Thymus formation in uncharted embryonic territories.

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ABSTRACT

The thymus is a conserved organ among vertebrates, derived from the endoderm of distinct pharyngeal pouches (PP), whose location and number vary in different species. Together with reports of sporadic ectopic thymus locations in mice and humans, this suggests that the potential to make a thymus resides in a broader region of the PP endoderm than previously ascribed.

Using the chick-quail chimera system, we explore this hypothesis and test the capacity of non-canonical pouches to participate in thymus formation. We further ask if the local mesenchyme of pharyngeal arches (PA) could also play a role in the regulation of thymus formation.

After testing several embryonic tissue associations, we mapped the pharyngeal endoderm regions with thymus potential to the second and third/fourth pharyngeal pouches (2PP and 3/4PP). We further identified mesenchyme regions that regulate this potential to the the 3/4 pharyngeal arches and to the dorsal region of the second arch, with positive and negative influences, respectively.

Transcriptomic analysis of these tissues helped us to delineate a common genetic program correlated with thymus potential in the endoderm, and to define distinct signalling pathways acting in mesenchymal environments to help patterning pharyngeal arches. Together, these results provide new information about the initial specification of thymus primordia in the embryo and might help in improving thymus organoid systems.

INTRODUCTION

The thymus is a primary lymphoid organ essential for T lymphocyte development and maturation. The generation of a self-tolerant and diverse repertoire of T cell receptors will ensure an effective recognition and abolition of foreign antigens in the periphery without mounting a deleterious immune response to the body's own tissues. This central immune tolerance is established by cellular interactions between differentiating lymphoid T-cells and a stromal microenvironment mainly formed by the thymic epithelium (TE) (Hamazaki, 2015; Duah M, 2021).

TE rudiment derives from the endoderm of the third and fourth pharyngeal pouches (3/4PP) as first demonstrated in 1975 using the chick-quail chimera system (Le Douarin and Jotereau, 1975).

Major efforts have been made to unveil the transcription factors and signalling molecules that play a role in the specification of the pharyngeal endoderm to thymus fate. Though Fork-head Box N1 (Foxn1) transcription factor appears as the earliest TE marker (Nehls et al., 1994) it is dispensable for its specification being needed only for TE maintenance and differentiation (Blackburn et al., 1996; Nehls et al., 1996). Other involved transcription factors are Pax1, Pax9, Hoxa3, Eya1, and Six1, whose abnormalities lead to impaired thymus organogenesis (Vaidya HJ et al., 2016). Recent studies integrating single-cell transcriptomes and chromatin accessibility analysis of the developing pharyngeal endoderm provided new insight into the progression from embryonic endoderm cells to the foetal thymus and the associated gene expression changes. Namely, Grhl3 was found to be a putative new transcriptional regulator of the medullary thymic epithelial sub-lineage (Park et al., 2020; Magaletta ME et al., 2022). In addition to the transcriptional factors portrayed signalling pathways like bone morphogenetic protein (BMP), fibroblast growth factor (FGF), Wingless-int (Wnt), Notch, and Hedgehog, were also shown to be involved in the 3/4PP patterning and the early phases of thymus organogenesis (reviewed in Figueiredo M et al., 2020). We have previously described the requirement of Notch signalling for TE specification and parathyroid epithelium differentiation, in a manner that is Hedgehog dependent (Figueiredo et al., 2016). In addition, Foxn1 expression was unexpectedly detected in the 2PP, and its expression modulated by Hedgehog signalling, identical to what occurs at 3/4PP (Figueiredo et al., 2016). These findings suggest that Foxn1-expression domains in the distinct endodermal pouches may embody a conserved potential to develop a thymus. In agreement, the thymus derives from different pouches among jawed vertebrates (Rodewald, 2008), and accessory thymi can be found in the cervical region in humans (Norris, 1938; Van Dyke, 1941) and mice (Dooley et al., 2006; Terszowski, 2006).

Considering the known diversity of PP location of the thymic rudiment among vertebrates, we may envisage the existence of a phylogenetically conserved genetic program to "make a thymus" embodied in the endoderm of different PP, independent of their specific anatomical location. This program may be (or not) restricted by differential, yet unknown, molecular cues provided by the adjacent pharyngeal arch (PA) mesenchyme. To test this hypothesis, we took advantage of the modified chick-quail chimera system previously used (Figueiredo and Neves, 2018; Figueiredo and Neves, 2019; Figueiredo et al., 2016). We performed combinatorial heterospecific associations of pharyngeal pouches endoderm with

mesenchyme tissues from several embryonic locations and evaluated the potential to form a functional thymus. Additionally, genome-wide gene expression analysis by RNA-sequencing (RNA-seq) were performed in the different isolated regions of endoderm and mesenchyme. Our results show that non-canonical pharyngeal pouches can generate a morphological and functional thymus upon interactions with permissive mesenchyme. This indicates the existence of a conserved program embodied in the endoderm of different PP, independent of their specific anatomical location. Furthermore, we identify the dorsal region of the 2PA mesenchyme as having inhibitory properties to thymus formation. Transcriptomic analysis revealed a previously unnoticed Hox-code in the prospective thymus rudiment and specific signalling pathways activities according to the distinct mesenchymal environments of pharyngeal arches.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The endoderm of the 2PP has similar thymic potential to the 3/4PP endoderm

During chicken embryonic development, thymic epithelium (TE) derives from the 3/4PP endoderm (canonical pouch). To evaluate the capacity of non-canonical pouches to form a thymus, we started by removing them from their natural environment and associate them with a permissive mesenchyme, the somatopleura mesoderm (SM). The SM capacity to support thymus development at ectopic locations in the embryo was previously demonstrated when grafting 3/4PP endoderm into the body wall of a chicken embryo (Le Lièvre and Le Douarin, 1975; Neves et al., 2012). Using a modified chick-quail chimera system, 2PP endoderm was isolated from quail (q) embryos at embryonic day 3 (E3) and *in vitro* associated with chicken (c) E2,5 somatopleura mesoderm, for 48h (Figueiredo and Neves, 2019; Neves et al., 2012). To evaluate the capacity of this heterospecific association to form a thymus, the 48h-cultured tissues were then grafted into the chorioallantoic membrane (CAM) of a chicken embryo (E8) and allowed to develop *in ovo* for further 10 days (Figueiredo and Neves, 2018; Figueiredo et al., 2016). The CAM behaves as a vascular supplier of nutrients and allows gas exchanges to grafted tissues, enabling their development *in ovo* for longer periods of time. In parallel, associations of 3/4PP endoderm (qE3) with SM (cE2,5) were used as positive control. Morphological analysis of tissues formed in CAM-explants was performed by conventional histology and immunohistochemistry, as previously described (Figueiredo and Neves, 2018; Figueiredo et al., 2016). Endoderm-derived cells were identified by immunohistochemistry using quail-specific antibody, mAb Quail PeriNuclear (QCPN).

Similar to control associations of 3/4PP endoderm, the 2PP endoderm-derived CAM-explants contained fully formed chimeric thymus with cortical and medullary compartments (Figure 1a

and Figure 1d). Quail-derived thymic epithelium displayed a reticular architecture (QCPN+, Figure 1b and Figure 1e) and it was colonized by lymphoid progenitor cells of donor origin (chicken) (Figure 1c and Figure 1f). The presence of CD3+ T-lymphocytes was also confirmed in these ectopic thymic structures. Considering pairwise developmental stage (qE12 and cE15), one in four lymphoid cells of chimeric thymus should express the CD3 marker (Ainsworth et al., 2010); and Figure S1 and Table S1). Similar CD3+ cell numbers were observed in chimeric thymus from 2PP or 3/4PP endoderm-derived CAM-explants (Figure 1c and Figure 1f).

The 2PP endoderm-derived CAM-explants with a fully formed thymus (n=6/6) were identical to those obtained when canonical 3/4PP was tested under the same conditions (n=5/5) (Table 1). These results point to the existence of a conserved program to form a thymus embodied in the endoderm of different PPs, independently of their specific anatomical location. Still, no thymus was formed when 1PP endoderm was associated with SM (n=5/6). Only small epithelial clusters were observed, with scarce CD3+ cells, suggesting a residual potential of this pouch endoderm to develop a thymic-like epithelium (Figure S2).

Remarkably, the 2PP endoderm-derived explants also gave rise to parathyroid glands (n=4/6; Table S2), suggesting an extended conservation mechanism in the formation of both organs, within distinct pouches.

The 2PP and 3PP endoderm share a conserved genetic program

Considering the capacity of 2PP endoderm to give rise to thymus epithelium, we then asked if this endoderm tissue could share a common genetic program with the 3/4PP endoderm. To evaluate this, the anterior endoderm region at qE3 was isolated (Figueiredo and Neves, 2019; Neves et al., 2012) and separated in three regions (Figure 2a): 2PP, 3/4PP and the central territory of anterior endoderm (pharynx), the latter as a negative control to thymic potential. Total RNA was isolated from three biological replicate samples of each region and used to generate libraries for Illumina paired-end mRNA-seq. High quality sequencing datasets were obtained for all samples, with an average 7 million reads mapping uniquely to the quail genome, corresponding to the detection of ~14 500 genes (Supplementary Dataset 1). Analysis of this dataset identified the differentially expressed (DE) genes between the three tissues (Figure 2b). Comparing the pouches' endoderm to pharynx, 555 and 492 up-regulated transcripts (log2FC >0.6, adj pval <0.01) were detected in 2PP and 3/4PP endoderm, respectively (Figure 2c and Figure 2d; the complete list of DE genes can be found in Supplementary Dataset 2). Of these, 262 transcripts were commonly up-regulated in both 2PP and 3/4 PP pouches, with 31 of these genes annotated as encoding Transcription Factors and Regulators (TF&R) (Figure 2c-2e).

A closer examination uncovered 31 up-regulated transcripts encoding Transcription Factors and Regulators (TF&R) common to PP endoderm (Figure 2e).

Considering the ability shown by the 2PP endoderm to mimic 3/4PP endoderm developmental potential, the set of commonly enriched transcripts should reflect a shared genetic program regulating the establishment of a general PP endoderm progenitor population (Figure 2e). One may wonder if a conserved thymic potential is embodied within this genetic program. In effect, various of these up-regulated transcripts encodes TF&Rs that have been shown to play crucial roles in early stages of T/PT organogenesis in mouse, chicken and human, namely EYA1/SIX1 (Li et al., 2003), NOTCH1/GLI3 (Figueiredo et al., 2016) and more recently NEUROD1 (Bautista et al., 2021; Park et al., 2020).

In addition, we found 3 transcripts encoding other TF&Rs, MEOX1, MAFB and FOXI2, which show higher expression in 3/4PP endoderm when compared to 2PP endoderm, suggesting the existence of an "intermediate" stage of commitment into 3/4PP endoderm, starting from the common progenitor. MABF and MEOX1 were mainly identified in parathyroid development (Kamitani-Kawamoto et al., 2011; Magaletta et al., 2022), while FOXI2 was shown to be expressed in PA mesenchyme of chicken embryos (Khatri and Groves, 2013). Conversely, we found 6 transcripts encoding TF&Rs with higher expression in 2PP endoderm (DLX3, EMX2, MSX1, TFAP2A, VGLL and TLX1), which might pinpoint to a similar "intermediate" stage of commitment into 2PP endoderm. Interestingly, TFAP2A acts up-stream of MSX1 and MAFB in neural crest progenitors (Enkhmandakh and Bayarsaihan, 2015), and mutations in this gene cause branchio-oculo-facial syndrome.

Lastly, our data also revealed the existence of a set of 23 transcripts encoding TF&Rs up-regulated in 2PP versus 3/4PP endoderm, and 33 TF&Rs upregulated in 3/4PP versus 2PP (Figure 2e and Figure S3). These two gene-sets may represent a further step into the gene cascade that regulates the acquisition of 2PP and 3/4PP identities.

Several up-regulated transcripts in 3/4PP endoderm encode TF&Rs like GCM2, HOXA3, GATA3, PAX1 and PAX9, which are known to be involved in 3/4PP patterning and T/PT common primordium specification in various animal models [reviewed in (Figueiredo et al., 2020)]. Others transcripts, encoding TF&Rs HOXA2, NKX2-5, MYC, GBX2, SALL1 and PRDM1, were recently detected in immature pharyngeal cells and thymic epithelium progenitors (Magaletta et al., 2022). We note a strong enrichment of transcripts encoding Hox genes in the 3/4PP endoderm, when compared to 2PP endoderm (Figure 3). This observation suggests the existence of a specific boundary in Hox gene expression at the interface between the second and third/fourth pharyngeal arches, likely important to define the identity of each pouch. Finally, we detected

up-regulation of two Notch-targets transcripts in 3/4PP endoderm, HEYL and HES5, pointing to an overlooked involvement of Notch activity in these early stages of thymus organogenesis.

The genetic signature of prospective thymic rudiment in 3/4PP endoderm.

While the previous analysis focused on examining gene expression changes that might underlie the initial acquisition of a thymic potential in the PP endoderm, understanding how thymus development is restricted to the 3/4PP endoderm might be better approached by directly comparing the transcriptomes of the 2PP and 3/4PP endoderm. This analysis revealed that 165 transcripts are upregulated in 3/4PP endoderm when comparing with 2PP endoderm, whereas 353 transcripts are downregulated (Figure 3a, and Supplementary Dataset 2).

inBio Discover analysis of these differentially expressed genes revealed GO-term enrichment mainly in morphogenesis and vascular development (Figure 3b). This analysis also revealed an association of 2PP endoderm up-regulated genes with GO-terms of negative regulation of developmental processes (Figure 3b).

Functional gene annotation identified 34 transcripts encoding TF&Rs specifically up-regulated in 3/4PP endoderm. 10 of these encode HOX TFs (Figure 3c and Figure 3d), and this strong enrichment in Hox gene expression in 3/4PP endoderm re-inforces the hypothesis that there is a clear identity boundary between 2PP and 3/4PP, probably critical for correct thymus specification. Indeed, HOXA2 and HOXA3 have been associated to T/PT formation, and HOXB1, HOXB2, HOXB4 and HOXB5 were recently associated to ultimobranchial body formation in mouse 4PP endoderm (Magaletta et al., 2022).

Of the remaining up-regulated TF&Rs in 3/4PP endoderm, SOX3 was shown to be required for PP formation and consequently to craniofacial morphogenesis (Rizzoti and Lovell-Badge, 2007). The analysis of TF&R genes in 2PP endoderm revealed a set of 40 up-regulated transcripts (Figure 3c and Figure 3d). Of these, GRHL3, TP63, TFAP2A, MSX1, MSX2, TBX10, DLX5 and SOX9 are known to be involved in orofacial cleft disease(Reynolds et al., 2019; Reynolds et al., 2020).

The mesenchyme of the PA modulates thymic potential of PP endoderm.

The capacity of 2PP endoderm to form a thymus when associated with ectopic mesenchyme reveals not only the thymic potential in this region but also that signals from adjacent PA mesenchyme are important to regulate such potential in PP endoderm. The fact that 2PP does not normally give rise to thymus might indicate that the underlying 2PA mesenchyme is unable to promote thymus development, or that it can even provide a local repressive environment for

thymus formation. Conversely, the mesenchyme of 3/4 PA is expected to produce signals that promote thymus formation in the overlying endoderm.

To test these hypotheses, 2PP endoderm was isolated from chicken embryos and associated *in vitro* with 3/4 PA mesenchyme, followed by growth *in ovo*, as described above. As expected, thymus was formed in 2PP endoderm-derived CAM-explants (n=3/3) with the typical thymic characteristics (Figures 4a-c). Similarly, thymus was formed in 3/4 PP and 3/4PA associations (n=3/3, Figures 4d-f). These results confirm the capacity of 3/4PA mesenchyme to promote thymus development.

To test for the presence of thymus-repressive signals in 2PA mesenchyme, its was associated with 3/4PP endoderm. Surprisingly, normal thymus was formed in CAM-explants derived from these associations (n=3/3, Figures 4g-i). Considering that thymic rudiments in chicken embryos emerge at the dorsal domain of 3/4PP, we asked whether the mesenchyme of the arches could have regionalized properties along the dorso-ventral axis. The 2PA mesenchyme was isolated and further sectioned into dorsal (2PAd) and ventral (2PAv) regions, by microsurgical procedures (Figueiredo and Neves, 2019). These sub-regions were then associated with 2PP or 3/4PP endoderm. CAM-explants derived from 2PAv mesenchyme and 3/4PP endoderm associations displayed normal thymus formation (n=3/3, Figures 4j-l). Conversely, only one in six CAM-explants presented thymus when 3/4PP endoderm was associated with 2PAd mesenchyme, revealing its inhibitory properties for thymus formation. This property seems restricted to thymus potential, as parathyroid glands develop in the presence of 2PAd mesenchyme (n=5/5, Table S2). Of notice, the 1PA mesenchyme also showed permissive properties to thymus formation. Tissue associations of 3/4PP endoderm with 1PA mesenchyme were able to form a thymus (n=5/6, Figure S2). Together, these results show that the local mesenchyme of the pharyngeal arches regulates the potential thymic outcome in distinct pouches.

PA mesenchymal signals that regulate PP thymic potential.

To unravel the mesenchyme-derived signals that modulate thymus formation, we performed an unbiased, in-depth transcriptome analysis of isolated mesenchymal tissues from distinct PAs at cE2.5: 3/4PA, corresponding to a microenvironment favouring thymus formation; and the dorsal region of 2PA (2Pad), which we demonstrated as having inhibitory properties to thymus development (Figure 5a). Total RNA was isolated from three biological replicate samples from the two regions and mRNA libraries were generated for paired-end illumina sequencing. High quality RNA-seq datasets were recovered for all samples, with an average of 7.7 million reads mapping uniquely to the *Gallus gallus* genome, corresponding to an average detection of ~15 400 genes (Supplementary Dataset 1). Of these, 532 transcripts were found to be

differentially expressed between 3/4PA and 2PAd with a log2FC >0.6 (adj pval <0.01) (Figures 5b-c, a complete list of genes in Supplementary Dataset 2).

The inBio Discover analysis of Top 5 Gene ontology (GO) – Bio.Process of the 317 upregulated genes in 3/4PA mesenchyme, revealed an enrichment in GO-terms related to vascular development processes (Figure 5d). Similar results were obtained for the 176 upregulated genes in 2PAd mesenchyme. Still, an enrichment in GO-terms related to epithelial to mesenchymal transition (EMT) processes was also identified for these transcripts (Figure 5d).

A detailed inspection of major signalling pathways (VEGF, Retinoid Acid, BMP, Wnt, Notch, EPH-Ephrin, FGF and Hedgehog) was also performed (Figure 5e and Table 2). We found a clear difference in gene enrichment for distinct signalling pathways when the two tissues were compared.

As expected, several transcripts for BMP ligands were up-regulated in the 3/4PA mesenchyme (Bleul and Boehm, 2005; Gordon et al., 2010; Jerome-majewska et al., 2002; Neves et al., 2012; Patel et al., 2006), when compared to 2PAd mesenchyme. Regarding Notch signalling, the observed enrichment of JAG1 expression in the 3/4PP endoderm confirms previous data from our lab (Figueiredo et al., 2016), suggesting an endogenous paracrine effect regulating 3/4PP specification, possibly via NOTCH1, whose expression is enriched in PP endoderm, when comparing with anterior Pharynx endoderm (Figure 2e).

Considering the number of genes found to be annotated to different signaling pathways, we find that the highest number in the 3/4PA mesenchyme is associated to the VEGF pathway followed by the Retinoic acid, BMP and Wnt pathways (in decreasing order).

In contrast, Wnt signalling seems to be the main up-regulated signaling pathway in 2PAd mesenchyme, suggesting its involvement in the inhibitory properties of this tissue (Figure 5e). The exception is WNT5A, which shows much higher expression in 3/4PA mesenchyme. In a comparable developmental process, it was shown that WNT5A secretion by dermal cells leads to autocrine FGF7 expression and consequent induction of FOXN1 expression in hair follicular cells (Hu et al., 2010). Our data also reveals FGF7 as the most enriched FGF-related transcript in 3/4PA mesenchyme, pointing to a similar WNT5A/FGF7/FOXN1 cascade in thymus induction at 3/4PP endoderm, probably mediated by fibroblast growth factor receptor R2-IIIb (Revest et al., 2001).

To search for other signals that may regulate epithelial-mesenchymal interactions during PP endoderm specification, we performed a similar approach exploring gene enrichment for distinct signalling pathways by comparing the 3/4PP and 2PP endoderm (Figure 5f, and Table 3). Notably, the most represented signalling pathways in 3/4PP and 2PP endoderm (Figure 5f) almost mirror the 3/4PA and 2PAd mesenchyme pathway profiles (Figure 5e). Again, transcripts

for Wnt signalling components are enriched in 2PP endoderm, in comparison to 3/4PP endoderm. Together, these results reinforce the hypothesis of the Wnt pathway acting as a silencer at this developmental stage, similar to what is observed in later stages of thymus formation (Swann et al., 2017). As detailed above, a strong correlation was established between up-regulated genes in 2PP endoderm and GO-terms of negative regulation of developmental processes (Figure 3b).

In contrast, VEGF and Retinoic Acid pathways show the highest transcript enrichment in 3/4PP and 3/4PA tissues, suggesting an essential role of these pathways during epithelial-mesenchymal interactions to promote thymus formation. The up-regulation of transcripts for RARB and other RA pathway components (Table 3), accompanied by strong up-regulation of HOX-gene expression (Figures 3c-d) in 3/4PP endoderm, clearly point to a critical role of the RA/Hox gene pathway in establishing the identity of this pharyngeal pouch.

A closer examination of secreted VEGF ligands shows a differential enrichment of VEGFA and VEGFD transcripts in the 3/4PP-3/4PA and 2PP-2PAd environments, respectively. This finding suggests a distinct activation of VEGF pathway to either promote or repress thymus formation. In agreement, VEGFA deletion from thymic epithelial cells disrupts organ blood vessel architecture (Mü et al., 2005).

Finally, specific ligand-receptor interactions of Ephrin signalling are suggested when analysing Ephrin related transcripts that are differentially expressed in 3/4PA − 3/4PP and 2PAd − 2PP environments (Tables 2 and 3). Ephrin signalling is known to participate in several thymus developmental scenarios [reviewed in (Muñoz et al., 2011)] and EFNB2 ligand was shown to be required for thymus migration during organogenesis (Foster et al., 2010). Herein, we identify transcript enrichment for EPHB1 in 3/4PP endoderm, suggesting Ephrin signalling activation by this receptor during 3/4PP endoderm specification.

Overall, our data provide a better understanding of the molecular processes underlying interactions between pharyngeal pouch endoderm and pharyngeal arch mesenchyme that precede thymus formation. This information shall help not only to explore the signals and cellular properties that regulate thymus specification in the embryo, but also to design improved organoid systems that recapitulate epithelial-mesenchymal interactions and lead to efficient ex vivo generation of thymic organs for regenerative purposes.

Isolation of quail and chick embryonic tissues

Fertilised Japanese quail (*Coturnix coturnix japonica*) and chicken (Gallus gallus) eggs were incubated at 38 °C in a humidified incubator and embryos were dissected at specific times of development. Embryos were staged by microscopic examination according to Hamburger and Hamilton stages (HH, Hamburger and Hamilton, 1951) in the chick and to corresponding HH-stages in the quail. Isolation of 2PP and 3/4PP endoderm was performed at embryonic day 3 (E3, HH-stage 21) of quail embryos and at E2.5 (HH-stage 19-20) of chick embryos, as previously described (Figueiredo and Neves, 2019; Le Douarin and Jotereau, 1975; Neves et al., 2012). Briefly, pharyngeal tissues were obtained by treating the wall of the embryonic pharynx with a solution of pancreatin (8 mg/ml, Sigma) for 30–90 min on ice, which allowed separation of pure endoderm from the pharyngeal mesenchyme. Mesenchymal tissues of E2.5–E3 (HH-stages 18–19) chick embryos were dissociated from endodermal and ectodermal tissues by enzymatic digestion with pancreatin using the same procedure described above. Somatopleura tissues were obtained from the embryonic territories at the level of somites 19–24 (Figueiredo and Neves, 2019).

In vitro tissue culture assay

2PP and 3/4PP endoderm were isolated from E3 quail embryos and grown in association with mesenchymal tissues isolated from E2.5 chick embryos, as described (Figueiredo and Neves, 2019; Neves et al., 2012). Different sources of mesenchymal tissues were isolated: Somatopleura mesoderm; 3/4PA mesenchyme; 2PA mesenchyme; ventral territory of 2PA mesenchyme (2PAv); and dorsal territory of 2PA mesenchyme (2PAd). In brief, 2–3 endodermal explants (2PP or 3/4PP endoderm) were combined with 2–3 mesenchymal explants on Nucleopore membrane filters (Millipore) supported by fine meshed metal grids (Goodfellows). The grids were then placed into culture dishes and partly immersed in RPMI-1640 (Sigma) supplemented with 10% FBS (Invitrogen) and 1X Pen/Strep (Invitrogen). The heterospecific associated tissues were cultured for 48 h at 37 °C in a humidified incubator containing 5% CO_2. Following the incubation period, cultured tissues were either used for RNA isolation or grafted on the chorioallantoic membrane (CAM) of E8-chick embryos. Grafted tissues were allowed to further develop in ovo for 10 days in a humidified incubator at 38 °C, as described (Le Douarin and Jotereau, 1975; Neves et al., 2012).

Immunohistochemistry

CAM-derived explants were fixed overnight in 4% paraformaldehyde/PBS at 4°C. Samples were then processed for immunohistochemistry, as described (Figueiredo et al., 2016).

Paraffin sections of explants developed *in ovo* for 10 days were analysed by haematoxylin-eosin staining (H&E) to determine the number, size and morphology of thymic lobes and parathyroid glands formed. Sections of CAM-explants were further treated for immunocytochemistry with the QCPN antibody (for labelling of quail cells), CD3 antibody (Dako M725429-2, for labelling T-lymphoid cells) and anti-pan [Lu-5] Cytokeratin antibody (Pan CK) (Abcam; for labelling epithelial cells), as described (Figueiredo and Neves, 2018; Neves et al., 2012) .

Flow Cytometry

Thymi were isolated from Chicken embryos at specific time points: E11, E12, E13, E15, E17 and E18. Thymocytes suspensions were prepared by mechanically disrupting the thymus by gently pressing the tissue through a fine nylon mesh (pore size 70 μ m) to obtain a single cell suspension. The suspension was then purified by Ficoll density gradient separation (Ficoll- Paque PLUS GE Healthcare Life Sciences), to remove dead cells and red blood cells. Cells were stained using a panel of mouse anti-chicken monoclonal antibodies from Southern Biotech: anti-CD4 FITC (clone CT-4), anti-CD8 FITC (clone CT-8), anti-CD8 PE (clone CT-8) and anti-CD3 PE (clone CT-3) according to manufacturer's instructions. Cells were analyzed on LSR Fortessa cytometer (BD) and data analyzed using FlowJo software (TreeStar).

Microscopy

H&E and immunohistochemistry images were collected using Software Leica Firewire and Leica DM2500 microscope with Leica DFC420 camera.

RNA library preparation

Total RNA from the samples was extracted using a combination of TRIzol reagent (Invitrogen) and RNeasy Mini Kit (QIAGEN) according to the manufacturer's instructions (Figueiredo et al., 2016). RNA samples were obtained from freshly isolated embryonic tissues of quail endoderm at E3 and chicken mesenchyme at E2.5. The isolated endoderm tissues were 2PP endoderm, 3/4PP endoderm and central pharynx region (Pharynx). The isolated mesenchyme tissues were 3/4PA mesenchyme and dorsal territory of 2PA mesenchyme (2PAd). Three replicates of 15-20

explants per sample were generated for each condition. Total RNA samples were validated for concentration and integrity (RIN ≥ 7) and 1 μg of total RNA was used to prepare libraries with the Stranded mRNA Library Preparation Kit according to manufacturer's instructions. Libraries were sequenced on an Illumina Novaseq platform with paired end 150bp reads (acquired as a service to STAB Vida), with an average yield of 25M reads per sample (R1+R2). The raw RNA-Seq datasets are available through the European Nucleotide Archive under the study accession number PRJEB51508 (Gallus gallus dataset) and PRJEB51507 (C. coturnix dataset).

RNA-Seq data analysis

Following quality assessment using FastQC version 0.11.5 (https://www.bioinformatics. babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/), Cutadapt was used to remove sequencing adaptors and trim the first 10 nucleotides (Martin, 2011). The trimmed data was then filtered using in-house developed Perl script in order to remove reads with unknown nucleotides, homopolymers with length ≥50 nt or an average Phred score <30 (Amaral et al., 2014). Remaining reads, corresponding on average to 80% of the raw data, were aligned to the Ensemble genome references Coturnix_japonica_2.0 (GCA_001577835.1) or GRCg6a (GCA_000002315.5) for quail or chicken libraries, respectively. Alignment was performed using STAR version 2.5.0 with the following options: –outFilterType BySJout –alignSJoverhangMin 8 –alignSJDBoverhangMin 5 – alignIntronMax 100000 –outSAMtype BAM SortedByCoordinate –twopassMode Basic – outFilterScoreMinOverLread 0 –outFilterMatchNminOverLread 0 –outFilterMatchNmin 0 – outFilterMultimapNmax 1 –limitBAMsortRAM 10000000000 –quantMode GeneCounts (Dobin et al., 2013). Gene counts were determined using the htseq-count function from HTseq (version 0.9.1) (Anders et al., 2015) in union mode and discarding low quality score alignments (–a 10), using the Ensembl Coturnix_japonica_2.0 or GRCg6a genome annotations. On average, 67% and 77% of the filtered reads from quail and chicken samples mapped to a single genomic location, corresponding to ∼14 500 and ∼15 400 detected genes, respectively. Supplementary Dataset 1 presents the summary information of the RNA-seq datasets.

Clustering of normalized gene counts and Principal Component Analysis (PCA) for exploratory data analysis were performed with the pheatmap R package using the euclidean distance matrix computation of the dist function, and the ggfortify:plotPCA function, respectively.

Differential Expression Analysis (DEA) for RNA-Seq gene counts was performed with the limma Bioconductor package using the voom method to convert the read-counts to log2-cpm, with associated weights, for linear modeling (Law et al., 2014; Ritchie et al., 2015). Differential gene

expression analysis was performed by making all possible comparisons between the three C. japonica experimental conditions or by comparing the two G. gallus experimental conditions, using all available replicate data. Genes showing up or down-regulation with an adjusted *p value* <0.01 and a log2 fold change (log2FC) of |log2FC|>0.6 were considered differentially expressed.

GO analysis to elucidate potential biological processes associated to up-regulated genes in was performed using inBio Discover (Li et al., 2017)

Heatmaps for differentially expressed genes were generated using the pheatmap function from the R pheatmap package with the ward.D or complete clustering method, for all genes or only transcription factors, respectively.

Functional Enrichment Analysis

Functional annotations were downloaded from Ensembl Genes 105 for the quail (Coturnix_japonica_2.0) and chicken (GRCg6a) genes using the integrated Biomart interface. Functional enrichment of differentially expressed genes was performed with the GOfuncR package version 1.14.0 using all the detected genes in our dataset as background and the core function goenrich with default parameters (hypergeometric test, 1000 randomizations), considering as significant as FDR < 0.01.

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CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

The authors declare no conflict of interests.

DATA AVAILABILITY

The 30 raw fastq files of the RNA-seq data generated for this study have been submitted to the European Nucleotide Archive under the umbrella project "Thymus inception" (PRJEB51509), with individual study accession numbers PRJEB51507 (quail dataset) and PRJEB51508 (chicken dataset).

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

HN contributed to the conceptualization, design of experiments, experiment execution and analysis of results. IA and LM carried out the experiments. MGC contributed to the experimental design of the transcriptome profiling and performed the RNA-seq data analysis. VP contributed with technical support. DH and MGC contributed to the analysis of results. HN and DH wrote the manuscript.

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LEGENDS TO FIGURES

FIGURE 1 | Thymus formation in CAM-derived explants of PP endoderm and somatopleura mesoderm associations. Serial sections of thymi stained with H&E (a and d), and immunodetected with QCPN (quail cells) (b and e) and CD3 (T-cells) (c and f) antibodies. Top panel (a-c) - Thymus derived from associations of quail 3PP endoderm with chicken SM. Bottom panel (d-e) - Thymus derived from associations of quail 2PP endoderm with chicken SM. Arrowheads point immunostaining positive cells for QCPN (quail thymic epithelium) and for CD3 (chicken T-cells differentiated in the thymus). CAM, chorioallantoic membrane; E, embryonic day; PA, Pharyngeal Arch; PP, Pharyngeal Pouch; SM, somatopleura mesoderm. Scale bars, 100μm.

FIGURE 2 | Transcriptional profiles of pharyngeal endoderm tissues. a) Schematic representation of distinct endoderm tissues isolated from the embryonic pharyngeal region at qE3. b) Heatmap showing differentially expressed genes in the pharynx, 3/4PP and 2PP endoderm (fold change >0.6 and <−0.6, and *P*-value <0.01). Volcano plots depict differentially expressed transcripts of 3/4PP (c) and 2PP (d) comparing with the pharynx. Red dots highlight transcripts passing the log2FC and adj pvalue cut-offs and blue dots highlights trasncripts with adj pval <0.01. e) Schematic representation of the genetic profile of distinct PP progenitors considering the enrichment of up-regulated transcription factors and regulators when comparing PPs with the pharynx. PP, Pharyngeal Pouch.

FIGURE 3 | Differential gene expression analyses reveal discrete transcriptomic signature of 2PP and 3/4PP endoderm. a) Heatmap showing differentially expressed genes in 3/4PP and 2PP endoderm (fold change >0.6 and <−0.6, and *P*-value <0.01). b) Bar plot depicting inBio Discover analysis of Top 5 Gene ontology (GO) − Bio.Process for 518 genes differentially expressed in 3/4PP and 2PP endoderm. c) Volcano plot depict differentially expressed transcripts of 3/4PP

endoderm comparing with the 2PP endoderm. Red dots highlight transcripts passing the log2FC and adj pvalue cut-offs and blue dots highlights trasncripts with adj pval <0.01. a) Heatmap showing the selected transcription factors and regulators differentially expressed in 3/4PP and 2PP endoderm. ASF, Anatomical structure formation; PP, Pharyngeal Pouch.

FIGURE 4 | Thymus formation in CAM-derived explants of PP endoderm and mesenchyme associations. Serial sections of thymi stained with H&E (a, d, g and j), and immunodetected with QCPN (quail cells) (b, e, h and k) and CD3 (T-cells) (c, f, i and l) antibodies. First panel (a-c) - thymus derived from associations of quail 2PP endoderm with chicken 3/4PA mesenchyme. Second panel (d-f) - thymus derived from associations of quail 3/4PP endoderm with chicken 3/4PA mesenchyme. Third panel (g-i) - thymus derived from associations of quail 3/4PP endoderm with chicken 2PA mesenchyme. Fourth panel (j-l) - thymus derived from associations of quail 3/4PP endoderm with chicken ventral territory of 2PA mesenchyme. Arrowheads point immunostaining positive cells for QCPN (quail thymic epithelium) and for CD3 (chicken T-cells differentiated in the thymus). CAM, chorioallantoic membrane; E, embryonic day; PA, Pharyngeal Arch; PP, Pharyngeal Pouch. Scale bars, 100μm.

FIGURE 5 | Transcriptional profiles of pharyngeal mesenchyme tissues. a) Schematic representation of distinct mesenchyme tissues isolated from the embryonic pharyngeal region at qE3. b) Heatmap showing differentially expressed genes in the 2PAd and 3/4PA (fold change >0.6 and <−0.6, and *P*-value <0.01). c) Volcano plot depict differentially expressed transcripts of 3/4PA comparing with 2PAd. Red dots highlight transcripts passing the log2FC and adj pvalue cut-offs and blue dots highlights trasncripts with adj pval <0.01. d) Bar plot depicting inBio Discover analysis of Top 5 Gene ontology (GO) – Bio.Process for 317 genes differentially expressed in 3/4PA mesenchyme versus 2PAd mesenchyme.

e) Treemap depict up-regulated transcripts of major signalling pathways, VEGF, Retinoid Acid, BMP, Wnt, Notch, EPH-Ephrin, FGF and Hedgehog in 3/4PA and 2PAd. f) Treemap depict up-regulated transcripts of major signalling pathways, VEGF, Retinoid Acid, BMP, Wnt, Notch, EPH-Ephrin, FGF and Hedgehog in 3/4PP and 2PP. CSRSP Cell surface receptor signaling pathway; ETM, epithelial to mesenchymal transition; PA, Pharyngeal Arch; PP, Pharyngeal Pouch.

Figure 1.

Figure 2.

a.

Endoderm Tissues

A
L — R
P

Pharynx

2 PP

3 PP

4 PP

b.

Pharynx | 3/4 PP | 2 PP

c.

-Log₁₀ P

Log₂ fold change

d.

-Log₁₀ P

Log₂ fold change

e.

No. of up-regulated genes
(in relation to pharynx)

293	230
262	262
2 PP	3/4 PP

Transcription factors and
regulators of transcription

23 | 31 | 33

SIX2 NKX3-1 CSRNP1
AP2E MSC RBBP8
ISL2 EYA1 ETV5
PHOX2B SIX1 ZFHX4
NEUROD1 PAX2 GLI3
EMX1 PRRX1 NOTCH1
NEUROD4 HEY2
ZFPM2 INSM1

Common PP
endoderm progenitor

DLX3 TFAP2A
EMX2 VGLL2
MSX1 TLX1

"Intermediate"
State

MEOX1
MAFB
FOXI2

"Intermediate"
State

TBX10 TP73
TFAP2B RUNX1
HAND1 SIX4
IRX4 NKX2-3
ASCL4 ATOH8
IRX6 RUNX1T1
MSX2 FOXG1
SMYD1 LDB2
DLX5 BNC1
ZNF750 KAT2B
TFAP2C RALY
HMX2

2PP
endoderm

Thymic
Potential

3/4PP
endoderm

GCM2 PAX9
HOXA3 HOXD4
GATA3 ESRRG
PAX1 HEYL
MYC SALL1
CITED IRX1
TCF24 DACH1
HES5 RARB
SOX3 HOXA2
FLI ZBTB16
GBX2 NKX2-5
PRDM12 TFCP2L1
ETV4 TSHZ3
IRX2 CBFB
HOXA4 MAK
PRDM1 TSHZ2
HOXB2

Figure 3.

Figure 4.

Figure 5.

Table 1. **Chimeric thymus in CAM-explants.**

Heterospecific association of tissues	2PP endoderm	3/4PP endoderm
Somatopleura mesoderm	6/6	5/5
3/4 PA mesenchyme	3/3	3/3
2 PA mesenchyme	ND	2/3
2 PA mesenchyme - Ventral territory	ND	3/3
2 PA mesenchyme - Dorsal territory	ND	1/5

Number of samples with thymus per total number of samples. ND, Not Done.

Table 2. **Genes of main signalling pathways differentially expressed in PA mesenchyme.**

	3/4PA mesenchyme		2PAd mesenchyme	
Signaling by VEGF (R-HSA-194138)	VEGFA KDR PAK1 CYFIP2 HSPB1 MAPK11 MAPK12	Vascular endothelial growth factor A Vascular endothelial growth factor receptor 2 Serine/threonine-protein kinase PAK 1 Cytoplasmic FMR1-interacting protein 2 Heat shock protein beta-1 Mitogen-activated protein kinase 11 Mitogen-activated protein kinase 12	VEGFD	Vascular endothelial growth factor D
Signaling by Retinoic Ac. (R-HSA-5362517)	RARA CRABP1 ALDH1A2 DHRS3 RDH10 CYP26A1	Retinoic acid receptor alpha Cellular retinoic acid-binding protein 1 Retinal dehydrogenase 2 Short-chain dehydrogenase/reductase 3 Retinol dehydrogenase 10 Cytochrome P450 26A1	CYP26C1	Cytochrome P450 26C1
BMP signaling pathway (GO:0030509)	BMP2 BMP4 BMP6 BMP7 BMP10 GDF6	Bone morphogenetic protein 2 Bone morphogenetic protein 4 Bone morphogenetic protein 6 Bone morphogenetic protein 7 Bone morphogenetic protein 10 Growth/differentiation factor 6	CHRDL1	Chordin-like protein 1
Wnt signaling pathway (GO:0016055)	WNT2 WNT2B WNT5A FZD8 SFRP2 DKK3 CTNND2	Protein Wnt-2 Protein Wnt-2b Protein Wnt-5a Frizzled-8 Secreted frizzled-related protein 2 Dickkopf-related protein 3 Catenin delta-2	WIF1 SFRP1 APCDD1 AXIN2 DAB2 NKD1 TLE1 LGR4 DIXDC1 CPZ LEF1	Wnt inhibitory factor 1 Secreted frizzled-related protein 1 Protein APCDD1 Axin-2 Disabled homolog 2 Protein naked cuticle homolog 1 Transducin-like enhancer protein 1 Leucine-rich repeat-containing G-protein coupled receptor 4 Dixin Carboxypeptidase Z Lymphoid enhancer-binding factor 1
Notch signaling pathway (GO:0007219)	HES5 HOXD3 NEURL1B	Transcription factor HES-5 Homeobox protein Hox-D3 E3 ubiquitin-protein ligase NEURL1B	SNAI2	Zinc finger protein SNAI2
Ephrin signaling (R-HSA-3928664)	EPHA4 PAK1	Ephrin type-A receptor 4 Serine/threonine-protein kinase PAK 1	EFNB1	Ephrin-B1
Signaling by FGFR (R-HSA-190236)	FGF7 FGFRL1 SPRY2	Fibroblast growth factor 7 Fibroblast growth factor receptor-like 1 Protein sprouty homolog 2	FGF19 FLRT3	Fibroblast growth factor 19 Leucine-rich repeat transmembrane protein FLRT3
Hedgehog Signaling Pathway (WP4249)				

Table 3. Genes of main signalling pathways differentially expressed in PP endoderm.

	3/4PP endoderm		2PP endoderm	
Signaling by VEGF (R-HSA-194138)	VEGFA NRP1 PIK3CB PTK2	Vascular endothelial growth factor A Neuropilin-1 Phosphatidylinositol 4,5-bisphosphate 3-kinase catalytic subunit beta isoform Focal adhesion kinase 1	VEGFD PIK3R1	Vascular endothelial growth factor D Phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase regulatory subunit alpha
Signaling by Retinoic Ac. (R-HSA-5362517)	RARB CRABP1 RDH10	Retinoic acid receptor beta Cellular retinoic acid-binding protein 1 Retinol dehydrogenase 10		
BMP signaling pathway (GO:0030509)	CHRDL1	Chordin-like protein 1	GREM2 GDF6 SOSTDC1 TGFBR3	Gremlin-2 Growth/differentiation factor 6 Sclerostin domain-containing protein 1 Transforming growth factor beta receptor type 3
Wnt signaling pathway (GO:0016055)			WNT2B WNT3A WNT6 WNT7B WNT7A WNT9B FZD10 WIF1 AXIN2 APCDD1 DAB2 LEF1 RNF43 KREMEN1 TRABD2A NXN ROR1 TLE1	Protein Wnt-2b Protein Wnt-3a Protein Wnt-6 Protein Wnt-7b Protein Wnt-7a Protein Wnt-9b Frizzled-10 Wnt inhibitory factor 1 Axin-2 Protein APCDD1 Disabled homolog 2 Lymphoid enhancer-binding factor 1 E3 ubiquitin-protein ligase RNF43 Kremen protein 1 Metalloprotease TIKI1 Nucleoredoxin Inactive tyrosine-protein kinase transmembrane receptor ROR1 Transducin-like enhancer protein 1
Notch signaling pathway (GO:0007219)	JAG1 HEYL	Protein jagged-1 Hairy/enhancer-of-split related with YRPW motif-like protein	TP63 SNAI2 KAT2B	Tumor protein 63 Zinc finger protein SNAI2 Histone acetyltransferase KAT2B
Ephrin signaling (R-HSA-3928664)	EPHB1 DNM1 PTK2	Ephrin type-B receptor 1 Dynamin-1 Focal adhesion kinase 1	EFNB2 EPHA1 NGEF KALRN	Ephrin-B2 Ephrin type-A receptor 1 Ephexin-1 Kalirin
Signaling by FGFR (R-HSA-190236)			ANOS1 PIK3R1	Anosmin-1 Phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase regulatory subunit alpha
Hedgehog Signaling Pathway (WP4249)			SHH PTCH1 PTCH2 HHIP LRP2	Sonic hedgehog protein Protein patched homolog 1 Protein patched homolog 2 Hedgehog-interacting protein Low-density lipoprotein receptor-related protein 2