also the subsequent event of ileal specification, but evidently

through distinct cistromes. One specific example is the association between the *HOXC9* locus and the

nearby Ile-specific active enhancers containing CDX2 binding motifs, which is consistent with a previous

study showing a remarkable downregulation of *Hoxc9* in distal but not in proximal intestine of *Cdx2* null

mice [2]. Recent evidence also demonstrates that CDX2 regulates developing and fully mature gut through

targeting distinct gene sets in mice [8] and that CDX2 is involved in patterning both intestinal epithelial

and mesenchymal cells in the hPSC-based directed differentiation model [13]. Our ChRO-seq findings

pertaining to CDX2 may further elucidate how CDX2 functions through a stage- or cell type-dependent

manner during early human gut development. Beyond CDX2, other candidate TFs associated with the

establishment of ileal identity are worthy of future investigation. One notable example is PITX1, the

ortholog of which has been reported previously in mouse models to be expressed in the distal SI region and

to be involved in cecum budding during murine development [56]. However, PITX1 has not been

previously appreciated in the context of ileal regional specification.

The use of the state-of-art *in vitro* model of human SI development is a critical feature of this study given

the lack of other existing platforms or resources that are readily available for the study of very early

developmental time points pertaining to SI lineage formation and regional patterning. It is also important

given the growing appreciation for cross-species differences in developmental processes at the molecular

level [57-60]. Furthermore, the genome-wide characterization of the chromatin regulatory landscape by

ChRO-seq in this model system generates valuable translational knowledge for a better understanding of

the transcriptional programming underlying early SI development in humans. Our analysis pipeline can

also be applied to other hPSC-derived organoid systems to gain insights into dynamic transcriptional

programming and chromatin status during early stages of human organogenesis. Most importantly, the

identification of the candidate drivers in the present study may ultimately improve methods of generating

therapeutic replacement SI as well as molecular therapies for children and possibly adult patients.

Methods

Directed differentiation of hESCs. Differentiation of H9 hESCs and organoids was performed as

previously published, with minor modifications [27, 61]. Briefly, the endoderm was generated by treatment

of activin A (100 ng/ml) for 3 consecutive days in Roswell Park Memorial Institute 1640 (RPMI-1640)

media supplemented with 0% (v/v), 0.2% (v/v) and 2.0% (v/v) Hyclone defined fetal bovine serum (dFBS).

The endoderm cultures then received daily treatments of FGF4 (500 ng/mL) and CHIR99021 (2 μM) for

next 10 days. The intestinal spheroids representing fetal duodenum and ileum were collected on day 5 and

day 10, respectively [28]. Subsets of spheroids collected at day 5 and day 10 were then cultured in Matrigel

with the previously defined intestine growth media[28] for 28 days in order to mature into organoids. The

resulting organoids were then prepared for cell sorting to purify EPCAM+ cell population (epithelial

fraction) and the sorted cells were processed for RNA-seq library preparation. The cells generated at the

stages of hESC, endoderm, duodenal spheroids and ileal spheroids were subject for ChRO-seq and RNA-

seq library preparation.

Fluorescence activated cell sorting (FACS). Methods for organoid dissociation into single cells followed by selection of the epithelial component with FACS, were based on previously described procedures[62]. All solutions, including overnight pretreatment of the organoid cultures, contained 10μM Y27632 (Tocris). Matrigel was digested for 30 minutes with cold 4mM EDTA-DPBS and organoids were washed 4X with cold DPBS. Structures were enzymatically dissociated into single cells using the Tumor Dissociation Kit (human) (Miltenyi Biotec) with a gentleMACS™ Octo Dissociator (with heaters; Miltenyi Biotec) for 50 minutes at 37°C. The cell suspension was then washed with 0.5% BSA-2mM EDTA-DPBS over a succession of cell strainers, 100μm, 40μm (Corning) and 20μm (CellTrics) and centrifuged for 5 minutes at 500xg. Cells were labeled with EpCAM phycoerythrin (PE)-conjugated antibody (BioLegend) and an EpCAM isotype-PE control (BioLegend), and were sorted in 0.1% BSA 2mM EDTA-DPBS on a MoFlo Astrios 1 (Beckman Coulter; Brea, California) instrument at the University of Michigan BRCF Flow Cytometry Core facility. Events were first selected with light-scatter and doublet discrimination gating, followed by exclusion of dead cells using 1μM DAPI dilactate (Molecular Probes). EpCAM-PE(+)/DAPI(-) cells were sorted into cold Advanced DMEM/F12 (Invitrogen). Collected cells were reanalyzed for a purity-check and showed greater than 89% viable and 98% EpCAM-PE(+) events. Cells were pelleted at 500xg for 5 minutes and flash-frozen for subsequent RNA isolation.

Procr-mGFP-2A-LacZ mouse line and staining. The Procr-mGFP-2A-LacZ mouse line was generated by knocking in a cassette of mGFP-2A-LacZ behind start codon of the *Procr* gene [32]. To perform X-gal staining, embryos were isolated and washed in cold PBS followed by incubation in ice-cold fixative (30 mins up to E10.5, or 50 mins for E11.5-E13.5) on a rocking platform. Fixative contains 37% formaldehyde, 25% glutaraldehyde, 10% NP-40 all dissolved in PBS. The fixative was removed and the whole embryo washed twice in PBS for 20 mins at room temperature on a rocking platform. The β-galactosidase substrate (5 mM K3FE(CN)6, 5 mM K4Fe(CN)6·3H2O, 2 mM MgCl2, 0.02% NP40, 0.1% sodium deoxycholate and 1 mg ml–1 X-gal in PBS) was then added and the tissues incubated in the dark overnight at room

temperature. The substrate was removed and the tissues washed twice in PBS for 20 min at room

temperature on a rocking platform. Embryos were serially dehydrated using glycerol, and was stored in

80% glycerol at 4°C. Whole-embryo images were captured using Olympus SZX16.

Chromatin isolation. The chromatin isolation for ChRO-seq library preparation was performed as

previously described [20, 63]. Briefly, chromatin was isolated from the cells with $1\times$ NUN buffer [0.3 M

NaCl, 1 M Urea, 1% NP-40 (w/v), 20 mM HEPES, pH 7.5, 7.5 mM MgCl2, 0.2 mM EDTA, 1 mM DTT,

20 units per mL SUPERase In RNase Inhibitor (Life Technologies, AM2694), $1\times$ Protease Inhibitor

Cocktail (Roche, 11 873 580 001)] and incubation at 12 °C on a ThermoMixer for 30 min. Samples were

centrifuged at 12,500xg for 30 min at 4 °C. The chromatin pellet was washed 3 times with 1 mL 50 mM

Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, supplemented with 40 units per ml RNase inhibitor. Chromatin storage buffer (50 mM

Tris-HCl, pH 8.0, 25% glycerol (v/v), 5 mM Mg(CH3COO)2, 0.1 mM EDTA, 5 mM DTT, 40 units per ml

RNase inhibitor) was added to each sample. The samples were loaded into a Bioruptor and sonicated to get

the chromatin into suspension. Samples were stored at -80 °C before proceeding to ChRO-seq library

preparation.

ChRO-seq library and sequencing. After chromatin isolation, the ChRO-seq library preparation closely

followed the protocol described previously [20, 64]. Briefly, chromatin from at least 1×10^6 cells per

sample in chromatin storage buffer was mixed with an equal volume of 2×chromatin run-on buffer [10 mM

Tris-HCl, pH 8.0, 5 mM MgCl2,1 mM DTT, 300 mM KCl, 400 μM ATP (NEB, N0450S), 40 μM Biotin-

11-CTP (Perkin Elmer, NEL542001EA), 400 μM GTP (NEB, N0450S), 40 μM Biotin-11-UTP (Perkin

Elmer, NEL543001EA), 0.8 units per μL RNase inhibitor, 1% (w/v) Sarkosyl (Fisher Scientific,

AC612075000)]. The run-on reaction was incubated at 37 °C for 5 min. The reaction was stopped by

adding Trizol LS (Life Technologies, 10296-010) and pelleted with GlycoBlue (Ambion, AM9515) to

visualize the RNA pellet. The RNA pellet was resuspended in diethylpyrocarbonate (DEPC)-treated water

and heat denatured at 65 °C for 40 s. In the present study, base hydrolysis of RNA was performed by

incubating RNA with 0.2N NaOH on ice for 4 min. Nascent RNA was purified by binding streptavidin

beads (NEB, S1421S) before and in between the following procedures: (1) 3′ adapter ligation with T4 RNA

Ligase 1 (NEB, M0204L), (2) 5′ de-capping with RNA 5′ pyrophosphohydrolase (RppH, NEB, M0356S),

(3) 5′ end phosphorylation using T4 polynucleotide kinase (NEB, M0201L), (4) 5′ adapter ligation with T4

RNA Ligase 1 (NEB, M0204L). The resulting RNA fragments were used for a reverse transcription

reaction using Superscript III Reverse Transcriptase (Life Technologies, 18080-044) to generate cDNA.

cDNA was then amplified using Q5 High-Fidelity DNA Polymerase (NEB, M0491L) to generate the

ChRO-seq libraries. Libraries were sequenced (5' single end; single-end 75x) using the NextSeq500 high-

throughput sequencing system (Illumina) at the Cornell University Biotechnology Resource Center.

Supplementary Data 1 provides the mapping statistics of the ChRO-seq experiments.

Total RNA isolation, mRNA-seq library and sequencing. Total RNA was isolated using the Total

Purification kit (Norgen Biotek, Thorold, ON, Canada). High Capacity RNA to cDNA kit (Life

Technologies, Grand Island, NY) was used for reverse transcription of RNA. Libraries were generated

using the NEBNext Ultra II Directional Library Prep Kit (New England Biolabs, Ipswich, MA) and

subjected to sequencing (single-end 92x) on the NextSeq500 platform (Illumina) at the Cornell University

Biotechnology Resource Center. At least 80M reads per sample were acquired.

Mapping sequencing reads. In the ChRO-seq studies, the publicly available pipeline [33] was used to align

ChRO-seq reads. Since the libraries were prepared using adapters that contained a molecule-specific unique

identifier (first 6 bp sequenced), the PCR duplicates were first removed using PRINSEQ lite. Adapters

were trimmed from the 3′ end of remaining reads using cutadapt with a 10% error rate. Reads were mapped

with the Burrows-Wheeler Aligner (BWA) to the human reference genome hg38 plus a single copy of the

Pol I ribosomal RNA transcription unit (GenBank U13369.1). The location of active RNA polymerase was

represented by a single base that denotes the 3′ end of the nascent RNA, which corresponds to the position

on the 5′ end of each sequenced read. Mapped reads were converted to bigwig format using BedTools and

the bedGraphToBigWig program in the Kent Source software package. For visualization purpose, bigwig

files from identical stages were merged and normalized to a total signal of $1x10^6$. In the RNA-seq studies,

reads were mapped to human genome hg38 using STAR (v2.5.3a) [65] and transcript quantification was

performed using Salmon (v0.6.0) [66] with GENCODE release 25 transcript annotations. The expression

(RNA-seq) levels of genes were normalized using DESeq2 [67]. All the samples except an Ile HIO sample

had < 80% mapping rates. Although the Ile HIO sample had an unfavorable mapping rate, it was able to

show elevated levels of Ile-associated regional markers compared to the Duo HIO sample **(Supplementary**

Figure 3A).

ChRO-seq quantification of gene loci and promoter transcription activity. Gene definitions were obtained

from GENCODE v25 annotations. To quantify transcription activity of gene loci, ChRO-seq signals

present in annotated gene bodies were used with exclusion of reads within 500 base downstream of

transcription start site (TSS) to avoid bias generated by the RNA polymerase pausing at the promoters.

Genes with gen body < 1000 base were excluded from all the gene body related analysis, given that genes

with short gene bodies are likely biased when excluding the pause peak. The ChRO-seq reads were

normalized by the length of gene bodies to transcripts per million (TPM). To determine promoter activity

of genes, stranded ChRO-seq signals at the promoter proximal region (500 bps upstream and 200 bps

downstream of TSS) were used. The promoter regions that have significant changing patterns were defined

using the following criteria: average TPM > 5 and padj < 0.05 across all the stages by likelihood ratio test

(DESeq2). The promoter regions that have significant changing patterns and are annotated as 'protein-

coding' gene type were further subject to clustering analysis ('degPatterns' in R platform) .

Differential expression and pathway analyses of genes. The differential analysis of gene bodies in ChRO-

seq data was performed using DESeq2 package [67]. For all the analyses except stage-specific marker

analysis, the normalized levels of transcription or expression, foldchange and the statistic filtering were

based on the DESeq2 analysis including only the two stages in a comparison. The pathway enrichment

analyses with subsets of genes were assessed using Enrichr [68].

Identification of stage-specific marker genes. Firstly, genes that have ChRO-seq signal in gene bodies

(excluding the first 500 bps downstream of the TSS) greater than 50 TPM in the stage of interest are

identified and filtered according to padj < 0.2, p < 0.05, fold change > 1.5 compared to all the other stages

(Wald test; DESeq2). Secondly, genes that have RNA-seq signal greater than 100 base mean units are

identified and filtered according to padj < 0.2, p < 0.05, fold change > 1.5 compared to all the other stages

(Wald test; DESeq2). Thirdly, the output from these two analyses are intersected to arrive at final gene

lists for stage-specific markers. To identify genes that label SI spheroids irrespective of regional identity,

analyses were done using the same criteria except the fold change criterion. The genes that have short gene

bodies (< 1000 bp) or annotated under the pseudogene category are excluded from this analysis.

TRE identification, annotation, categorization and comparison with other datasets. The active

transcriptional regulatory elements (TREs) were identified by dREG tool [33]. The annotation of the

identified TREs was defined using *annotatePeaks.pl* function (genome = hg38) of HOMER package [69]

based on GENCODE v25 annotations. To compare the TRE landscape of SI spheroids with developing

and mature SI in humans, DNase-seq datasets from the Roadmap Epigenomics Project were used.

Specifically, first, the files E085-DNase.hotspot.fdr0.01.peaks.v2.bed (fetal SI) and E109-

DNase.hotspot.fdr0.01.peaks.v2.bed (adult SI) were downloaded in hg19, converted to hg38 using the

USCS liftOver tool, and used to define DNase-based open chromatin regions unique to fetal and adult SI

using the bedtools intersect function (at least 1 base overlapping). The fetal and adult SI-specific DNase

open chromatin regions were further intersected with TREs present in SI spheroids using bedtools intersect

function (at least 1 base overlapping). To assign active TREs as promoters, the TREs with at least 1 base

overlapping with the window of -1000 base and +200 base of annotated TSSs were defined as proximal

TREs, or promoters. The rest of the active TREs were defined as distal TREs, or enhancers.

Stage-specific TRE density analysis. The stage-specific TREs were defined as TREs of which the ChRO-seq intensity is significantly higher in a stage of interest relative to a comparative stage (padj < 0.05 and $\log_2$fold change > 2.5 by DESeq2) [67]. The ChRO-seq intensity was determined by the sum of the un-normalized ChRO-seq reads from both strands within a TRE region.   The density of stage-specific TREs was determined by the number of TREs present within the window of +100 kb and -100 kb around the TSS for all the genes which are actively transcribed in the stage of interest (TPM > 50 in the ChRO-seq study). The genes which are associated with stage-specific TREs are defined using the following criteria: (1) genes have density of stage-specific TRE > 0, (2) genes are actively transcribed (TPM > 50 in the ChRO-seq) and expressed (base mean > 100 in the RNA-seq) in the stage of interest, and (3) the genes are significantly uptranscribed and upregulated (padj < 0.2, p < 0.05, fold change > 1.5 in both ChRO-seq and RNA-seq by DESeq2) in the stage of interest relative to a comparison stage.

Identification of de novo stage-specific enhancer hotspots and the associated genes. The stage-specific active distal TREs (enhancers) were used in the enhancer hotspot analysis. The enhancer hotspots in this study were identified by the criteria similar (with slight modifications) to the studies describing 'super-enhancers'[36, 37]. Briefly, the stage-specific enhancers in proximity of distance (< 12.5kb) were stitched. For each of the stage-specific stitched enhancers, the transcription activity was determined by the sum of un-normalized ChRO-seq signals from both strands of each individual enhancer. To further identify stage-specific enhancer hotspots, a tangent line was applied the stage-specific stitched enhancers and they were ranked based on their transcriptional activities in a plot. The ones above the tangent line in the analysis were defined as stage-specific enhancer hotpots. To identify the genes which are associated with stage-specific stitched enhancers, a given stage-specific stitched enhancer is assigned to the gene of which the transcription in the gene body is active (TPM > 50 in the matching stage) and the TSS is closest to the border of the enhancer hotspot region.

Transcription factor binding motif enrichment analysis. HOMER tool [69] was used to determine

enrichment of sites corresponding to known motifs with stage-specific TREs (relative to a comparative

stage). More specifically, we used function *findMotifsGenome.pl* (genome = hg38 and size = given) and

the TREs which are shared or unique to the comparative stage were used as background.

Transcription factor cistrome analysis. For a TF of interest, the binding motifs present in the stage-specific

TREs were identified and the density of the motif was determined by the number of motifs within the

window of +100 kb and -100 kb around the TSS for all the genes which are actively transcribed in the stage

of interest (TPM > 50). The cistrome of a TF is defined using the following criteria: (1) genes have motif

density > 0, (2) genes are actively transcribed (TPM > 50 in the ChRO-seq) and expressed (base mean >

500 in the RNA-seq) in the stage of interest, and (3) the genes are significantly uptranscribed and

upregulated (padj < 0.2, p < 0.05, fold change > 1.5 in both ChRO-seq and RNA-seq by DESeq2) in the

stage of interest relative to a comparison stage.

Single cell RNA-seq data analysis. The scRNA-seq analysis of primary human fetal SI tissues was curated

using recent, pre-existing datasets [13, 40, 41]. Briefly, the scRNA-seq dataset of human developing SI

across different regions and multiple gestational time points were generated by 10x Genomics platform and

mapped to hg19 using default alignment parameters provided by Cell Ranger. Seurat (v3.1) package [70]

was applied to the downstream analysis. Cells with greater than 5% mitochondrial transcript proportion

and fewer than 1000 unique detected genes were excluded. Ribosomal genes, mitochondrial genes, and

genes located on sex chromosomes were also removed before data integration into a Seurat object. The

cell type annotation of the dataset was pre-defined and detailed in [13]. In the present study, we focused

on the data of matched human fetal duodenum and ileum samples (week 11, 14 and 19 of gestation).

Statistics. All the padj and p-values presented in this study were determined by Wald test (DESeq2), unless

otherwise specifically noted.

Availability of data, materials and computation scripts

Raw and processed data generated in the sequencing studies will be made available upon publication.

Funding

ADA Pathway to Stop Diabetes Research Accelerator (1-16-ACE-47 to P.S.); Empire State Stem Cell Fund (C30293GG to Y.-H. H.); Intestinal Stem Cell Consortium (U01DK103141 to J.R.S.); a collaborative research project funded by the National Institute of Diabetes and Digestive and Kidney Diseases (NIDDK) and the National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases (NIAID), the NIAID Novel Alternative Model Systems for Enteric Diseases (NAMSED) consortium (U19AI116482 to J.R.S.); the support from the University of Michigan Center for Gastrointestinal Research (UMCGR) (NIDDK 5P30DK034933 to J.R.S.); the Chan Zuckerberg Initiative DAF (CZF2019-002440 to J.G.C.); the support an advised fund of Silicon Valley Community Foundation (J.G.C.); the European Research Council (Anthropoid-803441 to J.G.C.).

Author Contributions

Conceptualization, Y.-H.H., P.S.; Cell culture, S.H.; Cell sorting, M.K.D.; Chromatin isolation and library preparation for sequencing studies, Y.-H.H.; Bioinformatic analyses and data curation, Y.-H.H.; Resources and experiments of *Procr* reporter mice, Q.C.Y. and Y.A.Z.; Resources of scRNA-seq data, Q.Y., J.G.C. and J.R.S.; Writing (original draft), Y.-H.H., P.S.; Review and editing, Y.-H.H., J.R.S., and P.S.; Supervision, P.S.; Funding acquisition, Y.-H.H., J.R.S., and P.S.

Acknowledgments

We would like to thank members of the Sethupathy laboratory, most notably Dr. Michael Shanahan, Dr. Ajeet Singh, and Dr. Matt Kanke, for helpful comments and feedback on the study and manuscript. We specially thank Dr. Tim Dinh in the Sethupathy laboratory for help in developing the bioinformatic analysis

pipeline of ChRO-seq data and providing technical consultation on bioinformatics, Dr. Matt Kanke for

providing additional technical consultation on bioinformatics, and Ramja Sritharan in the Sethupathy

laboratory for offering technical consultation on the ChRO-seq protocol. Additionally, we are grateful to

the Danko laboratory, specifically Ed Rice and Dr. Charles Danko, for helpful conversations on improving

implementation of the ChRO-seq protocol. Finally, we also thank Dr. Jen Grenier and the Cornell

Transcriptional Regulation & Expression Facility for RNA sequencing support; Michael Dellheim of the

University of Michigan BRCF Flow Cytometry Core; Gina Newsome, Erika Katz, Maliha Berner, and

Angeline Wu of the Michigan Medicine Translational Tissue Modeling Laboratory; and a University of

Michigan funded initiative (Center for Gastrointestinal Research, Office of the Dean, Comprehensive

Cancer Center, Departments of Pathology, Pharmacology, and Internal Medicine) with support by the

Endowment for Basic Sciences.

Conflicts of interest

The authors disclose no conflicts.

Figure Legends

Figure 1. ChRO-seq defines dynamics of nascent transcription at promoters and gene loci during

directed differentiation from human pluripotent stem cells (hPSCs) to small intestinal (SI) spheroids

with regional specification. (A) Schematic diagram of the distinct stages of directed differentiation and

the genome-scale approach of ChRO-seq. (B) Hierarchical clustering analysis of gene transcription profiles

across all stages of the model. (C) Transcriptional activity (ChRO-seq signal) of the genes *SOX2*, *GATA6*,

CDX2, and *FOXF1* across all stages of the model. (D) Normalized ChRO-seq signal at the gene bodies of

SOX2, *GATA6*, *CDX2* and *FOXF1* across all stages of the model. Scale (+/- 25) is fixed across stages. (E)

Volcano plots showing differentially transcribed genes in the indicated comparisons (average TPM > 25,

$\log_2$ fold change of transcription > 1, padj < 0.2 and p < 0.05 by Wald test; DESeq2). Results of pathway

enrichment analyses of up-transcribed (red) and down-transcribed (blue) genes in the indicated comparisons

(GO Biological Process 2018) are also shown. (F) Identification of protein-coding genes that have high

promoter activity in SI spheroids (n = 2,992) through application of the likelihood ratio test across all stages.

(G) Expression levels (RNA-seq) of *BEX5* and *PROCR* in stages of DE and SI spheroids. (H) RT-qPCR

of *PROCR* in an independent batch of samples (DE = 3; Duo spheroid = 2). *$P < 0.05$ by one-tailed t test

(validation of sequencing data). (I) X-gal staining for β-galactosidase activity of Procr-mGFP-2A-LacZ

mouse reporter line showing a robust *Procr* expression in midgut at E9.5 (left; arrowhead) and E10.5 (right;

dashed outline). Scale bar = 500 μm. ChRO-seq study: hESC, n = 3; DE, n = 4; Duo spheroid (Duo), n =

3; Ile spheroid (Ile), n = 3. RNA-seq study: hESC, n = 2; DE, n = 3; Duo, n = 6; Ile, n = 4. TPM, transcripts

per million. nc, normalized counts. RQV, relative quantitative value.

Figure 2. Identification of transcriptional markers of specific stages in the directed differentiation

model of human developing SI. (A) Hierarchical clustering analysis of transcribed genes (TPM > 50 at

least in one stage) (z-score).   (B) Genome-wide correlation of transcribed levels (ChRO-seq) and

expressed levels (RNA-seq) of genes. Transcription and expression levels of genes were averaged across

all stages. No transcription and expression thresholds were used (see also Supplementary **Figure 3B-E**).

(C) Identification of markers that label specific stages at the levels of both transcription and steady-state

expression. The total number of markers (center of the donut plot) and the proportion of marker types are

shown for each stage. (D-G) Marker genes of hESC (D), DE (E), SI spheroids regardless of regional

identity (F), Duo and Ile (G). In panel (D-F), only the top 50 most variable genes across stages are shown

(see **Supplementary Data 2** for full list). Heatmaps denote variation across stages (z-score). ChRO-seq

study: hESC, n = 3; DE, n = 4; Duo spheroid (Duo), n = 3; Ile spheroid (Ile), n = 3. RNA-seq study:

hESC, n = 2; DE, n = 3; Duo, n = 6; Ile, n = 4.

Figure 3. Transcriptional regulatory element profiles reveal notable re-wiring of chromatin activity

in the directed differentiation model of human developing SI. (A) Schematic for identification and

categorization of active TREs, followed by definition of TREs with altered activity during stage

transitions of the model. (B) Hierarchical clustering analysis of profiles of all active TREs. (C) Size

distribution of active TREs. (D) Genomic locations of active TREs (hg38 build). (E) Percentage of fetal

and adult SI-specific open chromatin regions (defined according to DNaseI-seq data from the Roadmap

Epigenomics Project) overlapping with active TREs present in Duo and/or Ile spheroids. (F) ChRO-seq

signal around the Intestinal Critical Region (ICR) [35]. An active TRE identified in our study (chr16:

1430731-1431300; hg38) largely overlaps with the ICR and exhibits strong ChRO-seq signals in SI

spheroids. Scales in right panel (+25/-25) and left panel (+166/-15; the maximum range) are fixed across

different stages. (G) The transcriptional activity of the TRE associated with the ICR (chr16: 1430731-

1431300; hg38) across all stages of the model (*** $P < 0.001$ by Wald test; DESeq2). (H) Hierarchical

clustering (upper) and PCA (lower) analysis of promoter profiles in the indicated stage. (I) (H)

Hierarchical clustering (upper) and PCA (lower) analysis of enhancer profiles in the indicated stage. (J)

Active TREs present in hESC and DE (n = 99,996) and ranked based on the log2 fold change in activity

during the transition to DE. (K) Numbers of promoters and enhancers that are unchanged, gained (up), or

lost (down) during the transition from hESC to DE. (L) Active TREs present in DE and Duo spheroid (n

= 91,900) and ranked based on the log2 fold change in activity during Duo spheroid formation. (M)

Numbers of promoters and enhancers that are unchanged, gained (up), or lost (down) during the transition

from DE to Duo spheroid. (N) Active TREs present in Duo and Ile spheroid (n = 77,084) and ranked

based on the log2 fold change in activity during Ile spheroid formation. (O) Numbers of promoters and

enhancers that are unchanged, gained (up), or lost (down) in Ile compared to Duo spheroids. hESC, n =

3; DE, n = 4; Duo spheroid (Duo), n = 3; Ile spheroid (Ile), n = 3.

Figure 4. Identification of genes associated with a high density of nearby enhancers that emerge

during SI lineage formation or ileal patterning. (A) The strategy for identifying genes associated with

stage-specific enhancers. (B) Venn diagram showing stage-specific and shared enhancers between DE

and Duo spheroids. Duo-specific enhancers (n = 2787) represent enhancers emerging during SI lineage

formation. (C) Venn diagram showing stage-specific and shared enhancers between Duo and Ile

spheroids in the event of ileal patterning. Ile-specific enhancers (n = 328) represent enhancers emerging

during ileal regional patterning. (D) Cumulative distribution of ChRO-seq fold change in genes grouped

into three different categories of Duo-specific enhancer density during the transition to Duo spheroids.

(E) Boxplot of ChRO-seq fold change in genes grouped into three different categories of Duo-specific

enhancer density during the transition to Duo spheroids. (F) Identification of genes associated with Duo-

specific enhancers (n = 117). (G) Bar graph showing genes associated with Duo-specific enhancers (left

panel). Top 30 genes based on enhancer density are highlighted (right panel). (H) Normalized ChRO-seq

signal around the *HOXB* cluster in the stages of DE, Duo, and Ile spheroids. Duo-specific TREs are

marked. (I) Cumulative distribution of ChRO-seq fold change in genes grouped into three different

categories of Ile-specific enhancer density during the transition to Ile spheroids. (J) Boxplot of ChRO-seq

fold change in genes grouped into three different categories of Ile-specific enhancer density during the

transition to Ile spheroids. (L) Identification of genes associated with Ile-specific enhancers (n = 35). (L)

Bar graph showing genes associated with Ile-specific enhancers. (M) Normalized ChRO-seq signal

around the *HOXD* cluster in the stages of DE, Duo, and Ile spheroids. Ile-specific TREs are marked.

ChRO-seq study: DE, n = 4; Duo spheroid (Duo), n = 3; Ile spheroid (Ile), n = 3. RNA-seq study: DE, n

= 3; Duo, n = 6; Ile, n = 4.

Figure 5. Identification of genes associated with enhancer 'hotspots' that emerge during SI lineage

formation or ileal patterning. (A) The strategy for identification of stage-specific enhancer hotspots

and their associated genes. (B) Duo-specific stitched enhancers are ranked by transcriptional activity

(ChRO-seq signal). The stitched enhancers with the highest transcriptional activity are defined as Duo-

specific enhancer hotspots (n = 145; blue) and the rest are enhancer non-hotspots (n = 2244; black). (C)

ChRO-seq fold change of genes associated with Duo-specific stitched enhancers, non-hotspots vs.

hotspots (Wilcoxon rank sum test). (D) Identification of genes associated with Duo-specific enhancer

hotspots. (E) Genes associated with Duo-specific enhancer hotspots (n=25). Relative position between

enhancer hotspots and transcription start sites (TSSs) of the associated genes are shown. Dot size denotes

transcriptional activity of a given DE-specific enhancer hotspot. (F) Ile-specific stitched enhancers are

ranked by transcriptional activity (ChRO-seq signal). The stitched enhancers with the highest

transcriptional activity are defined as Ile-specific enhancer hotspots (n = 29; red) and the rest are enhancer

non-hotspots (n = 276; black). (G) ChRO-seq fold change of genes associated with Ile-specific stitched

enhancers, non-hotspots vs. hotspots (Wilcoxon rank sum test). (H) Identification of genes associated

with Ile-specific enhancer hotspots. (I) Genes associated with Ile-specific enhancer hotspots (n=12).

Relative position between enhancer hotspots and TSSs of the associated genes are shown. Dot size

denotes transcriptional activity of a given Duo-specific enhancer hotspot. ChRO-seq study: DE, n = 4;

Duo spheroid (Duo), n = 3; Ile spheroid (Ile), n = 3. RNA-seq study: DE, n = 3; Duo, n = 6; Ile, n = 4.

Figure 6. Identification of candidate TF drivers and their networks relevant to SI lineage formation

or ileal patterning. (A) The strategy for identifying candidate TFs and their cistromes associated with

each stage transition of the model. (B) TF motif enrichment analyses were performed in Duo-specific

enhancers (n = 2787) relative to non-Duo-specific enhancers (n = 45,759) as well as in Duo-specific

enhancer hotspots (n = 145) relative to non-hotspots (n = 2,244). (C) Motifs significantly enriched in

Duo-specific enhancers (highlighted by light blue bar) or in Duo-specific enhancer hotspots (highlighted

by dark blue bar). The steady-state expression (RNA-seq) of the corresponding TFs are also shown. (D)

TF motif enrichment analyses were performed in Ile-specific enhancers (n = 328) relative to non-Ile-

specific enhancers (n = 38,674) as well as in Ile-specific enhancer hotspots (n = 29) relative to non-

hotspots (n = 276). (E) Motifs significantly enriched in Ile-specific enhancers. The steady-state

expression (RNA-seq) of the corresponding TFs are also shown. (F) Bubble plot showing genes

associated with active binding motifs of TFs that exhibit an overall enrichment of binding motifs in Duo-

specific enhancers (defined in C). See also **Supplementary Figure 6E** for full gene list. (G) Bubble plot

showing genes associated with active binding motifs of TFs that exhibit an overall enrichment of binding

motifs in Ile-specific enhancers (defined in E). ChRO-seq study: DE, n = 4; Duo spheroid (Duo), n = 3;

Ile spheroid (Ile), n = 3. RNA-seq study: DE, n = 3; Duo, n = 6; Ile, n = 4.

Figure 7. The HOX cluster dynamics observed in the directed differentiation model of SI is present

in the early developmental stages of primary human fetal SI tissue. (A) Heatmap showing the changing

transcriptional pattern of HOX genes (ChRO-seq) across the stages of DE, Duo spheroids, and Ile spheroids

in vitro. (B) Heatmap showing changing steady-state expression pattern of HOX genes (RNA-seq) across

stages of DE, Duo spheroids, and Ile spheroid *in vitro*. (C) Heatmap showing changing expression pattern

of HOX genes (scRNA-seq) in primary human fetal Duo and Ile tissues at week 11, 14 and 19 of gestation.

The expressional level of each HOX gene is the average from the fraction that has both epithelial and

mesenchymal cell types (left), mesenchymal cell only (middle), or epithelial cell only (right). (D) Proposed

model of transcriptional programming in SI lineage formation and ileal regional patterning during human

SI development. The genes activated in the relevant stages and the types of regulatory relationships

identified through ChRO-seq analyses are indicated. ChRO-seq study: DE, n = 4; Duo spheroid (Duo), n

= 3; Ile spheroid (Ile), n = 3. RNA-seq study: DE, n = 3; Duo, n = 6; Ile, n = 4. scRNA-seq data: matched

Duo and Ile tissues from 1 human fetal subject per gestational time point.

Supplementary Figure 1. ChRO-seq profiling shows specificity of transcriptional markers in the

directed differentiation model of human developing SI. (A) TFs associated with different

gastrointestinal organoids that are generated by the hPSC directed differentiation methods[45-51]. (B)

Transcriptional activity (ChRO-seq signal) of genes encoding the TFs shown in (A) across different

stages. (C) Characterization of genes with distinct patterns of promoter activity across different stages

based on the likelihood ratio test (DESeq2). The protein-coding subset of genes (n = 7,651) were

clustered into different groups based on the changing patterns of promoter activity. ChRO-seq study:

hESC, n = 3; DE, n = 4; Duo spheroid (Duo), n = 3; Ile spheroid (Ile), n = 3. RNA-seq study: hESC, n =

2; DE, n = 3; Duo, n = 6; Ile, n = 4. TPM, transcripts per million.

Supplementary Figure 2. Steady-state gene expression profiles across all stages in the directed

differentiation model of the developing human SI. (A) Hierarchical clustering analysis of RNA-seq

expression profiles across stages. Color shade denotes sample to sample distance. (B) PCA of profiles of

RNA-seq across stages. (C) RNA-seq expression levels of *SOX2*, *GATA6*, *SOX17*, *CDX2* and *FOXF1*

across stages. (D, F, H) Volcano plot showing differentially expressed genes in the indicated comparison.

Numbers in red and blue are number of up- and down-regulated genes in the comparison (base mean > 100,

$\log_2$ fold change of transcription > 1, padj < 0.2 and p < 0.05 by Wald test; DESeq2). (E, G, I) Pathway

enrichment analyses of up- and down-regulated genes in the indicated comparisons (GO term = GO

Biological Process 2018). hESC, n= 2; DE, n= 3; Duo spheroid (Duo), n = 6; Ile spheroid (Ile), n = 4. nc,

normalized counts.

Supplementary Figure 3. Integrative analysis of ChRO-seq and RNA-seq defines marker genes in

the directed differentiation model of the developing human SI. (A) RNA-seq expression of genes

associated with SI regional identity in spheroids and in HIOs with either Duo or Ile identity. Genes

associated with SI regional identity in primary human fetal gut as well as in transplanted HIOs in Tsai *et*

al., 2017[21]. Duo and Ile HIOs were generated by culturing Duo and Ile spheroids in 3D Matrigel for 28

days and purified by EPCAM+ (epithelial marker) sorting. The HIO samples were from the same batch

used for ChRO-seq and RNA-seq of Duo and Ile spheroids in this study. (B-E) Genome wide correlation

of transcribed levels (ChRO-seq) and expressed levels (RNA-seq) in the indicated stages. No expression

or transcription level thresholds were used for genes to be included in the analysis. ChRO-seq study:

hESC, n= 3; DE, n= 4; Duo spheroid (Duo), n = 3; Ile spheroid (Ile), n = 3. RNA-seq study: hESC, n= 2;

DE, n= 3; Duo, n = 6; Ile, n = 4; Duo HIO, n = 1; Ile HIO, n = 1.

Supplementary Figure 4. Identification of genes associated with stage-specific enhancers relevant to

the stem cell and definitive endoderm stages. (A) Venn diagram showing stage-specific and shared

enhancers between hESC and DE. hESC-specific enhancers (n = 3906) were defined in the comparison

with DE. (B) Cumulative distribution of ChRO-seq fold change in the transcriptional activity of genes

grouped into three different categories of hESC-specific enhancer density in hESC vs. DE. (C) Boxplot

of ChRO-seq fold change in the transcriptional activity of genes grouped into three different categories of

hESC-specific enhancer density in hESC vs. DE. (D) Identification of genes associated with hESC-

specific enhancers (n = 239). (E) Bar graph showing genes associated with hESC-specific enhancers (left

panel). Top 30 genes based on enhancer density are highlighted (right panel). (F) Venn diagram showing

stage-specific and shared enhancers between hESC and DE. DE-specific enhancers (n = 2899) were

defined in the comparison with hESC. (G) Cumulative distribution of ChRO-seq fold change in

transcriptional activity of genes grouped into three different categories of DE-specific enhancer density in

DE vs. hESC. (H) Boxplot of ChRO-seq fold change in transcriptional activity of genes grouped into

three different categories of DE-specific enhancer density in DE vs. hESC. (I) Identification of genes

associated with DE-specific enhancers (n = 234). (J) Bar graph showing genes associated with DE-

specific enhancers (left panel). Top 30 genes based on enhancer density are highlighted (right panel).

ChRO-seq study: hESC, n= 3; DE, n= 4. RNA-seq study: hESC, n= 2; DE, n= 3.

Supplementary Figure 5. Identification of hESC- and DE-specific enhancer hotspots and associated

genes. (A) hESC-specific stitched enhancers are ranked by transcriptional activity (ChRO-seq signal).

The stitched enhancers with the highest transcription activity are defined as hESC-specific enhancer

hotspots (n = 211; yellow) and the rest are enhancers non-hotspots (n = 2881; black). (B) ChRO-seq fold

change in the transcriptional activity of genes associated with hESC-specific stitched enhancers, non-

hotspots vs. hotspots (Wilcoxon test). (C) Identification of genes associated with hESC-specific enhancer

hotspots. (D) Genes associated with hESC-specific enhancer hotspots (n=59). Relative position between

enhancer hotspots and TSSs of the associated genes are shown. Dot size denotes transcriptional activity

of a given DE-specific enhancer hotspot. (E) DE-specific stitched enhancers are ranked by transcriptional

activity (ChRO-seq signal). The stitched enhancers with the highest transcription activity are defined as

DE-specific enhancer hotspots (n = 147; green) and the rest are enhancer non-hotspots (n = 1987; black).

(F) ChRO-seq fold change in the transcriptional activity of genes associated with DE-specific stitched

enhancers, non-hotspots vs. hotspots (Wilcoxon test). (G) Identification of genes associated with DE-

specific enhancer hotspots. (H) Genes associated with Ile-specific enhancer hotspots (n=46). Relative

position between enhancer hotspots and TSSs of the associated genes are shown. Dot size denotes

transcriptional activity of a given DE-specific enhancer hotspot. ChRO-seq study: hESC, n= 2; DE, n= 4.

RNA-seq study: hESC, n=2; DE, n= 3.

Supplementary Figure 6. TF binding motif enrichment analysis of TREs specific to hESC or DE. (A)

TF motif enrichment analyses were performed in hESC-specific enhancers (n = 3906) relative to non-hESC-

specific TREs (n = 50,777) as well as in hESC-specific enhancer hotspots (n = 211) relative to non-hotspots

(n = 2,881). (B) Motifs significantly enriched in hESC-specific enhancers (highlighted by light orange bar)

or in hESC-specific enhancer hotspots (highlighted by dark orange bar). The steady-state expression (RNA-

seq) of the corresponding TFs are also shown. (C) TF motif enrichment analyses were performed in DE-

specific enhancers (n = 2899) relative to non-DE-specific TREs (n = 51,784) as well as in DE-specific

enhancer hotspots (n = 147) relative to non-hotspots (n = 1987). (D) Motifs significantly enriched in DE-

specific enhancers (highlighted by light green bar) or in DE-specific enhancer hotspots (highlighted by dark

green bar). (E) Bubble plot showing full list of genes associated with active binding motifs of TFs that

exhibit an overall enrichment of binding motifs in Duo-specific enhancers (defined in **Figure 6C**). ChRO-

seq study: hESC, n= 3; DE, n = 4; Duo spheroid, n = 3.

921
922
References
1.　　Sheaffer KL, Kaestner KH: **Transcriptional networks in liver and intestinal**
development. *Cold Spring Harb Perspect Biol* 2012, **4:**a008284.
2.　　Gao N, White P, Kaestner KH: **Establishment of intestinal identity and epithelial-**
mesenchymal signaling by Cdx2. *Dev Cell* 2009, **16:**588-599.
3.　　Thompson CA, Wojta K, Pulakanti K, Rao S, Dawson P, Battle MA: **GATA4 Is**
Sufficient to Establish Jejunal Versus Ileal Identity in the Small Intestine. *Cell Mol*
Gastroenterol Hepatol 2017, **3:**422-446.
4.　　Thompson CA, DeLaForest A, Battle MA: **Patterning the gastrointestinal epithelium**
to confer regional-specific functions. *Dev Biol* 2018, **435:**97-108.
5.　　Verzi MP, Hatzis P, Sulahian R, Philips J, Schuijers J, Shin H, Freed E, Lynch JP, Dang
DT, Brown M, et al: **TCF4 and CDX2, major transcription factors for intestinal**
function, converge on the same cis-regulatory regions. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*
2010, **107:**15157-15162.
6.　　Nowotschin S, Setty M, Kuo YY, Liu V, Garg V, Sharma R, Simon CS, Saiz N, Gardner
R, Boutet SC, et al: **The emergent landscape of the mouse gut endoderm at single-cell**
resolution. *Nature* 2019, **569:**361-367.
7.　　Gao S, Yan L, Wang R, Li J, Yong J, Zhou X, Wei Y, Wu X, Wang X, Fan X, et al:
Tracing the temporal-spatial transcriptome landscapes of the human fetal digestive
tract using single-cell RNA-sequencing. *Nat Cell Biol* 2018, **20:**721-734.
8.　　Kumar N, Tsai YH, Chen L, Zhou A, Banerjee KK, Saxena M, Huang S, Toke NH, Xing
J, Shivdasani RA, et al: **The lineage-specific transcription factor CDX2 navigates**
dynamic chromatin to control distinct stages of intestine development. *Development*
2019, **146**.
9.　　Dong J, Hu Y, Fan X, Wu X, Mao Y, Hu B, Guo H, Wen L, Tang F: **Single-cell RNA-**
seq analysis unveils a prevalent epithelial/mesenchymal hybrid state during mouse
organogenesis. *Genome Biol* 2018, **19:**31.
10.　　Banerjee KK, Saxena M, Kumar N, Chen L, Cavazza A, Toke NH, O'Neill NK, Madha
S, Jadhav U, Verzi MP, Shivdasani RA: **Enhancer, transcriptional, and cell fate**
plasticity precedes intestinal determination during endoderm development. *Genes*
Dev 2018, **32:**1430-1442.
11.　　Chen L, Toke NH, Luo S, Vasoya RP, Fullem RL, Parthasarathy A, Perekatt AO, Verzi
MP: **A reinforcing HNF4-SMAD4 feed-forward module stabilizes enterocyte**
identity. *Nat Genet* 2019, **51:**777-785.
12.　　Elmentaite R, Alexander Ross, Kylie R. James, Daniel Ortmann, omas Gomes, Kenny
Roberts, Komal Nayak, Liz Tuck, Omer Ali Bayraktar, Robert Heuschkel, et al: **Single-**
cell sequencing of developing human gut reveals transcriptional links to childhood
Crohn's disease. *bioRxiv* 2020.

13. Yu Q, Kilik U, Holloway E, Yu-Hwai Tsai, Angeline Wu, Joshua H. Wu, Michael
Czerwinski, Charlie Childs, Zhisong He, Ian A. Glass, et al: **An organoid and multi-**
organ developmental cell atlas reveals multilineage fate specification in the human
intestine. *bioRxiv* 2020.
14. Nord AS, Blow MJ, Attanasio C, Akiyama JA, Holt A, Hosseini R, Phouanenavong S,
Plajzer-Frick I, Shoukry M, Afzal V, et al: **Rapid and pervasive changes in genome-**
wide enhancer usage during mammalian development. *Cell* 2013, **155:**1521-1531.
15. Xie W, Schultz MD, Lister R, Hou Z, Rajagopal N, Ray P, Whitaker JW, Tian S,
Hawkins RD, Leung D, et al: **Epigenomic analysis of multilineage differentiation of**
human embryonic stem cells. *Cell* 2013, **153:**1134-1148.
16. Heintzman ND, Hon GC, Hawkins RD, Kheradpour P, Stark A, Harp LF, Ye Z, Lee LK,
Stuart RK, Ching CW, et al: **Histone modifications at human enhancers reflect global**
cell-type-specific gene expression. *Nature* 2009, **459:**108-112.
17. Long HK, Prescott SL, Wysocka J: **Ever-Changing Landscapes: Transcriptional**
Enhancers in Development and Evolution. *Cell* 2016, **167:**1170-1187.
18. Kim TK, Hemberg M, Gray JM, Costa AM, Bear DM, Wu J, Harmin DA, Laptewicz M,
Barbara-Haley K, Kuersten S, et al: **Widespread transcription at neuronal activity-**
regulated enhancers. *Nature* 2010, **465:**182-187.
19. Koch F, Fenouil R, Gut M, Cauchy P, Albert TK, Zacarias-Cabeza J, Spicuglia S, de la
Chapelle AL, Heidemann M, Hintermair C, et al: **Transcription initiation platforms**
and GTF recruitment at tissue-specific enhancers and promoters. *Nat Struct Mol Biol*
2011, **18:**956-963.
20. Chu T, Rice EJ, Booth GT, Salamanca HH, Wang Z, Core LJ, Longo SL, Corona RJ,
Chin LS, Lis JT, et al: **Chromatin run-on and sequencing maps the transcriptional**
regulatory landscape of glioblastoma multiforme. *Nat Genet* 2018, **50:**1553-1564.
21. Core LJ, Waterfall JJ, Lis JT: **Nascent RNA sequencing reveals widespread pausing**
and divergent initiation at human promoters. *Science* 2008, **322:**1845-1848.
22. Kwak H, Fuda NJ, Core LJ, Lis JT: **Precise maps of RNA polymerase reveal how**
promoters direct initiation and pausing. *Science* 2013, **339:**950-953.
23. Dinh TA, Sritharan R, Smith FD, Francisco AB, Ma RK, Bunaciu RP, Kanke M, Danko
CG, Massa AP, Scott JD, Sethupathy P: **Hotspots of Aberrant Enhancer Activity in**
Fibrolamellar Carcinoma Reveal Candidate Oncogenic Pathways and Therapeutic
Vulnerabilities. *Cell Rep* 2020, **31:**107509.
24. Wells JM, Spence JR: **How to make an intestine.** *Development* 2014, **141:**752-760.
25. Sinagoga KL, Wells JM: **Generating human intestinal tissues from pluripotent stem**
cells to study development and disease. *EMBO J* 2015, **34:**1149-1163.
26. Spence JR, Mayhew CN, Rankin SA, Kuhar MF, Vallance JE, Tolle K, Hoskins EE,
Kalinichenko VV, Wells SI, Zorn AM, et al: **Directed differentiation of human**
pluripotent stem cells into intestinal tissue in vitro. *Nature* 2011, **470:**105-109.
27. McCracken KW, Howell JC, Wells JM, Spence JR: **Generating human intestinal tissue**
from pluripotent stem cells in vitro. *Nat Protoc* 2011, **6:**1920-1928.
28. Tsai YH, Nattiv R, Dedhia PH, Nagy MS, Chin AM, Thomson M, Klein OD, Spence JR:
In vitro patterning of pluripotent stem cell-derived intestine recapitulates in vivo
human development. *Development* 2017, **144:**1045-1055.

29. Watson CL, Mahe MM, Munera J, Howell JC, Sundaram N, Poling HM, Schweitzer JI,
Vallance JE, Mayhew CN, Sun Y, et al: **An in vivo model of human small intestine**
using pluripotent stem cells. *Nat Med* 2014, **20:**1310-1314.
30. Hill DR, Huang S, Nagy MS, Yadagiri VK, Fields C, Mukherjee D, Bons B, Dedhia PH,
Chin AM, Tsai YH, et al: **Bacterial colonization stimulates a complex physiological**
response in the immature human intestinal epithelium. *Elife* 2017, **6**.
31. Finkbeiner SR, Hill DR, Altheim CH, Dedhia PH, Taylor MJ, Tsai YH, Chin AM, Mahe
MM, Watson CL, Freeman JJ, et al: **Transcriptome-wide Analysis Reveals Hallmarks**
of Human Intestine Development and Maturation In Vitro and In Vivo. *Stem Cell*
Reports 2015.
32. Wang D, Wang J, Bai L, Pan H, Feng H, Clevers H, Zeng YA: **Long-Term Expansion**
of Pancreatic Islet Organoids from Resident Procr(+) Progenitors. *Cell* 2020,
180:1198-1211 e1119.
33. Chu T, Wang Z, Chou SP, Danko CG: **Discovering Transcriptional Regulatory**
Elements From Run-On and Sequencing Data Using the Web-Based dREG
Gateway. *Curr Protoc Bioinformatics* 2019, **66:**e70.
34. Andersson R, Gebhard C, Miguel-Escalada I, Hoof I, Bornholdt J, Boyd M, Chen Y,
Zhao X, Schmidl C, Suzuki T, et al: **An atlas of active enhancers across human cell**
types and tissues. *Nature* 2014, **507:**455-461.
35. Oz-Levi D, Olender T, Bar-Joseph I, Zhu Y, Marek-Yagel D, Barozzi I, Osterwalder M,
Alkelai A, Ruzzo EK, Han Y, et al: **Noncoding deletions reveal a gene that is critical**
for intestinal function. *Nature* 2019, **571:**107-111.
36. Whyte WA, Orlando DA, Hnisz D, Abraham BJ, Lin CY, Kagey MH, Rahl PB, Lee TI,
Young RA: **Master transcription factors and mediator establish super-enhancers at**
key cell identity genes. *Cell* 2013, **153:**307-319.
37. Hnisz D, Abraham BJ, Lee TI, Lau A, Saint-Andre V, Sigova AA, Hoke HA, Young RA:
Super-enhancers in the control of cell identity and disease. *Cell* 2013, **155:**934-947.
38. Boyd M, Thodberg M, Vitezic M, Bornholdt J, Vitting-Seerup K, Chen Y, Coskun M, Li
Y, Lo BZS, Klausen P, et al: **Characterization of the enhancer and promoter**
landscape of inflammatory bowel disease from human colon biopsies. *Nat Commun*
2018, **9:**1661.
39. Barros R, da Costa LT, Pinto-de-Sousa J, Duluc I, Freund JN, David L, Almeida R:
CDX2 autoregulation in human intestinal metaplasia of the stomach: impact on the
stability of the phenotype. *Gut* 2011, **60:**290-298.
40. Czerwinski M, Holloway E, Tsai Y-H, Angeline Wu, Qianhui Yu, Josh Wu, Katherine D.
Walton, Caden Sweet, Charlie Childs, Ian Glass, et al: **In vitro and in vivo development**
of the human intestinal niche at single cell resolution. *bioRxiv* 2020.
41. Holloway E, Joshua H. Wu, Michael Czerwinski, Caden W. Sweet, Angeline Wu, Yu-
Hwai Tsai, Sha Huang, Amy E. Stoddard, Meghan M. Capeling, Ian Glass, Spence JR:
Differentiation of human intestinal organoids with endogenous vascular endothelial
cells. *bioRxiv* 2020.
42. Kageyama R, Ohtsuka T, Kobayashi T: **The Hes gene family: repressors and**
oscillators that orchestrate embryogenesis. *Development* 2007, **134:**1243-1251.
43. Kohlhase J, Wischermann A, Reichenbach H, Froster U, Engel W: **Mutations in the**
SALL1 putative transcription factor gene cause Townes-Brocks syndrome. *Nat*
Genet 1998, **18:**81-83.

44.   Kiefer SM, Ohlemiller KK, Yang J, McDill BW, Kohlhase J, Rauchman M: **Expression**
of a truncated Sall1 transcriptional repressor is responsible for Townes-Brocks
syndrome birth defects. *Hum Mol Genet* 2003, **12:**2221-2227.

45.   Kennedy MW, Chalamalasetty RB, Thomas S, Garriock RJ, Jailwala P, Yamaguchi TP:
Sp5 and Sp8 recruit beta-catenin and Tcf1-Lef1 to select enhancers to activate Wnt
target gene transcription. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 2016, **113:**3545-3550.

46.   Sato A, Kishida S, Tanaka T, Kikuchi A, Kodama T, Asashima M, Nishinakamura R:
Sall1, a causative gene for Townes-Brocks syndrome, enhances the canonical Wnt
signaling by localizing to heterochromatin. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* 2004,
319:103-113.

47.   Villano JL, Katz FN: **four-jointed is required for intermediate growth in the**
proximal-distal axis in Drosophila. *Development* 1995, **121:**2767-2777.

48.   Zeidler MP, Perrimon N, Strutt DI: **The four-jointed gene is required in the**
Drosophila eye for ommatidial polarity specification. *Curr Biol* 1999, **9:**1363-1372.

49.   Rock R, Heinrich AC, Schumacher N, Gessler M: **Fjx1: a notch-inducible secreted**
ligand with specific binding sites in developing mouse embryos and adult brain. *Dev*
Dyn 2005, **234:**602-612.

50.   Simoes-Costa M, Stone M, Bronner ME: **Axud1 Integrates Wnt Signaling and**
Transcriptional Inputs to Drive Neural Crest Formation. *Dev Cell* 2015, **34:**544-554.

51.   Kawazoe Y, Sekimoto T, Araki M, Takagi K, Araki K, Yamamura K: **Region-specific**
gastrointestinal Hox code during murine embryonal gut development. *Dev Growth*
Differ 2002, **44:**77-84.

52.   Sekimoto T, Yoshinobu K, Yoshida M, Kuratani S, Fujimoto S, Araki M, Tajima N,
Araki K, Yamamura K: **Region-specific expression of murine Hox genes implies the**
Hox code-mediated patterning of the digestive tract. *Genes Cells* 1998, **3:**51-64.

53.   Ye DZ, Kaestner KH: **Foxa1 and Foxa2 control the differentiation of goblet and**
enteroendocrine L- and D-cells in mice. *Gastroenterology* 2009, **137:**2052-2062.

54.   Kerschner JL, Gosalia N, Leir SH, Harris A: **Chromatin remodeling mediated by the**
FOXA1/A2 transcription factors activates CFTR expression in intestinal epithelial
cells. *Epigenetics* 2014, **9:**557-565.

55.   Wu YZ, Chan KYY, Leung KT, Lam HS, Tam YH, Lee KH, Li K, Ng PC:
Dysregulation of miR-431 and target gene FOXA1 in intestinal tissues of infants
with necrotizing enterocolitis. *FASEB J* 2019, **33:**5143-5152.

56.   Matsuyama M, Aizawa S, Shimono A: **Sfrp controls apicobasal polarity and oriented**
cell division in developing gut epithelium. *PLoS Genet* 2009, **5:**e1000427.

57.   Allison TF, Smith AJH, Anastassiadis K, Sloane-Stanley J, Biga V, Stavish D, Hackland
J, Sabri S, Langerman J, Jones M, et al: **Identification and Single-Cell Functional**
Characterization of an Endodermally Biased Pluripotent Substate in Human
Embryonic Stem Cells. *Stem Cell Reports* 2018, **10:**1895-1907.

58.   Chu LF, Leng N, Zhang J, Hou Z, Mamott D, Vereide DT, Choi J, Kendziorski C,
Stewart R, Thomson JA: **Single-cell RNA-seq reveals novel regulators of human**
embryonic stem cell differentiation to definitive endoderm. *Genome Biol* 2016,
17:173.

59.   Tiyaboonchai A, Cardenas-Diaz FL, Ying L, Maguire JA, Sim X, Jobaliya C, Gagne AL,
Kishore S, Stanescu DE, Hughes N, et al: **GATA6 Plays an Important Role in the**

Induction of Human Definitive Endoderm, Development of the Pancreas, and
Functionality of Pancreatic beta Cells. *Stem Cell Reports* 2017, **8:**589-604.

60.   Cardoso-Moreira M, Halbert J, Valloton D, Velten B, Chen C, Shao Y, Liechti A,
Ascencao K, Rummel C, Ovchinnikova S, et al: **Gene expression across mammalian**
organ development. *Nature* 2019, **571:**505-509.

61.   Finkbeiner SR, Freeman JJ, Wieck MM, El-Nachef W, Altheim CH, Tsai YH, Huang S,
Dyal R, White ES, Grikscheit TC, et al: **Generation of tissue-engineered small**
intestine using embryonic stem cell-derived human intestinal organoids. *Biol Open*
2015, **4:**1462-1472.

62.   Dame MK, Attili D, McClintock SD, Dedhia PH, Ouillette P, Hardt O, Chin AM, Xue X,
Laliberte J, Katz EL, et al: **Identification, isolation and characterization of human**
LGR5-positive colon adenoma cells. *Development* 2018, **145**.

63.   Wuarin J, Schibler U: **Physical isolation of nascent RNA chains transcribed by RNA**
polymerase II: evidence for cotranscriptional splicing. *Mol Cell Biol* 1994, **14:**7219-
7225.

64.   Mahat DB, Kwak H, Booth GT, Jonkers IH, Danko CG, Patel RK, Waters CT, Munson
K, Core LJ, Lis JT: **Base-pair-resolution genome-wide mapping of active RNA**
polymerases using precision nuclear run-on (PRO-seq). *Nat Protoc* 2016, **11:**1455-
1476.

65.   Dobin A, Davis CA, Schlesinger F, Drenkow J, Zaleski C, Jha S, Batut P, Chaisson M,
Gingeras TR: **STAR: ultrafast universal RNA-seq aligner.** *Bioinformatics* 2013,
29:15-21.

66.   Patro R, Duggal G, Love MI, Irizarry RA, Kingsford C: **Salmon provides fast and bias-**
aware quantification of transcript expression. *Nat Methods* 2017, **14:**417-419.

67.   Love MI, Huber W, Anders S: **Moderated estimation of fold change and dispersion**
for RNA-seq data with DESeq2. *Genome Biol* 2014, **15:**550.

68.   Kuleshov MV, Jones MR, Rouillard AD, Fernandez NF, Duan Q, Wang Z, Koplev S,
Jenkins SL, Jagodnik KM, Lachmann A, et al: **Enrichr: a comprehensive gene set**
enrichment analysis web server 2016 update. *Nucleic Acids Res* 2016, **44:**W90-97.

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

70.   Butler A, Hoffman P, Smibert P, Papalexi E, Satija R: **Integrating single-cell**
transcriptomic data across different conditions, technologies, and species. *Nat*
Biotechnol 2018, **36:**411-420.

1132

1133

1134

Figure 1.

Figure 2.

A ChRO-seq gene bodies

B all stages (ρ = 0.73)

C Transcriptionally driven marker genes

Type
- antisense
- lincRNA
- protein coding

Figure 3.

Figure 4.

Figure 5.

Figure 6.

Figure 7.

Supplementary Figure 1.

A

B

C

Promoter proximal region
(stranded TSS -500/+200 window)

↓

Identify 9550 genes with significant changing
patterns across stages
(DESeq2: padj < 0.05 by likelihood ratio test)

↓

Extract protein coding gene results
followed by clustering (n =7651)

Supplementary Figure 2.

A

RNA-seq profile

stage
- hESC
- DE
- Duo
- Ile

B

PCA Analysis: RNA-seq

PC1: 65% variance

stage
- hESC
- DE
- Duo
- Ile

C

RNA-seq level (nc)

SOX2   SOX17   CDX2   FOXF1

D

DE vs. hESC

-log10(pvalue)

log2(DE/hESC expressed level)

E

GO Term of down-regulated genes in DE vs. hESC	P value	GO Term of up-regulated genes in DE vs. hESC	P value
Ribosome biogenesis	1.128e-9	Endoderm formation	1.435e-8
rRNA processing	1.448e-8	Axon guidance	2.444e-5
Carboxylic acid transport	1.804e-8	ECM organization	5.785e-5
rRNA metabolic process	6.399e-7	Endoderm development	7.338e-5
MAPK cascade	9.675e-7	Negative chemotaxis	7.637e-5

F

Duo vs. DE

-log10(pvalue)

log2(Duo/DE expressed level)

G

GO Term of down-regulated genes in Duo vs. DE	P value	GO Term of up-regulated genes in Duo vs. DE	P value
Axon guidance	4.775e-8	ECM organization	2.958e-18
Axonogenesis	3.226e-6	Kidney development	8.395e-12
Apoptosis regulation	4.935e-6	Skeletal system development	1.951e-11
Endoderm formation	1.035e-5	Renal system development	5.335e-10
MAPK cascade	6.039e-5	Ureteric bud development	9.528e-10

H

Ile vs. Duo

-log10(pvalue)

log2(Ile/Duo expressed level)

I

GO Term of down-regulated genes in Ile vs. Duo	P value	GO Term of up-regulated genes in Ile vs. Duo	P value
Heart development	1.876e-9	Positive regulation of transcription from RNA pol II promoter	1.042e-12
Mesoderm development	1.297e-7	Positive regulation of DNA-templated transcription	1.388e-12
Kidney development	6.208e-7	Regulation of transcription from RNA pol II promoter	1.385e-11
Circulatory system development	1.831e-6	Cell proliferation	1.894e-11
Renal system development	2.304e-6	Cell differentiation	2.646e-11

Supplementary Figure 3.

Supplementary Figure 4.

Supplementary Figure 5.

Supplementary Figure 6.