A gradient border model for cell fate decisions at the neural plate border

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Abstract

The vertebrate 'neural plate border' is a transient territory at the edge of the neural plate containing precursors for all ectodermal derivatives: the neural plate; neural crest; placodes; and epidermis. Elegant functional experiments in a range of vertebrate models have provided an in-depth understanding of gene regulatory interactions within the ectoderm. However, these experiments conducted at tissue level have raised seemingly contradictory models for fate allocation of individual cells. Here, we carry out single cell RNA sequencing of chick ectoderm from primitive streak to neurulation stage, to explore cell state diversity and heterogeneity. We identify and characterise the dynamics of gene modules containing key factors known to regulate ectodermal cell fates, allowing us to model the order in which these fates are specified. Furthermore, we find that genes previously classified as neural plate border specifiers typically exhibit dynamic expression patterns and are biased towards either placodal or neural crest fates. Instead, given its transient and heterogenous characteristics, the neural plate border should be defined based on the co-expression of alternative placodal and neural crest gene modules. Finally, we propose a 'gradient border' model for cell fate choice at the neural plate border, with the probability of cell fate allocation closely tied to the spatiotemporal positioning of cells.

Introduction

The vertebrate nervous system is arguably the most complex organ of our body. During development, it arises from only three progenitor populations: the neural plate generates the entire central nervous system, while neural crest and sensory placodes jointly form the peripheral nervous system. Placode derivatives are confined to the head contributing to sense organs and cranial ganglia, while neural crest cells form along the entire body axis to generate various cell types including neurons and glial as well as parts of the craniofacial skeleton, cartilage and teeth (for review: Baker & Bronner-Fraser, 1997; Baker & Bronner-Fraser, 2001; Grocott et al., 2012; Patthey et al., 2014; Pla & Monsoro-Burq, 2018; Prasad et al., 2019; Simoes-Costa & Bronner, 2015).

The neural plate becomes morphologically distinct shortly after gastrulation. However, neural, neural crest and placode precursors continue to be intermingled at its edge, in a territory termed the neural plate border (NPB) that is characterised by the co-expression of neural and non-neural markers as well as so-called NPB specifiers (Pla & Monsoro-Burq, 2018; Roellig et al., 2017; Streit, 2002; Thiery et al., 2020). As the neural plate invaginates, placode precursors remain in the surface ectoderm, while neural crest cells are largely incorporated into neural folds from where they delaminate and migrate to their final destination. Although the induction of these three fates has been studied for decades, some of the most fundamental questions remain unresolved. For example, we do not know when and how these lineages segregate, whether they do so in a specific order and how individual cells make these decisions.

Modulation of different signalling pathways plays a crucial role in controlling the fate of all ectodermal cells. FGF signalling is required for the specification of neural, neural crest and placode precursors and for positioning the NPB (Ahrens & Schlosser, 2005; Litsiou et al., 2005; Londin et al., 2005; Monsoro-Burq et al., 2003; Streit et al., 2000; Streit & Stern, 1999; Stuhlmiller & García-Castro, 2012; Wilson et al., 2000; Yardley & Garcia-Castro, 2012). While BMP signalling must be inhibited for neural development (Hemmati-Brivanlou et al., 1994; Linker & Stern, 2004; Londin et al., 2005; Sasai et al., 1995), it is necessary for placode precursor formation at gastrulation, but must be switched off thereafter (Ahrens & Schlosser, 2005; Kwon et al., 2010; Litsiou et al., 2005). Likewise, neural crest cells need BMP activity early, but unlike placodes continue to do so as they are specified (Barth et al., 1999; Kwon et al., 2010; Liem et al., 1995; Marchant et al., 1998; Steventon et al., 2009). Finally, Wnt activity is required for neural crest cell induction (Garcia-Castro et al., 2002; Steventon et al., 2009) but must be inhibited for neural and placode precursors to form (Heeg-Truesdell & LaBonne,

2006; Litsiou et al., 2005; Patthey et al., 2008). These signals activate different transcription

factor networks in a temporally and spatially controlled manner that in turn impart cell identity

and have therefore been termed fate 'specifiers'. For example, *Msx1* and *Pax3* have been

implicated as NPB specifiers (Milet et al., 2013; Monsoro-Burq, 2015; Plouhinec et al., 2014),

while *Pax7* (Basch et al., 2006) and *Six1* (Brugmann et al., 2004; Chen et al., 2009;

Christophorou et al., 2009; Ozaki et al., 2004) are involved in neural crest and placode

precursor specification, respectively. These factors appear to act in feed forward loops,

upregulating their own expression while simultaneously repressing factors that specify

alternative fates (for review: Grocott et al., 2012; Thiery et al., 2020).

Based on these studies combined with tissue transplantation experiments, two apparently

contradictory models for the segregation of neural, neural crest and placodal fates have

emerged. The 'binary competence model' suggests that an initial step in lineage segregation

entails a subdivision of the ectoderm into neural/neural crest and placode/epidermal territories

(Pieper et al., 2012; Schlosser, 2014). This implies a closer relationship of neural crest cells

with the central nervous system and of placodes with the epidermis. In contrast, the 'NPB

model' suggests that cells at the border of the neural plate have mixed identity and retain the

ability to generate all ectodermal derivatives until after neurulation begins (Roellig et al., 2017;

Schlosser, 2014; Thiery et al., 2020). Studies in *Xenopus* have taken this idea a step further,

revealing that unlike other ectodermal cells, neural crest or NPB cells retain pluripotency

markers and that this is key for their ability to contribute to multiple fates (Buitrago-Delgado et

al., 2015; Prasad et al., 2012). In support of this idea, the NPB region is initially characterised

by co-expression of neural and non-neural markers (for review: Grocott et al., 2012; Pla &

Monsoro-Burq, 2018; Thiery et al., 2020). Fate specifier genes are activated within this territory

in partially overlapping patterns to resolve into distinct domains as neurulation begins. While

both models are attractive and provide working hypotheses, the underlying experiments were

analysed at cell population, rather than at single cell level. They therefore do not address how

individual NBP cells make decisions, nor whether they are multipotent or a population of mixed

progenitors that are already biased towards their later identity. Recent findings have proposed

that prior to fate commitment cells show increasing levels of heterogeneity in gene expression

and do not exhibit a definitive transcriptional signature (Soldatov et al., 2019). It is therefore

possible that NBP cells represent such undetermined progenitor cells.

Recent studies in chick have begun to explore these questions. Single cell analysis at the NPB

reveals considerable heterogeneity of gene expression: factors previously thought to be fate-

specific are co-expressed in individual cells even as late as neural tube stages (Roellig et al.,

2017; Williams et al., 2022). Furthermore, lineage tracing using a 'neural-specific' Sox2

enhancer shows that Sox2$^+$ cells can contribute not only to neural tissue but also to neural

crest and epidermis (Roellig et al., 2017). Together, these findings suggest that cell fate

allocation at the NPB occurs over a much longer developmental period than previously thought

and that NPB cells retain plasticity until early neurulation. However, although some factors

have been identified, the underlying molecular mechanisms of how individual cells make

decisions at the NBP remain poorly understood.

Here, we explored the transcriptional changes as cells transit from the neural plate border at

early primitive streak to definitive neural, neural crest and placodal fates at single cell level. In

total we present single cell RNAseq (scRNA) data for 17,992 high quality cells. Rather than

using 2-3 molecular markers to assign cell identity, we established a binary knowledge matrix

using previously published *in situ* hybridisation expression data. This allows us to classify cells

at each developmental stage, despite the high levels of heterogeneity observed. We find that

prior to head fold stages cells do not fall into transcriptional distinct groups but are

characterised by graded and partially overlapping gene expression. Their organisation largely

reflects their position along the anterior-posterior and medial-lateral axis in the embryo. As

expected, cell diversity increases as development proceeds, with a division of neural and non-

neural fates becoming apparent at the first somite stage together with the emergence of neural

crest cells. By the 8-somite stage, neural, neural crest and placodal cells are largely

segregated, although even at this late stage we find cells with heterogenous expression

profiles.

Our analysis reveals that NPB cells can already be identified at primitive streak stages by the

overlapping expression of neural and non-neural genes, suggesting that this cell state is

established before NPB specifiers are activated. Using a gene module approach, we identify

groups of genes with dynamic changes in our dataset that are characteristic for neural, neural

crest and placodal fates. Comparing co-expression of whole gene modules (rather than

individual transcripts) reveals that NPB cells co-express gene modules which later become

restricted to placodal or neural crest states. This suggests that NPB cells are in an undecided

transcriptional state and may have the potential to give rise to both (or more) fates.

Interestingly, although we did not find NPB cells as defined by classical NPB markers at ss4,

we did identify cells that co-express competing placodal and neural crest programmes. These

cells connect segregating cell populations, resemblant of previously characterised bridge cells

in the differentiating murine neural crest which exhibit high heterogeneity prior to segregation

(Soldatov et al., 2019). Here, we propose that 'bridge cells' between placodal and neural crest

populations continue to be plastic, maintaining the ability to contribute to different fates.

Overall, our analysis has led us to revisit the definition of the NPB and propose that NPB cells

may be better defined by the co-expression of competing gene modules rather than a
particular gene signature.

<u>Results</u>

Classification of ectodermal cells using a binary knowledge matrix of known marker
genes

Neural, neural crest and placode progenitors arise from the embryonic ectoderm. However,
how individual cells diversify and the sequence and timing of these events remain to be
elucidated. To capture their segregation, we carried out 10x Genomics single-cell mRNA
sequencing (scRNAseq) on cells taken from a broad region of the chick epiblast at six
developmental stages: HH4⁻/4 (primitive streak), HH5 (head process), HH6 (head fold), HH7
(1 somite), somite stage (ss) 4 and ss8 (Figure 1A). These stages were chosen because they
encompass the initial formation of the neural plate to the beginning of neurulation when these
fate decisions are thought to take place. After integration across batches, stringent quality
control and removal of contaminating cell populations (see methods and Figure 1–figure
supplement 1A-I), we captured a total of 17,992 high quality cells with approximately 2500 –
4000 cells per stage and an average of 3924 genes per cell. Dimensionality reduction and
UMAP embedding showed that cells were organised primarily by stage (Figure 2E). Later
stages displayed higher cell diversity as compared to earlier stages where most cells were
transcriptionally similar (Figure 1B-E and Figure 2A-D).

Typically, scRNAseq cell states are classified using a small number of definitive marker genes
which exhibit mutually exclusive expression patterns. However, this approach is difficult to
apply to the NPB for several reasons. Firstly, the early NPB cannot be classified using
definitive markers as it emerges in the region of overlap between neural and non-neural genes.
Secondly, the NPB is a transitory state through which cells are thought to pass prior to
acquisition of any of the four ectodermal fates (neural, neural crest, placodal and epidermal).
Finally, cells at the NPB appear to be highly heterogeneous, with precursors for the different
ectodermal fates found intermingled, even at late stages of neurulation (Bhattacharyya et al.,
2004; Roellig et al., 2017; Streit, 2002; Williams et al., 2022). To overcome these challenges,
we categorised cells using a binary knowledge matrix based on expression data obtained from
the literature (Supplementary File 1). We examined available *in situ* hybridisation data of 76
genes with known regionalised expression patterns and binarized their expression within each

defined cell state. This allowed us to define a total of 24 cell states spanning primitive streak
to neural tube stages.

We first unbiasedly clustered cells from each developmental stage at a high resolution to
ensure capturing the full diversity of cell states (Figure 1–figure supplement 1J). Clusters were
then classified based on the similarity between their gene expression and the knowledge
matrix (see methods). Next, cells from all stages were clustered together and cell state labels
transferred to the entire data set (Figure 2F). This classification approach successfully
identified 22 distinct cell states within the ectoderm. As expected, cell diversity increases as
development proceeds. Early NPB and early neural cell states can already be identified at
primitive streak stages, while placode progenitor and neural crest states emerge at head
process and ss4, respectively (Figure 1B and Figure 2A-B).

Figure 1. Cells at stages HH4 – HH6 reflect the anterior-posterior and medio-lateral axes in the embyro. (A') Dorsal view schematics of chick embryo at stages HH4-ss8 depicting the ectodermal tissue region dissected for 10x scRNAseq (red dotted line). Purple shading illustrates previously characterized region of *Pax7* expression (Basch et al. 2006). **(A'')** Schematic of a 1-somite stage (HH7) chick embryo illustrating the pre-placodal region (PPR),

neural crest (neural crest) and neural tube (NT). **(B-D)** UMAP plots for cells collected at HH4⁻
/4 (primitive streak), HH5 (head process), HH6 (head fold) stages. Cell clusters are coloured
and labelled based on their semi-unbiased cell state classifications (binary knowledge matrix
available in Supplementary File 1). **(E)** Dot plots displaying the average expression of key
marker genes across cell states at HH4, HH5 and HH6. The size of the dots represents the
number of cells expressing a given gene within each cell population. **(F)** Feature plots
revealing the mediolateral segregation of key marker genes at HH6.
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175 **Cell states emerging from primitive streak to head fold stages**
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To explore the changes in cell diversity within the embryonic ectoderm over time, we
compared cell states present at different stages and identified the time point when each
emerged. We visualised cell transcriptomes in low dimensionality space using UMAPs, in turn
allowing us to infer relationships between cell states and explore the distribution of gene
expression across the dataset. We first examined stages HH4-HH6 to characterise events as
the neural plate is established and placodal and neural crest cells are thought to be specified.
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An early NPB state is identified at primitive streak stages prior to the expression of NPB
specifiers
By primitive streak stage, mediolateral (M-L) gradients of molecular markers demarcate pre-
neural and non-neural territories within the chick epiblast (Pera et al., 1999; Rex et al., 1997;
Sheng & Stern, 1999; Streit et al., 2000; Streit et al., 1998). At HH4, unbiased clustering clearly
organises cells in a pattern reminiscent of this M-L axis (Figure 1B; from left to right) as
evidenced by the expression of node (*ADMP*), pre-neural (*Yeats4, Sox3, Sox11*) and non-
neural (*Dlx5*, *Bmp4, Msx1, Tfap2a*) genes (Figure 1B, E and Figure 1–figure supplement 2A).
Cell states can be broadly characterised based on combinatorial gene expression (Figure 1E)
and we identify five cell states: node, early neural (eN), early neural plate border (eNPB), non-
neural ectoderm (NNE) and extraembryonic ectoderm (EE) (Figure 1B). While some genes
are shared between many cells, early neural plate cells are defined by high levels of pre-neural
transcripts while the non-neural and extraembryonic ectoderm are characterised by increased
non-neural gene expression. Notably, we find that an early NPB state can be identified by the
co-expression of both neural and non-neural genes. Thus, NPB cells are already apparent
prior to the differential upregulation of genes previously characterised as NPB specifiers
(*Msx1, Pax7, Tfap2a, Bmp4, Dlx5, Pax3*) (Basch et al., 2006; Ezin et al., 2009; Hong & Saint-
Jeannet, 2007; McLarren et al., 2003; Rothstein & Simoes-Costa, 2020; Streit & Stern, 1999)
(for review: Simoes-Costa & Bronner, 2015; Thiery et al., 2020).
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The first emerging NPB and PPR cells have regional identity

At HH5, cell positions in the UMAP continue to reflect organisation along the M-L axis in the
embryo (Figure 1C), but new transcriptional states emerge. Whilst non-neural ectoderm cells
display a similar expression profile at HH5 compared to HH4, neural plate cells differ from
early neural cells in their expression of definitive neural (e.g., *Sox2*) and regional markers
(Figure 1E; Figure 1–figure supplement 2B). Like at HH4, many cells continue to co-express
neural and non-neural transcripts (Figure 1–figure supplement 2B). Within the latter cell group,
we observe the upregulation of PPR genes (*Six1*, *Eya2*; Figure 1C, E: aPPR, anterior PPR)
and for the first time NPB specifiers (*Msx1*, *Pax3, Pax7*; Figure 1C, E: pNPB, posterior NPB).
These observations correlate well with gene expression in the embryo. *Msx1* is initially
expressed in the extraembryonic and non-neural ectoderm, and together with *Pax7* begins to
be upregulated in the NPB thereafter (Basch et al., 2006; Streit & Stern, 1999), while PPR
markers are first expressed at HH5. Notably, the first NPB cells to emerge have posterior
character, while placode precursors have anterior identity based on their expression of *Gbx2*
and *Six3*, respectively (Figure 1E; see also below).
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Anteroposterior organisation of cells at head process and head fold stages
Cells with distinct anteroposterior (A-P) character are first observed at HH5 through the
restricted expression of various homeobox transcription factors. *Rax* and *HoxB1* are highly
confined to distinct cell groups, whilst in contrast *Six3* and *Gbx2* exhibit broader negatively
correlated expression gradients across cell clusters with some degree of overlap (Figure 1E
and Figure 1–figure supplement 2B). The organisation of cells within the UMAP reflects the A-
P expression gradients of these genes in the embryo (Chapman et al., 2002; Hidalgo-Sanchez
et al., 2005; Ohuchi et al., 1999; Paxton et al., 2010). The overlap of A-P factors was used to
distinguish different NP, PPR and NPB regions during unbiased cell state classification
(Supplementary File 1).
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Within the NP we can distinguish intermediate neural plate (iNP) states from the anterior and
posterior neural plate (aNP, pNP) and from early caudal neural (eCN) states. However, within
the PPR and NPB we identify only anterior (aPPR; *Six3*$^+$) and posterior (pNPB; *Gbx2*+) cell
states, respectively. While in UMAPs aPPR cells are located between the NNE and anterior
NP, the pNBP cluster resides between the iNP and pPPR clusters (Figure 1C, E Figure 1–
figure supplement 2C), reflective of both its A-P and M-L position *in vivo*.
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Between HH5 and HH6, posterior *Gbx2*$^+$ PPR (pPPR) cell states emerge (Figure 1D), as do
PPR cells that appear to lack regional identity. At this stage, *Otx2* and *Gbx2* expression
domains in the embryo abut (Steventon et al., 2012), suggesting that cells with generic PPR
character might be intermingled with those already biased towards axial identity and either

retain the potential to contribute to multiple axial levels or will later become intermediate PPR
cells.

Together, our data show that the emergence of cells with divergent transcriptional profiles
resembles patterning of the ectoderm *in vivo*. However, unbiased cell clustering forces cells
into discrete clusters which may not fully reflect heterogeneity in gene expression and cell
diversity. Indeed, our single cell data reveal the heterogenous nature of gene expression:
markers are broadly expressed and are not confined by cluster boundaries or by neighbouring
expression domains (Figure 1F-J, Figure 1–figure supplement 2C). Despite this heterogeneity,
our cell classification approach successfully identifies increased ectodermal cell diversity over
time, with neural, posterior NPB and anterior PPR cells emerging when the definitive neural
plate forms. Importantly, the relative positions of these cell states in the UMAPs reflect their
location in the embryo.

Increasing cell diversity from 1-somite to 8-somite stages

At HH7, the neural folds begin to elevate indicating the start of neurulation, while during early
somitogenesis neural crest cells start to migrate and placode precursors begin to diversify.
We therefore sought to characterise the transcriptional changes at single cell level as neural,
neural crest and placodal fates emerge.

Emergence of neural crest cells and segregation of neural/non-neural fates
Following clustering, we identified two major superclusters at HH7, one containing neural tube
and neural crest and the other placodal and future epidermal clusters (Figure 2A). These
superclusters appear to be largely separate, both by their UMAP embedding and the restricted
expression of definitive fate markers (Figure 2A, D). Whereas at earlier stages many cells co-
express non-neural and neural markers (Figure 1E, F, J), at HH7 cells expressing non-
neural/placodal (*Dlx5*, *Six1*) and neural transcripts (*Sox21*, *Sox2*) are largely confined to their
respective supercluster (Figure 2–figure supplement 1A). It is at this stage that anterior NPB
cells can first be identified transcriptionally, and together with posterior NPB cells they connect
the two superclusters (Figure 2A; aNPB, pNPB).

Adjacent to the NPB clusters, we observe a neural crest cell cluster expressing early definitive
neural crest markers including *Tfap2b*, *Snai2* and *Axud1* (*Csrnp1*) alongside NPB markers
(*Msx1*, *Pax7* and *Tfap2a*) (Figure 2D; NC and Figure 2–figure supplement 1A). Thus, neural
crest cells first emerge as a distinct cell population at HH7. Although many genes are shared
between the NPB and neural crest cell clusters, NPB cells also express PPR and non-neural

markers (*Six1*, *Eya2* and *Dlx5*) which are in turn downregulated in neural crest cells (Figure 2D and Figure 2–figure supplement 1A). Furthermore, we find that *Msx1* and *Pax7* are never strongly expressed within placodal cell clusters. It is therefore possible that these NPB specifiers may not represent NPB markers, but rather an early bias towards neural crest fate.

'Bridge cells' identified as putative undetermined cells undergoing fate decisions during neurulation

At ss4 and ss8, NPB cells can no longer be identified using the above criteria. Instead, we observe an increasing diversity of cells classified as placodal, neural crest or neural (Figure 2B, C). Within the neural cell population, forebrain, midbrain, and hindbrain (FB, MB, HB) clusters are clearly distinguishable. *Six3* and *Gbx2* expression define cells with fore- and hindbrain identity, respectively, whilst the upregulation of the dorsal midbrain marker *Wnt4* *(Hollyday et al., 1995)* and mid/hindbrain boundary marker *Pax2* (Hidalgo-Sanchez et al., 1999) defines the midbrain-like cells (Figure 2D and Figure 2–figure supplement 1B). As development progresses, neural, neural crest and placode cells become increasingly distinct, with neural crest cells beginning to express a suite of definitive neural crest markers, including *Sox10* in the delaminating neural crest (dNC) cluster (Figure 2D and Figure 2–figure supplement 1B, C).

Despite the apparent segregation of neural, neural crest and placodal fates during ss4 and ss8, connecting cells bridge PPR clusters with both neural crest and forebrain clusters, as well as neural crest with midbrain cell clusters in a four-way pattern reflecting their A-P and M-L segregation *in vivo* (Figure 2B, C). To predict the directionality of transcriptional change within these bridge cells, and hence their potential developmental trajectory, we performed RNA velocity analysis (Bergen et al., 2020; La Manno et al., 2018). This analysis predicts that bridge cells move away from cluster boundaries, towards definitive cell states (Figure 2G, H). This observation implies that bridge cells do not have a definitive transcriptional signature and may retain plasticity to contribute to different fates, despite the absence of a distinct NPB state from ss4 onwards.

Together our data show that whereas cell states at HH4-HH6 exhibit broad overlapping gene expression, definitive fate markers are upregulated from HH5 onwards and subsequently gene expression is refined at the boundaries between cell clusters. At HH7 and ss4, placodal, neural crest and neural fates begin to segregate. However, even as the neural tube closes, bridge cells continue to straddle cluster boundaries; these cells may be transcriptionally indeterminate and therefore still actively undergoing fate decision processes.

Figure 2. Increased cell diversity and lineage segregation from HH7 to ss8. (A-C) UMAP
plots for cells collected at HH7 (1 somite stage), ss4 (4 somite stage) and ss8 (8 somite stage).
Cell clusters are coloured and labelled based on their semi-unbiased cell state classifications

(binary knowledge matrix available in Supplementary File 1). **(D)** Dot plots displaying the
average expression of key marker genes across cell states at HH7, ss4 and ss8. The size of
the dots represents the number of cells expressing a given gene within each cell population.
(E) UMAP plot for the whole dataset (HH4-ss8 combined) coloured and labelled by stage. **(F)**
UMAP plot for the whole dataset coloured by cell state classifications. Cell state classifications
were calculated independently for each stage and transferred across for visualisation of the
full combined dataset. **(G-H)** UMAP plots for ss4 and ss8 overlaid with RNA velocity vectors
depicting the predicted directionality of transcriptional change. Cells are coloured by cell state
classification (shown in B and C). Schematics summarise the key fate segregation events
taking place at these stages predicted by RNA velocity analysis.

Dynamic changes in gene module expression over time

Many transcriptional regulators and their interactions have been implicated in cell fate
decisions as the ectoderm is specified and differentiates into its derivatives. However, in this
context studies have largely taken a gene candidate approach. To explore the full
transcriptional dynamics of both known and new transcriptional regulators during the
specification of neural, neural crest and placodal cells, we modelled the dynamics of whole
gene modules rather than individual candidate genes. This allows us to investigate
transcriptional dynamics in an unbiased manner whilst simultaneously minimising the loss of
potentially important factors.

Defining neural, neural crest and placodal gene modules

To investigate the segregation of neural, neural crest and placode fates, we first sought to
identify gene modules that characterise each population. Gene modules are groups of genes
that display similar expression profiles across a dataset. We calculated gene modules using
the Antler R package (Delile et al., 2019), which iteratively clusters genes hierarchically based
on their gene-gene Spearman correlation. This approach reveals 40 modules each showing
highly correlated gene expression across all stages (HH4-ss8). To focus on gene modules
which may include candidates for fate segregation, we included only those that are
differentially expressed between any cell state and the rest of the dataset, and then filtered to
remove those with differential expression between sequencing batches. Finally, since our data
show that the segregation of neural, neural crest and placodal cell states is almost complete
at ss8 (Figure 2C), we kept those gene modules that show differential expression between at
least one of the three fates at ss8 (see methods). This resulted in nine modules that were
considered further (Figure 3–figure supplement 1A and Figure 3–Source Data 1). Of these,
four gene modules (GM21-24) are specifically expressed in the PPR at ss8, one (GM13) in

neural crest cells, and the remaining four (GM7, 9, 11, 20) are upregulated primarily in neural clusters (Figure 3–figure supplement 1A).

When examining the genes within each module, we noticed that GM20 and GM22 include genes with widespread expression or expression in the lateral mesoderm and/or the extraembryonic region (*Epas1, Nkx2-5, Tnnc1, Pgk1*) (Adams et al., 2008; Bell et al., 2004; Liberatore et al., 2000; Ota et al., 2007) (Figure 3–Source Data 1). We therefore removed these modules from subsequent analysis. GM7 contains well characterised anterior markers including *Otx2*, *Six3* and *Pax6*, whilst GM11 contains midbrain/hindbrain markers including *Pax2*, *Nkx6-2* and *Wnt4* (Figure 3–Source Data 1). We find that at ss4 and ss8 these gene modules are indeed upregulated in the forebrain/aPPR and midbrain/hindbrain, respectively (Figure 3–figure supplement 1A). To focus on our analysis on the segregation of neural, neural crest and placodal cells rather than on A-P patterning, A-P restricted modules were removed. The remaining five modules show broadly pan-neural (GM9), pan-placodal (GM23, GM21, GM24) or neural crest cell (GM13) expression at ss4 and ss8 (Figure 3A).

Latent time analysis suggests late emergence of neural crest cells

Given the cellular heterogeneity observed at early timepoints, discrete developmental stages do not necessarily accurately represent the developmental progression of individual cells towards a given fate. In contrast, latent time can measure the biological clock of individual cells as they differentiate and thus represents the order of cells along a developmental trajectory. To explore the expression dynamics of the five selected gene modules as neural, neural crest and placodal fates emerge, we first ordered cells across latent time using scVelo for the entire dataset (Figure 3B and Figure 3–figure supplement 1B). To investigate the segregation of all three fates, three separate trajectories need to be distinguished. To do this we calculated the probability of each cell to transit towards one of three terminal states (fate absorption probability) (Figure 3–figure supplement 1C). These probabilities were obtained using CellRank (Lange et al., 2022), which leverages RNA velocity and transcriptomic similarity information to predict transitions between cells. Mapping the fate probabilities of each cell onto UMAP plots of the full dataset (Figure 3C-E, see Figure 3B and Figure 2E-F for reference) shows that cells with low latent time values (i.e., early cells) have low probabilities of becoming neural, neural crest or placodal cells. As cells 'age' their fate probabilities increase as they become more transcriptionally like the terminal state. Unlike placodal and neural, neural crest fate probabilities are only high in 'late' cells (Figure 3B-C), reflecting the fact that defined neural crest cell clusters only appear at HH7.

Figure 3. Gene module dynamics reveal key differences between the segregation of the
PPR, neural crest and neural fates. (A) Heatmap of gene modules that display fate-specific
expression (full list of gene modules available in Figure 3-Source Data 1). Gene modules were
first unbiasedly filtered based on their differential expression between cell states (see methods
and Figure 3-figure supplement 1A). Gene modules were further manually filtered based on

expression patterns described in the literature (see results section: *Defining neural, neural*
crest and placodal gene modules). Key genes of interest are highlighted on the right (for full
gene list see Figure 3-Source Data 1). **(B)** UMAP plot of the full dataset (HH4-ss8) showing
cell latent time values. **(C-E)** UMAP plots of the full dataset showing the fate absorption
probabilities of each cell towards one of the three defined terminal states: neural crest, neural
and placodal. **(F-J)** Gene module dynamics plots and feature plots for 5 gene modules: GM24,
GM21, GM23, GM13 and GM9. Gene module dynamic plots display generalised additive
models (GAMs) of scaled gene module expression across latent time. GAMs are weighted by
the fate absorption probability of each cell towards one of the three terminal states (placodal,
neural crest and neural). Feature plots show average scaled gene module expression on
UMAPs of the full dataset.
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Gene module dynamics reveals key differences in the activation of the transcriptional
programmes associated to neural, neural crest and PPR specification
Having predicted the developmental trajectory of cells using scVelo and CellRank, we next
modelled the expression of the five selected gene modules as a function of latent time with
the aim to characterise their dynamics. Gene expression dynamics were modelled using
generalised additive models (GAMs). GAMs were chosen because gene expression is highly
dynamic and does not change linearly over time. For each gene module we fitted three
separate GAMs, one for each fate (Figure 3F-J). The three fates were distinguished using the
previously calculated fate absorption probabilities. This modelling approach reveals dynamic
changes of gene expression. Three gene modules – GM9, GM13, GM23 – are initially inactive
and are upregulated at different points across latent time in cells with neural, neural crest and
placodal character, respectively (Figure 3H-J).
426
GM9 becomes upregulated in all neural clusters and includes neural markers like *Lmo1* and
Sox21 (Figure 3A, I; Figure 3–Source Data 1). Although the expression of different genes
within this module correlates broadly, there is some gene-gene variation. For example, *Lmo1*
is the first gene to be expressed and exhibits highly dynamic expression over time (Figure 3A).
It is first found at HH5 within the eCN, pNP and iNP, before being upregulated across the
entire neural plate at HH7 and ss4. At ss8, *Lmo1* is specifically downregulated within the MB.
In contrast, *Sox21* is first upregulated at HH5/6 and is consistently expressed throughout all
neural cell clusters (Figure 3A).
435
In contrast, modelling reveals that GM13 is upregulated in cells with neural crest identity
(Figure 3J). Indeed, it contains well known neural crest markers *Pax7*, *Snai2*, *Sox10* and
Tfap2b (Figure 3A, Figure 3–Source Data 1) and is initially broadly activated in the NPB and
neural crest clusters at HH7. At ss4 and ss8, this module remains strongly expressed within

neural crest and delaminating neural crest clusters (Figure 3A). Within GM13 individual genes
are activated at different time points: *Pax7* is the first gene to be expressed in the pNPB at
HH5, while *Sox10* starts to be expressed only from ss4 onwards.

Finally, modelling the expression dynamics of GM23 shows that it is activated early and
becomes upregulated in cells with placodal character across latent time (Figure 3H). This
prediction is supported by the fact that GM23 is highly expressed in PPR clusters at ss8 and
contains *bona fide* placodal genes like *Six1* and *Eya2* (Figure 3A, Figure 3–Source Data 1).
At HH4, most GM23 genes are not expressed, but are broadly activated at HH5 in PPR, non-
neural and NPB clusters, where they remain active until becoming restricted to PPR cells at
ss4 (Figure 3A). Comparing the onset of activation of these three gene modules across latent
time reveals a clear temporal order with the placodal module being activated first, followed by
the neural and neural crest gene modules.

In contrast to these modules, modelling of GM24 and GM21 shows that they are initially
expressed in all three cell populations before being rapidly downregulated within neural crest
and neural cells (Figure 3F, G). Indeed, genes in GM24 are broadly expressed across the
epiblast at HH4, and then become gradually restricted to PPR, non-neural and NPB clusters
at HH6/7, and to PPR cells at ss4/8 (Figure 3A). GM21 displays similar dynamics but is
restricted to non-neural clusters somewhat earlier (HH5; Figure 3A). Although some genes
within these epiblast modules have been described as non-neural/PPR specific based on *in*
situ hybridisation (*Tfap2c*, *Bambi*, *Homer2*, *Tspan13*) (Bell et al., 2004; Hintze et al., 2017;
Mehdizadeh et al., 2021; Reichert et al., 2013; Rothstein & Simoes-Costa, 2020), others are
found to be expressed within the early neural territory (*Epcam*, *Sall4*, *Cited4*) (Barembaum &
Bronner-Fraser, 2007; Bell et al., 2004; Trevers et al., 2021) (Figure 3–Source Data 1).

In summary, modelling the expression dynamics of selected gene modules provides new
insight into the sequential activation of fate-specific developmental programmes, as well as
proposing key differences in the mechanism by which neural, neural crest and placodal cells
are specified. We show, using an unbiased gene module approach, that a placodal gene
module is activated first, followed by neural and neural crest modules. While neural and neural
crest modules are specifically activated in the relevant cell clusters alone, two modules that
are later restricted to the PPR are initially broadly expressed across the epiblast. We therefore
propose that the specification of neural and neural crest states may require the downregulation
of epiblast modules which later become confined to placodal cells.

Redefining the NPB cell state

NPB cells are thought to retain the potential to give rise to neural, neural crest and placodal lineages, and recent single cell analysis suggests that they can do so even at late neurulation stages (Roellig et al., 2017; Williams et al., 2022). So far, our analysis reveals an early NPB cell population identified by the overlapping expression of non-neural and early neural markers at primitive streak stages, albeit being transcriptionally highly heterogeneous. In contrast, *Msx1* and *Pax7* which have previously characterised as NPB specifiers, are only upregulated at the NPB at head process stage, have posterior character and are largely absent from placode precursors (Figure 1E, F, Figure 1–figure supplement 2B, C). At ss4, NPB cells can no longer be identified based on the expression of these specifier genes, yet we find continued presence of bridge cells that connect neural, neural crest and placodal cell clusters. Thus, among the key questions remaining are whether NPB cells have a unique transcriptional profile and whether bridge cells have NPB character with the potential to give rise to multiple fates.

To explore this idea, we focused on the decision between neural crest and placode precursors. Neural crest and placode specific transcription factors cross-repress each other while enhancing their own expression (for review: Thiery et al., 2020). It is therefore likely that co-expression of such genes may cells which are still plastic. We therefore examined the co-expression of neural crest and placode specific gene modules in a subset of cells composed of neural crest, placodal and NPB cell states between HH5-ss8 (for workflow explanation see Figure 3–figure supplement 2).

Defining neural crest and placode specific gene modules

First, we sought to identify gene modules that are specifically restricted to neural crest and placode cells at late stages. GM analysis in cells collected from ss8 identified 15 modules (Figure 4 and Figure 4–Source Data 1) that are differentially expressed in at least one cell state. GM9-13 and GM16-17 are characteristic for neural cells with different A-P identities. Seven gene modules are absent from neural populations but expressed in placodal cells (GM4-6), neural crest (GM1-2) or both (GM7-8). GM5 contains well characterised placodal markers including *Six1*, *Homer2* and *Znf385c* (Figure 4–Source Data 1) and is expressed in both aPPR and pPPR clusters. This module was therefore selected as a pan-placodal module. GM2 is expressed in both neural crest and delaminating neural crest clusters (Figure 4; NC, dNC), contains neural crest specifiers like *FoxD3*, *Snai2*, *Sox9*, *Pax7* and *Msx1*, as well as the Wnt ligands *Wnt1* and *Wnt6* (Figure 4–Source Data 1) and thus represents a *bona fide* neural crest specific module. Although GM1 contains multiple neural crest markers (*Ets1*,

Sox10, Sox8; Figure 4–Source Data 1), it is only expressed in delaminating neural crest cells

(Figure 4) and was therefore excluded for further analysis. Thus, GM5 and GM2 were

considered as pan-placodal and pan-neural crest module and used for co-expression analysis.

Figure 4. Gene modules calculated at ss8. (A) Heatmap showing gene modules calculated

from ss8 cells and then filtered to include only those that are differentially expressed between

cell states (see methods; full list of gene modules available in Figure 4-Source Data 1). GM5

and GM2 are highlighted as the selected pan-placodal and pan-neural crest gene modules

used for subsequent analysis in Figure 5.

Placodal and neural crest bridge cells exhibit NPB-like co-expression

To investigate the co-expression of these modules in NPB cells and their derivatives, we first

selected NPB (aNPB, pNPB), neural crest (NC, dNC) and PPR (aPPR, pPPR, PPR) cell states

from HH5-ss8 (Figure 5A, red cells; thereafter referred to as NPB subset). Next, we re-

clustered this subset of cells based on the expression of all genes (Figure 5B). UMAP analysis

suggested a bifurcation of neural crest and placodal fates taking place between HH7 and ss4,

with NPB cells located at the boundary between neural crest and aPPR cell clusters (Figure

5B, C).

To examine the relative expression of pan-placodal and pan-neural crest modules across the

entire cell subset, we ordered cells according to the expression ratio of both modules and

grouped them into 10 evenly sized bins (Figure 5D and Figure 5–figure supplement 1). Cells
at the extreme ends exclusively express the pan-neural crest (Bin 1) or the pan-placodal gene
module (Bin 10). As expected, these cells represent mostly delaminating neural crest or
placodal cells, respectively. However, cells in Bin 3 show equal expression levels of both
modules and contain a mixture of NPB, PPR and neural crest cell states (Figure 5D). We then
mapped Bin 3 cells back to the NPB subset UMAP (Figure 5B) and find that they indeed
correspond to NPB cells located specifically between PPR and neural crest cell clusters
(Figure 5E). This contrasts with Bin 1 and 10 cells, which map to the opposite ends of the
UMAP and their respective fates (Figure 5E). Thus, most cells expressing intermediate levels
of both neural crest and placodal gene modules are classified as NPB.

Bin 3 cells contain a mixture of cells collected from HH5-ss8. To evaluate which cell states
express similar levels of pan-neural crest and pan-placodal modules at different
developmental times, we mapped Bin 3 cells back to the UMAPs of individual stages (Figure
5G). At HH5 and HH6, neural crest cell states are not defined yet (Figure 5F colour coded
according to Figure 1B-D and Figure 2A-C), and Bin 3 cells consist of a mixture of aPPR and
pNPB cells (Figure 5F, G). At HH7, Bin 3 contains almost no PPR cells, instead these cells
are mostly neural crest and NPB (Figure 5F, G). At ss4, the number of cells expressing similar
levels of the pan-placodal and pan-neural crest modules decreases sharply. Although at this
stage a NPB state based on the expression of NPB specifiers cannot be classified, Bin 3 cells
are found at the boundary between neural crest and PPR clusters. In fact, they represent the
bridge cells predicted to be in an undetermined transcriptional state by RNA velocity (Figure
2G). Once placodal and neural crest lineages are largely segregated at ss8, only very few
scattered cells express similar levels of pan-neural crest and pan-placodal modules (Figure
5G).

The analysis above only focuses on cells of the NPB subset expressing pan-placodal and pan-
neural crest modules at a similar level, which are likely to be transcriptionally indeterminate
and not yet committed to either of the two fates. To identify cells with varying levels of co-
expression and those that may transit to either fate, we visualised cells that co-express these
modules at different levels. We calculated pan-neural crest and pan-placodal module co-
expression per developmental stage and filtered cells below a minimum threshold of 0.3
(Figure 5H). At HH5/6 almost all cells classified as NPB and placodal cells co-express both
modules above the threshold. However, this changes at HH7, when co-expressing cells are
largely restricted to the NPB and neural crest clusters (Figure 5H). By ss4, they are only found
in bridge cells between placodal and neural crest clusters (Figure 2G).

Given the different proportions of cells co-expressing these modules at each stage, we
investigated whether the distributions in co-expression levels varied between them (Figure 5I).
From the early to late stages, the distribution gradually changes from a normal distribution
towards a negative binomial distribution. This suggests that at HH5-HH7 cells co-express pan-
neural crest and pan-placodal modules at similar levels, while only a small proportion of co-
expressing cells express these modules at high levels later.
580
581   Our analysis proposes that NPB cells are transcriptionally indeterminate, co-expressing gene
582   modules that characterise both neural crest and placodal cells. This expression profile is likely
583   to endow them with the potential to give rise to both, if not all NPB fates. The proportion of
584   these cells decreases over time, but bridge cells at ss4 retain this characteristic and are
585   therefore likely to retain bi- or multipotency even as the neural tube closes.

Figure 5. Cells at the NPB co-express placodal and neural crest gene modules. (A)
UMAP plots of from each stage with all PPR, neural crest and NPB cells highlighted in red,
which were selected as the 'NPB subset'. **(B)** UMAP plot of the NPB subset coloured by cell
state. **(C)** UMAP plot of the NPB subset coloured by developmental stage. **(D)** Average

normalized expression of placodal and neural crest gene modules (GM5 and GM2,
respectively) identified at ss8 (see Figure 4). Cells are ordered by their expression ratio of
these two modules and coloured by cell state. Cells were grouped into 10 evenly sized bins
(background shaded regions). Three bins (1, 3 and 10) are overlaid to highlight cells with high
neural crest/low placodal (bin 1), equivalent levels of both (bin 3) and high placodal/low neural
crest (bin 10) gene expression. **(E)** UMAP plots of the NPB subset displaying the cells
captured within bins 1, 3 and 10. **(F-H)** UMAP plots from each developmental stage, displaying
only cells in the NPB subset (equivalent to red cells in A). **(F)** Cells are coloured by cell state.
(G) Cells which are captured in bin 3 are highlighted. **(H)** Co-expression analysis of the pan-
neural crest and pan-placodal modules (see methods). Cells which co-express both modules
above 0.3 are coloured. **(I)** Histograms revealing the distribution of co-expression of the pan-
neural crest and pan-placodal modules at each developmental stage. At later stages (ss4-
ss8), the distribution of co-expression shifts from a normal to a negative binomial distribution.
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606 **A temporal hierarchy of gene module expression in neural crest and placode**
607 **precursors**
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To investigate the mechanism by which NPB cells segregate into the neural crest and placodal
fates, we modelled gene module dynamics across the NPB subset alone (for workflow
explanation see Figure 3–figure supplement 2). Previous modelling dynamics (Figure 3)
analysed gene modules across the whole dataset to uncover sequential activation of placodal,
neural and neural crest gene programmes at higher level. In contrast, focusing on the NPB
subset provides a higher gene module resolution and consequently allows modelling of
multiple placodal and neural crest gene modules and establishing the order in which different
genes are activated.
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As before, we first defined gene modules characteristic for neural crest and placodal cells.
Gene modules were calculated using the neural crest, placodal and NPB cell state subset
from HH5-ss8 as described above. Only 10 modules with differential expression between the
neural crest and placodal fates were considered. These were filtered further to include only
those that contained genes defined in the binary knowledge matrix as present in neural crest,
delaminating neural crest or PPR cell states. This analysis identified three modules (GM12-
14) upregulated in placodal and four in neural crest cells (GM40 and GM42-44) between HH7
and ss8 (Figure 6E, Figure 6–Source Data 1).
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To predict cell trajectories towards neural crest or placodal terminal states prior to GM
modelling, we performed scVelo analysis on the NPB subset (Figure 6B-D). As before, we
used velocity and CellRank to calculate latent time and determine the probability that each cell

will become neural crest or placodal (Figure 6A-D). In turn, latent time and fate probabilities

were used to model gene module dynamics (Figure 6F-H).

Of the placodal modules, GM14 and GM12 are expressed as early as HH5. GM12 is

expressed throughout both aPPR and pNPB and contains early non-neural/PPR markers like

Gata2/3 (Figure 6E, Figure 6–Source Data 1). At HH6, GM12 is downregulated in the NPB

and remains confined to the PPR clusters until ss8. Unlike GM12, GM14 is initially restricted

to the PPR and only activated in the NPB at HH7. At ss4 and ss8 its expression is confined to

the PPR, with a higher expression in anterior cells. This module contains pan-placodal genes

like Dlx5/6 as well as anterior markers Six3 and Pax6 (Figure 6E, Figure 6–Source Data 1).

GM13 is the last placodal module to be activated and contains the definitive placodal

transcripts *Six1* and *Eya2*. It is first expressed at low levels at HH6 before being broadly

activated across the PPR at HH7 through to ss8. We also observe weaker expression of this

module within NPB cells at HH7 (Figure 6E). To visualise the sequential activation of these

modules across latent time, we used the same approach described above (Figure 3F-J),

whereby gene expression of each cell was weighted based on its placodal fate probability.

This analysis shows that GM12 is activated before GM14 and GM13 in latent time (Figure 6F).

Whilst the expression of GM12 and GM14 does not change dramatically, GM13 is highly

upregulated over latent time within the placodal cells (Figure 6F).

The four neural crest gene modules each contain *bona fide* neural crest transcriptional

regulators including *Msx1*, *Zic1*, *Zeb2*, *Lmx1b* (GM40), *Pax7*, *Snai2*, *Axud1*, *Foxd3*, *Tfap2b*,

Sox9 (GM42), *Sox5*, *Id1/2* (GM44) and *Sox10*, *Ets1*, *Lmo4* and *Sox8* (GM43) (Figure 6E and

Figure 6–Source Data 1). Interestingly, our analysis groups these factors unbiasedly into four

modules, and visualisation of their expression across latent time weighted by neural crest fate

probability shows a clear sequential activation from GM40 to GM42, GM44 and GM43 (Figure

6G). GM40 is activated first, initially broadly across aPPR and pNPB clusters at HH5 and HH6,

before becoming restricted to neural crest and NPB clusters from HH7 onwards. By ss8, it is

downregulated in the delaminating neural crest population. GM42 and GM44 are highly

upregulated only in neural crest and delaminating neural crest cells, with GM42 first expressed

at HH7 and GM44 at ss4. Lastly, GM44 is activated specifically within the delaminating neural

crest cells at ss4 where it is further upregulated at ss8 (Figure 6E). This order suggests a

hierarchical relationship between these factors in the neural crest gene regulatory network.

Figure 6. Co-expression analysis suggests neural crest specification requires downregulation of placodal genes. **(A)** UMAP plot of the NPB subset with cells coloured by latent time. **(B)** UMAP plot with cells coloured by cell state classifications and overlaid with RNA velocity vectors depicting the predicted directionality of transcriptional change. **(C-D)** UMAP plots showing the fate absorption probabilities of each cell towards the specified

terminal states (placodal or neural crest). **(E)** Heatmap showing gene modules calculated
across the NPB subset (full list of gene modules available in Figure 6-Source Data 1). To
identify gene modules potentially involved in placodal or neural crest specification, gene
modules were filtered to include those that show differential expression between placodal and
neural crest cell states (see methods). Genes specified as neural crest or placodal in our
binary knowledge matrix (Supplementary File 1) were selected as bait genes to further filter
the gene module list for visualisation. **(F)** Heatmap displaying predicted scaled expression of
placodal gene modules (GM12, GM13 and GM14) within the placodal lineage across latent
time. Gene expression was predicted by fitting a GAM which models scaled gene expression
as a function of latent time. Gene expression was weighted in the GAM using the placodal fate
lineage absorption probability. **(G)** Heatmap displaying predicted scaled expression of neural
crest gene modules (GM40, GM42, GM43 and GM44) within the neural crest lineage across
latent time. Gene expression was modelled as in (F) but using neural crest fate absorption
probabilities to weight gene expression. **(H)** Gene module dynamics plots for all 7 gene
modules: GM40, GM42, GM44, GM43 (neural crest) and GM12, GM14, GM13 (placodal).
Gene module dynamic plots display GAMs of scaled gene module expression across latent
time calculated as in (G) and (H). GAMs were weighted by the fate absorption probabilities of
each cell towards either placodal or neural crest terminal states.

While gene module selection was based on prior knowledge of marker genes, this analysis
also allows us to predict novel factors with similar expression profiles. These include *Nfkb1*,
Ass1 and *Fam184b* in placodal cells and *Enc1*, *Rftn2* and *Olfml3* in neural crest clusters.
Modelling their expression across latent time reveals highly conserved dynamics with known
factors (Figure 6–figure supplement 2), thus raising the possibility that they may play a role in
placode and neural crest cell specification.

In summary, analysing gene module dynamics across the NPB subset identifies reveals the
sequential activation of different co-regulated genes in placodal and neural crest cell. Many
genes within these modules have been previously characterised and are known to form part
of the neural crest or placode gene regulatory network (for review: Grocott et al., 2012; Pla &
Monsoro-Burq, 2018; Schlosser, 2006, 2014; Simoes-Costa & Bronner, 2015; Thiery et al.,
2020). This unbiased approach groups these factors and predicts a hierarchical order, as well
as identifying new candidate factors which may play important roles in the segregation of the
neural crest and placodal fates (Figure 6–figure supplement 2).

Emergence of neural crest cells may require the downregulation of definitive placodal
genes

Various factors within the placodal and neural crest gene modules have previously been
implicated in conferring neural crest and placodal identity. To assess their temporal activation,

we modelled their dynamics across both developmental trajectories simultaneously and
assessed their co-expression in individual cells.

As with the previous analysis (Figure 3F-J) we found that gene modules varied in their
expression dynamics across both fates over latent time. Of the neural crest modules, GM40
(containing *Msx1* and *Zic1*) is the first to be activated in both the neural crest and placodal
cells before being downregulated in placode precursors at HH6/7 (Figure 6E, H). In contrast,
GM42, GM44 and GM43 are exclusively upregulated in the neural crest lineage (Figure 6H).
Of the placodal modules, GM12 and GM14 are initially highly expressed in both cell types and
then downregulated in the neural crest lineage. In contrast, GM13 is not initially expressed,
but starts to be upregulated in both neural crest and placodal cells as time progresses, before
being rapidly downregulated in neural crest cells as its expression increases in placode
precursors. Interestingly, GM13 contains definitive placodal markers *Six1* and *Eya2* which in
turn repress neural crest factors including *Pax7* (Brugmann et al., 2004; Christophorou et al.,
2009). Its initial upregulation within the neural crest cells suggests that their specification
requires the downregulation of this module. In contrast to GM13, placodal cells never
upregulate definitive neural crest modules (GM42-44).

Since neural crest precursors initially appear to express the late placodal module GM13, we
sought to investigate which cells co-express GM13 with each of the four neural crest modules.
As expected from the expression of the early neural crest module GM40 in placodal
precursors, we find broad co-expression of both modules (Figure 6I) within neural crest and
placodal cell clusters both, at the bifurcation point and in segregated clusters. In contrast, the
later neural crest modules are not co-expressed with GM13 extensively within the placodal
branch. However, we do find co-expression within the neural crest branch. This suggests that
some residual placodal gene expression remains in the neural crest clusters even at ss8. This
supports our previous finding that the specification of the neural crest state may require the
downregulation of placodal gene modules (Figure 3).

Figure 7. Gradient border model resolves conflicting models of lineage segregation at the neural plate border. (A) Schematic illustrating the neural plate border model. This model illustrates that cells at the neural plate border are multipotent and able to give rise to neural, neural crest, placodal and non-neural ectoderm (NNE) lineages. **(B)** Schematic illustrating the dual competence model. This model suggests that the neural plate border is first defined into non-neural/placodal and neural crest/neural competence domains prior to further subdivision into each of the final four cell lineages. (C) Schematic illustrating the gradient border model. This model proposes a probabilistic model of cell fate allocation which is intrinsically linked to the spatiotemporal positioning of a cell. We suggest that cells located within the medial neural plate border (yellow cell lineage) will give rise to neural and neural crest, cells within the lateral neural plate border (blue cell lineage) to non-neural ectoderm and placodes, whilst subsets of cells (including bridge cells) will remain in an indeterminate state and continue to give rise to all four lineages even at late stages of neurulation (green cell lineage). Shaded background colours represent the cell state space.

Discussion

The regulation of cell fate specification at the NPB has been extensively studied in a range of model systems, giving rise to a wealth of knowledge regarding transcriptional regulators and their interactions. Nevertheless, our understanding as to how individual cells undergo cell fate decisions has been limited by our inability to study transcription and gene regulation at a single cell level. Recent studies have demonstrated that in contrast to what was previously thought, cells co-express markers that specify either placodal, neural or neural crest fates, even during late neurulation (Roellig et al., 2017; Williams et al., 2022). This newly characterised cellular heterogeneity requires us to revisit models for cell fate specification at the NPB and reconsider our definition of the NPB cell state itself.

Our study unbiasedly characterised ectodermal cell states and cellular heterogeneity from primitive streak stages though to late neurulation in chick. We demonstrate that although significant transcriptional differences are apparent between cells at primitive streak stages, due to high levels of heterogeneity, cells do not cluster into discrete cell states exhibiting restricted expression patterns until the 1-somite stage. Instead, cell states are initially characterised by the overlapping expression of broad early neural and non-neural genes, as well as axial patterning markers. We identify increased cell state diversification during neurulation, and segregation of neural, neural crest and placodal lineages taking place across 1-somite to 8-somite stages. High resolution transcriptional analysis of cells at the NPB reveals that by the 4-somite stage, placodal and neural crest lineages have largely segregated. However, despite this segregation, we continue to identify high levels of co-expression of placodal and neural crest genes within bridge cells which are predicted to be in a dynamic transcriptional state.

Specification of neural and neural crest cell lineages requires downregulation of broad epiblast modules

Although specification networks for the neural, neural crest and placodal lineages are well established (for review: Betancur et al., 2010; Grocott et al., 2012; Pla & Monsoro-Burq, 2018; Stundl et al., 2021; Thiery et al., 2020), the order in which these lineages are specified remains unclear. Our unbiased gene module analysis has identified groups of genes which correlate and are specifically upregulated within each cell fate. Our gene modules support the specification networks established in previous studies. *Pax7*, *Tfap2b*, *Snai2* and *Sox10* cluster together and are upregulated in neural crest states, while *Six1*, *Eya2*, *Gata2/3* and *Dlx5/6* are activated within placodal states and *Lmo1* and *Sox21* in neural states.

We also find putative novel regulators of these cell states, as well as the order in which these

cell fates are specified. We note the sequential temporal activation of placodal, neural and

neural crest specific gene modules, suggesting that these states are specified in that order.

However, there is also asynchrony in the initiation of cell specification; although we identify

placodal cells as early as HH5, we also observe indeterminate NPB cells which are only later

specified. We suggest cell fate allocation at the NPB is a gradual process, with the NPB

narrowing over time as cells within this population are specified.

Alongside characterising placodal, neural and neural crest gene modules, we observe the

expression of two modules which exhibit initial broad pan-epiblast expression at primitive

streak stages, but which are confined to placodal cell states at the 4 and 8-somite stages.

Within these epiblast modules, unsurprisingly we note the expression of important placodal

and non-neural genes *Tfap2c*, *Homer2* and the BMP inhibitor *Bambi*. Alongside these

markers, we also find the pluripotency marker *Sall4* and *Tspan13*, with the latter shown to be

positively regulated by Six1 (Mehdizadeh et al., 2021). A recent study in chick suggests that

based on transcriptional profiling a 'pre-border' state can already be defined prior to

gastrulation. In vitro experiments show that the pre-gastrula epiblast is specified as NPB; once

cells have acquired a 'pre-border' state they can become neural and placodal precursors

depending on the signalling input (Trevers et al., 2018). Given that the expression the epiblast

modules becomes confined to the placodes, we speculate that the specification of the neural

crest and neural states requires the downregulation of these modules.

Redefining the neural plate border based on the co-expression of competing gene modules

Members of Zic, Tfap2, Pax, Msx and Dlx transcription factor families have been termed NPB

specifiers (for review: Stundl et al., 2021; Thiery et al., 2020). Tfap2a has been identified as a

pioneer factor which triggers the expression of other NPB specifiers and is required but not

sufficient for both neural crest and placodal cell fates (Bhat et al., 2013; Rothstein & Simoes-

Costa, 2020). The cell fate switching role of Tfap2a depends upon its association with its co-

factors, Tfap2b and Tfap2c. Tfap2c is necessary for the induction of NPB specifiers *Msx1*,

Pax7 and *Zic1*, whilst Tfap2b is later required for downstream neural crest specification

(Rothstein & Simoes-Costa, 2020).

Gene module analysis across the neural plate border highlights the sequential activation and

restriction of previously characterised NPB specifiers to neural crest cells. Early NPB

specifiers *Msx1* and *Zic1* are initially broadly expressed across pNPB and aPPR cells at HH5,

but later become downregulated in the placodal lineage and upregulated in the neural crest.
The gene module containing *Pax7* is activated slightly later and contains other NPB specifiers
Axud1 and *Tfap2b*, as well as definitive neural crest markers *FoxD3* and *Snai2*. Unlike the
Msx1 module, which is initially upregulated in both aPPR and pNPB clusters at HH5, the *Pax7*
module is specifically restricted to the NPB and subsequent neural crest clusters (Figure 6F,
H, and Figure 6–figure supplement 1). This analysis reveals that despite these markers having
been previously characterised as NPB specifiers, their expression becomes restricted to the
neural crest. In contrast, *Dlx5/6* and *Tfap2a* are both found within a gene module that is later
restricted to the placodes (Figure 3A).
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Although *Tfap2a* is grouped in the same module as placodal specifiers *Six1* and *Eya2*, it is
expressed in both placodal and neural crest cell states, even at later stages. This expression
reflects the key role that *Tfap2a* plays as a pioneer factor in both neural crest and placodal
specification, however its expression alone is not sufficient to classify the NPB state. At HH5,
although *Tfap2a* is expressed within the pNPB cluster alongside other NPB specifiers, it is
also expressed within aPPR cells which never appear to be exposed to NPB specifiers
including *Pax7*, *Pax3* and *Tfap2b* (Figure 1E).
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To classify the NPB as a discrete state, NPB markers need to be uniformly upregulated in
NPB cells which give rise to neural, non-neural ectoderm, neural crest and PPR fates. Given
the non-uniform expression of previously characterised NPB specifiers (Basch et al., 2006;
Ezin et al., 2009; Hong & Saint-Jeannet, 2007; McLarren et al., 2003; Rothstein & Simoes-
Costa, 2020; Streit & Stern, 1999), and the expression of *Tfap2a* in both the NPB and early
aPPR cells which are unlikely to give rise to other fates, we propose that the NPB state cannot
be accurately classified using just these previously established genes. Instead, we suggest
that the NPB is better defined by the co-expression of markers regulating alternative cell fates.
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860   *Gradient border model resolves the neural plate border and binary competence dilemma*
861
The 'binary competence' and 'neural plate border' models have provided useful frameworks
for understanding cell fate determination during neural, neural crest and placodal segregation
(Figure 7A, B). The binary competence model suggests that the ectoderm is subdivided into
non-neural/placodal and neural/neural crest domains (Pieper et al., 2012), whilst the neural
plate border model suggests cells at the border remain multi-potent and can differentiated into
all ectodermal fates (Roellig et al., 2017). Due to the limitations of studying cell fate
competence at a population level, transplantation experiments have failed to resolve these
two models.

Our co-expression analysis of pan-neural crest and pan-placodal gene modules found that at
early stages, most cells at the NPB co-express these modules at similar levels. At later stages,
we see a divergence in the level of co-expression between cell populations, with the highest
co-expressing cells located at the branching points between the neural crest and placodal
lineages (Figure 5H and I). In summary, we find that over time, the putative indeterminate cell
population reduces in size until it is restricted to only a small number of bridge cells which lie
at the boundary between placodal and neural crest cell clusters at the 4-somite stage. Cell
fate allocation within these bridge cells is likely to be driven via transcription factor cross-
repression, given the previously characterised cross-repressive interactions taking place
between placodal, neural crest and neural specifiers (Brugmann et al., 2004; Christophorou
et al., 2009; Schlosser et al., 2008; Wakamatsu et al., 2004).

Given these findings, we propose a 'gradient border' model for cell fate allocation (Figure 7C).
This model suggests that cell fate allocation is probabilistic and intimately linked to a cells
spatiotemporal positioning. In accordance with the binary competence model, cells located
within the lateral NPB will give rise to epidermal and placodal fates, whilst those found medially
give rise to neural and neural crest fates. However, instead of a binary segregation of the NPB
into neural/neural crest and non-neural/placodal domains, we suggest that a subset of cells at
the NPB are kept in an indeterminate state whilst they continue to co-express factors involved
in the specification of alternative lineages. Both our co-expression analysis and previous
documentation of heterogeneity at the NPB support this model.

Materials and Methods

Data collection and alignment

Single cell dissociation and 10X single-cell mRNA sequencing
Fertilised chicken eggs were incubated at 38°C for 24-32 hours depending upon the
developmental stage collected. Embryos were pinned and had the endoderm and mesoderm
removed using dispase (10mg/ml) before dissecting the ectodermal region of interest (Figure
1A). Multiple embryos from the same stage were pooled prior to dissociation. Samples were
then dissociated in 250μl pre-heated FACSmax cell dissociation solution (Amsbio, T200100)
with papain (30U/ml; Sigma, P3125) for 20 minutes at 37°C. Samples were gently pipetted
every 5 minutes to facilitate dissociation. After dissociation, 250μl resuspension solution was

added to prevent any further dissociation (HBSS; non-acetylated BSA (1mg/ml; Invitrogen,
10743447); HEPES (0.01M); non-essential amino acids (1x; Thermo Fisher Scientific,
11140050); rock inhibitor Y-27632 (10μM; Stemcell Technologies). Cells were passed through
a 20μm cell strainer (Miltenyi Biotech, 130-101-812) to remove any debris, before pelleting
and resuspending in 500μl resuspension buffer. To remove any dead or dying cells as well as
any remaining doublets, 1μl 0.1mg/ml DAPI was added to the cell suspension before FAC
sorting. Given the low number of cells obtained from each embryo, samples for each stage
were collected over multiple days and stored in 90% MeOH with 10% resuspension solution
after FAC sorting. Prior to sequencing, samples from the same stage were pooled and
resuspended in DPBS with 0.5% non-acetylated BSA and 0.5U/μl RNAse inhibitor (Roche
3335399001).

Cells underwent single-cell mRNA sequencing at the Francis Crick Institute, London. Library
preparation was carried out using the 10x 3' single-cell mRNA v3 kit (10x Genomics), before
sequencing on the HiSeq 4000 (Illumina) to a target depth of 50k reads/cell. Samples were
sequenced in two batches (batch 1: HH4, HH6, ss4, ss8; batch 2: HH5, HH6, HH7, ss4), with
two stages (HH6 and ss4) sequenced in both batches to allow for the correction of any
potential batch effects. Data from the first batch has previously been used for the
characterisation of neural induction (Trevers et al., 2021) (ArrayExpress accession number:
E-MTAB-10408).

Read alignment
A custom pipeline was developed in Nextflow (v20.07.1) (Di Tommaso et al., 2017) to handle
all GTF processing and read alignment whilst maintaining full reproducibility.

Prior to scRNAseq alignment, the GalGal6 ensembl 97 GTF file was modified to prefix genes
from the Z and W sex chromosomes with their respective chromosome IDs (Z- and W-).
Furthermore, we noticed several mitochondrial genes in the GTF were missing their
chromosome ID, in turn preventing accurately calculating cell percentage mitochondrial
content downstream; mitochondrial genes were therefore also prefixed in the GTF (MT-).
Finally, we annotated the key neural crest specifier Snai2 in the GTF
(ENSGALG00000030902). Reads were processed and aligned to GalGal6 using CellRanger
4.0.0 (10x Genomics).

The aligned reads from CellRanger (BAM) were re-counted using Velocyto (La Manno et al.,

2018) to generate spliced and unspliced counts for each gene, which are used in subsequent

RNA velocity analysis.

Downstream pre-processing

All downstream analysis was wrapped into a custom Nextflow pipeline to simplify re-running

the analysis by handling parallel processing of data subsets.

Data filtering

Quality control, data filtering, cell clustering, dimensionality reduction and initial data

visualisation was carried out using Seurat v4.0.5 (Hao et al., 2021). Data filtering was carried

out on each sequencing batch separately before data integration. To ensure the removal of

poor-quality cells whilst also minimising over-filtering, we first applied a medium filtering

threshold (cells expressing fewer than 1000 genes, more than 6500 genes, or had more than

15% mitochondrial content were excluded from subsequent analysis) followed by the removal

of remaining poor-quality cell clusters.

Dimensionality reduction and clustering

Linear dimensionality reduction was carried out using principal component analysis (PCA).

The number of principal components (PCs) used to construct the subsequent shared-nearest-

neighbour (SNN) graph was determined unbiasedly, using an approach developed by the

Harvard Chan Bioinformatics Core (HBC). First, we calculate the PC at which subsequent PCs

contribute less than 5% of standard deviation, and the point where the cumulative variation of

PCs exceeds 90%. The larger of these two values is selected. Second, we calculate the PC

where the inclusion of consecutive PCs contributes less than 0.1% additional variation. The

smaller value from these two steps is selected as a cut-off.

Louvain clustering was carried out with varying resolutions depending upon the data subset

in question. A high clustering resolution (resolution=2) was used to identify poor quality

clusters and contaminating cell states. This was to ensure that only poor-quality cells were

filtered from the dataset. All other clustering was carried out using a resolution of 0.5.

Filtering of poor-quality clusters

Cell quality was measured using unique gene and UMI counts. Clusters in which both metrics

fell below the 25th percentile relative to the rest of the dataset were considered poor quality

and excluded from further analysis.

Data integration

After the removal of poor-quality cells, cells from the two separate batches were integrated

into a single full dataset (Figure 1–figure supplement 1H-I). To avoid over-correction and

removal of stage differences, we integrated the data from the two sequencing batches using

STACAS v1.1.0 (Andreatta & Carmona, 2021). This R package allows for alignment of

datasets containing partially overlapping cell states.

Regressing out confounding variables

Before downstream analysis, we regressed out percentage mitochondrial content, cell sex,

and cell cycle. After regressing out percentage mitochondrial content, we identified a residual

sex effect whereby cells clustered according to the expression of either W or Z chromosome

genes. This resulted in a duplication of cell clusters, most apparent at HH4 (Figure 1–figure

supplement 1A, B). Cells were k-means clustered according to their expression of W

chromosome genes and classified as either male or female. This classification was used to

regress out cell sex. Cell cycle was observed to have a strong effect on cell clustering and

was therefore also regressed out during data scaling (Figure 1–figure supplement 1C, D).

Removal of contaminating clusters

We found small contaminating clusters of primordial germ cells, blood islands, mesoderm and

endoderm within the dataset (Figure 1–figure supplement 1F, G). To semi-unbiasedly remove

these clusters, we calculated the average expression of candidate markers for each of these

cell states and removed clusters in which the median expression of any of these modules was

greater than the 90th percentile relative to the rest of the dataset (Figure 1–figure supplement

1F'', G).

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1004   **Downstream analysis**

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Unbiased cell classification

Cell states were classified on each stage independently using a binary knowledge matrix

(Supplementary File 1). First, the full dataset was split by stage and then re-scaled and re-

clustered as described above. Our binary knowledge matrix consists of binarized expression

of 76 genes across 24 cell states. For each gene, published *in situ* hybridisation expression

patterns were used to determine expression within each defined cell state. Given that gene

expression can vary dramatically between stages, and some cell states are known to not be
present at specific timepoints (i.e., delaminating neural crest at HH4), we restricted the
possible cell states at specific stages. At HH4 there were 7 possible cell states, including non-
neural ectoderm (NNE), node, streak, extra-embryonic (EE), early NPB (eNPB), early neural
(eN), early caudal neural (eCN). At HH5 there were 17 potential states, this included all cell
states in the binary knowledge matrix, except for the later counterparts to the earlier cell states
which are ventral forebrain (vFB), forebrain (FB), midbrain (MB), hindbrain (HB), neural crest
(NC), delaminating neural crest (dNC) and presumptive epidermis (pEpi). At HH6 we included
the same cell states as HH5 except for EE and eNPB given that no cell clusters were classified
as such at HH5. For stages HH7, ss4 and ss8 we included 17 cell states, excluding the
following states which are only found at earlier stages (NNE, node, streak, eN, eCN, eNPB,
EE).

1024

1025   For each cell, we calculated the average scaled expression of the genes expressed in each
1026   cell state according to our binary knowledge matrix. Cell clusters were then assigned a cell
1027   state, depending on which cell state exhibited the highest median expression in that given cell
1028   cluster. Assigned cell states at each of the 6 sampled developmental stages were then
1029   transferred to the full dataset.

1030

Gene module identification and filtering
To calculate groups of highly correlated genes, we first filtered genes which do not correlate
(Spearman correlation < 0.3) with at least 3 other genes. Then we calculated gene modules
using the Antler R package (Delile et al., 2019), which iteratively clusters genes hierarchically
based on their gene-gene Spearman correlation. After each iteration, gene modules were
filtered to remove gene modules which are not highly expressed (expressed in fewer than 10
cells) or which do not show consistent high expression across genes (fewer than 40% of genes
in the module are expressed after binarization). Gene modules were calculated on different
subsets of cells: the full dataset (Figure 3 and Figure 3–figure supplement 1), ss8 (Figure 4
and Figure 5), and the NPB subset (Figure 6). Calculating gene modules on different subsets
allowed us to zoom in on specific aspects of ectodermal lineage segregation (for workflow
explanation see Figure 3–figure supplement 2).

1043

1044   Many genes correlate across the dataset, but do not show differential expression between cell
1045   states and therefore do not provide useful information regarding lineage segregation.
1046   Therefore, to identify which gene modules correlate with lineage segregation, modules were
1047   filtered to only include those in which more than 50% of their genes were differentially
1048   expressed (logFC > 0.5, adjusted p-value < 0.001) in at least one cell state relative to the rest

of the dataset. For the NPB subset, this filtering of differential expression was just between the neural crest (NC, dNC) and placodal (aPPR, pPPR, PPR) states rather than between all cell states (logFC > 0.25, adjusted p-value < 0.001).

To remove gene modules which correlate with technical variation, we filtered those in which more than 50% their genes showed differential expression between sequencing batches (logFC > 0.25, adjusted p-value <0.001).

For the gene modules calculated on the full dataset, we were particularly interested in gene modules that segregated into one of the three lineages (neural, neural crest or placodal) at later stages. To focus our analysis on these gene modules, we applied an additional filtering step to only keep gene modules in which more than 50% of genes were differentially expressed between one of the three lineages at ss8 (logFC > 0.25, adjusted p-value <0.001). After filtering 9 gene modules remained (Figure 3–figure supplement 2A, Figure 3–Source Data 1). Modules were further manually filtered for visualisation (Figure 3A).

For the gene modules calculated on the NPB subset we wanted to focus on the co-expression and sequential activation of gene modules that contain well-characterised neural crest and PPR markers. We therefore further filtered NPB gene modules to include only those that had genes that were defined within neural crest, delaminating neural crest or PPR cell states in the binary knowledge matrix. After this final filtering step, 7 gene modules remained (Figure 6E, Figure 6–Source Data 1).

Identification of undetermined cells at the NPB
To identify which cells expressed competing pan-placodal and pan-neural crest modules at similar levels, we calculated the average expression (normalised counts) of these two gene modules in each cell and then ordered cells by their ratio of pan-placodal to pan-neural crest module expression. Cells were then grouped into 10 evenly sized bins and visualised on UMAPs.

Co-expression distribution plots
To investigate the distribution of co-expression between cells, co-expression histograms were plotted (Figure 5I). Co-expression values were calculated by multiplying the average normalised expression of the pan-placodal and pan-neural crest gene modules.

Co-expression visualisation

The average normalised expression of each gene module was scaled between 0 and 1. A 100x100 two-colour matrix was created using Seurat's BlendMatrix function. Each cell was assigned a colour from this matrix based on their scaled average expression of the gene modules (see Figure 5H and Figure 6I legends). Only cells which express both modules above a threshold of 0.3 after scaling were visualised.

RNA velocity

Spliced and unspliced matrices obtained from Velocyto (La Manno et al., 2018) (see *Read Alignment*) were analysed using scVelo (Bergen et al., 2020) to generate cell velocity vectors. Velocyto matrices were intersected with each of the data subsets generated in Seurat. First and second order moments were then calculated for each cell across its 20 nearest neighbours using the top 20 PCs. RNA velocity was ran using the dynamical model whilst accounting for differential kinetics; this allows for differential splicing rates between genes as well as differential splicing kinetics between cell states.

Latent time was calculated and used downstream as a measure of a cell's internal clock. When calculating latent time, cells were rooted to the earliest timepoint present in the data subset; in cases where only one stage was present, the cell root was calculated automatically. For all latent time estimates, we used a diffusion weighting of 0.2.

Modelling gene expression dynamics

Lineage inference was calculated using CellRank, which uses a probabilistic approach to assign cell lineage (Lange et al., 2022). Cell transition matrices were calculated using RNA velocity (0.8 weighting) and nearest neighbour graph (0.2 weighting) kernels. A softmax scale of 4 was set to prevent transitions tending towards orthogonality. When predicting cell transitions, terminal states were specified according to the lineages which we were wanting to model gene dynamics across. For the full dataset, we predicted cell transitions towards either neural, placodal or neural crest lineages. Terminal states were specified as: delaminating neural crest and neural crest cell states at ss4 and ss8 for the neural crest lineage; hindbrain, midbrain, and forebrain cell states at ss4 and ss8 for the neural lineage; anterior PPR, posterior PPR and PPR cell states at ss4 and ss8 for the placodal lineage (Figure 3–figure supplement 1C). For our NPB subset we predicted cell transitions towards either placodal or neural crest lineages, with terminal states specified as: delaminating neural crest and neural crest cell states at ss8 for the neural crest lineage; aPPR and PPR cell states at ss8 for the placodal lineage.

Gene expression dynamics were calculated by fitting general additive models (GAM), which
modelled scaled gene expression as a function of latent time using the mgcv package in R.
Lineage absorption probability obtained from CellRank were used to weight a GAM for each
of the predicted lineages. To generate a smoothed prediction of gene expression change, a
cubic spline was fitted with knots=4. When modelling the dynamics of entire gene modules,
all genes within a given module were included in the GAM.

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1129 **Data availability and reproducibility**

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1131 10x single cell RNAseq was carried out in two batches and is available under two separate
1132 accession numbers (ArrayExpress: E-MTAB-10408 and E-MTAB-1144). Our NGS alignments
1133 and downstream analysis have been wrapped into custom Nextflow pipelines allowing for full
1134 reproducibility. For the code used in this analysis, including links to our Docker containers, see
1135 our GitHub repository at https://github.com/alexthiery/10x_neural_plate_border.

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1138 **Acknowledgements**

1139

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1147

1148 **Author contributions**

1149

1150 A.T., A.S., J.B. designed study. A.T., A.B., E.H., A.S. collected samples and processed for
1151 scRNAseq. A.T., C.C. developed analysis pipeline and carried out data alignment. A.T., E.H.
1152 carried out downstream computational analysis of scRNAseq data. A.T., A.B., E.H., A.S. made
1153 figures and wrote manuscript. All authors provided feedback on the manuscript.

1154

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Figure 1-figure supplement 1. (A-B) UMAP of full dataset prior to regressing out confounding factors. Cells are coloured by developmental stage (A) and Seurat cell clusters (B). **(C)** Feature plot displaying W (male) sex-chromosome gene Wpkci-7, illustrating the cell sex effect after clustering. **(D)** Heatmap of selected sex genes across clusters 4 and 6. These clusters contain mostly cells from HH4 and highlight the clear sex effect of W and Z chromosome genes between these clusters. **(E)** UMAP of cells prior to (E') and post (E'') regressing out the cell cycle effect. **(F')** UMAP displaying cell clusters after regressing out sex and cell cycle effects. **(F'')** UMAP highlighting contaminating cell states following cell state classification. These include primordial germ cells (PGCs), mesoderm, endoderm, and blood islands. **(G)**

Dotplot for the expression of genes used for identification of contaminating cell clusters. **(H)** UMAP of all cells after filtering of contaminating populations and regressing out confounding variables. Cells are coloured by developmental stage. **(I)** UMAP plots showing successful integration of two sequencing batches at stages HH6 (I') and ss4 (I''). **(J)** UMAPs displaying cell clusters calculated at each developmental timepoint. Individual stages are subset from the full filtered dataset displayed in (H).

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Figure 1-figure supplement 2. Feature plots showing expression of marker genes on UMAPs
of developmental stages HH4 **(A)**, HH5 **(B)** and HH6 **(C).**

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1406 **Figure 2-figure supplement 1.** Feature plots showing expression of marker genes on UMAPs
1407 of developmental stages HH7 **(A)**, ss4 **(B)** and ss8 **(C).**
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Figure 3-figure supplement 1. (A) Gene modules calculated across the full dataset (full list of gene modules available in Figure 3-Source Data 1). Gene modules were unbiasedly filtered to include those that only display differential expression between cell states and not between sequencing batches and then further filtered to include only those that are differentially expressed between the neural, neural crest and placodal cell states at ss8. 9 gene modules remained after filtering. **(B)** UMAP plot of the full dataset overlaid with RNA velocity vectors depicting the predicted directionality of transcriptional change. Cells coloured by cell state. **(C)** Selected terminal states (placodal, neural crest and neural) used for CellRank lineage inference.

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1421 **Figure 3-figure supplement 2. (A)** Workflow diagram illustrating the different dataset subsets
1422 used in each of the main figures.
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Figure 5-figure supplement 1. (A) UMAPs of the NPB subset. Cells from the NPB subset
were ordered by their expression ratio of placodal and neural crest gene modules and then
separated into 10 evenly sized bins (Figure 5D). Cells belonging to each of these 10 bins are
displayed on the UMAPs.

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1431 **Figure 6-figure supplement 1. (A-E)** Feature plots of average gene module expression used
1432 for the co-expression analysis in Figure 6I.
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Figure 6-figure supplement 2. (A-F) GAMs are weighted by the absorption probability of each cell towards one of the two fates (placodal or neural crest). Well-characterized genes are shown on the left and novel genes with similar expression dynamics are shown on the right of each panel.