The developmental hourglass model is applicable to the spinal cord

Katsuki Mukaigasa*, Chie Sakuma, Hiroyuki Yaginuma

Department of Neuroanatomy and Embryology, School of Medicine, Fukushima Medical

University

*Correspondence: kamukaig@fmu.ac.jp

Summary

The developmental hourglass model predict that embryonic morphology is most

conserved at mid-embryonic stage and diverge at early and late stage. This model is generally

considered by whole embryonic level. Here, we demonstrate that the hourglass model is also

applicable to the more reduced element, the spinal cord. In the middle of the spinal cord

development, dorsoventrally arrayed neuronal progenitor domains are established, which is

conserved among vertebrates. We found that, by comparing the single-cell transcriptomes

between mice and zebrafish, V3 interneurons, a subpopulation of the post-mitotic spinal

neurons, display the divergent molecular profiles. We also found non-conservation of *cis*-

regulatory elements located around the progenitor fate determinants, indicating the rewiring

of the upstream gene regulatory network. These results demonstrate that, despite the

conservation of the progenitor domains, processes before and after the progenitor domain

specification has diverged. This study may help understand the molecular basis of the

developmental hourglass model.

Keywords

The developmental hourglass model, Single cell RNA-seq, *Cis* regulatory module, Gene regulatory network, Evolution, Spinal cord

Introduction

The vertebrate neural tube can produce a diverse array of neurons in a precisely controlled and reproducible manner. During neurogenesis and neuronal differentiation, each neuron is assigned a distinct feature such as neurotransmitter phenotype, axonal projection pathway, and cell body localization (Lai et al., 2016; Lu et al., 2015; Sagner and Briscoe, 2019). Initial phase of this process is the fate specification of progenitor cells, whereby molecularly defined progenitor domains are established with sharp boundary along the dorsoventral axis of the neural tube (Briscoe et al., 2000). Each progenitor identity is specified through highly complex gene regulatory network (GRN), which is composed of graded Shh signaling activity from ventral to dorsal, Bmp and Wnt signaling molecules expressed dorsally, pan-neural transcriptional activator Sox1-3, and a number of domain-specific transcription factors (TFs) functioning as repressor (Andrews et al., 2019; Balaskas et al., 2012; Delás and Briscoe, 2020; Kutejova et al., 2016; Nishi et al., 2015; Oosterveen et al., 2012; Peterson et al., 2012; Sagner and Briscoe, 2019; Zagorski et al., 2017). As the output of the GRN, 11 progenitor domains, termed dp1-6 in dorsal half, and p0, p1, p2, pMN and p3 in ventral half, are established (Lai et al., 2016; Lu et al., 2015; Sagner and Briscoe, 2019). Subsequently, multiple neuronal subtypes are generated from a single progenitor domain. For example, V2a, V2b and V2c interneurons (INs) are differentiated from p2 domain (Del Barrio et al., 2007; Li et al., 2005; Panayi et al., 2010; Peng et al., 2007), and dI1i and dI1c INs are differentiated from dp1 domain (Ding et al., 2012; Wilson et al., 2008).

Each subtype of post-mitotic neurons proceeds to the maturation process, such as migration,

axon projection and circuit formation. These knowledges have been constructed mainly based

on the chick and mouse studies, while a number of researches using zebrafish has

demonstrated that the spatial architecture of the progenitor domains in the neural tube is

largely conserved among vertebrate (Cheesman and Eisen, 2004; Cheesman et al., 2004;

Gribble et al., 2007; Guner and Karlstrom, 2007; Lewis et al., 2005; Park et al., 2002; Schäfer

et al., 2005).

However, there exist overt differences in the post-mitotic neuronal maturation between

amniotes and teleost. For example, V2a INs, which is defined by the expression of Vsx2

(Chx10), contribute to the locomotor rhythm generation in zebrafish (Eklöf-Ljunggren et al.,

2012), whereas V2a INs in mice play a role for the left-right alternation of limbs by providing

excitatory input to the commissural INs (Crone et al., 2008, 2009). This implies that, during

post-mitotic differentiation in mice and zebrafish, V2a INs are assigned the different

properties, or are placed in different position within the spinal locomotor circuit (Kiehn,

2016). Another example is Robo3, an axon guidance receptor essential for commissural

axons to cross the midline (Friocourt and Chédotal, 2017; Marillat et al., 2004; Sabatier et al.,

2004). In the spinal cord of amniotes, Robo3 is expressed in V0, V1, and V3 INs in the

ventral spinal cord, which encompass commissural INs (Friocourt et al., 2019; Tulloch et al.,

2019). However, in zebrafish, although double labeling of *robo3* and neuronal subtype

markers is not conducted, *robo3* expression is observed in the region encompassing MNs

(Challa et al., 2005). If zebrafish MNs express *bona fide robo3*, differentiation of MN has

diverged between amniotes and zebrafish, as MNs of amniotes never express Robo3

(Friocourt et al., 2019; Tulloch et al., 2019).

In addition to the post-mitotic differentiation, a process before the establishment of

progenitor domains also differs in amniotes and zebrafish. *Shh* is essential gene for

specification of ventral neural tube, and are expressed in the notochord and floor plate in

amniotes (Echelard et al., 1993; Riddle et al., 1993; Roelink et al., 1994). In contrast, 3 *Shh*-

related genes, *shha* (*sonic hedgehog*), *shhb* (*tiggy winkle hedgehog*) and *ihhb* (*echidna*

hedgehog) are expressed in notochord and/or floor plate in zebrafish, conferring a functional

redundancy of hedgehog (Hh) signaling (Currie and Ingham, 1996; Ekker et al., 1995; Krauss

et al., 1993). The Hh signaling pathway culminates in Gli family TFs, which function as

transcriptional activator or repressor depending on Hh signaling activity (Briscoe and

Thérond, 2013). Amniote possess 3 *Gli* genes, *Gli1*, *Gli2* and *Gli3*, whereas teleost possess 4

Gli genes, *gli1*, *gli2a*, *gli2b* and *gli3*. Loss of function experiments of *Gli* genes lead to

apparently different phenotypes between mice and zebrafish. For example, *Gli1* knock-out

mice are viable and appear normal, showing that *Gli1* is not essential for embryogenesis in

mice (Park et al., 2000). In contrast, *gli1* mutant zebrafish display severe cranial motor

neuron deficiency, reduced Hh-target genes such as *ptch1* and *nkx2.2a*, and die at larval stage

(Chandrasekhar et al., 1999; Karlstrom et al., 1996, 2003). In *Gli2* knock-out mice, floor

plate is not specified, and MNs aberrantly occupy the ventral-most domain in the spinal cord,

though MN itself is differentiated (Ding et al., 1998; Matise et al., 1998), whereas in

zebrafish, *gli2a* is completely dispensable for normal embryogenesis and growth to adulthood

(Karlstrom et al., 2003; Vanderlaan et al., 2005; Wang et al., 2013), and *gli2b* knock-down

cause a marked reduction of MNs in the spinal cord (Ke et al., 2008). Knock-down of *gli3* in

zebrafish lead to the reduction of MNs (Vanderlaan et al., 2005), however, in *Gli3* mutant

mice, patterning defects of floor plate and MNs are not observed (Persson et al., 2002).

Overall, the processes before and after the progenitor domain specification have diverged

among vertebrates, despite the conservation of the dorsoventral arrangement of the progenitor

domains. This pattern of developmental divergence is highly consistent with the

developmental hourglass model, which argue that embryonic morphology at early and late

developmental stages are divergent and that at mid-embryonic stage is conserved (Duboule,

1994; Hu et al., 2017; Irie and Kuratani, 2014). However, the process of the spinal cord

development has never been investigated from the perspective of this model. Here, we

provide evidence supporting that the developmental hourglass model is applicable to the

spinal cord development. We examined the single-cell transcriptome data from mice and

zebrafish, and provide another example of diverse differentiation of the post-mitotic neuron.

We also examined the transcriptional regulatory elements in the neural tube patterning genes

based on ChIP-seq and ATAC-seq data and sequence conservation, suggesting that GRN

upstream to the progenitor domain specification has been rewired during vertebrate evolution.

Based on our findings and robust development of the neuronal progenitor specification

(Balaskas et al., 2012; Delás and Briscoe, 2020; Exelby et al., 2021; Xiong et al., 2013;

Zagorski et al., 2017), we propose that the progenitor domain configuration in the neural tube

is less evolvable due to its canalization (Waddington, 1942).

Results

Two distinct subtypes of V3 INs in amniotes

Neuronal subtypes repertoire of V3 INs, which are differentiated from ventral-most p3

progenitor domain, remain relatively unclear among spinal neurons both in amniotes and

teleosts. Thus, we focused on V3 IN to clarify to what extent the post mitotic neuronal

differentiation has diverged among vertebrates. We examined single-cell RNA-sequence

(scRNA-seq) data obtained from the spinal cord of mouse embryos (Delile et al., 2019). The

data consist of the whole spinal cord cells from embryonic day (E) 9.5 to E13.5. We extract

data having V3 IN profile (*Nkx2-2* or *Sim1* positive), and applied graph-based clustering and

dimensionality reduction by tSNE to these cells, and then the differentially expressed genes

in each cluster was identified (Table S1). Expression of several markers were visualized on

tSNE plots (Fig.1A). *Nkx2-2* is a marker of p3 progenitor domain and V3 INs (Briscoe et al.,

1999). *Sim1* is a post-mitotic V3 IN marker (Zhang et al., 2008). V3 INs are glutamatergic

neurons, thus express *Slc17a6* (*vGlut2*) (Zhang et al., 2008). Expression of *Sox2*, *Neurog3*

and *Tubb3* in this order indicate the transition from progenitor to differentiated neuron

(Carcagno et al., 2014), indicating that medial to lateral direction in the spinal cord

corresponds to top to bottom direction in this plot. We found at least two distinct populations

in V3 INs; one is positive for *Robo3*, *Olig3*, and *Cntn2* (*Tag1*) (cluster numbered 5 in Fig.1A),

and another is positive for *Lhx1* (cluster numbered 1 in Fig.1A, Table S1).

To distinguish these two subtypes *in vivo*, markers of each subtypes (*ROBO3* and LHX1)

are examined in the spinal cord of the chick embryo at Hamburger-Hamilton stage (HH) 25-

26 (Fig.1B-K). NKX2-2 is used as a marker of p3 progenitor domain and V3 INs. The post-

mitotic V3 INs are distinguished by the expression of *SIM1*. We found that the expression of

ROBO3 is localized medially within the post-mitotic V3 INs. To confirm this further,

commissural axons passing through and bisecting the V3 INs were utilized as landmark.

Some V3 INs can be observed laterally to the commissural axons, however, these cells do not

express *ROBO3* (Fig.2F,G,K). Rather, *ROBO3* is expressed selectively by V3 INs located

medially to the commissural axons (Fig.2F,G). In contrast, LHX1 is expressed in the laterally

located population of the V3 INs (Fig.2H-J). These observations confirmed that two subtypes

of V3 INs found by scRNA-seq are spatially, and probably also functionally, distinct

populations in the developing spinal cord.

Gene expression profile of V3 IN in zebrafish is distinct from that in amniotes

Next, we analyzed the scRNA-seq data derived from zebrafish whole embryo at 1 and 2

day post fertilization (dpf) (Farnsworth et al., 2020) to determine whether V3 INs of zebrafish

are equivalent to those of amniotes. We extracted the data having the spinal cord profiles

(detailed procedure of the data subsetting is provided in Fig.S1). Similarly to the data

analysis of the mouse spinal cord, clustering and dimensionality reduction were applied

(Fig.2). In the tSNE plot, the progenitor cells, which mainly consist of 1 dpf cells, can be

identified by the expression of *sox3* and non-expression of *elavl3* (Fig.2, clusters numbered 0,

3, 4, 7, 11, 15, and 17). Expression of the domain specific TFs, such as *pax6b, olig2* and

nkx2.2b, were localized at the specific space in the tSNE plot, which is parallel to the

expression domain *in vivo* along the dorsoventral axis of the neural tube (Fig.2, Fig.S2).

These data also corroborate the evolutionary conservation of the progenitor domain

organization in the neural tube (Cheesman and Eisen, 2004; Cheesman et al., 2004; Gribble et

al., 2007; Guner and Karlstrom, 2007; Lewis et al., 2005; Park et al., 2002; Schäfer et al.,

2005). V3 INs can be distinguished by the expression of *sim1a* (magenta circle in Fig.2).

These V3 INs are *slc17a6b* positive glutamatergic neurons like amniotes. However, unlike

amniotes, almost all V3 INs express *robo3* in zebrafish, and there is no expression of *olig3*

and *cntn2*. The expression of *Lhx1* and *Robo3* is mutually exclusive in the amniotes, yet this

is not the case in the zebrafish. Furthermore, *neurog3*, one of the V3 IN specific TFs

(Carcagno et al., 2014), is not expressed in the V3 INs of zebrafish (Fig.2, compare to Fig.1).

These results indicate that V3 INs of zebrafish are not equivalent to those of amniotes so far

as the gene expressions are compared.

CRM in Robo3 locus is not conserved in teleosts

Focusing on *robo3* in zebrafish, *mnx1* positive MNs (black circle in Fig.2) also express

robo3. This is apparently different from amniotes, in which *Robo3* is never expressed in MNs

(Friocourt et al., 2019), implying that the transcriptional regulation of *Robo3* has diverged

during vertebrate evolution. To confirm this, we searched for the transcription regulatory

elements around *Robo3* locus using available ChIP-seq and ATAC-seq data of neural cells

(Fig.3). We found the putative *cis*-regulatory module (CRM) harboring multiple TF binding

sites with open chromatin state at around 20 kb upstream of *Robo3* transcription start site

(TSS) (Fig. 3, CRM in *Robo3* locus is abbreviated as *Robo3-CRM*). To confirm the function

of *Robo3-CRM*, reporter assay was performed using chick *in ovo* electroporation system. We

cloned *Robo3-CRM* from mouse genome into vector containing minimal promotor and *GFP*

(resulting construct is named *Robo3-CRM::GFP*). In the chick spinal cord after the

electroporation of *Robo3-CRM::GFP*, GFP expression was observed to overlap the

endogenous *ROBO3* expression, and GFP positive axons cross the midline (Fig.3). More

specifically, we found that GFP was expressed in LHX1 positive dorsal and intermediate INs,

EVX1 positive V0 INs, and NKX2-2 positive V3 INs, but not in ISL1 positive dI3 INs and

MNs, consistent with the endogenous *ROBO3* expressing cells (Fig.3) (Tulloch et al., 2019).

These results demonstrated that *Robo3-CRM* can recapitulate the normal expression pattern

of *Robo3* almost completely in the spinal cord.

Notably, when sequence conservation was checked using Multiz alignments in UCSC

genome browser among vertebrates, *Robo3-CRM* is conserved in tetrapods, but not in teleosts

(Fig.3). Weak conservation of *Robo3-CRM* is observed in spotted gar, a basal actinopterygian

(Fig.S3), suggesting that common ancestor of bony vertebrates possess *Robo3-CRM*, which

has been lost in teleost lineage (Lee et al., 2011). These results suggest that divergent

expression patterns of *robo3* in zebrafish is likely to be due to loss of *Robo3-CRM*. In

addition, it is also suggested that a part of axon guidance mechanisms in the post-mitotic

neurons might have diverged during vertebrate evolution.

Non-conservation of GBSs in Gli1 and Ptch1 loci in vertebrates

Next, we examined whether the upstream process before the progenitor fate specification

has also diverged among vertebrates. Previous studies have reported that the impacts of *Gli*

loss of function on the neuronal progenitors are different between mice and zebrafish

(Chandrasekhar et al., 1999; Karlstrom et al., 2003; Tyurina et al., 2005; Vanderlaan et al.,

2005; Wang et al., 2013). This raises the possibility that some Gli binding sites (GBSs), that

is, the sites of action of Hh signaling, varies among vertebrates. To test this, *Gli1* and *Ptch1*

loci were interrogated, as these genes are direct target of Hh signaling. We searched for GBS

in mouse genome and check the sequence conservation using Maltiz alignments in UCSC

genome browser. Using Gli1 and Gli3 ChIP-seq data, many GBSs were identified in mouse

Gli1 and *Ptch1* loci near TSS and within intron (Fig.4), confirming previous report (Dai et al.,

1999; Nishi et al., 2015). ATAC-seq data confirmed that these GBSs are open chromatin state

in neural cells. We found that most of these GBSs are not conserved among vertebrates. In

the case of *Gli1*, clustered GBSs are conserved only in mammals, and in the *Ptch1* locus,

most GBSs are conserved only in tetrapods, but lost in teleosts (Fig.4, highlighted region).

These findings imply that GBS is highly evolvable element. This may partly explain the

discrepancy of the *Gli* loss of function phenotypes between mice and zebrafish.

Non-conservation of CRMs of progenitor fate specifying TFs in vertebrates

Since the regulatory elements in *Robo3*, *Gli1* and *Ptch1* are not conserved among

vertebrates, we expect that non-conservation of the regulatory elements can be found in other

genes. Thus, we applied the same analysis to TFs functioning as progenitor fate determinants

expressed in the neural tube. Indeed, we found that *Pax6-CRM*, *Gsx1-CRM*, *Dbx2-CRM*,

Irx3-CRMs (2 CRMs, designated *Irx3-CRM1* and *2*), and *Olig2-CRMs* (2 CRMs, designated

Olig2-CRM1 and *2*) are conserved only in tetrapods, but lost in teleosts (Fig.5, highlighted

regions). These CRMs are open chromatin state in most cases, and are bound by Gli1, Gli3,

Sox2, Neurog2, Pax6, Pax7, Olig2, Nkx2-2 and Nkx6-1 in various combinations (Fig.5).

These TFs are essential components of GRN regulating the progenitor fate in the neural tube

(Balaskas et al., 2012; Delás and Briscoe, 2020; Exelby et al., 2021; Kutejova et al., 2016).

Thus, non-conservation of these CRMs and conservation of progenitor organization has

necessarily entailed the CRM turnover and GRN rewiring during vertebrate evolution. To

exclude the possibility that these CRMs has been lost due to having no functions, we carried

out the reporter assay by means of chick *in ovo* electroporation system. This experiment

confirmed that *Pax6-CRM*, *Gsx1-CRM*, *Dbx2-CRM*, *Irx3-CRM2*, and *Olig2-CRM2* functions

as enhancers in the neural tube cells, although more regulatory elements are needed to

precisely recapitulate the endogenous expression pattern (Fig.6). Note that this method

cannot capture the microRNA-based translational repression, which indeed affect the dorsal

boundary of Olig2 (Chen et al., 2011). The only exception is *Irx-CRM1*, which exert no

enhancer function in the chicken neural tube (data not shown). Enhancer function of *Olig2-*

CRM1 was already validated previously (Exelby et al., 2021; Oosterveen et al., 2012;

Peterson et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2011). These results indicate that these CRMs are

functional in amniotes, but nevertheless, are lost in teleosts. This support the notion that the

progenitor fate specification system in the neural tube has undergone CRM turnover and

GRN rewiring during vertebrate evolution (Fig.7).

Discussion

Divergent properties of post-mitotic neurons in vertebrates

First, in this study, we compared the single-cell transcriptomes of mice and zebrafish to

elucidate the divergence of the post-mitotic neuronal differentiation. We found that, in

amniotes, V3 INs can be divided into two distinct subtypes. One is located medially and

express *Robo3*, *Olig3*, and *Cntn2*, and another is located laterally and express *Lhx1* (Fig.1).

We tried to make these V3 INs correspond with those of zebrafish, but it failed (Fig.1,2). This

indicates that V3 IN of amniotes is not equivalent to that of zebrafish at least regarding gene

expression profile, supporting the idea that the properties of post-mitotic neurons in the spinal

cord has diverged among vertebrates. This is in contrast to the case of progenitor cells, in

which each progenitor domains of zebrafish readily correspond with those of amniotes

(Fig.S2).

The role of V3 INs in mice is to secure the stable locomotor rhythm (Zhang et al., 2008).

Several studies also suggested that V3 INs is contribute to the left-right synchronous motor

output, such as gallop and bound (Danner et al., 2019; Kiehn, 2016; Rabe et al., 2009). These

gaits can be expressed by quadrupeds, but not by fishes. This suggests that the different

locomotor behavior between amniotes and teleosts is associated with the divergence of the

V3 IN property. The same may be the case with V2a INs, whose roles have diverged between

amniotes and teleosts (Azim et al., 2014; Crone et al., 2008, 2009; Eklöf-Ljunggren et al.,

2012; Kiehn, 2016). Given that the number of muscle and corresponding MNs has

significantly increased during tetrapod evolution, especially regarding limb muscles (Diogo

and Abdala, 2010), additional layer of neuronal circuits had been required to precisely control

complex locomotor behavior (Kiehn, 2016). This may be accomplished, at least in part, by

tinkering the already existing neuronal population (Jacob, 1977), eventually leading to the

divergence of the post-mitotic neuronal properties among vertebrates. Distinct expression

profiles of *Robo3* between amniotes and zebrafish may be one of the strategies for the

neuronal tinkering (Fig.1-3).

Divergent processes leading to the conserved progenitor domains

In the latter part of this study, we investigated the transcriptional regulatory elements

located around the progenitor fate specifying genes in order to reveal to what extent the

upstream process before the progenitor specification has diverged in vertebrates. In *Gli1*

locus, clustered GBSs near the TSS are conserved only in mammals, but not in teleosts

(Fig.4). Even in birds and reptiles, these GBSs are conserved only partially. Nevertheless, *Gli1* is expressed in response to Hh signaling commonly in vertebrates (Aglyamova and Agarwala, 2007; Karlstrom et al., 2003; Luo et al., 2006), suggesting the presence of distinct GBSs with equivalent function. Actually, zebrafish possesses 3 GBSs in *Gli1* locus, which are conserved only in a part of teleost species (Wang et al., 2013), indicating that regions where Hh signaling is eventually transduced has shifted during vertebrate evolution. This is supported by the similar situation in *Ptch1* locus (Fig.4) (Wang et al., 2013). Bicoid is a morphogen playing a crucial role for the patterning of the anterior-posterior axis in *Drosophila* blastoderm, and there are fundamental similarities between Bicoid and Shh (Briscoe and Small, 2015). It is noteworthy that Bicoid binding sites has also undergone rapid turnover in *Diptera* (McGregor et al., 2001). Flexibility of morphogen response elements might contribute to the integration of the morphogen dependency into the patterning system of the embryo (Dearden and Akam, 1999; Miyamoto and Wada, 2013; Ren et al., 2020; Stauber et al., 1999).

In *Pax6*, *Gsx1*, *Dbx2*, *Irx3*, and *Olig2* loci in mouse genome, we identified functional CRMs bound by multiple TFs (Fig.5,6). These CRMs are conserved only in tetrapods, but lost in teleosts (Fig.5). Given that the progenitor domain organization is conserved among vertebrates, these findings indicate the CRM turnover and GRN rewiring during vertebrate evolution (Fig.7). This is considered as a case of developmental system drift (DSD) (True and Haag, 2001). Several studies have reported similar situation, in which divergent regulatory sequences in different species result in the conserved gene expressions (Barrière et al., 2012; Fisher et al., 2006; Hare et al., 2008; Ludwig et al., 1998, 2000; Paris et al., 2013; Stolfi et al., 2014; Swanson et al., 2011). In these cases including the present study, GRN architecture is likely to be maintained as a whole despite the CRM turnover, as demonstrated in mammalian evolution (Stergachis et al., 2014; Vierstra et al., 2014).

The process of the neural tube formation is different between amniotes and zebrafish also

morphogenetically. In amniotes, a midline groove is formed by bending of the neural plate,

and then the edges of the neural plate are fused, making the neural tube (Schoenwolf and

Smith, 1990). On the other hand, in zebrafish, the solid neural keel with no central canal is

formed by convergent movement of the neural plate cells, and then the central canal opens

secondarily (Schmitz et al., 1993). Taken together, the neural tube formation is a case of DSD

from both genetic and morphogenetic viewpoints.

Molecular basis of the hourglass model in the spinal cord

Altogether, our results demonstrate that divergence of the developmental process of the

spinal cord is in accordance with the developmental hourglass model. Then, what impose the

hourglass-like pattern on the evolution of the spinal cord development? We discuss about it as

follows. The progenitor regionalization in the neural tube is highly robust developmental

system, and thus is insensitive against noises and mutations (Balaskas et al., 2012; Delás and

Briscoe, 2020; Exelby et al., 2021; Xiong et al., 2013; Zagorski et al., 2017). Simulation

study also propose that the developmental system robustness is an emergent property of the

complex GRN (Bergman and Siegal, 2003; von Dassow et al., 2000; Siegal and Bergman,

2002), supporting indirectly the robustness of the neuronal progenitor specification system,

which is organized by highly complex GRN (Kutejova et al., 2016). From the evolutionary

perspective, such a robust (canalized) developmental system can accommodate genetic

variations without disturbing the development (Rutherford and Lindquist, 1998; Waddington,

1942). In other words, the progenitor specification system in the neural tube is buffering the

genetic variations. We speculate that this situation had consequently led to the CRM turnover

and GRN rewiring, while the progenitor arrangement was maintained. Once cells are released

from the progenitor domains as post-mitotic neurons, individual neurons depend on the

mechanisms regulating post-mitotic maturation which is distinct from the progenitor

specification GRN. As mentioned before, maturation process is considered to diverge in

association with locomotor divergence. Eventually, through vertebrate evolution,

developmental divergence of the spinal cord might become the hourglass shape. The present

study only considers the spinal cord. Thus, it is of particular interest to examine whether this

scenario is also the case in other developmental systems or even in whole embryonic level.

More importantly, if partial modification is admitted, neuroectodermal regionalization is

conserved beyond vertebrates among bilaterians (Arendt, 2018; Denes et al., 2007; Jung and

Dasen, 2015). This suggest that developmental system robustness of the neuroectodermal

regionalization had already been acquired in common ancestor of bilaterians, and upstream

signals of the neuroectodermal regionalization had been modified after divergence of phyla

(e.g., Hh signalling recruitment in deuterostomes) (Miyamoto and Wada, 2013; Ren et al.,

2020). This is supported by the notion of the common origin of the central nervous system

(CNS) in bilateria (Arendt, 2018; Denes et al., 2007), but is inconsistent with the convergent

evolution of CNS (Martín-Durán et al., 2018).

Acknowledgements

We thank Y. Watanabe and T. Shimada for technical supports. This work was supported

by JSPS KAKENHI Grant Number 18K14718 and 18K06835. Computations were partially

performed on the NIG supercomputer at ROIS National Institute of Genetics. The

monoclonal antibodies 74.5A5, 4F2, 3A10, 99.1-3A2, PAX6, and GFP-G1, developed by T.

M. Jessell, J. Dodd, S. Brenner-Morton, A. Kawakami, J. R. Sanes, and M. Yamagata were

obtained from the Developmental Studies Hybridoma Bank, created by the NICHD of the

NIH and maintained at The University of Iowa, Department of Biology, Iowa City, IA 52242.

Author Contributions

Conceptualization, K.M.; Methodology, K.M.; Formal Analysis, K.M.; Investigation,

K.M. and C.S.; Writing - Original Draft, K.M.; Writing - Review & Editing, K.M and H.Y.;

Funding Acquisition, K.M. and H.Y.

Declaration of Interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Figure Legends

Figure 1. Two distinct subtypes of V3 INs in amniotes

(A) tSNE plot showing the cells with V3 IN identity derived from mouse embryonic

spinal cord. Expression levels of genes indicated are visualized on the tSNE plot. Top right

panel shows the result of graph-based clustering with each cluster being colored differently.

Cluster numbers (0-11) are labeled. Middle right panel shows embryonic day when cells are

corrected. There are 2 distinct clusters within the post-mitotic V3 INs; one is positive for

Robo3, *Olig3*, and *Cntn2* (cluster numbered 5), and another is positive for *Lhx1* (cluster

numbered 1). (B-K) Expressions of NKX2-2, *SIM1* and *ROBO3* are examined in the chick

spinal cord at the forelimb level at HH25-26. Growing axons are also visualized by

monoclonal antibody 3A10. Staining of *in situ* hybridization and immunohistochemistry is

colored by blue and brown, respectively. C, E and G show the enlarged views of the boxed

area in B, D, and F, respectively. (H-J) Immunohistochemistry using NKX2-2 and LHX1

antibodies. (K) Immunohistochemistry using NKX2-2 and 3A10 antibodies. Ventral-most

region of the spinal cord is shown in H-K. Scale bar: 100 μm in F for B, D and F, in K for H-

K.

Figure 2. Gene expression profile of V3 IN in zebrafish is distinct from that in amniotes

tSNE plot showing the cells with spinal cord identity derived from zebrafish embryos (1 and 2 dpf). Top left panel shows the result of graph-based clustering with each cluster being colored differently. Cluster numbers (0-18) are labeled. Top right panel shows embryonic day when cells are corrected. Left-most panel in second row shows progenitors and post-mitotic neurons by distinct color. D and V indicate dorsal and ventral, respectively. Other panels show the expression levels of genes indicated. Magenta and black circle indicate V3 INs and MNs, respectively.

Figure 3. CRM in *Robo3* locus is not conserved in teleosts

(A) ChIP-seq and ATAC-seq peak call results are displayed in UCSC genome browser with Multiz Alignments track. *Robo3* locus in mouse genome (mm10) is displayed. Region harboring multiple TF binding sites (*Robo3-CRM*) is highlighted by magenta. Maltiz Alignment track of tatrapods and teleosts are highlighted by different colors. (B-I) *Robo3-CRM::GFP* was electroporated into chick neural tube. (B,C) Expression of GFP and *ROBO3* was examined at HH20 (B) and HH25 (C) after electroporation. GFP expression overlapped with the endogenous *ROBO3* expression. (D-I) Expression of GFP and TFs indicated was examined at HH25 after electroporation. Scale bar: 100 μm in C for B and C, in I for D-I.

Figure 4. Non-conservation of GBSs in *Gli1* and *Ptch1* loci in vertebrates

Gli1/3 ChIP-seq and ATAC-seq peak call results are displayed in UCSC genome browser with Multiz Alignments track. *Gli1* and *Ptch1* loci in mouse genome (mm10) are shown. In *Gli1* locus, region highlighted by magenta indicates the open chromatin region which is bound by Gli1/3, and is conserved only in mammals. Maltiz Alignment track of mammals and non-mammals are highlighted by different colors. In *Ptch1* locus, regions highlighted by

magenta indicates the open chromatin regions which are bound by Gli1/3, and are conserved

only in tetrapods. Maltiz Alignment track of tatrapods and teleosts are highlighted by

different colors.

Figure 5. Non-conservation of CRMs of progenitor fate specifying TFs in vertebrates

ChIP-seq and ATAC-seq peak call results are displayed in UCSC genome browser with

Multiz Alignments track (display mode is dense). Mouse *Pax6*, *Gsx1*, *Dbx2*, *Irx3* and *Olig2*

loci are displayed. Regions harboring multiple TF binding sites (CRMs) are highlighted by

magenta, which are conserved only in tetrapods. In *Irx3* and *Olig2* loci, two distinct CRMs

are numbered 1 and 2 under the track. In *Pax6*, *Dbx2* and *Olig2* loci, previously validated

CRMs are indicated by open triangle under the track (Oosterveen et al., 2012; Peterson et al.,

2012).

Figure 6. Enhancer functions of CRMs of progenitor fate specifying TFs

CRM reporter vectors indicated are electroporated into chick neural tube together with

CAGGS::mCherry as control vector. (A-J) GFP and mCherry expression were examined at

HH19-20 in the forelimb level neural tube. (K-O) The endogenous expression of genes

indicated were examined by *in situ* hybridization (L,M,N) or immunohistochemistry (K,O)

together with GFP expression. These 5 CRMs display enhancer functions, though GFP

expression domains incompletely overlap with endogenous expression domain. *Pax6-CRM*

induces GFP expression almost ubiquitously, yet the expression is not observed in the roof

plate (A,F,K). *Gsx1-CRM* induces GFP expression in the dorsal neural tube, but does not

induce in the more ventral region than the endogenous expression domain (B,G,L). GFP

expression domain induced by *Dbx2-CRM* overlap with the endogenous expression domain

almost completely (C,H,M). It is also the case with *Irx3-CRM2* (D,I,N). *Olig2-CRM* induces

the GFP expression in the intermediate to ventral region, which partially overlap with, but is

more dorsal than, the endogenous expression domain (E,J,O). Scale bar: 100 μm.

Figure 7. The hourglass-like pattern of the developmental divergence of the spinal cord

Summary of the present study is shown. In this drawing, development proceed from

bottom to top. Only 5 progenitor domains are set up for simplification. Bottom drawing

represents the GRNs regulating the progenitor domain establishment. CRMs (indicated by

open boxes) located in the progenitor fate specifying genes (GeneA-D) has diverged

(turnover) between amniotes and teleosts. Accordingly, these GRNs have been rewired,

which is considered as DSD. Nevertheless, these distinct GRNs result in the same progenitor

domain organization due to the developmental system robustness. Top drawing represents the

divergence of the differentiation process of the post-mitotic neuron. After individual cells

leave the progenitor domains as post-mitotic neurons, some neurons undergo distinct

maturation process between amniotes and teleosts. Thus, there exist neuronal subpopulations

whose function is different between amniotes and teleosts.

Methods

Experimental animals

Fertilized chicken eggs were obtained from Takeuchi farm (Nara, Japan) and incubated

at 38°C in a humidified incubator. Embryos were staged according to Hamburger-Hamilton

stage series (Hamburger and Hamilton, 1951). All animal experiments were performed in

accordance with the Rules of Fukushima Medical University Animal Experiments, with

approval of the Animal Experiments Committee of Fukushima Medical University (approval

number 2020103).

scRNA-seq data analysis

Mouse spinal cord scRNA-seq data (Delile et al., 2019) was obtained from ArrayExpress (accession number E-MTAB-7320). UMI count matrix was generated using Cell Ranger version 3.1.0 (10x Genomics). In this step, normalization was skipped in order to maximize sensitivity (cellranger aggr was executed with --normalize=none). The output matrix was feed into Seurat (R package) version 3.1.5 (Butler et al., 2018). Zebrafish whole embryo scRNA-seq data (Farnsworth et al., 2020) was obtained as Seurat object (.rds file) from Dr. Miller's website (https://www.adammillerlab.com/resources-1). Detailed procedure of normalization, data subsetting, graph-based clustering, and dimensionality reduction using Seurat is provided in https://github.com/kmukaigasa/Spinalcord_MouseZebrafish.

ChIP-seq data analysis

ChIP-seq data were obtained from NCBI sequence read archive (SRA). Accession numbers are as follows; GSE66961 for Pax6 (Sun et al., 2015), GSE42132 for Sox2, Gli1 (Peterson et al., 2012), GSE61673 for Gli3, Nkx2-2, Nkx6-1, Olig2 (Nishi et al., 2015), GSE114172 for Neurog2 (Aydin et al., 2019), GSE87180 for Pax7 (Mayran et al., 2018). Cell types used are embryonic forebrain (Pax6), AtT-20 cell (Pax7), and neural cells differentiated from mouse ES cells (Sox2, Gli1/3, Nkx2-2, Nkx6-1, Olig2, Neurog2). Sequencing adaptors and low quality bases was trimmed by Trimmomatic (version 0.39). FastQC (version 0.11.9) was used for sequence quality check. Read mapping to mouse reference genome (mm10) was performed by Bowtie2 (version 2.3.5) with default setting. Reads with low mapping quality (MAPQ < 10) were removed by samtools (version 1.9). Peak call was performed by MACS2 (version 2.2.6). Output bedGraph file was converted to BigWig format by bdg2bw (https://gist.github.com/jl32587/34370c995460f9d5ad65). BigWig track was visualized in UCSC genome browser.

ATAC-seq data analysis

ATAC-seq data (Metzis et al., 2018) were obtained from ArrayExpress (E-MTAB-6337). From the dataset, data of the neural progenitor cells with spinal cord identity were used. Read quality control was done as ChIP-seq. Read mapping was performed by Bowtie2 with following parameters; -X 2000 --sensitive-local. PCR duplicates were marked using Picard (version 2.9.2). Reads with low mapping quality (MAPQ < 30) were removed by samtools. Peak call was performed by MACS2 with following parameters; -f BAMPE -g mm -q 0.05 --nomodel --keep-dup auto -B.

Comparison of genomic sequence by VISTA

For interspecies comparison of genomic sequence, partial genomic sequences were obtained from UCSC genome browser (https://genome.ucsc.edu) and Ensembl (https://www.ensembl.org/index.html), and VISTA (Frazer et al., 2004) are used to align and visualize the results.

Vector construction

For RNA probe preparation, partial fragment of *ROBO3*, *IRX3*, *DBX2*, and *GSX1* was amplified by PCR from chick embryonic spinal cord cDNA. Primer sequences used are provided in Table S2. The fragments were inserted into pCR-XL-TOPO (Thermo Fisher) or *pBluescriptKS*. For reporter assay of CRMs, genomic DNA fragments were amplified by PCR from solution which was prepared by digesting tail tip of C57BL/6J mouse. The amplified fragments were inserted into *pSF-pA-MinProm-eGFP* vector (Oxford genetics). Positions of CRMs within the mouse reference genome are provided in Table S3. For construction of *pCAGGS-mCherry*, *mCherry* gene cassette of *pmCherry-C1* (Clontech) was

inserted into *pCAGGS* (Niwa et al., 1991).

in ovo electroporation

A small window was opened on the top of the fertilized chicken egg shell. The electrodes

were placed on both sides of the neural tube of HH12-13 chick embryo. Plasmid DNA was

injected into the neural tube. During injection, electric pulses (25 V, 50 ms, 5 times, 950 ms

interval) were applied using CUY21EDIT (BEX, Tokyo, Japan). Plasmids were prepared at 1

μg/μl for *pSF-Robo3-CRM::GFP*, 20-50 ng/μl for *pSF-Pax6-CRM::GFP*, *pSF-Gsx1-*

CRM::GFP, pSF-Dbx2-CRM::GFP, pSF-Irx3-CRM::GFP, pSF-Olig2-CRM::GFP, 0.5 ng/μl

for *pCAGGS-mCherry*.

Immunohistochemistry

Embryos were fixed in 0.1 M phosphate buffer / 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) at room

temperature for 45-60 min or 4°C overnight. Fixed embryos were cryoprotected in 20%

sucrose at 4°C overnight, embedded in OCT compound, and cryosectioned. In case of

overnight fixed samples, sections were boiled for 20 min in sodium citrate buffer (10 mM

sodium citrate, 0.05% Tween 20, pH 6.0) and cooled down to room temperature. After

washing with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) containing 0.1% Triton X-100 (PBST), the

sections were incubated with primary antibodies at 4°C overnight, washed with PBST three

times for 5 min, and incubated with secondary antibodies for 1-2 h at room temperature. After

washing with PBST three times for 5 min, slides were coverslipped in VECTASHIELD

(Vector laboratories). The antibodies used are described in Table S4. In the case of anti-Pax6

and anti-Lhx1, Can Get Signal (TOYOBO, NKB-401) was used for diluent instead of PBST.

Images were captured using an Olympus BX51 fluorescent microscope equipped with an

Olympus DP71 digital camera, or an Olympus FluoView FV1000 confocal microscope.

in situ hybridization

For double staining of immunohistochemistry and *in situ* hybridization, immunohistochemistry was performed as describe above with primary and secondary antibody incubation being for 1 h at room temperature, and signal was developed by VECTASTAIN Elite ABC kit (Vector laboratories), and then, proceed to the process of *in situ* hybridization as described below. Plasmid for RNA probe template was linearized, and DIG-labeled RNA probes were generated using DIG RNA labeling mix (Sigma-Aldrich, 11277073910) and T3 RNA polymerase (Promega, P2083).

Tissue slides were washed with PBS for 5 min, treated with protainaseK (2μg/ml) for 10 min, washed with PBS for 5min, fixed in 4% PFA for 10 min, and washed three times with PBS for 5 min. The slides were then incubated in acetylation solution (100 mM triethanolamine, pH 8.0) twice for 2-3 min, transferred in new acetylation solution and acetylated for 15 min by adding dropwise acetic anhydride (0.3% final concentration), and washed with PBS three times for 5 min. The slides were prehybridized with hybridization buffer (50% formamide, 5X SSC, 5X Denhardt's, 500 μg/ml herring sperm DNA, 250 μg/ml yeast RNA) for 2-3h at room temperature, and hybridized with hybridization buffer containing DIG-labelled RNA probe. The slides were coverslipped and incubated in humidified chamber at 70°C overnight. The following day, slides were transferred in 5X SSC at 70°C for 5 min, washed twice in 0.2X SSC for 30 min at 70°C, and washed in 0.2X SSC for 30 min at room temperature. Slides were washed with buffer B1 (100mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 0.1% Tween 20) three times for 30 min, incubated with buffer B1 containing 10% heat-inactivated normal goat serum for 2-3h at room temperature, and then incubated with buffer B1 containing alkaline phosphatase conjugated anti-DIG antibody (Roche 11093274910, 1:5000) and 1% heat-inactivated normal goat serum at 4°C overnight.

The following day, slides were washed 5 times with buffer B1 for 30 min, and incubated in

buffer B3 (100 mM Tris-HCl pH 9.5, 100 mM NaCl, 50 mM MgCl2, 0.1% Tween20) three

times for 5 min. Slides were incubated with BM purple (Roche, 11442074001) until the

signal was visualized (3 h to overnight). After that, slides were washed three times with

buffer B1 for 30 min, then washed three times with PBS for 5min, and coverslipped in

Fluoromount (Diagnostic Biosystems, K024).

References

Aglyamova, G. V., and Agarwala, S. (2007). Gene expression analysis of the Hedgehog

signaling cascade in the chick midbrain and spinal cord. Dev. Dyn. *236*, 1363–1373.

Andrews, M.G., Kong, J., Novitch, B.G., and Butler, S.J. (2019). New perspectives on the

mechanisms establishing the dorsal-ventral axis of the spinal cord. Curr. Top. Dev. Biol. *132*,

417–450.

Arendt, D. (2018). Animal Evolution: Convergent Nerve Cords? Curr. Biol. *28*, R225–R227.

Aydin, B., Kakumanu, A., Rossillo, M., Moreno-Estellés, M., Garipler, G., Ringstad, N.,

Flames, N., Mahony, S., and Mazzoni, E.O. (2019). Proneural factors Ascl1 and Neurog2

contribute to neuronal subtype identities by establishing distinct chromatin landscapes. Nat.

Neurosci. *22*, 897–908.

Azim, E., Jiang, J., Alstermark, B., and Jessell, T.M. (2014). Skilled reaching relies on a V2a

propriospinal internal copy circuit. Nature *508*, 357–363.

Balaskas, N., Ribeiro, A., Panovska, J., Dessaud, E., Sasai, N., Page, K.M., Briscoe, J., and

Ribes, V. (2012). Gene regulatory logic for reading the Sonic Hedgehog signaling gradient in

the vertebrate neural tube. Cell *148*, 273–284.

Barrière, A., Gordon, K.L., and Ruvinsky, I. (2012). Coevolution within and between

Regulatory Loci Can Preserve Promoter Function Despite Evolutionary Rate Acceleration.

PLoS Genet. *8*, e1002961.

Bergman, A., and Siegal, M.L. (2003). Evolutionary capacitance as a general feature of

complex gene networks. Nature *424*, 549–552.

Briscoe, J., and Small, S. (2015). Morphogen rules: design principles of gradient-mediated

embryo patterning. Development *142*, 3996–4009.

Briscoe, J., and Thérond, P.P. (2013). The mechanisms of Hedgehog signalling and its roles

in development and disease. Nat. Rev. Mol. Cell Biol. *14*, 418–431.

Briscoe, J., Sussel, L., Serup, P., Hartigan-O'Connor, D., Jessell, T.M., Rubenstein, J.L.R.,

and Ericson, J. (1999). Homeobox gene Nkx2.2 and specification of neuronal identity by

graded Sonic hedgehog signalling. Nature *398*, 622–627.

Briscoe, J., Pierani, A., Jessell, T., and Ericson, J. (2000). A homeodomain protein code

specifies progenitor cell identity and neuronal fate in the ventral neural tube. Cell *101*, 435–

445.

Butler, A., Hoffman, P., Smibert, P., Papalexi, E., and Satija, R. (2018). Integrating single-

cell transcriptomic data across different conditions, technologies, and species. Nat.

Biotechnol. *36*, 411–420.

Carcagno, A.L., Di Bella, D.J., Goulding, M., Guillemot, F., and Lanuza, G.M. (2014).

Neurogenin3 Restricts Serotonergic Neuron Differentiation to the Hindbrain. J. Neurosci. *34*,

15223–15233.

Challa, A.K., McWhorter, M.L., Wang, C., Seeger, M.A., and Beattie, C.E. (2005). Robo3

isoforms have distinct roles during zebrafish development. Mech. Dev. *122*, 1073–1086.

Chandrasekhar, A., Schauerte, H.E., Haffter, P., and Kuwada, J.Y. (1999). The zebrafish

detour gene is essential for cranial but not spinal motor neuron induction. Development *126*,

2727–2737.

Cheesman, S.E., and Eisen, J.S. (2004). Gsh1 Demarcates Hypothalamus and Intermediate

Spinal Cord in Zebrafish. Gene Expr. Patterns *5*, 107–112.

Cheesman, S.E., Layden, M.J., Von Ohlen, T., Doe, C.Q., and Eisen, J.S. (2004). Zebrafish

and fly Nkx6 proteins have similar CNS expression patterns and regulate motoneuron

formation. Development *131*, 5221–5232.

Chen, J.A., Huang, Y.P., Mazzoni, E.O., Tan, G.C., Zavadil, J., and Wichterle, H. (2011).

Mir-17-3p Controls Spinal Neural Progenitor Patterning by Regulating Olig2/Irx3 Cross-

Repressive Loop. Neuron *69*, 721–735.

Crone, S.A., Quinlan, K.A., Zagoraiou, L., Droho, S., Restrepo, C.E., Lundfald, L., Endo, T.,

Setlak, J., Jessell, T.M., Kiehn, O., et al. (2008). Genetic Ablation of V2a Ipsilateral

Interneurons Disrupts Left-Right Locomotor Coordination in Mammalian Spinal Cord.

Neuron *60*, 70–83.

Crone, S.A., Zhong, G., Harris-Warrick, R., and Sharma, K. (2009). In mice lacking V2a

interneurons, gait depends on speed of locomotion. J. Neurosci. *29*, 7098–7109.

Currie, P.D., and Ingham, P.W. (1996). Induction of a specific muscle cell type by a

hedgehog-like protein in zebrafish. Nature *382*, 452–455.

Dai, P., Akimaru, H., Tanaka, Y., Maekawa, T., Nakafuku, M., and Ishii, S. (1999). Sonic

Hedgehog-induced Activation of the Gli1 Promoter Is Mediated by GLI3. J. Biol. Chem. *274*,

8143–8152.

Danner, S.M., Zhang, H., Shevtsova, N.A., Borowska-Fielding, J., Deska-Gauthier, D.,

Rybak, I.A., and Zhang, Y. (2019). Spinal V3 Interneurons and Left–Right Coordination in

Mammalian Locomotion. Front. Cell. Neurosci. *13*, 1–23.

von Dassow, G., Meir, E., Munro, E.M., and Odell, G.M. (2000). The segment polarity

network is a robust developmental module. Nature *406*, 188–192.

Dearden, P., and Akam, M. (1999). Developmental evolution: Axial patterning in insects.

Curr. Biol. *9*, R591-4.

Del Barrio, M.G., Taveira-Marques, R., Muroyama, Y., Yuk, D.-I., Li, S., Wines-Samuelson,

M., Shen, J., Smith, H.K., Xiang, M., Rowitch, D., et al. (2007). A regulatory network

involving Foxn4, Mash1 and delta-like 4/Notch1 generates V2a and V2b spinal interneurons

from a common progenitor pool. Development *134*, 3427–3436.

Delás, M.J., and Briscoe, J. (2020). Repressive interactions in gene regulatory networks:

When you have no other choice. Curr. Top. Dev. Biol. *139*, 239–266.

Delile, J., Rayon, T., Melchionda, M., Edwards, A., Briscoe, J., and Sagner, A. (2019). Single

cell transcriptomics reveals spatial and temporal dynamics of gene expression in the

developing mouse spinal cord. Development *146*, dev173807.

Denes, A.S., Jékely, G., Steinmetz, P.R.H., Raible, F., Snyman, H., Prud'homme, B., Ferrier,

D.E.K., Balavoine, G., and Arendt, D. (2007). Molecular Architecture of Annelid Nerve Cord

Supports Common Origin of Nervous System Centralization in Bilateria. Cell *129*, 277–288.

Ding, Q., Motoyama, J., Gasca, S., Mo, R., Sasaki, H., Rossant, J., and Hui, C.C. (1998).

Diminished Sonic hedgehog signaling and lack of floor plate differentiation in Gli2 mutant

mice. Development *125*, 2533–2543.

Ding, Q., Joshi, P.S., Xie, Z. -h., Xiang, M., and Gan, L. (2012). BARHL2 transcription

factor regulates the ipsilateral/contralateral subtype divergence in postmitotic dI1 neurons of

the developing spinal cord. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. *109*, 1566–1571.

Diogo, R., and Abdala, V. (2010). Muscles of vertebrates : comparative anatomy, evolution,

homologies and development (CRC Press).

Duboule, D. (1994). Temporal colinearity and the phylotypic progression: a basis for the

stability of a vertebrate Bauplan and the evolution of morphologies through heterochrony.

Development *1994*, 135–142.

Echelard, Y., Epstein, D.J., St-Jacques, B., Shen, L., Mohler, J., McMahon, J.A., and

McMahon, A.P. (1993). Sonic hedgehog, a member of a family of putative signaling

molecules, is implicated in the regulation of CNS polarity. Cell *75*, 1417–1430.

Ekker, S.C., Ungar, A.R., Greenstein, P., von Kessler, D.P., Porter, J.A., Moon, R.T., and

Beachy, P.A. (1995). Patterning activities of vertebrate hedgehog proteins in the developing

eye and brain. Curr. Biol. *5*, 944–955.

Eklöf-Ljunggren, E., Haupt, S., Ausborn, J., Dehnisch, I., Uhlén, P., Higashijima, S., and El

Manira, A. (2012). Origin of excitation underlying locomotion in the spinal circuit of

zebrafish. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. *109*, 5511–5516.

Exelby, K., Herrera-Delgado, E., Garcia Perez, L., Perez-Carrasco, R., Sagner, A., Metzis, V.,

Sollich, P., and Briscoe, J. (2021). Precision of Tissue Patterning is Controlled by Dynamical

Properties of Gene Regulatory Networks. Development dev.197566.

Farnsworth, D.R., Saunders, L.M., and Miller, A.C. (2020). A single-cell transcriptome atlas

for zebrafish development. Dev. Biol. *459*, 100–108.

Fisher, S., Grice, E.A., Vinton, R.M., Bessling, S.L., and McCallion, A.S. (2006).

Conservation of RET regulatory function from human to zebrafish without sequence

similarity. Science *312*, 276–279.

Frazer, K.A., Pachter, L., Poliakov, A., Rubin, E.M., and Dubchak, I. (2004). VISTA:

computational tools for comparative genomics. Nucleic Acids Res. *32*, W273–W279.

Friocourt, F., and Chédotal, A. (2017). The Robo3 receptor, a key player in the development,

evolution, and function of commissural systems. Dev. Neurobiol. *77*, 876–890.

Friocourt, F., Kozulin, P., Belle, M., Suárez, R., Di-Poï, N., Richards, L.J., Giacobini, P., and

Chédotal, A. (2019). Shared and differential features of Robo3 expression pattern in amniotes.

J. Comp. Neurol. *527*, 2009–2029.

Gribble, S.L., Nikolaus, O.B., and Dorsky, R.I. (2007). Regulation and function of Dbx genes

in the zebrafish spinal cord. Dev. Dyn. *236*, 3472–3483.

Guner, B., and Karlstrom, R.O. (2007). Cloning of zebrafish nkx6.2 and a comprehensive

analysis of the conserved transcriptional response to Hedgehog/Gli signaling in the zebrafish

neural tube. Gene Expr. Patterns *7*, 596–605.

Hamburger, V., and Hamilton, H.L. (1951). A series of normal stages in the development of

the chick embryo. J. Morphol. *88*, 49–92.

Hare, E.E., Peterson, B.K., Iyer, V.N., Meier, R., and Eisen, M.B. (2008). Sepsid even-

skipped enhancers are functionally conserved in Drosophila despite lack of sequence

conservation. PLoS Genet. *4*.

Hu, H., Uesaka, M., Guo, S., Shimai, K., Lu, T.-M., Li, F., Fujimoto, S., Ishikawa, M., Liu,

S., Sasagawa, Y., et al. (2017). Constrained vertebrate evolution by pleiotropic genes. Nat.

Ecol. Evol. *1*, 1722–1730.

Irie, N., and Kuratani, S. (2014). The developmental hourglass model: a predictor of the basic

body plan? Development *141*, 4649–4655.

Jacob, F. (1977). Evolution and tinkering. Science *196*, 1161–1166.

Jung, H., and Dasen, J.S. (2015). Evolution of Patterning Systems and Circuit Elements for

Locomotion. Dev. Cell *32*, 408–422.

Karlstrom, R.O., Trowe, T., Klostermann, S., Baier, H., Brand, M., Crawford, A.D.,

Grunewald, B., Haffter, P., Hoffmann, H., Meyer, S.U., et al. (1996). Zebrafish mutations

affecting retinotectal axon pathfinding. Development *123*, 427–438.

Karlstrom, R.O., Tyurina, O. V., Kawakami, A., Nishioka, N., Talbot, W.S., Sasaki, H., and

Schier, A.F. (2003). Genetic analysis of zebrafish gli1 and gli2 reveals divergent

requirements for gli genes in vertebrate development. Development *130*, 1549–1564.

Ke, Z., Kondrichin, I., Gong, Z., and Korzh, V. (2008). Combined activity of the two Gli2

genes of zebrafish play a major role in Hedgehog signaling during zebrafish

neurodevelopment. Mol. Cell. Neurosci. *37*, 388–401.

Kiehn, O. (2016). Decoding the organization of spinal circuits that control locomotion. Nat.

Rev. Neurosci. *17*, 224–238.

Krauss, S., Concordet, J.P., and Ingham, P.W. (1993). A functionally conserved homolog of

the Drosophila segment polarity gene hh is expressed in tissues with polarizing activity in

zebrafish embryos. Cell *75*, 1431–1444.

Kutejova, E., Sasai, N., Shah, A., Gouti, M., and Briscoe, J. (2016). Neural Progenitors

Adopt Specific Identities by Directly Repressing All Alternative Progenitor Transcriptional

Programs. Dev. Cell *36*, 639–653.

Lai, H.C., Seal, R.P., and Johnson, J.E. (2016). Making sense out of spinal cord

somatosensory development. Development *143*, 3434–3448.

Lee, A.P., Kerk, S.Y., Tan, Y.Y., Brenner, S., and Venkatesh, B. (2011). Ancient Vertebrate

Conserved Noncoding Elements Have Been Evolving Rapidly in Teleost Fishes. Mol. Biol.

Evol. *28*, 1205–1215.

Lewis, K.E., Bates, J., and Eisen, J.S. (2005). Regulation of iro3 expression in the zebrafish

spinal cord. Dev. Dyn. *232*, 140–148.

Li, S., Misra, K., Matise, M.P., and Xiang, M. (2005). Foxn4 acts synergistically with Mash1

to specify subtype identity of V2 interneurons in the spinal cord. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S.

A. *102*, 10688–10693.

Lu, D.C., Niu, T., and Alaynick, W.A. (2015). Molecular and cellular development of spinal

cord locomotor circuitry. Front. Mol. Neurosci. *8*, 1–18.

Ludwig, M.Z., Patel, N.H., and Kreitman, M. (1998). Functional analysis of eve stripe 2

enhancer evolution in Drosophila, rules governing conservation and change. Development

125, 949–958.

Ludwig, M.Z., Bergman, C., Patel, N.H., and KreLtman, M. (2000). Evidence for stabilizing

selection in a eukaryotic enhancer element. Nature *403*, 564–567.

Luo, J., Ju, M.J., and Redies, C. (2006). Regionalized cadherin-7 expression by radial glia is

regulated by Shh and Pax7 during chicken spinal cord development. Neuroscience *142*,

1133–1143.

Marillat, V., Chédotal, A., Sabatier, C., Failli, V., Matsunaga, E., Sotelo, C., and Tessier-

Lavigne, M. (2004). The slit receptor Rig-1/Robo3 controls midline crossing by hindbrain

precerebellar neurons and axons. Neuron *43*, 69–79.

Martín-Durán, J.M., Pang, K., Børve, A., Lê, H.S., Furu, A., Cannon, J.T., Jondelius, U., and

Hejnol, A. (2018). Convergent evolution of bilaterian nerve cords. Nature *553*, 45–50.

Matise, M.P., Epstein, D.J., Park, H.L., Platt, K.A., and Joyner, A.L. (1998). Gli2 is required

for induction of floor plate and adjacent cells, but not most ventral neurons in the mouse

central nervous system. Development *125*, 2759–2770.

Mayran, A., Khetchoumian, K., Hariri, F., Pastinen, T., Gauthier, Y., Balsalobre, A., and

Drouin, J. (2018). Pioneer factor Pax7 deploys a stable enhancer repertoire for specification

of cell fate. Nat. Genet. *50*, 259–269.

McGregor, A.P., Shaw, P.J., Hancock, J.M., Bopp, D., Hediger, M., Wratten, N.S., and

Dover, G.A. (2001). Rapid restructuring of bicoid-dependent hunchback promoters within

and between Dipteran species: implications for molecular coevolution. Evol. Dev. *3*, 397–407.

Metzis, V., Steinhauser, S., Pakanavicius, E., Gouti, M., Stamataki, D., Ivanovitch, K.,

Watson, T., Rayon, T., Mousavy Gharavy, S.N., Lovell-Badge, R., et al. (2018). Nervous

System Regionalization Entails Axial Allocation before Neural Differentiation. Cell *175*,

1105-1118.e17.

Miyamoto, N., and Wada, H. (2013). Hemichordate neurulation and the origin of the neural

tube. Nat. Commun. *4*, 2713.

Nishi, Y., Zhang, X., Jeong, J., Peterson, K.A., Vedenko, A., Bulyk, M.L., Hide, W.A., and

McMahon, A.P. (2015). A direct fate exclusion mechanism by Sonic hedgehog-regulated

transcriptional repressors. Development *142*, 3286–3293.

Niwa, H., Yamamura, K., and Miyazaki, J. (1991). Efficient selection for high-expression

transfectants with a novel eukaryotic vector. Gene *108*, 193–199.

Oosterveen, T., Kurdija, S., Alekseenko, Z., Uhde, C.W., Bergsland, M., Sandberg, M.,

Andersson, E., Dias, J.M., Muhr, J., and Ericson, J. (2012). Mechanistic Differences in the

Transcriptional Interpretation of Local and Long-Range Shh Morphogen Signaling. Dev. Cell

23, 1006–1019.

Panayi, H., Panayiotou, E., Orford, M., Genethliou, N., Mean, R., Lapathitis, G., Li, S.,

Xiang, M., Kessaris, N., Richardson, W.D., et al. (2010). Sox1 is required for the

specification of a novel p2-derived interneuron subtype in the mouse ventral spinal cord. J.

Neurosci. *30*, 12274–12280.

Paris, M., Kaplan, T., Li, X.Y., Villalta, J.E., Lott, S.E., and Eisen, M.B. (2013). Extensive

Divergence of Transcription Factor Binding in Drosophila Embryos with Highly Conserved

Gene Expression. PLoS Genet. *9*, e1003748.

Park, H.C., Mehta, A., Richardson, J.S., and Appel, B. (2002). Olig2 Is Required for

Zebrafish Primary Motor Neuron and Oligodendrocyte Development. Dev. Biol. *248*, 356–

368.

Park, H.L., Bai, C., Platt, K.A., Matise, M.P., Beeghly, A., Hui, C.C., Nakashima, M., and

Joyner, A.L. (2000). Mouse Gli1 mutants are viable but have defects in SHH signaling in

combination with a Gli2 mutation. Development *127*, 1593–1605.

Peng, C.Y., Yajima, H., Burns, C.E., Zon, L.I., Sisodia, S.S., Pfaff, S.L., and Sharma, K.

(2007). Notch and MAML Signaling Drives Scl-Dependent Interneuron Diversity in the

Spinal Cord. Neuron *53*, 813–827.

Persson, M., Stamataki, D., Welscher, P. Te, Andersson, E., Böse, J., Rüther, U., Ericson, J.,

and Briscoe, J. (2002). Dorsal-ventral patterning of the spinal cord requires Gli3

transcriptional repressor activity. Genes Dev. *16*, 2865–2878.

Peterson, K.A., Nishi, Y., Ma, W., Vedenko, A., Shokri, L., Zhang, X., McFarlane, M.,

Baizabal, J.-M., Junker, J.P., van Oudenaarden, A., et al. (2012). Neural-specific Sox2 input

and differential Gli-binding affinity provide context and positional information in Shh-

directed neural patterning. Genes Dev. *26*, 2802–2816.

Prince, V.E., Moens, C.B., Kimmel, C.B., and Ho, R.K. (1998a). Zebrafish hox genes:

expression in the hindbrain region of wild-type and mutants of the segmentation gene,

valentino. Development *125*, 393–406.

Prince, V.E., Joly, L., Ekker, M., and Ho, R.K. (1998b). Zebrafish hox genes: genomic

organization and modified colinear expression patterns in the trunk. Development *125*, 407–

420.

Rabe, N., Gezelius, H., Vallstedt, A., Memic, F., and Kullander, K. (2009). Netrin-1-

dependent spinal interneuron subtypes are required for the formation of left-right alternating

locomotor circuitry. J. Neurosci. *29*, 15642–15649.

Ren, Q., Zhong, Y., Huang, X., Leung, B., Xing, C., Wang, H., Hu, G., Wang, Y., Shimeld,

S.M., and Li, G. (2020). Step-wise evolution of neural patterning by Hedgehog signalling in

chordates. Nat. Ecol. Evol. *4*, 1247–1255.

Riddle, R.D., Johnson, R.L., Laufer, E., and Tabin, C. (1993). Sonic hedgehog mediates the

polarizing activity of the ZPA. Cell *75*, 1401–1416.

Roelink, H., Augsburger, A., Heemskerk, J., Korzh, V., Norlin, S., Ruiz i Altaba, A., Tanabe,

Y., Placzek, M., Edlund, T., and Jessell, T.M. (1994). Floor plate and motor neuron induction

by vhh-1, a vertebrate homolog of hedgehog expressed by the notochord. Cell *76*, 761–775.

Rutherford, S.L., and Lindquist, S. (1998). Hsp90 as a capacitor for morphological evolution.

Nature *396*, 336–342.

Sabatier, C., Plump, A.S., Le Ma, Brose, K., Tamada, A., Murakami, F., Lee, E.Y.-H.P., and

Tessier-Lavigne, M. (2004). The divergent Robo family protein rig-1/Robo3 is a negative

regulator of slit responsiveness required for midline crossing by commissural axons. Cell *117*,

157–169.

Sagner, A., and Briscoe, J. (2019). Establishing neuronal diversity in the spinal cord: a time

and a place. Development *146*, dev182154.

Schäfer, M., Kinzel, D., Neuner, C., Schartl, M., Volff, J.N., and Winkler, C. (2005).

Hedgehog and retinoid signalling confines nkx2.2b expression to the lateral floor plate of the

zebrafish trunk. Mech. Dev. *122*, 43–56.

Schmitz, B., Papan, C., and Campos-Ortega, J.A. (1993). Neurulation in the anterior trunk

region of the zebrafish Brachydanio rerio. Roux's Arch. Dev. Biol. *202*, 250–259.

Schoenwolf, G.C., and Smith, J.L. (1990). Mechanisms of neurulation: Traditional viewpoint

and recent advances. Development *109*, 243–270.

Siegal, M.L., and Bergman, A. (2002). Waddington's canalization revisited: developmental

stability and evolution. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. *99*, 10528–10532.

Stauber, M., Jäckle, H., and Schmidt-Ott, U. (1999). The anterior determinant bicoid of

Drosophila is a derived Hox class 3 gene. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. *96*, 3786–3789.

Stergachis, A.B., Neph, S., Sandstrom, R., Haugen, E., Reynolds, A.P., Zhang, M., Byron, R.,

Canfield, T., Stelhing-Sun, S., Lee, K., et al. (2014). Conservation of trans-acting circuitry

during mammalian regulatory evolution. Nature *515*, 365–370.

Stolfi, A., Lowe, E.K., Racioppi, C., Ristoratore, F., Brown, C.T., Swalla, B.J., and

Christiaen, L. (2014). Divergent mechanisms regulate conserved cardiopharyngeal

development and gene expression in distantly related ascidians. Elife *3*, e03728.

Sun, J., Rockowitz, S., Xie, Q., Ashery-Padan, R., Zheng, D., and Cvekl, A. (2015).

Identification of in vivo DNA-binding mechanisms of Pax6 and reconstruction of Pax6-

dependent gene regulatory networks during forebrain and lens development. Nucleic Acids

Res. *43*, 6827–6846.

Swanson, C.I., Schwimmer, D.B., and Barolo, S. (2011). Rapid evolutionary rewiring of a

structurally constrained eye enhancer. Curr. Biol. *21*, 1186–1196.

True, J.R., and Haag, E.S. (2001). Developmental system drift and flexibility in evolutionary

trajectories. Evol. Dev. *3*, 109–119.

Tulloch, A.J., Teo, S., Carvajal, B. V., Tessier-Lavigne, M., and Jaworski, A. (2019). Diverse

spinal commissural neuron populations revealed by fate mapping and molecular profiling

using a novel Robo3Cre mouse. J. Comp. Neurol. *527*, 2948–2972.

Tyurina, O. V., Guner, B., Popova, E., Feng, J., Schier, A.F., Kohtz, J.D., and Karlstrom, R.O.

(2005). Zebrafish Gli3 functions as both an activator and a repressor in Hedgehog signaling.

Dev. Biol. *277*, 537–556.

Vanderlaan, G., Tyurina, O. V., Karlstrom, R.O., and Chandrasekhar, A. (2005). Gli function

is essential for motor neuron induction in zebrafish. Dev. Biol. *282*, 550–570.

Vierstra, J., Rynes, E., Sandstrom, R., Zhang, M., Canfield, T., Hansen, R.S., Stehling-Sun,

S., Sabo, P.J., Byron, R., Humbert, R., et al. (2014). Mouse regulatory DNA landscapes

reveal global principles of cis-regulatory evolution. Science *346*, 1007–1012.

Waddington, C.H. (1942). Canalization of development and the inheritance of acquired

characters. Nature *150*, 563–565.

Wang, H., Lei, Q., Oosterveen, T., Ericson, J., and Matise, M.P. (2011). Tcf/lef repressors

differentially regulate shh-gli target gene activation thresholds to generate progenitor

patterning in the developing CNS. Development *138*, 3711–3721.

Wang, X., Zhao, Z., Muller, J., Iyu, A., Khng, A.J., Guccione, E., Ruan, Y., and Ingham, P.W.

(2013). Targeted inactivation and identification of targets of the Gli2a transcription factor in

the zebrafish. Biol. Open *2*, 1203–1213.

Wilson, S.I., Shafer, B., Lee, K.J., and Dodd, J. (2008). A Molecular Program for

Contralateral Trajectory: Rig-1 Control by LIM Homeodomain Transcription Factors.

Neuron *59*, 413–424.

Xiong, F., Tentner, A.R., Huang, P., Gelas, A., Mosaliganti, K.R., Souhait, L., Rannou, N.,

Swinburne, I.A., Obholzer, N.D., Cowgill, P.D., et al. (2013). Specified neural progenitors

sort to form sharp domains after noisy Shh signaling. Cell *153*, 550–561.

Zagorski, M., Tabata, Y., Brandenberg, N., Lutolf, M.P., Tkačik, G., Bollenbach, T., Briscoe,

J., and Kicheva, A. (2017). Decoding of position in the developing neural tube from

antiparallel morphogen gradients. Science *356*, 1379–1383.

Zhang, Y., Narayan, S., Geiman, E., Lanuza, G.M., Velasquez, T., Shanks, B., Akay, T.,

Dyck, J., Pearson, K., Gosgnach, S., et al. (2008). V3 Spinal Neurons Establish a Robust and

Balanced Locomotor Rhythm during Walking. Neuron *60*, 84–96.

Figure 2

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7