Chromatin dynamics during hematopoiesis reveal discrete regulatory modules instructing differentiation

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Abstract

Lineage commitment and differentiation is driven by the concerted action of master transcriptional regulators at their target chromatin sites. Multiple efforts have characterized the key transcription factors (TFs) that determine the various hematopoietic lineages. However, the temporal interactions between individual TFs and their chromatin targets during differentiation and how these interactions dictate lineage commitment remains poorly understood. We performed dense, daily, temporal profiling of chromatin accessibility (DNase I-seq) and gene expression changes (total RNA-seq) along *ex vivo* human erythropoiesis to comprehensively define developmentally regulated DNase I hypersensitive sites (DHSs) and transcripts. We link both distal DHSs to their target gene promoters and individual TFs to their target DHSs, revealing that the regulatory landscape is organized in distinct sequential regulatory modules that regulate lineage restriction and maturation. Finally, direct comparison of transcriptional dynamics (bulk and single-cell) and lineage potential between erythropoiesis and megakaryopoiesis uncovers differential fate commitment dynamics between the two lineages as they exit pluripotency. Collectively, these data provide novel insights into the global regulatory landscape during hematopoiesis.

Introduction

The temporal activation of stage-specific regulatory DNA instructs lineage specific gene expression programs that underpin cellular fate and potential. The establishment and maintenance of regulatory DNA is mediated by the combinatorial engagement of sequence-specific transcription factors (TFs) that bind in the place of a canonical nucleosome. Over the course of cellular differentiation programmed shifts in the global transcription factor milieu drive extensive re-organization of chromatin[1,2], where silencing of regulatory DNA associated with alternate lineage and the *de novo* activation of lineage-restricted elements result in the narrowing of the epigenetic and functional landscape[3]. However, it is unclear how and when regulatory DNA is dynamically activated and silenced during cell state transitions to establish lineage restricted gene expression programs and how these epigenetic changes relate to developmental potential.

Hematopoiesis is a prototypical system to study how genetically and epigenetically encoded programs are established during cellular differentiation[4–6]. Conventionally, hematopoiesis is depicted as a discrete hierarchical process where a multipotent hematopoietic stem and progenitor cell (HSPC) traverses a sequence of bifurcating decisions, mediated by the expression of lineage-specific TFs, with each decision resulting in an increasingly restricted fate potential. Historically, the characterization of the gene regulatory programs involved in the transition from HSPCs to terminal fates has relied on the identification of differential transcriptional programs from isolated discrete populations using defined cell surface markers[7–10]. While this approach has led to the identification of master regulatory transcription factors[10,11] that define many of the major hematopoietic cell lineages and has enabled a systematic mapping of their steady-state regulatory landscapes[9,12], interrogation of discretely defined populations cannot elucidate the dynamic regulatory events that mark cell-state transitions.

Recently, single-cell chromatin and transcriptional profiling assays have attempted to resolve the spatio-temporal *cis*- and *trans*- dynamics in different stages of hematopoiesis[13–16]. These studies have largely relied on the analysis of either bulk or immunophenotypically isolated populations of steady-state peripheral blood or bone marrow derived cells, whereby hierarchical relationships and developmental trajectories between cell states are predicted computationally. While such experimental approaches have aided in defining major subpopulations of hematopoietic cells and their respective epigenetic and transcriptional landscapes, definition of developmental trajectories within individual lineages from population snapshots is challenging due to the limited sensitivity and the resulting technical and analytical artifacts associated with single-cell genomic assays[17,18]. Additionally, because developmental trajectories are predicted *in silico*, direct association of functional changes (i.e., lineage potential) to intermediate cellular states is not possible[19].

In order to investigate the dynamics of regulatory and functional events during differentiation, we use human erythropoiesis as a proxy for hematopoietic development. The transition from HSPCs to terminally differentiated enucleated red blood cells involves a series of morphologically, functionally, and phenotypically distinguishable states. Multiple efforts relying on the isolation of these states have exhaustively characterized key transcriptional regulators[20,21] and chromatin elements implicated in erythropoiesis[9,22]. However, a general understanding of the temporal interplay between individual *cis*- and *trans*- elements and how these establish stage-specific transcriptional programs and lineage commitment during hematopoiesis remains rudimentary. Furthermore, because erythrocytes share their developmental origins of with other myeloid lineages (granulocytic/monocytic and megakaryocytic), erythropoiesis represents an ideal system to study how lineage choice is genetically and epigenetically encoded.

Here, we capitalize on the *ex vivo* human differentiation scheme where dense unbiased sampling of the populations captures the dynamics of chromatin accessibility and gene expression during differentiation with a completely defined developmental trajectory. DNase I-seq and gene expression profiling (bulk and single cell) time-course during erythropoiesis coupled with lineage potential assays and morphological characterization, enabled the assignment of distal elements (alone or in combination) to target genes and

individual TFs to their target DHSs which collectively comprise discrete regulatory modules associated
with lineage potential. Comparing the activity patterns of the TF regulatory modules in the erythroid
lineage to the closely related megakaryocytic lineage, provides insights into how these modules instruct
lineage commitment. Collectively, our findings provide key insights into the organization of the
functional epigenetic landscape during hematopoietic differentiation and its relation to lineage-potential.

Dense mapping of the temporal dynamics of *cis*- and *trans*- elements during erythropoiesis

Human erythropoiesis was induced *ex vivo* for 12 days using an established differentiation protocol[23] that
faithfully recapitulates the major features of *in vivo* erythropoiesis. Starting from human adult-derived
mobilized peripheral blood CD34^{+}-enriched HSPCs from 3 healthy donors we cultured the cells in
defined media for 12 days (**Figure 1a** and **Methods**). Characteristic features of developing erythroblast
cells were confirmed by immunophenotyping using canonical cell-surface markers of early (CD117, C-
Kit) and late (CD235a, Glycophorin A) erythropoiesis as well as morphologically by hematoxylin-eosin
staining of cell smears (**Supplementary Figure 1**).

To densely map both chromatin accessibility and transcriptional dynamics during the transition from
HSPCs to committed erythroblasts, we subsampled a single continuous culture each day (12 days) and
performed DNase I-seq analysis and total RNA-seq (**Figure 1a,b**). Biological replicates from CD34^{+}
HSPCs from 3 donors were highly reproducible for both chromatin accessibility and gene expression
profiles where the majority of the observed variability was accounted for by developmental trajectory
(i.e., sampling days) (**Figure 1b,c** and **Supplementary Figure 2a**), as biological replicates were highly
correlated (**Supplementary Figure 2b,c**). For many individual DHSs and genes, we observed
quantitative changes in chromatin accessibility and expression over the course of differentiation
highlighted by quantitative trajectories of opening or closing (**Figure 1d,e**). Notably, accessibility
changes were mostly confined to compact regions of the genome (~200bp average DHS width). In many
cases, we observed both opening and closing events within close proximity (**Figure 1d**), indicating focal
regulation[24] of chromatin structure in contrast to previous reports that chromatin changes during
differentiation occur over large domains[1,25].

To systematically identify developmentally responsive *cis*-elements, we leveraged the observed
continuity of DHS signal over adjacent days (**Figure 1d**) and modelled DNase I cleavage density against
differentiation time-points (**Methods**). We determined significance by comparing our full model to a
reduced model (intercept-only; not accounting for developmental time) and performing a likelihood ratio
test (**Methods**). Of the total 79,085 DHSs accessible in 2 or more samples/replicates, we conservatively
identified 11,805 (14.9%) significantly changing DHSs (adjusted $p < 10^{-5}$ and fold-change >2), nearly
evenly grouped between activated and silenced (45% and 55%, respectively) (Supplementary Table 1). A
similar analytical approach applied to the RNA expression data identified 5,769 developmentally
regulated genes (adjusted $p < 10^{-5}$ and fold-change > 2), of which 62% up-regulated and 38% down-
regulated over the course of differentiation (**Supplementary Table 2**). Collectively, these data define a
high-resolution and quantitative map of chromatin and gene expression dynamics during erythroid
differentiation.

Stage-specific compartmentalization of the *cis*- and *trans*- landscape

PCA indicated that days 5-6 were associated with a critical developmental inflection point during *ex vivo*
differentiation (**Figure 1b,c**). We therefore sought to characterize the relationship between temporal
chromatin and gene expression dynamics with regards to the observed immunophenotypic and
morphological changes present in the population of differentiating cells. We performed unsupervised
clustering (*K*-means; *k*=5) on dynamically changing DHSs and developmentally responsive transcripts
(**Figure 2a,b**). This analysis revealed a stark partitioning of activated and silenced genes and DHSs into
non-overlapping sets that closely paralleled canonical developmental features of erythropoiesis.
Particularly, DHSs rapidly silenced within the first days of differentiation (clusters E1 and E2) were
found to preferentially harbor binding sequences utilized by the known HSPC regulators such as

(HOXA9[26], RUNX[27] and ERG[28]) (**Supplementary Figure 3**). Similarly, immediately downregulated
transcripts upon induction of differentiation (cluster G1) include these transcription factors as well as
structural genes characteristic of CD34^{+} HSPCs (**Figure 2b**). Consistent with PCA (**Figure 1b,c**), a rapid
and marked turnover of chromatin and gene expression landscape is observed between days 5-7 where an
early erythroid signature appears in both activated DHSs and gene expression, marked by the
upregulation of *GATA1*, *KLF1*, *PPARA* and *TFRC* (cluster G4). Markers of mature erythropoiesis emerge
later in the differentiation (after day 8; cluster G5) with the upregulation of hemoglobins, glycophorin A
(*GYPA*) and *ALAS2* (**Figure 2b**). Beyond the temporal partitioning of developmentally regulated DHS
and transcripts we observed topological segregation of co-regulated elements. Mapping changing DHS
and genes to TADs called from CD34+ HSPCs[29] and day 11 *ex vivo* differentiated erythroid progenitors[30]
Hi-C data revealed enrichment of individual TADs for stage-specific elements (**Supplementary Figure
3**). Additionally, this partitioning appears more contrasted in late erythroid TADs compared to CD34+,
suggesting the establishment of a defined erythroid regulatory landscape.

In addition to canonical activation and downregulation patterns observed, we found a subset of genes
exhibiting reproducible transient upregulation (clusters G2 and G3) occurring prior to establishment of
the erythroid signature (**Figure 2b**). Transiently upregulated genes are found enriched in transcripts
representing myeloid lineages including several myeloid markers (e.g. *MPO*, *KIT*) as well as the myeloid-
specific transcription factor CEBPA. Compatible with gene expression, late closing DHSs in cluster E2
and E3 were enriched in CEBPA recognition sequences (**Supplementary Figure 3**). Moreover, the
majority (~80%) of DHSs in cluster E2 and E3 were found overlapping with DHSs active in other
myeloid cell types (macrophages and monocytes) (**Supplementary Figure 5**), denoting a transient
emergence of myeloid-related regulatory program prior to erythroid commitment.

Taken together these data describe the sequence of developmentally related changes in both the *cis-* and
trans- environment as the regulatory landscape of the erythroid development traverses from a lineage-
permissive program to a defined erythroid-specific signature. Expectedly, activated DHSs (clusters E4-
E5) were found to preferentially harbor red blood cell-related GWAS variants (1.36-fold enrichment over
all detected DHSs), highlighting their functional role in regulating erythropoiesis (**Supplementary
Figure 6**).

Connecting individual DHSs to genes

The overall dynamics of chromatin accessibility for individual DHSs closely mirrored that of the
expression of nearby genes. To formulate this, we performed an enrichment test to investigate the DHS
landscape around a gene promoter. Interestingly, we found that developmentally regulated genes are
enriched for DHSs with a similar developmental profile (**Figure 2c**). For example, early closing genes
(cluster G1) are significantly enriched for cluster E1 DHSs. Noteworthy, transient genes of cluster G3 are
harboring DHSs belonging to both late closing DHS cluster E3 and early activated erythroid DHS cluster
E4, suggesting that the transient nature of these genes is a result of the combinatorial activity of a closing
and an opening chromatin landscape.

Because of fine-resolution afforded by our dense sampling approach, we sought to quantify the extent of
genome-wide coactivation patterns that could potentially comprise physical regulatory links between
DHSs and their target genes by correlating the temporal expression patterns of a gene to nearby (± 1 Mb
from TSS) developmentally regulated DHSs given that the majority of transcriptional enhancers are
located within this range from the target promoter[31]. This analysis identified 41,625 connections (absolute
Pearson correlation coefficient $r > 0.7$), with the vast majority of gene-DHS links occurring within 50
kilobases of the transcription start site (**Figure 2d**). Overall, we connected 80.4% (4,640) of the
developmentally regulated genes with ≥ 1 DHS and 86.8% (10,247) of changing DHSs were linked to ≥ 1
developmentally regulated gene. While on average 93.6 DHSs reside within ± 1 Mb of a given gene, only
9 DHSs (± 8 SD) were found to be linked with a changing gene. This allowed us to identify *cis*-regulatory
inputs at much higher resolution than typically afforded by standard chromatin conformation-based

methods[32,33]. Specifically, using previously published Hi-C data derived from *ex vivo* cultured erythroid
progenitors we were able to predict chromatin loops only down to 70kb (**Supplementary Figure 7**).We
therefore sought to functionally validate these associations by genetic perturbation of gene-DHS links.

We focused on the cis-elements predicted to regulate the expression *CDH1*. CDH1 is a cell surface
marker with expression restricted to erythropoiesis among the hematopoietic populations[34] and known to
be implicated in erythroid development and maturation[35,36]. Specifically, we genetically disrupted two
DHSs (HS1 and HS2) highly correlated with *CDH1* expression (r=0.939 and 0.976, respectively), situated
upstream (5kb and 12kb, respectively) of the promoter of *CDH1* using TALE-nucleases[37,38] (**Figure 2e**
and **Supplementary Figure 8**). Homozygous deletion of these DHSs as well as the promoter in the
human derived erythroid progenitor cell line HUDEP-2 where these DHSs are also active, resulted in
complete ablation of the *CDH1* expression as determined by flow-cytometry (**Figure 2f**). These results
suggest that both elements as predicted by the correlation analysis as regulators of *CDH1*, indeed drive
the expression of the gene and their deletion confers effects similar to the deletion of the gene promoter.

Overall, these findings suggest that the majority of changes in transcription during development are
regulated by a limited number of *cis*-regulatory inputs, situated within close proximity to the genes they
regulate.

Distinct and sequential regulatory modules encode developmental stages

Clustering of dynamically changing DHSs revealed that chromatin activated at different stages of
hematopoiesis display differential enrichment for transcription factor recognition sequences, indicating
stage-specific transcriptional regulation of *cis*- elements. This, however, does not resolve the temporal
interactions between individual DHSs and individual *trans*- regulators and how this relationship shapes
the developmental response of a DHS. Given the observed global correlated changes between the
transcription factor expression levels and the accessibility of the DHSs containing their cognate
recognition sequences (**Figure 3a**) we sought to quantify the contribution of individual TFs to the
dynamic changes in DNase I density at individual regulatory *cis*-elements. We capitalized on our dense
sampling approach and applied a regression strategy where the activity of an individual regulatory
element (i.e. DNase I cleavage density) is modelled as a function of the gene expression profiles of
developmentally regulated TFs with a compatible recognition sequence harbored within each DHS
(**Figure 3b** and **Methods**). We controlled for weak and ambiguous association of TFs recognizing
degenerate motifs using elastic-net regularization (**Methods**). We applied this approach to all of the
11,805 dynamically changing DHSs, identifying 11,734 (>99% of changing DHSs) with at least one
explanatory TF regulator (**Methods**) and 88 developmentally regulated TFs associated with at least one
DHS, where the regression coefficients broadly correspond to the strength of association of a TF with an
individual DHS (**Supplementary Figure 9**). Overall, 5 TFs on average, were positively associated with
each DHS, suggesting that a small subset of TFs regulate the developmental activity of individual *cis*-
elements. We then evaluated whether the regression results hold any predictive capacity against the
frequency of motifs for the same TFs. Using a naïve Bayes classification model (Methods) we tried to
predict the cluster each DHS belongs to by supplying either the occurrences of individual TF motifs or the
elastic-net regression coefficients for each TF. We found that elastic-net regression coefficients provide a
1.77-fold accuracy over TF motif counts (62% vs. 35% accuracy rate) in predicting the DHS cluster
(**Supplementary Figure 10**). This suggests that the developmental response of a DHS is shaped by co-
regulated transcription factors that occupy the DHS rather than the absolute frequency of binding TFs as
determined by the TF recognition sequences harbored in a DHS.

We next asked to what extent the activity of DHSs with similar temporal accessibility patterns are
regulated by a coherent set of TF regulators. We selected 52 TFs positively associated with at least 200
DHSs and performed unsupervised hierarchical clustering based on their regression coefficients computed
for each DHS (**Figure 3c** and **Methods**). This analysis resolved the temporal associations between
transcription factors and their target DHS into a sequence of five discrete and largely non-overlapping

regulatory modules, reflective of developmental stages of erythropoiesis (Figure 3d). Module 1 consists
of known HSPC transcriptional regulators (e.g. ERG[28], MEIS1[39], MYCN[40]) which are positively
associated with early closing DHSs in clusters E1 and E2. In modules 2 and 3, transcription factors
associated with commitment of hematopoietic progenitors to the different myeloid lineages (e.g.
CEBPA[41], MYB[42], FLI1[43], RUNX1[44]) interact with DHSs in clusters E2 and E3. Modules 4 and 5 define
the erythroid-specific regulatory landscape as known erythroid regulators (e.g. GATA1[45], KLF1[20],
RXRA[46] and FOXO3[47]) positively interact with activated DHSs in clusters E4 and E5.

Plotting the fraction of DHSs in each cluster positively associated with each TF (**Figure 3d**) highlights
the major drivers of chromatin accessibility in each developmental stage. Particularly, ERG appears as a
major regulator of the HPSC stage as it is positively associated with ~25% of DHSs in clusters E1 and E2.
Although ERG has been long implicated in HSPC regulation, it is only recently its role as a critical
regulator of HSPC survival has been appreciated[48]. Interestingly, KLF12 also appears to share a
significant proportion of the early chromatin landscape, although its role in HSPC regulation is not fully
elucidated. Overexpression of the critical HSC regulator Evi-1 in mice, resulted in maintenance of the
quiescent phenotype of murine HSCs along with the more than 12-fold increase in *Klf12* expression[49]. In
another experiment, sustained expression of *Hlf* in mice also resulted in enrichment of *Klf12* in more
primitive hematopoietic compartments[50], thus implicating KLF12 in the HSPC regulation. Apart from the
canonical erythroid transcription factors, we identified MXI1 among the top regulators of the erythroid
chromatin landscape. Knockdown of *Mxi1* in mice, blocks chromatin condensation and impairs
enucleation of mouse erythroblasts, highlighting the role of MXI1 in erythroid maturation[51]. Additionally,
we find CTCF to be positively associated with a large portion of the erythroid-specific chromatin (~25%
of DHSs in clusters E4 and E5), while we find strong enrichment for DHS harboring CTCF motifs in
predicted chromatin loops from Hi-C data generated from *ex vivo* cultured human erythroid progenitors
(**Supplementary Figure 11**). These findings are consistent with the evidence highlighting the role of
CTCF in establishing the erythroid-specific chromatin landscape[52,53].

Taken together, these findings illustrate the dynamic interaction of the *cis-* and the *trans-* regulatory
landscape during erythropoiesis and their organization into well-defined and discrete regulatory modules
of associated DHSs with their cognate transcription factors, reflecting distinct stages of erythroid
development.

A sequence of abrupt lineage restriction events marks erythropoiesis

The organization of chromatin and transcription factors into defined regulatory modules corresponding to
distinct stages of erythropoiesis indicates a functional relationship between lineage potential and module
activity. To gain insight into whether these modules underpin lineage decision events we determined the
lineage potential of the erythroid cultures by daily sampling a population of cells and assaying their
multipotent and unipotent capacity for different myeloid lineages (**Figure 4a** and **Supplementary Figure
12a**). Total number of colonies declined with the progress of differentiation resulting in an abrupt
depletion of total progenitors on day 6 of differentiation (**Supplementary Figure 12b**). After 4 days of
exposure to erythroid media, the most primitive and multipotent colonies (CFU-GEMM; granulocytic,
erythroid, monocytic, megakaryocytic) were no longer detected (Figure 4b). Day 6 marked a second event
of restriction of the fate potential as all unilineage colonies were no longer detected in the cultures.
Specifically, frequency of erythroid progenitors (BFU-E) rapidly declined from day 5 to day 6 (**Figure
4c**). Similarly, granulocytic/monocytic progenitors (CFU-GM) were depleted by day 6 of erythroid
differentiation (**Supplementary Figure 12c**). Notably, none of the changes in clonogenic capacity were
associated with any changes in the growth rate of the parental erythroid cultures, which remained constant
throughout the differentiation (**Supplementary Figure 12d**), suggestive of an independent mechanism
regulating this shift in progenitor population.

In addition to the above lineages, we specifically tested for the ability to differentiate into megakaryocytes
during erythroid development by transferring cells, on a daily basis, from the primary erythroid culture to

megakaryopoiesis-inducing suspension cultures and tested for their ability to give rise to CD41^{+}
megakaryocytic populations (**Supplementary Figure 13a** and **Methods**). Consistent with the overall
lineage restriction observed during colony-forming assays, erythroid cultures completely lose
megakaryocytic potential on day 6 of the differentiation (**Figure 4c** and **Supplementary Figure 13b**).

The rapid changes observed in clonogenic capacity correspond to the transitions in the activity of
regulatory modules (**Figure 4d**). Early depletion of primitive multipotent CFU-GEMM progenitors is
concomitant with the transition from the HSPC-related modules (modules 1 and 2), while the decline of
unipotent progenitors of all detectable myeloid lineages (granulocytic/monocytic, erythroid,
megakaryocytic) coincides with the transition from a program with a broader myeloid signature to
erythroid specific *cis-* and *trans-* landscape. Furthermore, because these rapid lineage restriction events
are not associated with other abrupt changes in morphology or cell growth (**Supplementary Figure 13d**),
these data suggest that the mechanism responsible for the exit from the progenitor stage is decoupled from
maturation progress.

Exit from the HSPC-related transcriptional program is shared between erythropoiesis and
megakaryopoiesis

The silencing of the HPSC regulatory modules prior to lineage commitment suggested that exit from the
progenitor state is necessary for erythroid commitment to proceed. We therefore asked whether this
represents a canonical feature of hematopoietic development to any lineage. To investigate this, we
focused on megakaryocytic differentiation, a process that shares both close common developmental
origins[54] and key TF regulators with erythropoiesis[55].

We induced *ex vivo* megakaryocytic differentiation and performed dense sampling of gene expression
during development (**Figure 5a** and **Methods**). Developmentally regulated genes during
megakaryopoiesis exhibit largely bipartite profiles similar to those observed during erythropoiesis
(**Supplementary Figure 14**). To determine whether the transcriptional changes associated with exit from
HSPC state during erythropoiesis are shared with megakaryopoiesis we examined the expression profiles
of erythroid developmentally regulated genes during megakaryocytic differentiation. We observed highly
correlated global expression profiles for early silenced transcripts (erythroid clusters G1 and G2) between
the two lineages (median Spearman's ρ=0.76 and 0.62, respectively) (**Figure 5b**), with the exception of
key regulators and canonical markers of megakaryopoiesis (*MEIS1, FLI1, PBX1, ITGA2B,* etc.) (**Figure**
5c). In contrast, correlation for erythroid clusters G3-G5 was low (median Spearman's $\rho \leq 0.13$).

Similar to erythropoiesis, we found that early downregulation of HSPC-related gene signature is
associated with abrupt restriction of alternate lineage potential during megakaryopoiesis. Specifically, we
found that cells sampled beyond day 3 of differentiation exhibit a reduction in both multipotent and
unipotent progenitors of the erythroid and granulocytic/monocytic lineage (**Figure 5c** and
Supplementary Figure 15). This observation is in line with the fact that megakaryopoiesis does not
exhibit transient activation of myeloid gene program as exit from HSPC is rapidly succeeded by a
megakaryocyte-specific gene signature. This finding is compatible with the recently revised
hematopoietic tree according to which megakaryocytes directly emerge from the primitive HSPC
compartments bypassing the common myeloid progenitor[56–58].

Conclusively, these results indicate the existence of a shared mechanism between erythropoiesis and
megakaryopoiesis driven by a common set of TFs which mediates the exit from HSPC state signaling
differential lineage potential response for erythropoiesis and megakaryopoiesis.

Transient acquisition of a myeloid signature precedes erythroid commitment but not
megakaryocytic.

Genomic and functional findings on population-level during *ex vivo* erythropoiesis suggest that erythroid
development transitions through a state with permissive alternate lineage potential prior to erythroid
commitment whereas megakaryocytes appear to rapidly commit after exit from HSPC. As lineage

decision events resolve in individual progenitors, we sought to resolve the fate commitment kinetics and
the differentiation trajectories of erythropoiesis and megakaryopoiesis by jointly analyzing transcriptional
dynamics in single cells along the two lineages. To this end, we analyzed transcriptional changes from
more than 50,000 single cells sampled from frequent intervals along both the *ex vivo* erythroid and
megakaryocytic differentiation (**Figure 6a**). Overall, we found that single-cell gene expression profiles to
be highly concordant with total RNAseq data as aggregated gene expression from single-cell RNA-seq
correlated very well with RNA-seq performed in bulk cells (**Supplementary Figure 16**).

Principal component analysis (PCA) using the top 2,000 variable genes readily resolved the two primary
axes of differentiation. Trajectories from HSPC to terminally committed lineages are resolved along PC2
while PC1 distinguishes the erythroid and megakaryocytic terminal fates (**Figure 6b**). Furthermore, PCA
highlights the lineage commitment timepoint as cells sampled on day 4 and thereon, from either culture,
already exhibit distinct topologies on the PCA projection. In order to infer rate of transcription and derive
the direction of differentiation, we capitalized on splicing kinetics (RNA velocity) to derive latent
pseudotime (**Figure 6c**). Overall, pseudotime correlated well with actual sampling time (Pearson's
r=0.725).

Cells were clustered using Leiden community detection algorithm[59] and based on their between affinities
cell clusters were collapsed to 7 distinct populations corresponding to discrete developmental stages.
Developmental pseudotime and transitions between populations were inferred based on RNA velocity
(**Figure 6d** and **Supplemental Figure 18a-c**). Overall, we found the populations to be highly
homogeneous in terms of *ex vivo* culture sample composition. Not unexpectedly, we observed higher
sample admixture in populations corresponding to eary time-points, consistent with the notion that cells
at this stage had yet to establish lineage fate (**Supplementary Figure 18d**).

Using lineage trajectories inferred from transcriptional transitions between populations, we identified two
major pathways starting from a cluster with HSPC signature (HSPC cluster) and leading to terminal
megakaryocytic and erythroid fates (**Figure 6c**). Transitions from HSPC cluster to lineage specific
clusters involves two clusters with progenitor gene signature (MPP1, and MPP2) each of them stemming
from the HSPC cluster. MPP1 consists primarily of cells sampled from megakaryocytic cultures while
~25% of the cells in the population are derived from day 2 of the erythroid differentiation. MPP1
maintains a broader early progenitor signature (**Supplementary Figure 18e, f**) and transitions to a
population with early Mk signature (Mk1) which eventually gives rise to mature megakaryocytic
population (Mk2). MPP2 is composed almost exclusively of early (day 2 and day 4) erythroid cells and
appears as a nodal cluster with affinities to both the early erythroid cluster as well as the Mk primed
MPP1. Importantly, MPP2 exhibits gene expression signature characteristic of various myeloid subtypes
(**Supplemental Figure 18e-f**) expressing critical myeloid regulators alongside megakaryocytic and
erythroid ones (**Supplementary Table 6**). Stage-specific TF network reconstruction using TF-DHS and
DHS-gene assignments (**Figure 7a,b**), reveals the myeloid signature is orchestrated by a core network of
critical myeloid regulators (SPI1/PU.1, CEBPA, and FLI1), specific to MPP2 (**Figure 7c**). This is
compatible to single cell TF protein dynamics during *ex vivo* erythropoiesis, demonstrating that multiple
TFs of alternate hematopoietic lineages are active in early progenitors prior to emergence of CFU-e
populations[60]. Furthermore, early erythroid progenitors display affinities with myeloid and basophilic
lineages transiently emerging in the culture. Here, in an attempt to identify the origin of this myeloid
population present in our experiments, we performed FACS timecourse for the myeloid marker CD33
during both erythropoiesis and megakaryopoiesis. We find that the CD33$^+$ population a subset of CD34$^+$
HSPCs as >80% of uncultured CD34$^+$ are also positive for CD33. During erythroid differentiation, we
find that cells transiently undergo a state of CD33$^+$/CD117$^+$, whereby day 6 the majority (~70%) has
transitioned to CD33$^-$/CD117$^+$ (**Supplementary Figure 19**). In contrast, expression patterns of CD33 and
CD41 during *ex vivo* megakaryopoiesis are mutually exclusive, confirming the erythroid-specific origin
of the myeloid population.

In order to compare our findings to steady state hematopoiesis, we analyzed previously published single-
cell RNAseq data from FACS fractionated BM-derived hematopoietic populations[61]. Trajectory inference
on Force Atlas embedding using PAGA and DPT pseudotime analysis revealed two major differentiation
pathways originating from a developmentally primitive population with HSPC. One with defined
erythroid signature, and one exhibiting a myeloid gene expression profile (**Supplementary Figure 20a**).
Although we were able to detect a few cells with megakaryocytic signature concentrated close to HSPCs,
their population is very small and no distinction between primitive and mature megakaryocytes could be
detected. Additionally, gene expression patterns of megakaryocytic markers and TFs are not well defined
to infer differentiation trajectory (**Supplementary Figure 20a**). Upon determination of cell clusters
(**Supplementary Figure 20b**) we detected a population of cells which expresses several myeloid markers
and particularly those of basophils (e.g., *LMO4, CLC*), and appears to originate from two populations
early on the erythroid trajectory (**Supplementary Figure 20b**). In order to compare gene expression
profiles along the erythroid trajectory inferred from either *ex vivo* differentiated erythroid cells or BM
fractionated populations we correlated gene expression profiles from 1,000 top highly expressed genes in
both datasets. This revealed that *ex vivo* erythropoiesis recapitulates exceptionally well the gene
expression dynamics from native erythroid populations with median Spearman's ρ=0.81 (**Supplementary
Figure 21**). These results further support our population-level findings about the transient emergence of a
population during erythroid development that maintains myeloid capacity. The affinity between the
basophilic lineage and the erythroid has been previously described[61,62] and it has been suggested that
basophils derive from erythro-myeloid progenitors[63].

Discussion

Here, we systematically link individual transcription factors and their target *cis*- elements along *ex vivo*
human erythropoiesis, resolving how these elements organize temporally, encoding lineage commitment
and differentiation during hematopoiesis. More recently, multiple efforts have extensively studied the
individual (*cis*- and *trans*-) regulatory components involved in erythropoiesis[22] as well as other diverse
hematopoietic lineages[9,64–67]. The bulk of these efforts however base their findings either on
immunophenotypically defined hematopoietic populations, or single-cell dissection of steady state
heterogeneous sources, where developmental relationships between cells within a heterogeneous steady-
state population can only be inferred[13,15,61,68]. In this work we overcome the limitations associated with
immunophenotypic isolation of hematopoietic populations[57,69] which often fail to capture transient or rare
populations, while enrichment for specific populations is entirely dependent on the immunophenotypic
panel used for fractionation[70]. By capitalizing on the continuity of the differentiating populations during
ex vivo erythropoiesis we finely map chromatin accessibility and gene expression dynamics enabling the
direct and repeated measurement of the dynamic epigenetic landscape along a defined lineage trajectory.
In addition, a dense sampling approach enables the unbiased detection of transient events occurring over
short intervals that would otherwise be missed by sparse sampling methodologies.

Through integrative analysis of chromatin accessibility and gene expression during erythropoiesis we
draw thousands of links between individual distal regulatory elements and their target genes at much
higher resolution than that afforded by other methods. This approach revealed a sequence of discrete,
non-overlapping regulatory modules comprising of interacting transcription factors and individual *cis*-
regulatory elements, corresponding to distinct stages of erythroid development. Strikingly, the transition
between the activity of these modules coincides with a sequence of experimentally validated rapid lineage
restriction events. We found that the exit from the program associated with the HSPC state occurred
independent of lineage outcome, as it was also identified during *ex vivo* megakaryopoiesis. Moreover,
comparison of developmental transcriptomics of single cells along erythropoiesis and megakaryopoiesis
reveals that exit from HSPC occurs over the same developmental interval for both lineages, indicative of
a mechanism independent of the cytokine environment. This finding adds to previous reports that
activation of murine bone marrow HSCs with different lineage cytokines induces a common repression

mechanism of HSC signature while activates genes implicated in differentiation in a cytokine independent
fashion[71]

Upon exit from the HSPC state we found the two lineages to exhibit differential commitment kinetics.
Erythroid differentiation maintains a broader myeloid lineage capacity (Ery, G/M, Mk) prior to erythroid
commitment as a result of a transient upregulation of a regulatory program involving canonical myeloid
transcription factors (FLI1, SPI1, C/EBPs, GATA2, etc.). Network analysis in the progenitor stage prior
to erythroid commitment, demonstrates that FLI1 is a central TF with extensive affinities to other
transcriptional regulators, ultimately gatekeeping the fate choice between the megakaryocytic and
erythroid lineage. There are several lines of evidence from single-cell assays in both mouse and human
hematopoiesis suggesting that erythroid, megakaryocytic and basophilic lineages emerge from a shared
population[13,16,60,64,72,73], while mass cytometry dynamics of lineage-specific transcription factors ascribe
FLI1 the role of "gatekeeper" between the erythroid and the megakaryocytic fate[60]. The findings
presented here, however, demonstrate that this lineage-permissive transcriptional program is restricted
only to erythropoiesis. This is compatible with previous experimental evidence demonstrating the affinity
of basophilic lineage to the erythroid branch[61], specifically. Additionally, results from transgenic mice
lacking a set of the C/EBP family of myeloid regulators that exhibit decreased erythroid output[74]. In
contrast, transcriptional, functional and phenotypic evidence from *ex vivo* megakaryopoiesis presented
here, suggests rapid megakaryocytic commitment upon HSPC exit. These results align well with the
growing evidence suggesting that megakaryocytic commitment is occurring earlier compared to erythroid
fate[75] and that megakaryocytic lineage arises directly from the primitive hematopoietic compartments[57,76–
78].

In order to reconcile our findings on lineage commitment from bulk populations with transcriptional
dynamics from individual cells we compiled one of the most comprehensive analyses of single-cell gene
expression along a closely monitored developmental system, so far. Furthermore, this dataset represents
the first, to our knowledge, single-cell description of gene expression dynamics along the *ex vivo*
megakaryocytic development from purified HSPCs. Although different approaches have been suggested
to enrich for megakaryocyte and platelet biased progenitors and dissection of the bipotent MEPs[79–81] there
is no consensus purification scheme to isolate cells at different stages of megakaryocytic development
with the resolution available for erythroid development[82,83]. This is primarily due to the rarity of Mk cells
in the bone marrow[84,85] and the fragility of the mature large endomitotic megakaryocytes. Here, however,
we present an unbiased global view of gene expression and lineage commitment dynamics of
megakaryocytic development based on equiproportional sampling of populations along
megakaryopoiesis.

Overlaying the information of sampling timepoint of each population allowed us to match shifts in TF
expression in single-cells to the regulatory programs identified from our population-level experiments.
Strikingly, our single-cell based observations recapitulate both our *ex vivo* population-based findings as
well as single-cell transcriptional dynamics from bone marrow fractionated populations with remarkable
fidelity. This suggests that highly synchronized rapid shifts in gene expression levels of lineage regulators
across individual cells, occurring over short intervals of developmental time, underpin the changes
observed in bulk populations. This contrasts the current sentiment hinging on observations from single-
cell analyses where variability in the chromatin and transcriptional landscapes among steady- are
interpreted as gradients of continuous regulatory states[13,14,68,86].

Here we present novel insights into the developmental regulatory dynamics during hematopoiesis
illuminating mechanisms of lineage commitment, unable to interrogate previously due to sampling biases
and limitations. Although we draw parallels with steady-state *in vivo* derived data, the artificial nature of
the *ex vivo* culture systems can be a confounding factor. Nevertheless, we highlight the utility of *ex vivo*
development systems in studying rare or otherwise inaccessible populations *in vivo* and provide a
generalizable framework of how interactions between the *trans*- environment and the chromatin instruct
fate choice and lineage commitment during development. Additionally, the dense sampling and the

systematic linkage between distal elements and target promoters results in high-resolution maps charting
the stage-specific activity of regulatory elements. Such elements can prove particularly useful in
transgene-based therapies where the efficacy of these methods relies on the precise modulation of gene
expression in a developmental and lineage-specific manner.

Author contributions: G.G., M.I., and N.P. performed the experiments. G.G., A.N., T.S., and J.V.
performed data analysis. G.G., N.P., and J.V. designed the experiments. J.S., M.Y., and J.V. supervised
the study and provided consultation. G.G., and J.V. wrote the manuscript. J.V. conceived the study. All
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Data availability: All DNase I and RNA-seq data produced as part of this manuscript is freely available
by request and has been submitted to SRA. Adult erythroid Hi-C data was downloaded from ERA
(accessions SRX3058042 and SRX3058043). Adult CD43+ HSPC Hi-C data obtained from ENA
(accession ERR436024). Human bone marrow single-cell data from Pellin *et al.*, *2019*, *Nat. Comms.* was
download from ERA (accessions SRX4455330, SRX4455331, SRX4455332, SRX4455333,
SRX4455334, SRX4455335 and SRX4455336).

Code availability: All scripts and code used to process and analyze data herein are available upon
request.

Figure Legends

Figure 1. Comprehensive identification of regulatory landscape developmental dynamics.

(a) Dense DNase I-seq and RNA-seq time course with daily sampling during the 12-day *ex vivo* erythroid differentiation induced from CD34^{+} HSPCs. (b) PCA analysis using all detected DHSs (79,085 Hotspots 5% FDR) across all samples (12 time points, 3 donors). The arrow denotes the differentiation trajectory from day 0 to day 12. (c) PCA analysis using all 24,849 detected genes across all samples (13 time points, 3 donors). The arrow denotes the differentiation trajectory from day 0 to day 12. (d) Chromatin accessibility tracks for each day of differentiation with DNase Hypersensitive Sites (DHSs) harbored around the *TFRC* locus. (e) Identification of significantly changing DHS and genes with robust linear regression analysis. Scatterplots show *TFRC* expression and DNase I density for two upstream DHS. Dots represent normalized values for each of the 3 donors. Dashed line represents the fitted regression spline.

Figure 2. Temporal compartmentalization of the e *cis-* and *trans-* epigenetic landscape during erythropoiesis exhibits

(a) *K*-means clustering of 11,805 changing DHS resulted in 5 clusters (E1-E5) with sequential activity profile for each cluster. Values are z-score of per day average normalized DHS counts from 3 donors. (b) *K*-means clustering of 5,792 developmentally regulated genes resulted in 5 clusters (G1-G5). Values are z-score of per day average normalized FPKM from 3 donors. (c) A matrix showing the enrichment score (log2-ratio observed over expected) for any given DHS cluster, around each developmentally regulated DHS (±50kb from TSS). Highlighted in red is cluster G3 which is enriched for both late downregulated DHS of cluster E3 and early upregulated from cluster E4. * X^2 test *p*-value < 0.05 (d) Correlation density plot between developmental genes and developmental DHS ±250kb around the gene promoter. Grey shaded area highlights enrichment of correlations within ±50kb around the gene promoter. (e) DNase I accessibility track of the *CDH1* locus during erythroid differentiation, highlighting the accessibility of 3 nearby DHS correlated to *CDH1* expression. (f) DNase I accessibility track of the *CDH1* locus in HUDEP-2 cells depicting the genetic knockout of the *CDH1* promoter and two upstream DHS (-12, and -5) (above) along with the resulted ablation in CDH1 protein expression as assessed by flow cytometry (below).

Figure 3. Systematic modelling of *cis-* and *trans-* element temporal interactions reveals discrete regulatory modules during erythropoiesis.

(a) Developmental responses of DHS accessibility and transcription factor expression levels were found to be correlated across the genome. (b) The density of a given developmental DHS is modelled after the TF binding motif composition and the expression of the binding TFs using elastic-net regression. The model returns a coefficient for each pair of DHS and binding TF which denotes how strongly (positively or negatively) the TF expression is associated with the accessibility of the particular DHS. (c) Hierarchical clustering of 52 highly connected TFs based on the cosine distances of the regression coefficient from 11,734 DHS reveals 5 clusters of developmentally regulated TFs. Transcription factors along with their positively associated DHS comprise a regulatory module (modules 1-5). (d) The fraction of DHS per cluster positively associated with a TF identifies the major drivers of chromatin accessibility during erythropoiesis.

Figure 4. Lineage restriction events during erythropoiesis reflect the sequence of regulatory programs.

(a) Schematic diagram of lineage potential assays during the first 7 days of *ex vivo* erythropoiesis. Cells were sampled daily and transferred to lineage-permissive media. Multilineage capacity was determined as frequency of CFU-GEMM progenitors. Erythroid potential as frequency of BFU-Es and megakaryocytic potential as frequency of CD41^{+} cells. (b) Frequency of multipotent CFU-GEMM in methylcellulose assay from cells sampled over the course of erythroid differentiation. (c) Frequency of unipotent erythroid progenitor colonies (BFU-E) in methylcellulose assay (red line) and frequency of CD41^{+} cells after

transplantation in secondary megakaryocytic media (blue line) (d) Changes in lineage potential coincide
with the transitions between the regulatory modules identified earlier. Transition from modules 1 and 2 to
module 3 reflects the loss of multipotency occurring between days 3 and 4, while transition from module
3 to erythroid modules 4 and 5 coincides with the depletion of unipotent progenitors and entry to
erythroid maturation (days 5 to 6). Error bars denote ±1 SE of the mean from 4 replicates for colony-
forming assays, 2 replicates for CD41$^+$ frequency. Asterisk denotes statistically significant difference in
CFU-GEMM and BFU-E counts from day 1 (P-value < 0.05 Student's T-test). CFU-GEMM: Colony
Forming Unit - Granulocytic, Erythroid, Macrophage, Megakaryocytic. BFU-E: Burst Forming Unit-
Erythroid.

Figure 5. A shared transcriptional program drives the exit from HSPC state early in erythropoiesis
and megakaryopoiesis.

(a) Dense RNA-seq time course during *ex vivo* megakaryopoiesis induced from CD34$^+$ HSPCs. (b)
Correlation of gene expression profiles between erythropoiesis and megakaryopoiesis across the erythroid
gene clusters G1-G5. (c) Expression profiles during megakaryocytic development, ordered by their
correlation score to their erythroid counterparts from erythroid clusters G1 and G2. (d) Lineage potential
assay during *ex vivo* megakaryopoiesis whereby erythroid potential was assessed by subjecting cells to a
secondary erythroid culture (left). Frequency of CD235a$^+$ erythroid cells after 12-day culture into
secondary erythroid media (right).

Figure 6. Single-cell gene expression dynamics demonstrate distinct cell states during erythroid and
megakaryocytic differentiation.

(a) CD34$^+$ cells from a single donor were *ex vivo* differentiated towards the erythroid and the
megakaryocytic lineage. Including an uncultured sample from the same donor (CD34$^+$ day 0), ~50,000
cells were totally sampled during 5 time-points from each lineage and subjected to single-cell RNA-seq.
(b) PCA using the top 2000 variable genes. Cells are colored by the sampling day. Terminal erythroid
(Ery) and megakaryocytic (Mk) states, as well as initial HSPC state are annotated, respectively. Red line
denotes where the 90% of the cells sampled prior to day 4 are located (above line). (c) RNA velocity-
based pseudotime or gene expression density on Force-Atlas graph of all cells based on RNA velocity
estimates of top 2000 variable genes. (d) Cell populations from collapsed L

eiden clusters on FA graph. Sample composition of each population is represented as a pie chart. Arrows
denote RNA velocity derived transitions between populations. Dashed lines represent PAGA
connectivities. (e) Average expression intensity of gene sets representative of HSPC, Myeloid, Erythroid
and Megakaryocytic states on identified cell populations.

Figure 7. Defining of stage-specific erythroid regulatory networks.

(a) Representative top differentially expressed TF genes between populations as identified by Wilcoxon
sum rank test. (b) Schematic diagram of the regulatory network construction logic. Differentially
expressed TFs among single-cell populations are assigned to their target genes based on elastic-net
regression results. DHSs are linked to their target genes using correlation between population level DHS
density and gene expression. (c) Regulatory networks initiated by TFs specific to each population. Up to
top 50 target genes are shown for each TF. Transcription factors and select marker genes are annotated.

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Figure 1

Figure 2

a Chromatin accessibility

Developmentally regulated (DR) DHS (*n*=11,805)

E1
E2
E3
E4
E5

Day 0 4 8 12

DNase I accessibility
(row Z-score)
-2 0 2

b Gene expression

Developmentally regulated (DR) genes (*n*=5,792)

G1 — *ERG*, *KLF12*, *SOX4*, *CD34*
G2 — *CEBPA*, *IRF8*, *FLI1*, *GATA2*
G3 —
G4 — *KIT*, *GATA1*, *KLF1*, *PPARA*, *CDH1*, *CTCF*, *TFRC*
G5 — *ALAS2*, *HBG1*, *RXRA*, *GYPA*, *NFIA*

Day 0 4 8 12

RNA expression
(row Z-score)
-2 0 2

c Enrichment of DR DHSs ±50kb around a DR gene

DR genes
G1 G2 G3 G4 G5

DR DHS
E1
E2
E3
E4
E5

-1.5 1.5
log₂(obs/exp)

d Linking dynamic DHSs to genes

-1Mb TSS +1Mb

▲ DR DHSs w/ >1 link (10,247)
↱ DR genes w/ >1 link (4,640)
— DHS-gene links at | Pearson's r | > 0.7 (41,625)

Correlation DHS density to gene expression (±250kb from TSS)

Fraction of DHS linked
0.3
0.2

-200 -100 0 100 200
Distance to TSS (kb)

e 5 kb *CDH1*

CDH1 expression (FPKM)
0 10

r = 0.94   *r = 0.98*

Day 0

Day 12

-12   -5   promoter

f TALEN knockout *CDH1*

HUDEP-2 DNase I
-12   -5   promoter

CDH1 protein expression

WT
Δ-12 (DKO)
Δ-5 (DKO)
ΔPromoter (DKO)
Unstained

α-CDH1–APC

Figure 3

Figure 4

a

Erythroid differentiation

Day 1   Day 7

Assess lineage potential

Multilineage   Unilineage
potential   potential

CFU-GEMM   BFU-E,
Megakaryocytes

b

Multi-lineage potential

CFU-GEMM colonies (per 1,000 cells)

Days in primary erythroid culture

c

Unilineage potential

C/BFU-E colonies (per 1,000 cells)

%CD41+ cells

Days in primary erythroid culture

d

Loss of mutli-lineage capacity

Erythroid lineage resolved & loss of clonogenic capacity

Regulatory modules

Module 1
Module 2
Module 3
Module 4
Module 5

Day

Expression
TFs in module
(mean Z-score)

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7

a

Representative top DE genes in each population

b

- TFs DE in a population
- TF-DHS Elastic-net
- DHS-gene correlations (positive only)
- DHS
- Downstream target gene

c

HSPC   **MPP2**   **Ery1**

TF-target relationship
- Repression
- Activation

Node type
- non_TF
- TF