Spinal dI2 interneurons regulate the stability of bipedal stepping

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Summary

Peripheral and intraspinal feedback is required to shape and update the output of spinal

networks that execute motor behavior. We report that lumbar dI2 spinal interneurons of the

chick receive synaptic input from afferents and pre-motoneurons. They innervate

contralateral premotor networks in the lumbar and brachial spinal cord and their ascending

projections innervate the cerebellum. These findings suggest that dI2 neurons function as

interneurons in local lumbar circuits and involved in lumbo-brachial coupling and that part of

them deliver peripheral and intraspinal feedback to the cerebellum. Silencing of dI2 neurons

leads to destabilized stepping in P8 hatchlings with occasional collapses, variable step-

profiles and wide-base walking, suggesting that the dI2 neurons may contribute to

stabilization of the bipedal gait.

49   **Keywords:** spinal cord, spinocerebellar tract, neuronal circuits, locomotion

Introduction

The spinal cord integrates and relays the somatosensory inputs required for further execution of complex motor behaviors. Interneurons that differentiate at the ventral progenitor domain, V3-V0, are involved in the control of rhythmic motor activity, alternating between left and right limbs, as well as between flexor and extensor muscles (Lai et al., 2016, Osseward and Pfaff, 2019, Alaynick et al., 2011). Some of the dorsally born interneurons, dI1, dI3 and dI6, migrate ventrally and are also assembled within circuitry that control motor activity (Yuengert et al., 2015, Bui et al., 2013, Andersson et al., 2012), while other dorsal progenitor neurons, dI4 and dI5, give rise to interneurons that mediate somatosensation (Lai et al., 2016). The role of dI2 neuron is elusive due to the lack of genetic targeting means. Employing intersectional genetics in the chick spinal cord we targeted dI2 and present evidences that implicate them in the control of stability during locomotion.

The maintenance of stability of the body and the coordination, precision and timing of movements are regulated and modulated by the cerebellum. Anatomical and electrophysiological studies of cats and rodents revealed two major pathways ascending from tract neurons in the lumbar spinal cord to the cerebellum: the dorsal and the ventral spinocerebellar tract (DSCT and VSCT). DSCT tract neurons are considered to relay mainly proprioceptive information, while VSCT tract neurons are thought to relay internal spinal network-information to the cerebellum in addition to proprioceptive data (Jankowska and Hammar, 2013, Spanne and Jorntell, 2013, Stecina et al., 2013, Jiang et al., 2015). While subpopulations of DSCT neuron are genetically accessible (Hantman and Jessell, 2010), the genetic inaccessibility of VSCT neurons hinders revealing their actual contribution to the regulatory functions of the cerebellum in locomotion and other motor behaviors.

In the present study we studied the possible functions of dI2 neurons in chick motor

behavior. There are several reasons and advantages to perform these studies in chicks: The

patterning of neurons within the spinal cord (Jessell, 2000) and the spinocerebellar tracts

(Furue et al., 2010, Furue et al., 2011, Uehara et al., 2012) are conserved between

mammalians and avian. In addition, chick uses bipedal locomotion (evolved in humans and

birds) that can be examined soon after hatching. For decoding the circuitry and function of

spinal interneurons we developed a unique circuit-deciphering toolbox that enables

neuronal-specific targeting and tracing of circuits in the chick embryo (Hadas et al., 2014),

and utilized kinematic analysis of overground bipedal stepping of the hatched chicks

following silencing of dI2.

Our studies revealed that lumbar dl2 neurons receive synaptic inputs from inhibitory

and excitatory premotoneurons and relay output to the cerebellar granular layer, premotor

neurons at the contralateral spinal cord and the contralateral dI2. Kinematic analysis of

overground stepping of P8 hatchlings after Inhibition of the neuronal activity of dI2s by

targeted expression of the tetanus toxin gene, showed unstable stepping in the genetically

manipulated hatchlings, hence demonstrating that dI2s play a role in shaping and stabilizing

the bipedal gait.

Results

In order to define potential VSCT neurons within spinal interneurons, we set the following

criteria: 1) Soma location in accordance with pre-cerebellar neurons at the lumbar level,

which were previously revealed by retrograde labeling experiments of the chick cerebellar

lobes (Furue et al., 2010, Furue et al., 2011, Uehara et al., 2012), 2) Commissural neurons, 3)

excitatory neurons, and 4) non-premotoneurons (Lai et al., 2016, Osseward and Pfaff, 2019,

Alaynick et al., 2011). Based on these criteria dI1c and dI2 neurons are likely candidates

(Bermingham et al., 2001, Yuengert et al., 2015) (Fig. S1B). This is further supported by Sakai

et al., who demonstrated that in the E12 chick, dI1 and dI2 axons project to the hindbrain

and toward the cerebellum (Sakai et al., 2012). In the current study we have focused on

deciphering the circuitry and function of dI2 neurons and their possible association to VSCT.

dI2 interneurons are mainly excitatory neurons with commissural axonal projection

The dI2 neurons originate at the dorsal spinal cord. The progenitor pdI2 express Ngn1, Ngn2,

Olig3 and Pax3 transcription factors (TFs). The post mitotic dI2 are defined by a

combinatorial expression of Foxd3$^+$/Lhx1$^+$/Pou4f1$^+$ TFs (Alaynick et al., 2011, Morikawa et

al., 2009, Francius et al., 2013). To label dI2 neurons, axons, and terminals in the chick spinal

cord we used intersection between enhancers of two dI2's TFs - Ngn1 and the Foxd3, via

expression of two recombinases (Cre and FLPo) and double conditional reporters (Fig. S1A).

We have shown previously that the combination of these enhancers reliably labels dI2

neurons (Avraham et al., 2009, Hadas et al., 2014). At E5, early post mitotic dI2 neurons

migrate ventrally from the dorso-lateral to the mid-lateral spinal cord (Fig. 1A). As they

migrate ventrally, at E6, dI2 neurons assume a mid-lateral position along the dorso-ventral

axis (Fig. 1B). Subsequently, dI2 neurons migrate medially, and at E17, comparable to pos-

gestation day 4 (P4) of mouse, they occupy lamina VII (Fig. 1C). At all rostro-caudal levels and

embryonic stages, dI2 axons cross the floor plate (Fig. 1A-D). Post-crossing dI2 axons extend

rostrally for a few segments at the ventral funiculus (VF) and subsequently turn into the

lateral funiculus (LF) (Avraham et al., 2009) (Fig. 1C). The VF to LF rerouting is apparent at

the rostral thoracic levels (Fig. 1D). Collaterals originating from the crossed VF and LF tracts

invade the contralateral spinal cord (Fig. 1C, D, Fig. 4A,B).

A recent study suggested that dI2 neurons at early stages of development in mice at

E9.5-E13.5 (comparable the chick E4-8) can be divided into several sub classes based on their

genetic signature, and degree of maturation (Delile et al., 2019). To assess the diversity of

dI2 neurons in the chick, the expression of dI2 TFs in dI2::GFP cells was analyzed at E5 before

and during ventral migration, E6 and E14. The early post mitotic dI2::GFP at E5 are a

homogenous population defined by $Foxd3^+/Lhx1^+/Pou4f1^+/Pax2^-$ (Fig. 1E, S2A,B). The dI2

neurons that undergo ventral migration at E5, as well as at E6 and E14, express variable

combinations of Lhx1, Pou4f1 and FoxP1/2/4 (Fig. 1E, S2C,D). At E14, about 50% of dI2::GFP

did not express any of the tested TFs (Fig. 1E), suggesting that the early expression of TFs is

required for cell fate acquisition, axon guidance, and target recognition, while their

expression is redundant during circuitry formation, as shown for other spinal INs (Bikoff et

al., 2016). Interestingly, about 12% of ventrally migrating dI2 neurons (from E5 to E14)

express Pax2 (Fig. 1E, S2D). Pax2 is associated with an inhibitory phenotype (Cheng et al.,

2004), suggesting that a subpopulation of dI2 are inhibitory neurons. The distribution of

excitatory and inhibitory dI2 neurons is also apparent at E17. *In situ* hybridization on cross

sections of E17 dI2::GFP-labeled lumbar spinal cord, the vGlut2 probe revealed that 88%

were $vGlut2^+$, while the Gad1 probe measured 25% $Gad1^+$ dI2 neurons (Fig. S3A-D). A similar

 Figure 1: Characterization and classification of dI2 neurons during embryonic development.
dI2 interneurons were labeled by genetic intersection between Foxd3 and Ngn1 enhancers (Avraham et al., 2009) (Supp Fig. S1).

A–D. dI2 axonal projection during development. At E5 (A) post mitotic dI2 neurons assume a dorsolateral position and start to migrate ventrally. At E6 (B) dI2 neurons occupy the mid-lateral domain. At E15-17 dI2 neurons are located at the medial lamina VII at the lumbar level (LS3) (C) and the thoracic level (T1) (D). dI2 axons cross the floor plate (yellow arrowheads), turn longitudinally at the ventral funiculus (white arrowheads) and eventually elongate at the lateral funiculus (white arrows).

E. A graph indicating the fraction of dI2 neurons expressing TFs during development (based on data from three E5, two E6 and two E14 embryos). **F.** Cross section of an E17 embryo at the lumbar spinal cord (crural plexus level, LS2). Small-diameter dI2 neurons residing in lamina VII (F') and ventromedial large-diameter dI2 neurons in lamina VIII (F"). **G.** Density plots of dI2 somata in the sciatic plexus level (cyan, N=374 cells), dI2$_{large}$ (magenta) and dI2$_{small}$ (yellow) INs (N=33 and N=344 cells, respectively, from 2 embryos).
See Figure S2 and S3.

percentage of Gad2 and Slc6a5 dI2-expressing cells was found also in mouse (Delile et al.,

2019). At E13-17 in the caudal lumbar level and at the level of the sciatic plexus, most dI2

neurons reside at the medial aspect of lamina VII. About 91% of dI2 neurons are small-

diameter neurons that reside at the lateral dorsal aspect of lamina VII, and 9% are large-

diameter neurons. At the lumbar sciatic plexus level, large-diameter dI2 neurons mostly

reside at the ventral aspect of lamina VII (Fig. 1F,G) and at the level of the crural plexus in

the ventral and dorsal aspect of lamina VII (Fig. S3E). Importantly, large-diameter dI2

neurons are only apparent at the lumbar level (Fig. 1F, S3E-F). The division of large- and

small-diameter lumbar dI2 neurons was not reflected in the expression of the tested TFs.

Hence, dI2 neurons consist several sub-populations, as it was shown with other spinal

interneurons (Bikoff et al., 2016, Delile et al., 2019, Sweeney et al., 2018)

Sub-population of dI2 neurons project to the cerebellum

To study the supraspinal targets of dI2 neurons, axonal and synaptic reporters were

expressed in lumbar dI2 neurons (Fig. 2A). At E3, dI2 enhancers were co-electroporated with

double conditional axonal reporter – membrane tethered cherry, and synaptic reporter –

SV2-GFP (Fig. S1A). Expression into the lumbar spinal cord was attained by using thin

electrodes positioned near the lumbar segments. At E17, the stage in which the internal

granule layer is formed in the chick cerebellum, the axons and synapses of dI2 neurons were

studied. dI2 axons cross the spinal cord at the floor plate at the segmental level, ascend to

the cerebellum, enter through the superior cerebellar peduncle, and cross back to the other

side of the cerebellum ipsilaterally to the targeted dI2s (Fig. 2B). Synaptic boutons are

noticeable in the granule layer at the ipsilateral and contralateral sides of the anterior

cerebellar lobules (Fig. 2C). Synaptic boutons were also present in the central cerebellar

nuclei (Fig. S4A).

The difference in the soma size between the dorsally and ventrally located dI2

neurons prompted us to test which dI2 neurons project to the cerebellum. The dI2 and pre-

cerebellar neurons were co-labeled by genetic targeting of dI2 at early stages of

embryogenesis (E3), coupled with intra-cerebellar injection of cholera toxin subunit B (CTB)

or replication-defective HSV-LacZ at E15 (Fig. 2A). Spinal neurons retrogradely-labelled from

the cerebellum consist of the double crossed VSCT and the ipsilaterally projecting DSCT

neurons. However, dI2 neurons, double labelled by genetic targeting and back labelling from

the cerebellum, are all VSCT neurons, since dI2 are commissural neurons. Only the large-

diameter neurons were co-labeled, most of them in the ventral aspect of lamina VII (Fig.

2D,E,H; S4B,C). Interestingly, many of CTB$^+$ or LacZ$^+$ neurons were contacted by dI2 axons

(Fig. 2F,G,I; S4D,E), suggesting that small-diameter dI2 neurons innervate pre-cerebellar

neurons.

Segmental crossing at the lumbar level and re-crossing back to the ipsilateral side at

the cerebellum, is a characteristic of the VSCT projection pattern. To measure the proportion

of dI2 in VSCT neurons, we labeled VSCT axons with GFP and dI2 axons with cherry (for

experimental design see Supp. Fig. S4G,F). The number of axons expressing the reporters at

the contralateral superior cerebellar peduncle was scored. Ten percent of the VSCT axons

belonged to dI2 (Fig. S4H). Thus, the large diameter dI2s are 10% of the VSCT neurons,

consistent with the anatomical observation that VSCT comprise a heterogeneous population

of interneurons (Jankowska and Hammar, 2013, Stecina et al., 2013).

Figure 2: dI2 neurons project to the cerebellum.

A. Experimental setup for labeling of cerebellar projecting dI2 neurons. dI2 neurons were genetically targeted at HH18, and pre-cerebellar neurons were labeled using intra-cerebellar injection of CTB or replication defective HSV-LacZ at E15. **B.** A cross section of E17 brainstem and cerebellum. The dashed polygon in B' is magnified in B. dI2 axons reach the cerebellum, enter into it via the superior cerebellar peduncle and cross the cerebellum midline. Calbindin (Purkinje neurons, magenta (B') or red (B)), synaptotagmin (yellow). **C.** A cross section of E17 cerebellar cortex. Lumbar-originating dI2 synapses (cyan) in the granular layer of the anterior cerebellar cortex. Calbindin (Purkinje neurons, magenta), synaptotagmin (yellow). **D.** A cross section of an E15 embryo at the lumbar spinal cord level (sciatic plexus level). Pre-cerebellar neurons were infected and labeled by HSV-LacZ (magenta), and dI2 neurons express GFP (cyan). A large-diameter dI2 neuron co-expressing LacZ and GFP is indicated by an arrow (magnification of the two channels in the insets). **E.** Density plots of dI2 and pre-cerebellar neurons (density values 10-90%) in the sciatic plexus segments (N=374 and N=289 cells, respectively). **F.** CTB labeled pre-cerebellar neuron (magenta) is contacted by dI2 axonal terminals (cyan). **G.** Density plots of dI2 synapses and pre-cerebellar neuron somata (density values 10-90%) in the sciatic plexus segments (N=4735 synapses and N=289 cells, respectively). **H,I.** Quantification of the overlap in area and volume of the two density plots. The plots are based on data from 3 embryos. See Figure S4.

dI2 neurons receive synaptic input from pre-motoneurons and sensory neurons

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To assess the synaptic input to dI2 neurons we investigated their synaptic connectivity with

known pre-VSCT neurons: dorsal root ganglion (DRG) neurons, inhibitory and excitatory pre-

motoneurons and reticulospinal tract neurons. Two genetically defined pre-motoneurons

were examined: V1 – an inhibitory pre-motoneuronal population (Bikoff et al., 2016,

Gosgnach et al., 2006) and dI1i excitatory INs. A density plot of dI1 synapses shows dI1i

terminals within the motoneuron pools (lamina IX) and at lamina VII (Fig. 3C). Co-labeling of

motoneurons and dI1 synapses revealed synaptic contacts of dI1i on motoneurons (Fig. S5A-

B). This was further supported by co-labeling dI1 with pre-MNs via hindlimb injection of

pseudorabies virus (PRV) (Fig. S5C-D).

To identify neurons presynaptic to dI2 cells we initially assessed the likelihood of

connectivity by examining spatial overlap of axonal terminals from the presumed

presynaptic neurons and the somata of dI2 neurons, and consequently by detection of

synaptic boutons on the somatodendritic membrane of dI2 neurons. We have shown

previously that genetic targeting of synaptic reporter in chick spinal cord neurons, yields

overlapping expression of the reporter and endogenous pre-synaptic proteins (Hadas et al.,

2014). This observation was confirmed using synaptic reporter expressed in dI1 and

cytoplasmic reporter expressed in dI2 (Fig. 3C'). The dI2, DRG, V1, and dI1 neurons were

labeled using specific enhancers (Fig. S1A). General premotor INs were labeled by injection

of PRV-cherry virus into the ipsilateral hindlimb musculature (Hadas et al., 2014) (Fig. 3B).

A density profile of the axons of DRG neurons (Fig. 3A, S6A-D) and PRV-labeled pre-

MNs (Fig. 3B), and a density profile of synaptic boutons from dI1i (Fig. 3C, S6E), V1 (Fig. 3D),

and reticulospinal tract neurons ($5HT^+$ synapses) (Fig. 3E, S6F) were aligned to the density

plots of the dI2 somata. The overlap between the axonal terminals of DRG neurons, PRV-

labeled pre-motoneurons, dI1i and V1 boutons, and the somata of dI2 neurons is evident

(Fig. 3A-F, Fig. S6G). To further substantiate these putative synaptic connections, we

performed double labeling of DRG, PRV-labeled pre-motoneurons, V1, and dI1i, together

with dI2 neurons. Hindlimb pre-motor neurons were labeled by injection of PRV into the

hindlimb musculature (Hadas et al., 2014); DRG and dI1 terminal and synapses by cell-type

specific enhancer (Fig. S1A); V1 synapses by a double conditional on/off reporter plasmids

that enables activation of synaptic reporter in V1 and dI2 utilizing the Foxd3 enhancer and

deletion of the synaptic reporter from dI2 neurons utilizing the Ngn1 enhancer (Fig. S1A).

Contact between DRG axons and dI2 neurons was mainly apparent in the dorsal dI2

neurons, while the ventral dI2 neurons received little to no input from DRG neurons (Fig. 3A,

S6A,B). Synaptic connections, evaluated by boutons on dI2 dendrites and somata, are

apparent from the pre-motor neurons V1 and dI1i (Fig. 3C,D). Serotonergic synapses were

found to be concentrated on motoneurons and were not observed on dI2 neurons (Fig. 3E,

S6F). Double-labeling of 5HT and dI2 neurons did not reveal any synaptic input. The lack of

synaptic serotonergic input may be related to the difference in species, or may suggest that

other, non-dI2 VSCT neurons residing adjacent to motoneurons, are contacted by the

reticulospinal neurons. The analysis of the synaptic inputs supports the concept that dI2

neurons constitute part of the VSCT. They receive input from sensory afferents, inhibitory

and excitatory pre-motoneurons and project to the cerebellum.

Figure 3: Synaptic inputs to dI2 neurons.

Schematic representations of the experimental design for labeling dI2::GFP or dI2::cherry INs (cyan) and potential sources of synaptic inputs (yellow or magenta), supplemented by cell soma density of dI2 INs and the synaptic densities are illustrated in A, B, C, D, E. The density values presented are 10-80%, 20-80%, 25-80%, 30-50% and 20-80%, respectively.

Examples of dI2 neurons contacted by axons or synaptic boutons are shown in A', B', C', and D'; and their 3D reconstruction in A'', B'', C'', and D''. Genetic labeling was attained using specific enhancers (Fig. S1) electroporated at HH18.

A. DRG neurons form contacts on dI2 neurons. Inset in A: cross section of and E17 embryo at the crural plexus level of the lumbar cord. A dorsally located dI2 neuron contacted by numerous sensory afferents, magnified in A' and 3D-reconstructed in A''. (*N*=18 sections)

B. Premotoneurons form contacts on dI2 neurons. dI2 neurons were labeled at HH18. At E13, PRV virus was injected to the leg musculature, and the embryo was incubated until premotoneuronal infection (39 hours) (*N*=34 sections).

C. dI1 neurons form synapses on dI2 neurons. (*N*=8568 synapses). C': A representative SV2::cherry synapse on dI2 dendrite, positive for synaptotagmin. Demonstrated by a horizontal and vertical optical sections in Z-axis (see cursors and color channels).

D. V1 neurons form synapses on dI2 neurons. (*N*=1923 synapses).

E. dI2 neurons do not have 5HT synaptic terminals (*N*=1718 synapses). E17 cross sections of dI2::GFP labeled embryos were stained for 5HT.

F. Quantification of the overlap area of the different input sources and dI2 neuron densities plots. See Figure S5, S6.

dI2 neurons innervate contralateral lumbar and brachial pre-MNs and dI2 neurons

Axon collaterals of dI2 invade the spinal cord gray matter along the entire length of the

spinal cord, as revealed by whole mount staining of spinal cords electroporated with alkaline

phosphatase reporter (dI2::AP) (Fig. 4A) and membrane-tethered EGFP (Fig. 4B). The region

innervated by dI2 collaterals (arrow at Fig. 4B) overlaps with that of the pre-MNs, V0 and V1

(Lai et al., 2016, Griener et al., 2015), as well as with that of the contralateral dI2 neurons

(Fig. 1, Fig. 4B). To assess the potential spinal targets of dI2 neurons, we scored the degree

of overlap between of dI2 synapses and dI2 somata (Fig. 4C), the ipsilateral pre-MNs (Fig.

4D), and contralateral pre-MNs (Fig. 4E). The alignment revealed a significant overlap of dI2

synapses with ipsi/contralateral pre-MNs and dI2 neurons (Fig. 4G,H). Co-labeling of synaptic

dI2 coupled with labeling of the above neuronal population showed dI2 synaptic boutons on

pre-MNs and dI2 neurons at the lumbar level (Fig. 4C-H, S7A-C).

The pattern of dI2 collaterals along the entire rostrocaudal axis (Fig. 4A) suggests that

dI2 neurons innervate contralateral pre-MNs and dI2 neurons at multiple levels. To test this,

labeling of lumbar dI2 neurons was coupled with labeling of brachial pre-MNs and dI2 soma

labeling via wing musculature injection of PRV or electroporation of reporter in brachial dI2

neurons, respectively (Fig. 4F, S7D). dI2-synapses and the putative targets overlapped, and

synaptic boutons originated from lumbar level dI2 neurons are apparent on dI2 neurons, and

on the contra- and ipsilateral pre-MNs of the wings (Fig. 4F, S7D-F).

The neuronal and synaptic labelling experiments showed that lumbar dI2 neurons

innervate the cerebellum, lumbar and brachial pre-MN, and contralateral dI2 neurons (Fig.

6D). Hence, dI2 neurons may relay peripheral and intraspinal information to the cerebellum

and to the contralateral lumbar and brachial motor control centers.

Figure 4: Spinal synaptic targets of dI2 neurons.

A. A whole mount staining of spinal cord (thoracic segments) expressing alkaline phosphatase (AP) in dI2 neurons. The lumbar dI2 neurons (not included in the image) were labeled with AP. dI2 axon collaterals project and into the spinal cord (arrows).

B. Cross section of an E17 embryo at the crural plexus level of the lumbar cord. The axon collaterals (white arrow) penetrating the gray matter of the contralateral side are evident.

Schematic representations of the experimental design for labeling synapses (dI2::SV2-GFP, yellow) and potential targets (magenta) supplemented by cell soma density and dI2 synaptic densities are illustrated in C, D, E, and F. Examples of target neurons contacting synaptic boutons of dI2 neurons are shown in C', D', E', and F'; and their 3D reconstruction in C'', D'', E'', and F''. Genetic labeling was attained using dI2 enhancers (Fig. S1) electroporated at HH18. Pre-MNs were labeled by injection of PRV-cherry into the hindlimbs (D, E) or the forelimb (F) musculature, at E13. The embryos were incubated until pre-MNs infection (39 hours).

C. dI2 neurons innervate the contralateral dI2 neurons (*N*=4735 synapses and *N*=374 cells, respectively).

D. dI2 neurons innervate ipsilateral projecting premotoneurons at the sciatic plexus level (*N*=4735 synapses and *N*=936 cells, respectively).

E. dI2 neurons innervate contralateral projecting premotoneurons at the sciatic plexus level (*N*=4735 synapses and *N*=47 cells, respectively).

F. dI2 neurons innervate brachial ipsilateral projecting premotoneurons (*N*=2215 synapses and *N*=286 cells, respectively).

G. Quantification of the overlap area of different synaptic targets and dI2 synapse density plots, as the percentage of overlap between dI2 synapses and the target.

H. Quantification of the overlap in volume of the different synaptic targets and dI2 synapse density plots, as the percentage of overlap between the synaptic target and dI2 synapses. See Figure S7.

Silencing of dI2 neurons impairs stability of bipedal stepping

The synaptic input to dI2 and their targets, implicate them as relaying information about

motor activity to the contralateral spinal cord and the cerebellum. Thus, we hypothesized

that manipulation of their neuronal activity may affect the dynamic profile of stepping.

To study the physiological role of dI2 neurons, we silenced their activity using bilateral

targeting of the tetanus toxin (*TeTX)* gene, to lumbar dI2s. EGFP was co-targeted in a 2/1

TeTX/EGFP ratio. EGFP expression in dI2 neurons and non-electroporated chicks was used as

a control. In order to maximize the number of targeted dI2 neurons, we combined genetic

targeting with the *Foxd3* enhancer and spatial placement of the electrodes at the dorsal

lumbar spinal cord (Fig. S1A). Embryos were electroporated at E3. Upon hatching, chicks

were trained for targeted over-ground locomotion.

To test whether silencing of dI2 impairs post-hatching development and muscle

strength, at P8 the weight of the chicks was measured and the foot grip power evaluated

(see below). Gait parameters of 4 controls and 5 *TeTX* treated chicks were measured while

chicks were walking toward their imprinting trainer along a horizontal track (6-20 walking

sessions, 5-8 strides each, per chick). Following the experiments, chicks were scarified and

their spinal cords were removed and processed for immune-detection of the efficacy of the

electroporation (Supplementary table S1).

The weight of all chicks was comparable within the range of 144.7±12.1 gr (Supp.

Table S1). As a functional measure of foot grip, we tested the ability of the chicks to maintain

balance on a tilted meshed surface. *TeTX*-manipulated chicks and control chicks, maintained

balance on the titled surface up to $63–70^0$, with no apparent statistically significant

differences (Supplementary Table S1, Supplementary statistics). Thus, manipulation of dI2

neuronal activity did not impair post-hatching development and muscle strength.

Figure 5: Kinematic analysis of locomotion in post-hatching chicks following neuronal silencing of dI2.

A. Schematic illustration of chick hindlimb joints (bold) and bones (regular). The knee joint connects between the femur and the tibiotarsus, the ankle connects the tibiotarsus and the tarsometatarsus which connects to the phalanges by the tarsometatarso-phalangeal joint (TMP). During the swing phase of birds, the ankle flexion leads to foot elevation, while the knee is relatively stable.

B,C. Stick diagrams of stepping in a control chicken d2::GFP (B) and in a d2::TeTX chicken (C). Arrows indicate falls and overshoots are denoted by arrowheads.

D. Overlays of knee height (demonstrated in insert) trajectories during the swing phase in all analyzed steps of each of the control and *TeTX* treated P8 hatchlings are shown superimposed with the respective 20%–80% color coded density plots as a function of the percentage of swing (see Text and Materials and Methods). Arrows indicate falls and overshoots are indicated by arrowheads.

E. Overlay of angular trajectories of the TMP joint (demonstrated in insert) during the swing phase in all analyzed strides of each of the control and *TeTX* treated P8 hatchlings are shown superimposed with the respective 20%–80% color coded density plots as a function of the percentage of swing (see Text and Materials and Methods).

Analysis of over ground locomotion of the control and *TeTX* treated chicks revealed

no significant differences is swing velocity and striding pattern. An 180^0 out-of-phase pattern

was found during stepping in all the manipulated and the control chicks (Fig. S8A, table 1,

Supplementary statistics). However, substantial differences were scored in stability

parameters: *TeTX* chicks exhibited whole-body collapses during stepping (Fig. 5B,C, Fig. 6A),

wide-base stepping (table 2), and variable limb movements (Fig.5 D,E, Fig. 6B,C, Fig. S8B,C

,tables 3, Supplementary statistics).

<u>Whole-body collapses</u>: A collapse was scored as a decline of the knee height below 85% of

the average knee height at the stance phase of the step (arrow in Fig. 5C). Collapses were

usually followed by over-extensions (arrow head in Fig. 5C). We measured the number of

collapses in 50–190 steps. In control chicks, collapses occurred in 0.53±0.92% of the steps. In

TeTX manipulated chicks we observed collapses in 19.46±8.3% of the steps, significantly

different from the controls (Fig. 6A, Supplementary statistics). The collapses and over-

extensions were also manifested in the profiles of the knee height trajectory during the

swing phase (Fig. 5D).

<u>Wide base stepping</u>: Wide-base stance is typical of an unbalanced ataxic gait. The stride

width was measured between the two feet during the double stance phase of stepping. The

mean stride in *TeTX*-manipulated chicks 1,2,4, and 5 was significantly wider than the control

chicks, while the width in *TeXT3* was similar to the controls (Table 2, Supplementary

statistics).

<u>Variable limb movements</u>: In stable gait, limb trajectories are consistent from stride to

stride. For point by point comparisons of the trajectories in knee height and angles of the

TMP joint during the swing phase of stepping in control and TeTx manipulated chicks, the

swing phase was normalized using 126 consecutive epochs, and the data were displayed as a

function of the percentage of swing. Plots of the knee height and TMP angle trajectories

during the normalized swing in all the analyzed steps of each chick are shown superimposed

in Fig. 5D and Fig. 5E, respectively. These data demonstrate that the range of changes in

TeTX-manipulated chicks was higher comparing to control chicks.

Further analyses revealed that overall the control group shows lower Knee-height

and TMP angle ranges than the TeXT-treated group, even though there are differences

within groups (Fig. S8B,C). The average knee height range of the combined control chicks

(1.981±0.33) is significantly lower than the range of the combined TeXT treated chicks

(3.109±0.74) (Fig. 6B, Supplementary statistics). Similar comparison of the combined ranges

of angular excursions of the TMP joint during the normalized swing revealed that the

average angle of the controls group (49.34±16.03) is significantly lower than the average of

the TeXT-treated chicks (77±22.149). (Fig. 6C, Supplementary statistics).

Since the increased range of changes could be due to the effects of the substantial

increase in body collapses during stepping (Fig. 6A, see also Fig. 5), we excluded steps

featuring whole body collapses and reanalyzed the data. The data summarized in table 3,

shows that the significant difference between controls and the *TeXT*-treated chicks in the

range of the knee height and the TMP angle excursions was maintained. Thus, the increase

in irregularity in the *TeXT*-treated chicks is not only due to the body collapses of the *TeXT*-

treated chicks. Overall, the kinematic parameters of the *dI2-TeXT-treated* chicks

demonstrate a reduction in stability during locomotion, featuring a possible role of dI2 in

stabilizing bipedal stepping.

<u>Figure 6.</u> Increased inter-stride variability in TMP angle and knee height in *TeTX*-treated chicks.
A. The percentage of steps with body collapses in the controls and *TeTX* manipulated hatchlings (n=4 and n=5, respectively). p-value<0.0001 (Z-test). See table 3 for single chick fall proportions.
B. Analysis of the mean range of knee height changes during the swing phase of control and TeTX treated chicks (n=4 and n=5, respectively). p-value<0.0001 using a T-test allowing different variances.
See Figure S8B and table 3 for single chick data and statistical analysis details.
C. Analysis of the mean range of TMP angular excursions during the swing phase of control- and TeTX-treated chicks. (n=4 and n=5, respectively). p-value<0.0001 Watson and Williams F test.
See Figure S8C and table 3 for single chick data and statistical analysis details.
D. Schematic illustration showing the connectome of lumbar dI2 neurons. dI2s (magenta) receive synaptic input from sensory afferents (solid blue line indicates massive synaptic input and dashed blue line indicates sparse innervation), Inhibitory and excitatory premotoneurons (yellow), and from the contralateral lumbar dI2. dI2s innervate the contralateral lumbar and brachial premotoneurons (both commissural and ipsilateral projecting premotoneurons are innervated by dI2), the lumbar and brachial contralateral dI2, lumbar pre-cerebellar neurons (green) and the granule neurons in the cerebellum.

329   Table 1: Stride velocity and left-right phase in control and TeTx manipulated chicks

330   Swing velocity and left-right phase were measured and calculated as described in the

331   Materials and Methods. The Watson and Williams F test of the phase data (circular ANOVA)

332   were not statistically significant (See also Supplementary statistics).

chick	Ave. Swing velocity (cm/sec)	Mean left-right phase (º)	# of steps
TeTX1	46.78 ± 22.13	184.679 ± 33.003	113
TeTX2	62.24 ± 20.17	182.293 ± 32.01	63
TeTX3	48.06 ± 20.04	180.784 ± 31.064	69
TeTX4	57.24 ± 24.35	180.502 ± 36.291	59
TeTX5	36.66 ± 17.61	181.97 ± 35.787	93
Control 1 (GFP)	79.65 ± 37.77	182.369 ± 35.366	47
Control 2 (GFP)	41.91± 20.41	182.384 ± 26.708	19
Control3 (Not electroporated)	41.09± 16.59	N.D.	121
Control4 (Not electroporated)	42.3± 30.91	N.D.	51

335   Table 2: Maximum stride width in control and TeTx manipulated chicks

336   Stride width was measured as described in Materials and Methods. One-way ANOVA

337   followed by Dunnett's.

chick	maximum stride width (cm)	# of steps
TeTX1	5.11 ± 1.89	97
TeTX2	5.32 ± 1.38	36
TeTX3	4.5 ± 1.01	27
TeTX4	4.9 ± 1.16	49
TeTX5	5.82 ± 1.71	110
Control 8	4.15 ± 1.07	137
Control 9	4.32 ± 1.32	115

342   Analysis of the range between the highest and lowest point of knee height and the highest

343   and lowest angle of the TMP joint in all steps before and after subtraction of collapsed steps.

344   When combined – the difference is statically significant (p-value<0.0001 for both metrics,

345   using a T-test allowing different variances).

chick	% of steps with collapse	TMP angle. Mean range(°)				# of steps				% of steps with collapse
		All steps Ave	Combined Ave	Minus collapses Ave	Minus collapses combined Ave	All steps Ave	Combined Ave	Minus collapses	Minus collapses combined Ave	
TeTX1	4.4	3.05 ± 0.49	3.11±0.74	2.87±0.38	2.83±0.57	82.27 ± 22	72.71±20.52	79.4±24.5	68.97±21.47	113
TeTX2	20.60	3.5 ± 0.3		3.35±0.47		71.79 ± 25		71.1±25.68		63
TeTX3	18.8	2.57 ± 0.31		2.27±0.26		64.17 ± 21		62.79±20.9		69
TeTX4	20.45	2.54 ± 0.55		2.477±0.56		72.48 ± 17		66.22±19.1		59
TeTX5	29	3.86 ± 0.83		3.2±0.2		72.86 ± 12		65.85±13.13		93
Control 1 (GFP)	2.12	1.91 ± 0.22	1.98±0.33	1.91±0.22	1.98±0.33	56.8 ± 16.4	49.34±16.03	56.95±16.6	49.4±16.18	47
Control 2 (GFP)	0	1.83 ± 0.25		1.83±0.25		41.42 ± 18.4		41.42 ± 18.4		19
Control3 (Not electroporated)	0	2.42 ± 0.23		2.42± 0.23		54.86 ± 9.65		54.86± 9.65		121
Control4 (Not electroporated)	0	1.75 ± 0.1		1.75± 0.1		44.12 ± 12.51		44.12± 12.51		51

Discussion

The VSCT is thought to provide peripheral and intrinsic spinal information to the cerebellum in order to shape and update the output of spinal networks that execute motor behavior. The lack of genetic accessibility to VSCT neurons hampers elucidation of their role in locomotion. Using genetic toolbox to dissect the circuitry and manipulate neuronal activity in the chick spinal cord, we studied spinal interneurons with VSCT characteristics. The main findings in our study are that dI2 neurons in the chick lumbar spinal cord are commissural neurons that innervate premotor neurons at the contralateral lumbar and brachial spinal levels and granule neurons in the ipsilateral cerebellum. Hence, subpopulation of dI2 form a part of the avian VSCT. Targeted silencing of dI2 neurons leads to impaired stepping in P8 hatchlings. We described the spatial distribution of sub-populations of dI2 neurons, deciphered their connectomes, mapped the trajectory of their projection to the cerebellum, and suggested possible mechanisms for the perturbed gait resulting from their genetic silencing, as discussed below.

Using the intersection between genetic drivers and spatially restricted delivery of reporters to define lumbar and brachial neurons, we have identified several targets of dI2 lumbar neurons. Ipsilateral lumbar dI2 neurons innervate contralateral lumbar dI2 neurons as well as commissural and non-commissural lumbar pre-motoneurons. This connectivity may affect the bilateral spinal output circuitry at the lumbar cord (e.g. (Bras et al., 1988, Jankowska and Hammar, 2013)). Moreover, the ascending axons of lumbar dI2s, give off grey matter collaterals innervating contralateral dI2s and commissural and non-commissural pre-motoneurons throughout the brachial spinal cord (Fig. 6D). Therefore, lumbar dI2 neurons may also contribute to the inter-enlargement coupling described between the limb

and wing moving segments of the spinal cord (e.g. (Valenzuela et al., 1990, Ruder et al.,

2016) for forelimb to hindlimb coupling connectivity in mice).

We demonstrated that lumbar dI2s receive sensory innervation, pre-motor inhibitory

and excitatory innervation, and innervation from contralateral lumbar dI2s (Fig. 6D). Thus,

lumbar dI2 neurons can provide the cerebellum and contralateral premotor neurons with

proprioceptive information, copies of motor commands delivered from the ipsilateral pre-

motoneurons, and integrated information from contralateral dI2 neurons (Fig. 6D).

The unclear genetic origin of physiologically equivalent lumbar VSCT neurons,

prevented better understanding of their role in hindlimb locomotion. Our wiring and

neuronal-silencing studies implicated dI2 as a significant contributor to the regularity and

stability of locomotion in P8 hatchlings. The kinematic analysis of TeTX treated hatchlings,

revealed imbalanced locomotion with occasional collapses, increased stride variability, wide

base stepping, and variable limb movements during stepping.

The mechanisms accounting for the impaired stepping following dI2 silencing are still

unknown. One of the possible mechanisms is that silencing the dI2s perturbs the delivery of

peripheral and intrinsic feedback to the cerebellum, leading to unreliable updating of the

motor output produced by the locomotor networks, thereby impairing the bipedal stepping.

Another possible mechanism is based on the similarity of the gait instabilities of TeTX

treated hatchlings to ataxic motor disorders. Mammalian VSCT neurons receive descending

input from reticulospinal, rubrospinal and vestibulospinal pathways (Bras et al., 1988,

Jankowska and Hammar, 2013). Neurons from the lateral vestibular nucleus, have been

reported to innervate extensor motoneurons at the lumbar level, as well as interneurons

residing at the medial lamina VII (Murray et al., 2018), exactly at the location where dI2

neurons were found to reside in our study. Thus, the vestibulospinal tract may convey input

directly to the ipsilateral motoneurons, and indirectly to contralateral motoneurons through

dI2 neurons that innervate contralateral pre-motoneurons. This way silencing of dI2 neurons

is expected to interfere with the descending regulation of the stability of the bipedal gait.

The local spinal connections between dI2 and the contralateral premotor neurons

and contralateral dI2, may serve an important component of coordinated limb movements.

dI2 synapses were found on both ipsilateral and contralaterally projecting pre-

motorneurons, in their segmental level and in the brachial level, which regulates the

movement of the wings. Thus, dI2 neurons may affect the motor output of the contralateral

side of the cord, and also the ipsilateral side by contacting commissural pre-motorneurons.

In summary, our mapping studies of dI2 neurons and their connectomes followed by

characterization of the effects of their silencing on bipedal stepping, offer new insights on

the function of dI2 neurons in vertebrates. We suggest that lumbar dI2 neurons are not

merely used to relay sensory and intrinsic spinal networks information to the cerebellum,

but also act as active mediators of motor functions at the lumbar segments and at the wing

controlling brachial segments of the spinal cord. Further circuit deciphering studies of the

constituents of sub-populations of dI2s, their targets, and their descending inputs are

required to extend our understanding of the function of dI2 subpopulations in motor control

of movements.

Materials and Methods

Animals

Fertilized White Leghorn chicken eggs (Gil-Guy Farm, Israel) were incubated in standard

conditions at 38 °C. All experiments involved with animals were conducted in accordance

with the designated Experiments in Animals Ethic Committee policies and under its approval.

3D reconstruction and density plots analysis

The codes for both 3D reconstruction and the density plots analysis were written in Matlab.

The density plots were generated based on cross section images transformed to a standard

form. The background was subtracted, and the cells were filtered automatically based on

their soma area or using a manual approach. Subsequently, two-dimensional kernel density

estimation was obtained using the MATLAB function "*kde2d*". Finally, unless indicated

otherwise, a contour plot was drawn for density values between 20% and 80% of the

estimated density range, in six contour lines.

In-ovo electroporation

A DNA solution of 5 mg/mL was injected into the lumen of the neural tube at HH stage 17–

18 (E2.75-E3). Electroporation was performed using 3 × 50 ms pulses at 25–30 V, applied

across the embryo using a 0.5-mm tungsten wire and a BTX electroporator (ECM 830).

Following electroporation, 150–300 µL of antibiotic solution, containing 100 unit/mL

penicillin in Hank's Balanced Salt Solution (Biological Industry, Beit-Haemek) was added on

top of the embryos. Embryos were incubated for 3–19 days prior to further treatment or

analysis.

Immunohistochemistry and *In situ* hybridization

Embryos were fixed overnight at 4°C in 4% paraformaldehyde/0.1 M phosphate buffer,

washed twice with phosphate buffered saline (PBS), incubated in 30% sucrose/PBS for 24 h,

and embedded in OCT (Scigen, Grandad, USA). Cryostat sections (20 μm). Sections were

collected on Superfrost Plus slides and kept at −20°C. For 100-μm sections, spinal cords were

isolated from the fixed embryos and subsequently embedded in warm 5% agar (in PBS), and

100μm sections (E12–E17) were cut with a Vibratome. Sections were collected in wells (free-

floating technique) and processed for immunolabeling.

The following primary antibodies were used—rabbit polyclonal GFP antibody 1:1000

(Molecular Probes, Eugene, Oregon, USA), mouse anti-GFP 1:100, Goat anti-GFP 1:300

(ABcam), rabbit anti-RFP 1:1000 (Acris), goat ChAT antibody 1:300 (Cemicon, Temecula, CA,

USA), mouse anti-synaptotagmin antibody 1:100 (ASV30), mouse anti-Lhx1/5 1:100 (4F2),

mouse anti-FoxP4 1:50 (hybridoma bank, University of Iowa, Iowa City, USA), mouse anti

Brn3a 1:50 (Mercury), rabbit anti-Pax2 antibody 1:50 (ABcam), chicken anti-lacZ antibody

1:300 (ABcam), rabbit anti Clabindin 1:200 (Swant), rabbit VGUT2 antibody (Synaptic

Systems, Göttingen, Germany), goat anti FoxP2 1:1000 (ABcam), goat anti FoxP1 1:100 (R&D

Systems) and rabbit anti 5HT 1:100 (Immunostar). The following secondary antibodies were

used: Alexa Fluor 488/647-AffiniPure Donkey Anti mouse, rabbit and goat (Jackson) and

Rhodamin Red-X Donkey Anti mouse and rabbit (Jackson). Images were taken under a

microscope (Eclipse Ni; Nikon) with a digital camera (Zyla sCMOS; Andor) or a confocal

microscope (FV1000; Olympus).

In situ hybridization was performed as described (Avraham O et al., 2010). The following

probes were employed: Foxd3, vGlut2 and GAD1 probes were amplified from a cDNA of E6

chick embryo using the following primers. Foxd3: forward-TCATCACCATGGCCATCCTG and

Reverse -GCTGGGCTCGGATTTCACGAT. vGlut2: forward -GGAAGATGGGAAGCCCATGG and

Reverse -GAAGTCGGCAATTTGTCCCC. GAD1: forward-TCTCACCTGGAGGAGCCATC and

Reverse -CCTGAGGCTGATATCCAACC. T7 RNApol cis-binding sequence was added to the

reverse primers.

467
AP staining

The treated embryos were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde–PBS for 24 h at 4°C, and washed

twice with PBS for 30 min at 4°C. The fixed embryos were incubated at 65°C in PBS for 8 to

16 h to inactivate the endogenous AP activity. The treated embryos were washed with 100

mM Tris–Cl (pH 9.5) containing 100 mM NaCl and 50 mM MgCl2, and the residual Placental

alkaline phosphatase activity was visualized by incubating the embryos with NBT/BCIP

(Roche) in the same buffer at 4°C for 24 h. After extensively washing the embryos with PBS–

5 mM EDTA, the spinal cord was imaged.

476
477 **Analysis of Left-right phase**

478 Stride duration was measured as the time from 'Right toe-off'/foot-off' to the next Right

479 'toe-off' (as a complete stride cycle for the right leg), and the 'half-cycle' duration as the

480 time of Right-toe off to the time of Left toe off. the following formula was used to calculate

481 the phase: ((LeftToeOff_1 - RightToeOff_1)/ (RightToeOff_2 – RightToeOff_1))*360.

482
PRV infection

We used two isogenic recombinants of an attenuated PRV strain Bartha (PRV Bartha) that

express enhanced GFP (PRV152) and monomeric red fluorescent protein (PRV614). The

viruses were harvested from Vero cell cultures at titers 4 × 108, 7 × 108 and 1 × 109 plaque

forming units (pfu/mL), respectively. Viral stocks were stored at −80°C. Injections of 3 µL of

PRV152 or PRV614 were made into the thigh musculature of E13 or E14 chick embryos, using

Hamilton syringe (Hamilton; Reno, NV, USA) equipped with a 33-gauge needle. The embryos

were incubated for 36–40 h and sacrificed for analysis. For spinocerebellar projecting

neurons labeling, we used a replication defective HSV (TK⁻) that contains a lacZ reporter. The

virus was injected *in ovo* into the cerebellum of E12-15 embryos, and the embryos were

further incubated for 40–48. Alternatively, cholera toxin subunit B (CTB) conjugated to Alexa

Fluor™ 647 (ThermoFisher) was used for the same purpose, and was injected to the

cerebellum of E12–15 embryos together with the virus for visualization of both cerebellar

projecting neurons and upstream neurons.

497
498   **Force test**

499   The muscle strength was evaluated using the measurement of the angle of the fall from a

500   ladder with a gradually increasing-angle. This test was repeated for each chicken at least 3

501   times, and the average falling angle was calculated.

502
Behavioral tests and analysis

The embryos were bilaterally electroporated, and were then allowed let to develop and

hatch in a properly humidified and heated incubator. Afterwards, within 32 hours post

hatching, the hatchling chicks were imprinted on the trainer. The P8 chicks were filmed in

slow motion (240 fps) freely walking (side and top views). The following parameters were

scored: 1) weight, 2) foot grip power, 3) kinematics parameters during overground

locomotion: a) swing velocity, b) swing and stance duration, c) phase of footfalls, d) height of

knee and tarsometatarso-phalangeal (TMP) joints, e) angles of the TMP and ankle joints, and

f) stride width (distance between feet during the double stance phase).

Using a semi-automated Matlab-based tracking software (Hedrick, 2008), several

points of interest were encoded. The leg joints as well as the eye and the tail were tracked.

The position of these reference points was used for computational analysis using an in-

house Matlab code for calculating different basic locomotion parameters (e.g. stick

diagrams, velocity, joints trajectory, angles, range, and elevation), steps pattern, and degree

of similarity (Haimson B et al. *in preparation*). Dunnett's test (Dunnett, 1955) was used to

perform multiple comparisons of group means following One-way ANOVA. Circular statistics

was used for analyses of angular data. Circular statistics was used for analyses of angular

data, utilizing Oriana (KCS, version 4).

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Author contributions:

530   B.H., A.Klar and ALT designed research; B.H., and Y.H. preformed research; B.H., and M.D.

generated the kinematic analysis tools; Y.C. assisted in the post hatching analysis; A. Kania

provided reagents and comments on the research; B.H., A.Klar and ALT analyzed the data;

B.H., A.Klar and ALT wrote the paper.

Competing interests:

The authors declare no competing of interest.

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 Figure legends

 <u>Figure 1</u>: Characterization and classification of dI2 neurons during embryonic development.

dI2 interneurons were labeled by genetic intersection between Foxd3 and Ngn1 enhancers

(Avraham et al., 2009) (See Figure S1).

A–D. dI2 axonal projection during development. At E5 (A) post mitotic dI2 neurons assume a

dorsolateral position and start to migrate ventrally. At E6 (B) dI2 neurons occupy the mid-

lateral domain. At E15-17 dI2 neurons are located at the medial lamina VII at the lumbar

level (LS3) (C) and the thoracic level (T1) (D). dI2 axons cross the floor plate (yellow

arrowheads), turn longitudinally at the ventral funiculus (white arrowheads) and eventually

elongate at the lateral funiculus (white arrows).

E. A graph indicating the fraction of dI2 neurons expressing TFs during development (based

on data from three E5, two E6 and two E14 embryos). **F.** Cross section of an E17 embryo at

the lumbar spinal cord (crural plexus level, LS2). Small-diameter dI2 neurons residing in

lamina VII (F') and ventromedial large-diameter dI2 neurons in lamina VIII (F"). **G.** Density

plots of dI2 somata in the sciatic plexus level (cyan, N=374 cells), dI2$_{large}$ (magenta) and

dI2$_{small}$ (yellow) INs (N=33 and N=344 cells, respectively, from 2 embryos).

See Figure S2 and S3.

661
<u>Figure 2</u>: dI2 neurons project to the cerebellum.

A. Experimental setup for labeling of cerebellar projecting dI2 neurons. dI2 neurons were

genetically targeted at HH18, and pre-cerebellar neurons were labeled using intra-cerebellar

injection of CTB or replication defective HSV-LacZ at E15. **B.** A cross section of E17 brainstem

and cerebellum. The dashed polygon in B' is magnified in B. dI2 axons reach the cerebellum,

enter into it via the superior cerebellar peduncle and cross the cerebellar midline. Calbindin

(Purkinje neurons, magenta (B') or red (B)), synaptotagmin (yellow). **C.** A cross section of E17

cerebellar cortex. Lumbar-originating dI2 synapses (cyan) in the granular layer of the

anterior cerebellar cortex. Calbindin (Purkinje neurons, magenta), synaptotagmin (yellow).

D. A cross section of an E15 embryo at the lumbar spinal cord level (sciatic plexus level). Pre-

cerebellar neurons were infected and labeled by HSV-LacZ (magenta), and dI2 neurons

express GFP (cyan). A large-diameter dI2 neuron co-expressing LacZ and GFP is indicated by

an arrow (magnification of the two channels in the insets). **E.** Density plots of dI2 and pre-

cerebellar neurons (density values 10-90%) in the sciatic plexus segments (N=374 and N=289

cells, respectively). **F.** CTB labeled pre-cerebellar neuron (magenta) is contacted by dI2

axonal terminals (cyan). **G.** Density plots of dI2 synapses and pre-cerebellar neuron somata

(density values 10-90%) in the sciatic plexus segments (N=4735 synapses and N=289 cells,

respectively). **H,I.** Quantification of the overlap in area and volume of the two density plots.

The plots are based on data from 3 embryos.

See Figure S4.

682
<u>Figure 3</u>: Synaptic inputs to dI2 neurons.

Schematic representations of the experimental design for labeling dI2::GFP or dI2::cherry INs

(cyan) and potential sources of synaptic inputs (yellow or magenta), supplemented by cell

soma density of dI2 INs and the synaptic densities are illustrated in A, B, C, D, E. The density

values presented are 10-80%, 20-80%, 25-80%, 30-50% and 20-80%, respectively.

Examples of dI2 neurons contacted by axons or synaptic boutons are shown in A', B', C', and

D'; and their 3D reconstruction in A'', B'', C'', and D''. Genetic labeling was attained using

specific enhancers (Fig. S1) electroporated at HH18.

A. DRG neurons form contacts on dI2 neurons. Inset in A: cross section of and E17 embryo at

the crural plexus level of the lumbar cord. A dorsally located dI2 neuron contacted by

numerous sensory afferents, magnified in A' and 3D-reconstructed in A''. (*N*=18 sections)

B. Premotoneurons form contacts on dI2 neurons. dI2 neurons were labeled at HH18. At

E13, PRV virus was injected to the leg musculature, and the embryo was incubated until

premotoneuronal infection (39 hours) (*N*=34 sections).

C. dI1 neurons form synapses on dI2 neurons. (*N*=8568 synapses). C': A representative

SV2::cherry synapse on dI2 dendrite, positive for synaptotagmin. Demonstrated by a

horizontal and vertical optical sections in Z-axis (see cursors and color channels).

D. V1 neurons form synapses on dI2 neurons. (*N*=1923 synapses).

E. dI2 neurons do not have 5HT synaptic terminals (*N*=1718 synapses). E17 cross sections of

dI2::GFP labeled embryos were stained for 5HT.

F. Quantification of the overlap area of the different input sources and dI2 neuron densities

plots.

See Figure S5, S6.

706
Figure 4: Spinal synaptic targets of dI2 neurons.

A. A whole mount staining of spinal cord (thoracic segments) expressing alkaline

phosphatase (AP) in dI2 neurons. The lumbar dI2 neurons (not included in the image) were

labeled with AP. dI2 axon collaterals project and into the spinal cord (arrows).

B. Cross section of an E17 embryo at the crural plexus level of the lumbar cord. The axon

collaterals (white arrow) penetrating the gray matter of the contralateral side are evident.

Schematic representations of the experimental design for labeling synapses (dI2::SV2-GFP,

yellow) and potential targets (magenta) supplemented by cell soma density and dI2 synaptic

densities are illustrated in C, D, E, and F. Examples of target neurons contacting synaptic

boutons of dI2 neurons are shown in C', D', E', and F'; and their 3D reconstruction in C'', D'',

E'', and F''. Genetic labeling was attained using dI2 enhancers (Fig. S1) electroporated at

HH18. Pre-MNs were labeled by injection of PRV-cherry into the hindlimbs (D, E) or the

forelimb (F) musculature, at E13. The embryos were incubated until pre-MNs infection (39

hours).

C. dI2 neurons innervate the contralateral dI2 neurons (N=4735 synapses and N=374 cells,

respectively).

D. dI2 neurons innervate ipsilateral projecting premotoneurons at the sciatic plexus level

(N=4735 synapses and N=936 cells, respectively).

E. dI2 neurons innervate contralateral projecting premotoneurons at the sciatic plexus level

(N=4735 synapses and N=47 cells, respectively).

F. dI2 neurons innervate brachial ipsilateral projecting premotoneurons (N=2215 synapses

and N=286 cells, respectively).

G. Quantification of the overlap area of different synaptic targets and dI2 synapse density

plots, as the percentage of overlap between dI2 synapses and the target.

H. Quantification of the overlap in volume of the different synaptic targets and dI2 synapse

density plots, as the percentage of overlap between the synaptic target and dI2 synapses.

See Figure S7.

734
Figure 5: Kinematic analysis of locomotion in post-hatching chicks following neuronal

silencing of dI2.

A. Schematic illustration of chick hindlimb joints (bold) and bones (regular). The knee joint

connects between the femur and the tibiotarsus, the ankle connects the tibiotarsus and the

tarsometatarsus which connects to the phalanges by the tarsometatarso-phalangeal joint

(TMP). During the swing phase of birds, the ankle flexion leads to foot elevation, while the

knee is relatively stable.

B,C. Stick diagrams of stepping in a control chicken d2::GFP (B) and in a d2::TeTX chicken (C).

Arrows indicate falls and overshoots are denoted by arrowheads.

D. Overlays of knee height (demonstrated in insert) trajectories during the swing phase in all

analyzed steps of each of the control and *TeTX* treated P8 hatchlings are shown

superimposed with the respective 20%–80% color coded density plots as a function of the

percentage of swing (see Text and Materials and Methods). Arrows indicate falls and

overshoots are indicated by arrowheads.

E. Overlay of angular trajectories of the TMP joint (demonstrated in insert) during the swing

phase in all analyzed strides of each of the control and *TeTX* treated P8 hatchlings are shown

superimposed with the respective 20%–80% color coded density plots as a function of the

percentage of swing (see Text and Materials and Methods).

Figure 6. Increased inter-stride variability in TMP angle and knee height in *TeTX*-treated

chicks.

A. The percentage of steps with body collapses in the controls and *TeTX* manipulated

hatchlings (n=4 and n=5, respectively). p-value<0.0001 (Z-test). See table 3 for single chick

fall proportions.

B. Analysis of the mean range of knee height changes during the swing phase of control and

TeTX treated chicks (n=4 and n=5, respectively). p-value<0.0001 using a T-test allowing

different variances.

See Figure S8B and table 3 for single chick data and statistical analysis details.

C. Analysis of the mean range of TMP angular excursions during the swing phase of control-

and TeTX-treated chicks. (n=4 and n=5, respectively).

p-value<0.0001 Watson and Williams F test.

See Figure S8C and table 3 for single chick data and statistical analysis details.

D. Schematic illustration showing the connectome of lumbar dI2 neurons. dI2s (magenta)

receive synaptic input from sensory afferents (solid blue line indicates massive synaptic

input and dashed blue line indicates sparse innervation), Inhibitory and excitatory

premotoneurons (yellow), and from the contralateral lumbar dI2. dI2s innervate the

contralateral lumbar and brachial premotoneurons (both commissural and ipsilateral

projecting premotoneurons are innervated by dI2), the lumbar and brachial contralateral

dI2, lumbar pre-cerebellar neurons (green) and the granule neurons in the cerebellum

Fig. 1

A E5 **B** E6 **C** E17

20μm 30μm 100μm

D E15 **E** TFs expression in dI2 neurons

100μm

% of cells

E5dorsal   E5ventral   E6   E14

Lhx1
Lhx1+Pax2
Pou4f1
FoxP1
FoxP2
FoxP4

F **F'** **F''** **G**

dI2::GFP   ChAT

100μm   50μm

dI2   large dI2   small dI2

Fig. 2

A

B dI2::GFP
Calbindin

B'

C dI2::SV2_GFP
Synaptotagmin
Calbindin

100μm

200μm

D dI2::GFP
HSP-TKΔ/LacZ

100μm

E dI2 neurons
Precerebellar neurons

F dI2::GFP
PRV-cherry

20μm

G dI2 synapses
Precerebellar neurons

H Overlap between dI2 and
PreCerebellar neurons

% of overlap

dI2 in PreCerebellar
PreCerebellar in dI2

Area   Volume

I Overlap between dI2's
synapses and PreCerebellar neurons

% of overlap

dI2 synapses in PreCerebellar
PreCerebellar in dI2 synapses

Area   Volume

Fig. 3

A
DRG::GFP
100μm

A'
dl2::cherry
DRG::GFP
20μm

A"

B
PRV-cherry
dl2::GFP

B'
20μm

B"
dl2::GFP
PRV-cherry

C
dl1::Syn-cherry
dl2::GFP

C'
20μm
GFP
SV2-Cherry
Synaptotagmin

C"
dl2::GFP
dl1::SV2-cherry

D
V1::Syn-cherry
dl2::GFP

D'
20μm

D"
dl2::GFP
V1::SV2-cherry

E
dl2::GFP
5HT

F colocalization of dl2 and synaptic inputs

% of the dl2 area that overlaps with synaptic input

Sensory afferents   PMprojections   dl1 synapses   V1 synapses   5HT

All dl2
Larger diameter dl2
Small diameter dl2

Fig. 4

G. Colocalization of dl2 and synaptic inputs - area

H. Colocalization of dl2 and synaptic inputs - volume

Fig. 5

A
Hip
Femur
Knee
Tibiotarsus
ankle
Tarsometatarsus
TMP joint

B Cont1 dl2::GFP

C dl2::TeXT5

D Knee height

Height (CM) — Cont1 | Cont2 | Cont3 | Cont4

Height (CM) — TeXT1 | TeXT2 | TeXT3 | TeXT4 | TeXT5

% of swing

E TMP angle

Angle (°) — Cont1 | Cont2 | Cont3 | Cont4

Angle (°) — TeXT1 | TeXT2 | TeXT3 | TeXT4 | TeXT5

% of swing

Fig. 6

A Body collapses

B Range of knee height

C Range of TMP angle

D