TITLE

Development in context: interferon response networks regulate human fetal thymic epithelial cell differentiation

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ABSTRACT

The thymus instructs T cell immunity and central tolerance, yet its therapeutic potential remains untapped. The quest to regenerate thymic function for clinical application is lagging while the signals that drive thymic epithelial cell differentiation remain incompletely understood. Here, we elucidate pathways instructing commitment and specialization of the human thymic epithelial stroma through complementary single cell transcriptomic approaches. First, we identify gene regulatory networks that define fetal thymic epithelium in the thus far unexplored context of other anterior foregut-derived organs; then, we characterize lineage trajectories within the thymic epithelial compartment across embryonic, fetal, and early postnatal stages. Activation of interferon response gene regulatory networks distinguished epithelial cells of the thymus from those of all other anterior foregut-derived organs. Interferon signals were processed differentially within thymic cortical and medullary lineages, reflected in distinct *NFκB* and *IRF* signatures, respectively. Our study reveals novel, translatable insights into the developmental programs underlying thymic epithelial cell differentiation that may advance the field of regenerative cell therapies.

SUMMARY

Single cell transcriptomics of anterior foregut-derived organs identifies pathways governing thymic epithelial commitment and specialization.

INTRODUCTION

The thymic epithelium comprises a highly specialized set of cells that attract lymphoid progenitors, promote their proliferation and maturation into thymocytes, and facilitate the selection of a diverse, self-tolerant T cell receptor repertoire[1-4]. As such, the thymus is central to the development of the adaptive immune system. Thymic function naturally declines in the second decade of life[5]. In addition, thymic output is susceptible to a wide range of pathogenic insults including medications, radiation, infection and graft-versus-host disease[2,3,6,7]. Endogenous or acquired thymic compromise leads to immunodeficiency, autoimmunity and inflammation[7-9]. Regenerating thymic function, such as through induced pluripotent stem cell (iPSC)-derived thymic epithelial cells, holds great therapeutic promise.

The thymus is derived from the anterior foregut endoderm. During development, the anterior foregut gives rise to the ventrally located respiratory system and the dorsally located esophagus[10]. The anterior-most segment of the foregut develops into the pharyngeal apparatus. Essential to the development of the mammalian pharyngeal apparatus is the out-pocketing of the pharyngeal pouches[11]. The thymic primordium, also referred to as thymus anlage, forms from the ventro-caudal region of the third pharyngeal pouch, while the dorsal aspect gives rise to the parathyroid (Fig. 1A). The signals that induce iPSCs into anterior foregut endoderm have long been described and protocols to differentiate anterior foregut endoderm further into epithelial cells of lung and esophagus *in vitro* have successfully been established[12-17]. Recent studies of murine and human thymus using single cell transcriptomics have greatly expanded our understanding of thymic epithelial cell (TEC) diversity[18-27], yet the signals that drive TEC fate

beyond the anterior foregut stage remain incompletely understood. Elucidating these signals is essential to derive TECs from iPSCs in an effort to enable regenerative cell therapies.

In human embryonic samples, the third pharyngeal pouch transcriptional regulators HOXA3, PAX9, TBX1 and FOXG1 are detected as early as the beginning of post conception week (pcw) 6 and precede the expression of the master thymic transcription factor FOXN1 mid-week 6[28]. Lymphoid progenitors enter the thymus anlage as early as pcw 7[21,28]. At pcw 8, less than 5% of cells in the developing human thymus are of hematopoietic origin (CD45^{+})[23]. In contrast, by pcw 10, more than 90% of cells in the thymus are of hematopoietic orgin[23], highlighting the dramatic expansion of thymocytes (i.e. immature T cell precursors) and other immune cells during thymic development.

Important insights into the developmental programs that instruct thymic organogenesis have been derived from mice with biallelic loss of function mutations in Foxn1, which result in an athymic and hairless (nude) phenotype[29,30]. Thymic development in nude mice arrests before colonization with lymphoid progenitors occurs[31,32]. The thymic rudiment of Foxn1[null] mice displays nonfunctional cystic features strongly resembling respiratory epithelium in morphology and gene expression. It has therefore been suggested that Foxn1 overwrites respiratory cell fate as the default pathway in the anterior foregut[32-35]. Notably, NOD-scid IL2Rg[null] (NSG) mice with genetically impaired immune functions of hematopoietic origin leading to a lack of thymocytes also display distorted thymic architecture with cystic features resembling respiratory epithelium[36]. Although NSG mice do not have cell-intrinsic genetic defects in thymic epithelial cell differentiation, they often exhibit permanently impaired thymic function leading to poor T

cell reconstitution even if healthy hematopoietic stem cells are transplanted later in life[36,37]. This suggests that Foxn1 is necessary but not sufficient to fully induce thymic epithelial cell fate. While thymic defects in NSG mice[36] support that development of thymic epithelial and lymphoid niches during embryogenesis are intertwined, the corresponding gene regulatory networks governing the lymphoid-driven commitment and maturation of the thymic epithelial stroma have not yet been characterized.

Here we identify regulators underlying thymic epithelial differentiation by comparing epithelial cells from human fetal organs of shared anterior foregut origin (thymus, bronchus, lung, esophagus and parathyroid) using single cell transcriptomics. We characterize developmental programs unique to specific TEC subsets by analyzing human samples from embryonic, fetal, and early postnatal stages. Our studies yield translatable insights designed to advance regenerative cell therapy approaches.

RESULTS

Human fetal anterior foregut-derived organs at single cell resolution

Single cell RNA-sequencing (scRNA-seq) was performed on 17 samples from 15 distinct biological specimens. For the comparison of human fetal anterior foregut-derived organs, we sampled midgestation tissues from thymus (pcw 16, 17, 18), airway/bronchus (pcw 16, 17, 18), lung parenchyma (pcw 16, 17,18) and esophagus (pcw 16 and 17). We refer to the comparison of different tissues from the same stage of development as *horizontal* comparison. We also performed *vertical* comparisons between human thymus samples obtained during early gestation (pcw 6, 7), midgestation (pcw 16, 17, 18) and postnatally (age 3 months) to examine lineage

trajectories and epithelial cell diversification within the thymus (Fig. 1A). The earliest thymus samples were used unmanipulated due to very low numbers of thymocytes at this stage of development. At later stages, thymic samples were depleted of CD45^{+} thymocytes. All samples were then enriched for EPCAM^{+} epithelial cells (Fig. 1B). Sample characteristics are summarized in Supplementary Table S1.

Preprocessing and integration of scRNA-seq samples using Seurat yielded a dataset of 52,162 single cell transcriptomes with a mean of 3522 unique genes per cell, and an average of 14,839 total counts per cell. Cells within unsupervised clusters were annotated in concordance with previously published human single cell datasets for thymus[21], respiratory system[38,39] and esophagus[40], respectively.

In fetal thymus, we identified 18 epithelial and non-epithelial cell populations (Fig. 1C). Epithelial cells included cortical thymic epithelial cells (cTEC) and medullary thymic epithelial cells (mTECI). An intertypic mcTEC[21] population with dim expression of cTEC and mTEC markers and uniquely high expression of *CTGF* and *DLK2,* was the third most abundant population. mTECII were characterized by high expression of *AIRE* and *CLDN4*. The medullary TEC subpopulations mTECIII and mTECIV were defined by expression of *KRT1* and *POU2F3,* respectively, which correspond to the post-*AIRE* keratinocyte-like mTEC and Tuft cells in the mouse[19,20,41,42]. The recently characterized neuroendocrine (TECneuro) and muscle-like (TECmyo) TEC populations were also observed[21]. Immune cell clusters within the thymus included a spectrum of developing thymocytes from double-negative (DN) through double-positive (DP) thymocytes to single-positive stages, thymus-resident macrophages and dendritic

cells. Other nonepithelial clusters included vascular smooth muscle cells, aldehyde dehydrogenase-positive fibroblasts (thymic fibroblasts type 1[21]), fibronectin-high fibroblasts (thymic fibroblasts type 2[21]), vascular endothelial cells, lymphatic endothelial cells and neuronal cells (Fig. 1C, D and fig. S1).

Tissues of the bronchus clustered into airway epithelial basal cells and epithelial cells from the adjacent respiratory parenchyma. In addition, the airway microenvironment was comprised of immune cells (B cells, T cells), myoepithelial cells, smooth muscle, vascular smooth muscle, fibroblasts, cartilage, endothelial cells and neuronal cells. Lung tissue expectedly shared many of the same cell types surrounding the airway, albeit in reverse ratios. Cell types not derived from the foregut included neuroendocrine cells, immune cells (B cells, T cells, macrophages), fibroblasts, mesothelial cells, vascular smooth muscle cells, smooth muscle cells, endothelial cells, lymphatic endothelial cells and neuronal cells. The esophageal tissue included epithelial basal cells, suprabasal epithelial and gastric epithelial cells. Nonepithelial cells of the esophagus were comprised of immune cells (T cells, macrophages), smooth muscle, vascular smooth muscle, fibroblasts, endothelial cells and a cluster of neuronal cells (Fig. 1C, D and fig. S1). All identified cell pollutions and their defining markers are summarized in Supplementary Table S2.

Integrated data sets from thymus, bronchus, lung and esophagus revealed shared epithelial, mesenchymal, immune, endothelial, myoepithelial and neuronal clusters regardless of organ of origin (Fig. 1E and fig. S2). To investigate human thymic epithelial fate in the thus far unexplored context of developmentally related epithelia, we subclustered epithelial cells from all anterior foregut-derived organs and identified top differentially expressed genes unique to the

thymus. Expectedly, we detected key markers of thymic development and function, including *PAX1*, *PRSS16, CCL19, CCL25, TBATA*. Unexpectedly, we discovered numerous interferon-inducible or interferon-modulating genes including *IRF1, IFI6, IFI27, IFIT3, MX1, ISG15* and *NFKBIA* with uniquely high expression in epithelial cells of the thymus, raising the possibility that interferon (IFN) exerts unique effects in the developing thymus.

Selective IFN response network activation in TECs

IFNs induce cell intrinsic programs mediating a wide range of biological responses, e.g. through the JAK-STAT pathway[43-45] and NF-κB[46]. To explore the role of IFN signaling during thymic development, we investigated gene regulatory networks across anterior foregut-derived epithelial cells using the single cell regulatory network inference and clustering algorithm SCENIC[47, 48]. Modules, composed of a transcription factor and its inferred targets, are in the following referred to as regulons. UMAP visualization of organ-specific regulon expression distinctly separated the thymic epithelium from epithelial cells of bronchus, lung and esophagus (Fig. 2A). Across all epithelial cells, top differentially expressed regulons specific to the thymus encompassed a broad selection of inflammatory response regulators including IFN regulatory factors (*IRF1, IRF4, IRF6, IRF7, IRF9)*, signal transducer and activator of transcription factors (*STAT1, STAT2, STAT3, STAT5A*), nuclear factor-κB (NF-κB) complex components or modifiers thereof (*NFKB1, NFKB2, RELB, NFATC2, HIVEP1[49])*, and additional modulators of inflammatory response signaling such as *BHLHE40[50]* and *BATF[51]*. Also identified were the key regulators of thymic patterning and development, *FOXN1*, *PAX9*, *FOXG1[28]* and *TP63[52]* (Fig. 2B).

To investigate interactions between individual regulons, a global network of significant connections was constructed using the Leiden algorithm[53,54,55]. This process delineated 7 unique subnetworks (A-G) for which linkage is inferred (Fig. 2C and fig. S3). Modular expression of the transcription factors defining these subnetworks demonstrated organ and cell type specificity for select subnetworks (A-C) while others were broadly shared between organ systems (D-G) (Fig. 2D). Subnetworks A and B were unique to the thymus with subnetwork A defining the primary TEC populations cTEC, mcTEC and mTECI while subnetwork B defined mTECII, mTECIII/IV and TECneuro. Subnetwork A linked the IFN regulatory factor regulons *IRF1, IRF3, IRF7, IRF8* and *IRF9* with the STAT family regulons *STAT1, STAT2, STAT3 STAT5A,* and *STAT6,* the NF-κB family regulons *NFKB1, NFKB2, REL, RELA, RELB,* and the NF-κB modulators *HIVEP1*[49] and *BHLHE40*[50], all of which either transmit or modulate the cellular response to IFNs (Fig. 2E). *IRF8, IRF1* and *NFKB1* regulons comprised most of the interactions found in subnetwork A through co-expression with numerous additional *IRF-*, *STAT-*, and NF-κB-associated regulons unique to thymic epithelium. Notably, the developmental thymic transcription factors *FOXN1* and *FOXG1* were also part of the IFN response-centric subnetwork A and inferred targets of *IRF1* and *IRF8* (Fig. 2E). A biological association between *FOXG1* and IFN signaling has recently been made by a report describing that congenital viral infections recapitulate the spectrum of birth defects found in congenital *FOXG1* syndrome[56]. Together, these observations suggest that an intricate network of IFN regulated signaling pathways is selectively activated during TEC development but not in epithelial cells of other anterior foregut-derived organs.

IFN responses in TECs increase with developmental age

To investigate if alternate methods of analysis would also demonstrate evidence of increased IFN response signaling in the thymic epithelium, we performed Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA) on select anterior foregut-derived epithelial clusters: mcTEC, cTEC, mTECI, mTECII, bronchial epithelial basal cells, esophageal epithelial basal cells and lung bud tip progenitor cells (Fig. 3A). GSEA network visualization of positively enriched gene sets revealed three main clusters (Fig. 3B and fig. S4, S5A). Within the cTEC/mTECI/mTECII cluster, mTECI was highly enriched for genes involved in IFN signaling, cytokine immune signaling, and antigen presentation. Gene sets with core enrichment of MHC genes constituted the remainder of gene sets within the cluster and were enriched in both cTEC and mTECII (Fig. S5B). In a separate cTEC-specific cluster, genes involved in TCR signaling, proteasome peptide processing, cross presentation of exogenous antigens, and IL-1 signaling were enriched. Enrichment of ribosomal and translational gene sets was shared between mcTEC, esophageal epithelial basal and lung bud tip progenitors. To gain a more granular understanding of the effects induced by IFNs we interrogated enriched IFN signaling gene sets for the most differentially expressed genes (Fig. 3C). In addition to the previously noted regulators and transducers of IFN signaling, cTEC, mTECI and mTECII exhibited differential expression of MHC class I and II genes, as well as the IFNγ receptor genes *IFNGR1* and *IFNGR2*. Notably, MHC class I and II are upregulated by IFNγ[57].

IFNα and IFNβ are type I IFNs, IFNγ represents type II IFN[43,58]. To establish a quantifiable measure of IFN responses across queried cell types, we integrated IFN response gene sets into type I and II IFN specific expression modules, hereby referred to as module I and II. At midgestation (pcw 16-18), module I showed highest expression in mTECI while mTECII showed highest expression of module II. In contrast age-matched epithelial cell populations from

bronchus, lung and esophagus showed significantly reduced expression across both modules (Fig. 3D). Early in gestation (pcw 6-7), mcTEC, cTEC, mTECI and mTECII showed higher expression of modules I and II relative to age-matched parathyroid epithelial cells (PTEC) (Fig. 3E). When compared longitudinally across samples of advancing gestational ages, modules I and II demonstrated an increasing trajectory over time (Fig. 3F) paralleling the age-dependent increase in the number of immune cells in the developing thymus.

Antigen presenting cells such as dendritic cells and macrophages are widely recognized producers of type I IFN[59]. Activated T cells, together with NK cells, are widely recognized as producers of type II IFN[60], yet less is known about the capacity of developing T cells to produce type II IFN during human thymopoiesis. To investigate a possible link between the expansion of the lymphoid niche and the increase in type II IFN response in the thymic epithelium over time, we sought to quantify the relative contributions of immune and stromal cells to the production of *IFNG*. Because *IFNG* as well as *IFNA1, IFNA2* and *IFNB1* single cell transcripts largely evaded detection across our data set, we performed bulk RNA-sequencing on magnetic bead-enriched fractions of thymocytes, TEC, bronchial epithelial cells and lung epithelial cells. Thymocyte samples expressed notably higher levels of *IFNG* than epithelial cells from thymus, bronchus or lung suggesting thymocytes were primary producers of IFNγ in the thymus (Fig. 3G). The increase in IFN response during development combined with the higher expression of *IFNG* in thymocytes points to IFNγ as a mediator of the lymphoid-driven maturation of the thymic epithelium.

Modifiers of IFN responses in thymic epithelial subsets

To examine TEC diversification throughout development we integrated TECs from samples of subsequent gestational ages (pcw 6, 7, 16, 17, 18) and 3 months post birth (*vertical* integration). UMAP visualization revealed a new TEC cluster in spatial proximity to mcTEC (Fig. 4A and fig. S6), not identified in our earlier analysis (*Figure 1*). The newly identified population clustered independently due to high differential expression of genes implicated in cell cycle, DNA synthesis and proliferation (*TOP2A, CENPF, NUSAP1, TUBAB1, MKI67*) (fig. S7 and S8) and demonstrated the highest average expression of G2M and S phase gene sets among all clusters (fig. S9). Accordingly, we designated this population cycling TEC (cyTEC). CyTEC were most predominant in the earliest (embryonic) samples and decreased in frequency with increasing developmental age. mTECII showed a relative increase in frequency over time but remained infrequent compared to mTECI. mTECIII/IV largely appeared after birth (Fig. 4A, left).

Retinoic acid signaling plays an important role in vertebrate morphogenesis, specifically in the patterning of the pharyngeal pouches[61-63]. Moreover, the retinoic acid and IFN signaling axes intersect, with retinoic acid augmenting the effect of IFN[64]. To investigate differences in retinoic acid metabolism in thymic epithelial subsets, we integrated a curated set of developmentally relevant retinoic acid genes[65,66] into expression modules for (I) retinoic acid synthesis, (II) retinoic acid nuclear receptor activity and (III) retinoic acid degradation (Fig. 4B). There were no gross differences in the retinoic acid synthetic capacity across analyzed TEC subsets. Retinoic acid nuclear activity showed lowest expression in AIRE-positive mTECII but peaked in post-AIRE mTECIII/IV. cTEC had a considerably higher expression of the retinoic acid degradation module (Fig. 4C). Retinoic acid degradation in cTEC, mcTEC and mTECI declined substantially

during transition from early to midgestation (Fig. 4D). These data suggest distinct TEC subsets differentially metabolize retinoic acid.

Histone acetyltransferases and histone deacetylases (HDACs) are regulators of chromatin remodeling that can alter IFNα- and IFNγ-inducible transcription[67,68]. Recently, Hdac3 has been described as master regulator of murine mTEC development[69], yet little is known about HDAC specificity in human TECs. Therefore, we examined *HDAC1-8* in our dataset. *HDAC4* showed uniquely high expression in cTEC that peaked midgestation and persisted after birth (Fig. 4E). CyTEC showed highest expression of *HDAC1*; mcTEC showed a similar HDAC profile as cyTEC, albeit confined to a smaller fraction of cells. The most highly expressed HDACs in mTECIII/IV and TECmyo/neuro were *HDAC5* and *HDAC2,* respectively. To corroborate preferential expression of *HDAC4* in cTEC, we performed IHC on human fetal thymus. HDAC4 preferentially colocalized with the cTEC marker PSMB11 (Fig. 4F), supporting our transcriptional findings. Distinct retinoic acid metabolism and HDAC expression profiles in individual TEC subsets raise the possibility that diverse TEC populations process IFN signals differentially.

Patterns of peripheral tissue antigen expression

Central tolerance is induced in the thymus through negative selection of autoreactive T cells[70,71]. Negative selection of T cells recognizing peripheral tissue antigens (PTAs) is enabled by the TF *AIRE*[72]. To investigate signatures of PTA expression and their relationship to *AIRE*, we subclustered the medullary subpopulations mTECII, mTECIII/IV, TECmyo and TECneuro within the *vertical* dataset. mTECII and mTECIII/IV separated distinctly from the TECmyo and

TECneuro populations (Fig. 5A). Further increase in granularity delineated six populations, including immature *AIRE*[low] mTECII (*CCL19*), cycling mTECII (*TOP2A*), mature *AIRE*[high] mTECII, post-*AIRE* mTECIII/IV (*SPINK5*), muscle-like TEC (*ACTA1*) and neuroendocrine-like TEC (*BEX1*) (Fig. 5B). Mature *AIRE*[high] mTECII and post-*AIRE* mTECIII/IV populations significantly increased in frequency throughout the observed developmental interval, while muscle and neuroendocrine-like TEC did not expand notably beyond midgestation (Fig. 5C and D). Maturation and specification of medullary TECs from mTECI to mature *AIRE*[high] mTECII stages was marked by decreasing *CCL19* and *TP63* expression. *AIRE*^{high} mTECII cells exclusively co-expressed *AIRE* and *FEZF2*. mTECIII/IV were high in *SPINK5* and *IVL* indicating their post-*AIRE* provenance[19,42,73]. Defining signatures in post-*AIRE* TECs included *GRHL1*, *GRHL3* and *KRTDAP*, denoting the keratinocyte-like state of mTECIII, while *POU2F3* indicated the emergence of Tuft-like cells (mTECIV)[19,20,42]. Neuroendocrine-like TEC (*NEUROD1)*, and muscle-like TEC (*MYOG1)* exhibited minimal keratinization and absent *FOXN1* expression but were high in *EPCAM*, supporting their epithelial nature (Fig. 5E). To assess if the transcriptional signatures defining TECmyo and TECneuro represent stable cellular phenotypes or isolated, possibly promiscuous gene expression, we probed for transcription factor-target gene interactions using SCENIC. Muscle and neuroendocrine-like TECs showed full expression of muscle- (*MYOD1, MYOG1, MEF2A, MEF2C, TEAD4, MYF6*) and neuroendocrine-specific (*NEUROD1, NEUROD2, SOX4, SOX11, POU4F1, NPDC1, ZEB1*) regulons, respectively (Fig. 5F), while *AIRE*-positive and post-*AIRE* medullary TECs did not express comprehensive sets of peripheral tissue defining regulons. Mature *AIRE*[high] mTECII displayed highest MHC class I and II expression (Fig. 5G), in line with their highest type II IFN module score (Fig. 3D), whereas muscle and neuroendocrine-like TECs expressed low levels of

MHC class I and no MHC class II (Fig. 5G). These findings point to divergent patterns of PTA expression in discrete thymic epithelial cell subsets. Absent expression of MHC class II molecules combined with low expression IFN response regulons (Fig. 2D) in TECmyo and TECneuro point to an IFN-independent developmental trajectory.

Distinct IFN response networks direct cortical and medullary lineage specification

To dissect the transcriptional sequences that give rise to cortical and medullary thymic epithelial lineages across the *vertical* dataset, we employed tSpace, an algorithm optimized to elucidate developmental pathways from high-dimensional datasets[74]. The tSpace projection rendered an mcTEC-centric view of the thymus with cTEC and mTECI populations flanking mcTEC on both sides (Fig. 6A and fig. S10). Using Slingshot[75] on the core populations cyTEC, mcTEC, cTEC and mTECI, we inferred two distinct trajectories along pseudotime, denoting cortical (trajectory 1) and medullary lineages (trajectory 2) (Fig. 6B). Notably, the trajectories originated at the cyTEC population but did not branch until midway through the mcTEC cluster.

To explore transcriptional drivers directing the cortico-medullary lineage bifurcation, we investigated dynamic changes in gene expression along lineage trajectories using tradeSeq[76]. Gene expression was modeled along defined points (knots) in pseudotime. To uncover early signals that demarcate the cortico-medullary lineage branchpoint, we identified genes with differential expression across the immediate bifurcation (pseudotime region between knots 2 and 3). The key thymic regulators *PAX1* and *FOXN1*, together with *NFKB1* and *ASCL2,* demonstrated increased expression early along the cortical trajectory, whereas *IRF7*, *IRF9*,

STAT1, the IFN-stimulated antigens *SP100*, *SP110*, and the immunomodulator *BHLHE40*[50]

showed an early medullary increase in expression (Fig. 6C and fig. S11).

To obtain a global view of the gene regulatory networks governing the divergent maturation of

cTEC and mTECI, we applied SCENIC to populations with the highest canonical cortical

(cTEC^Hi) and medullary (mTECI^Hi) lineage marker expression (fig. S12). Significant interactions

between cTEC^Hi and mTEC^Hi markers and regulon-defining transcription factors were visualized

in a network which formed distinct cortical and medullary clusters (Fig. 6D). In the cortical

cluster, notable transcription factors with abundant target gene cross talk with cortex-defining

markers included the basic helix-loop-helix-leucine zipper (bHLH-Zip) *SREBF1*, along with

FOXN1, *NFKB1* and *ASCL2*, which shared interactions with *HDAC4*, the retinoic acid-binding

and metabolizing proteins *FABP5* and *CYP26B1*, the thymic regulators *PAX1* and *TBATA* and

other cTEC-defining markers such as *CXCL12* and *LY75*. Within the medullary cluster, *IRF1*,

IRF7, IRF9, STAT1 and *STAT2* shared abundant targets including the type II IFN response genes

CXCL9 and *CXCL10,* along with *CXCL11, CCL19, CCL21,* and multiple *KRT* genes.

Upregulation of ribosomal proteins was unique to mTECI. To gain insights into the maturation

of AIRE-positive TECs, we specifically evaluated the differential expression of regulons along

the region of pseudotime corresponding to the onset of *AIRE* expression (Fig. 6E and fig. S13).

The *AIRE*-targeting regulons *SPIB, SPIC, CREB3L1, IKZF1*, *POU2F3* and *RELB* exhibited a

steady gain in expression along the extended medullary trajectory, followed by a brisk increase

in *AIRE, TFAP2A* and *MSC* expression that marked the mTECII stage. This was paralleled by a

sharp decline in *JUNB, FOSB, EGR1, TP63* and *TP73*. Notably, *SPIB, SPIC, CREB3L1, IKZF1*

and *POU2F3* shared *FEZF2* and *AIRE* as target genes, while *FEZF2* emerged as *AIRE's* most

highly co-expressed target gene (Fig. 6F and fig. S14). MHC class I and II expression demonstrated consistent transcriptional gain along the medullary trajectory (Fig. 6G).

Using different computational models at varied points along pseudotime, *FOXN1, ASCL2, PAX1* and *NFκB1* consistently emerged as gene regulatory networks preferentially governing cortical lineage development while an activation of the interferon regulatory factor networks was predominantly observed in the medullary lineage. The expression of well-described signature genes defining cortical and medullary TEC validated the analysis.

DISCUSSION

Progress in genomic analysis methods has redefined our concept of thymic epithelial architecture. The goal of this study was to understand the dynamic signals that drive thymic fate and lineage diversification during development. Unlike prior studies which solely focused on the thymus, we sought to gain novel insights by studying thymic development in an unprecedented context. Comparing human fetal epithelial cells from different anterior foregut-derived organs, we provide evidence that type I and II IFNs exert inductive signals on the thymic epithelial stroma. We further show that the pervasive effects of IFNs extend differentially into the thymic epithelial compartment, reflected in characteristic *NFκB* and *IRF* signatures specific to cortical and medullary lineages. Previous studies pointed to an activation of the TNF signaling axis, mediated by CD40 and RANK, during medullary TEC development[77,78]. These signals were shown to stimulate the NFκB pathway and proved essential for various aspects of mTEC fate and function[77,79,80]. Our data highlights a central role for type I and II IFNs during thymic morphogenesis with IRFs, STATs and NFκB emerging as downstream mediators that fine-tune

IFN responses along cortical and medullary lineage trajectories. How exactly the global effects of type I and II IFNs are differentially mediated in cTECs and mTECs, is subject to ongoing investigations. Multiple lines of inquiry exist: Retinoic acid is known to increase the effect of type II IFN[64]. Type II IFN, in turn, has been shown to selectively increase the expression of *IRF1* and *STAT1*[81-83]. Our data indicates that retinoic acid is preferentially degraded in cTECs, which could explain the relatively lower average expression of IFN target genes in the cortex relative to the medulla. A similar rationale applies to HDACs as regulators IFN-inducible transcription[67,68]. Hence, we posit that differential expression patterns in genes altering the IFN response, along with other cytokines and their receptors, orchestrate spatially distinct niches within the thymus that ultimately give rise to diverse TEC subsets. However, this framework does not preclude that subtle differences in patterning underlying the thymic cortex and medulla precede the recruitment of IFN-releasing hematopoietic elements into the thymus and contribute to the higher baseline expression of *FOXN1*, *PAX1* and *ASCL2* in the cortex.

Starting at midgestation, the medullary lineage represents the largest fraction of TECs, highlighting its importance in negative selection. Negative selection must "anticipate" that T cells will encounter PTAs. This was originally believed to occur by cellular mimicry of medullary TECs resembling peripheral tissues[84]. The concept was largely abandoned with the discovery of the transcription factor Auto Immune Regulator (AIRE) in a subset of medullary TECs[72]. AIRE's function is unique in that it triggers PTA expression independent of target-sequence specificity by leveraging chromatin plasticity[85]. FEZF2 has been described as an additional regulator of PTA expression[86], although its mechanistic underpinnings remain less clear[87]. Together, AIRE and FEZF2 are thought to account for approximately 60% of PTA

expression[134], raising the question where the remaining PTA expression originates from. A recent study found that small numbers of mTECs with high PTA expression displayed distinct motif enrichments for lineage-defining transcription factors in a manner that was only partially Aire-dependent[42]. These findings led to the hypothesis that mTECs co-opt lineage defining transcription factors to induce tolerance[88]. We did not identify such motif enrichment in our human data set; however, our study suggests that AIRE-dependent PTA expression is an evolving process that may not yet be fully completed at birth. Of all queried TEC subsets, mature *AIRE^high* mTECII showed the strongest IFNγ response signature, while IFN signaling did not seem to play a role in the development of TECmyo and TECneuro. In stark contrast to mature AIRE-positive TECs, TECmyo and TECneuro mimicked native muscle and neuroendocrine tissue signatures but lacked *FOXN1* expression, known post-AIRE markers, antigen presenting molecules and significant keratinization. These findings point to divergent patterns of AIRE-dependent and possibly AIRE-independent PTA expression in discrete thymic epithelial cell subsets.

Recently, a role for IL1b in the development of lung epithelial cells has been described[89]. Our work expands the emerging concept that local immune cell niches are essential for the development of different epithelial organs.

Between the extended maturation of the thymic medulla, i.e. mTECII/III/IV expand further after birth, and the involution of the thymus in the second decade of life, the window of thymic peak performance is short-lived. In addition, genetic defects and a myriad of iatrogenic and biological insults to the thymus can compromise its structural integrity and function. This underscores the

urgent need for therapies to regenerate thymic tissues. Our study dissecting the transcriptional framework underlying commitment and specialization of the human thymic epithelial stroma during development reveals novel regulators of thymic epithelial differentiation and may offer actionable insights to advance the differentiation of thymic epithelial cells *in vitro*.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Tissue Acquisition

Human fetal tissues from thymus, bronchus, lung and esophagus were obtained under Stanford School of Medicine IRB-approved protocols from the Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology at Stanford Hospital. Samples were derived from deidentified fetal tissue donations with written informed consent after elective termination of pregnancy. The study does not qualify as human subjects research, as defined by the Stanford School of Medicine IRB. Single cell transcriptomic data from pcw 6-7 samples was obtained in collaboration with the laboratory of Prof. Sarah Teichmann, from the MRC/Wellcome Trust-funded Human Developmental Biology Resources (HDBR, http://www.hdbr.org). Developmental age at embryonic stages up to pcw 8 was estimated using the Carnegie staging method (Molecular Genetics of Early Development, ISBN 1859960316). Sample C41 was originally estimated to be pcw 8 by the Carnegie staging method but was corrected to pcw 6 by comparison to other samples in the dataset. In fetal samples, developmental age was estimated from measurements of foot length and heel to knee length, compared against a standard growth chart[90], and matched with the gestational age.

Tissue Digestion

Human fetal thymus and lung samples (pcw 16 -18) were mechanically dissected into <2 mm^3 pieces using surgical scissors. Human fetal bronchus and esophagus samples (pcw 16 -18) were opened longitudinally and mechanically scraped with scalpel to harvest the inner epithelial layer of bronchus and esophagus, respectively. All tissue samples were enzymatically digested with DNAse (10 mg/ml) and Liberase (2.5 mg/ml, Sigma Aldrich) per 10 g tissue using a tissue dissociator (gentleMACS, C tube, program m_spleen_02 (Miltenyi), 1-3 runs depending on tissue). Tissue fragments were transferred to a 50 ml tube and incubate at 37°C for 20 min. Cells were pelleted at 110 g, at RT for 2 min and resuspended in 10 ml PBS. For persisting fragments, the procedure was repeated 1-2 times to yield single cells. Cells were resuspended in MACS buffer (PBS, 1 % BSA, 2 mM EDTA), filtered through a 100 um cell strainer and counted.

Epithelial Cell Enrichment

For fetal thymic tissue (16-18 pcw) only, cell suspension was depleted of thymocytes and other immune cells using Human CD45 MicroBeads (Miltenyi) and LD depletion columns (Miltenyi), 10^8 cells/column, according to the manufacturer's instructions. Single cell suspensions of all tissues, (CD45-depleted thymus, bronchus, lung, and esophagus) were enriched for epithelial cells using Human CD326 (EPCAM) Microbeads and LS positive selection columns (Miltenyi) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Quality control for thymocyte depletion and epithelial cell enrichment for thymic single cell suspensions was performed by flow cytometry on FACSAria II with CD45-APC, CD3-FITC, CD205-PE, EPCAM-APC, and Live Dead-Near InfraRed-APC-Cy7 prior to MACS purification. Due to epitope blockage from magnetic bead antibodies, additional markers, i.e. CD7-AF647 (thymocytes) and CD105-PerCP/Cy5.5 (thymic mesenchymal cells) were used to assess post enrichment purity.

scRNAseq Library Preparation and Sequencing

Gel-Bead in Emulsions (GEMs) were generated from single cell suspensions using the 3′ V3

chemistry and Chromium microfluidics system (10X Genomics). After reverse transcription,

barcoded cDNA was extracted from the GEMs by Post-GEM RT-cleanup and amplified for 12

cycles. Amplified cDNA was subjected to 0.6x SPRI beads cleanup (Beckman, B23318). 25% of

the amplified cDNA was subjected to enzymatic fragmentation, end-repair, A tailing, adaptor

ligation and 10X specific sample indexing as per manufacturer's protocol. Libraries were

quantified using Bioanalyzer (Agilent) analysis. Libraries were pooled and sequenced on a

NovaSeq 6000 instrument (Illumina) using the recommended sequencing read lengths of 28 bp

(Read 1), 8 bp (i7 Index Read), and 91 bp (Read 2).

scRNA-seq data processing

Single cell data were aligned to human genome library. After genome alignment and filtering for

mitochondrial content and number of genes/reads per cell, the data was normalized with

regularized negative Binomial regression using Seurat V.4.0[91]. Cells from different samples were

then combined using integration anchors[92]. The dataset was organized by performing PCA

dimensionality reduction on the 3000 most variable genes followed by unsupervised Louvain

clustering on the 50 top principal components and visualized using Seurat's UMAP function.

Cumulative (bulk) RNA-seq Preparation and Sequencing

Total RNA was extracted from thymocytes and EPCAM positive-selected epithelial cells from

thymus, bronchus and lung samples using the Qiagen RNeasy kit. Libraries were prepared from

Total RNA using the SMART-Seq v4 Ultra low Input RNA kit (Takara Bio) and quantified using Bioanalyzer (Agilent) analysis. Libraries were pooled and sequenced on a NovaSeq 6000 instrument (Illumina) at 20 million paired reads per sample.

Cumulative (bulk) RNA-seq processing and analysis

Bulk RNA-seq FASTQ data were processed through latch.bio, a cloud data platform to provide computing infrastructure and visualization tools for biological data analysis. The resulting count matrix was analyzed using the standard DESeq2/1.36.0 workflow. Normalized gene counts were visualized using ggplot2/3.40.

Differential gene expression

Differential gene expression between single-cell clusters was determined using the FindAllMarkers function within Seurat.

Single Cell Heatmap

The top 60 differentially expressed genes (DEGs) specific to fetal thymic epithelial cells compared to fetal epithelial clusters of all other organs were identified ($p<10^{-300}$). Downsampled cluster expression (30 cells per cluster using R's sample function) of DEGs was visualized using Seurat's DoHeatmap function.

Gene set analysis

Gene sets were obtained from the Molecular Signature Database (MSigDB) curated C2 dataset[58]. We then performed gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) using these sets and differential gene

expression between annotated single-cell clusters as determined in Seurat. GSEA was performed with clusterProfiler/4.5.1.902 using the GSEA function ($p<0.05$). In order to visualize biological themes, we created a network representation of positively enriched gene set expression across single-cell clusters. In these networks, gene sets represent nodes and edges are drawn between nodes based on the proportion of shared genes between them (Jaccard similarity coefficient = 0.2). Each node is then colored proportionally by the relative enrichment of that gene set in each single-cell cluster. Gene set network visualization was performed using enrichplot/1.17.0.992[59].

Module scores

We determined gene module scores by applying the AddModuleScore function within Seurat to gene lists of interest.

Gene regulatory network inference

The single cell regulatory network inference and clustering algorithm, SCENIC, was used to identify transcription factor (TF) regulons as previously described[47, 48]. Prior to pySCENIC/0.12.0 input (Python/3.9.0), log1p normalized expression matrices were filtered to remove low quality genes according to an average expression threshold value across all cells of 0.01.

In brief, sets of genes that are co-expressed with TFs are identified during SCENIC's first step using the GRNBoost2[93] algorithm. Then, each potential TF-target interaction was subjected to *cis*-regulatory motif analysis to detect putative direct-binding targets during the RcisTarget step. Interactions with significant motif enrichment of the respective upstream TF were retained while indirect targets lacking motif support were removed. Lastly, predicted regulons and an

aggregate of their targets from all potential motifs were used to determine cellular enrichment for each regulon during the AUCell step.

SCENIC AUCell Seurat Integration

SCENIC's AUCell output matrix was passed into Seurat/4.3 and normalized across features using Seurat's centered log ratio transformation. The data was subjected to a standard Seurat processing pipeline consisting of FindVariableFeatures(), ScaleData(), followed by RunPCA(). UMAP dimensionality reduction was carried out using the top 15 principal components for fetal anterior foregut epithelial cells. Differential regulons were identified with a log2fc.threshold = 0.01.

SCENIC Network Visualization

The network visualization found in Figure 2C was made using the RcisTarget output of fetal anterior foregut epithelial cells. An adjacency matrix was constructed by drawing an edge if a regulon-defining TF was the target of another regulon-defining TF. To filter the network for the most highly co-expressed interactions, only interactions with a GRNBoost2 importance score >10 were retained (970 interactions out of a total of 7522). The resultant edge list was then passed into igraph/1.3.5 and clustered using igraph's cluster_leiden function (resolution = 1). The network visualization found in Figure 6D was made using the RcisTarget output of cTEC and mTECI cells from all developmental stages with high canonical marker expression (*PRSS16* and *CCL19* log1p normalized expression value > 4). Seurat's FindMarkers function was used to identify DEGs between populations (400 marker genes per population, $p<10^{-30}$). An adjacency matrix was constructed by drawing an edge if a regulon defining TF targeted a marker gene.

Highly co-expressed interactions were retained using a GRNBoost2 importance score >5 (1027 interactions out of a total of 5763). Only regulons with a minimum of 5 interactions were visualized. The network visualization found in Figure 5F was made using the RcisTarget output of mTECII, mTECIII/IV, and TEC myo/neuro cells from all developmental stages. Seurat's FindMarkers function was used to identify DEGs between muscle-like and neuroendocrine-like clusters ($p<10$^-10). If a regulon-defining TF had >= 15 targets that intersected with the top 50 markers of either population, an edge was drawn. Highly co-expressed interactions were retained using a GRNBoost2 importance score >5 (300 interactions out of a total of 417). Network visualization of all networks was done using igraph/1.3.5, ggplot2/3.40, and ggnetwork/0.5.12.

Trajectory and pseudotime analysis

We utilized tSpace/0.1.0 [60] to represent continuous relationships between single-cell expression profiles. In brief, tSpace determines cellular distances based on the shortest path between cellular k-nearest neighbor (KNN) subgraphs using the Wanderlust algorithm. These distances were then reduced using uniform manifold approximation and projection (UMAP). We then fit principal curves through dimensionally reduced tSpace data using slingshot/1.8.0 and SingleCellExperiment/1.12.0. Cycling TEC were selected as the starting-point cluster, while end-point clusters were not specified. We then extracted principal curve coordinates and cellular pseudotime values based on the resulting principal curves.

Modeling gene expression along pseudotime

We utilized tradeSeq/1.4.0[61] to build a negative binomial generalized additive model of single-cell gene expression and SCENIC AUCell values along pseudotime. This allowed for statistical

testing of both within-trajectory and between-trajectory gene expression differences as well as smoothing of gene expression along pseudotime for the purpose of visualization. The earlyDETest function was used to identify the key differential TFs between lineages 1 and 2 across knots 2-3. The 40 TFs with the highest Wald Statistic value ($p<0.05$) were visualized. Tradeseq's startVsEndTest function was used to identify within-lineage differentially expressed regulons along a pseudotime range corresponding to the onset of *AIRE* expression (medullary lineage, pseudotime range 22-28). The pseudotime range corresponding to the onset of *AIRE* expression was determined visually (Figure S14B). Regulons with a $p<0.05$ were visualized.

Trajectory Heatmap Construction

Scaled expression values (Seurat's ScaleData function) and quantile scaled (SCORPIUS/1.0.8 scale_quantile function) SCENIC Regulon AUC values were used to construct expression matrices along Slingshot pseudotime. The rolling average of these matrices (zoo/1.8-11) were then passed into pheatmap/1.0.12 for visualization.

Co-expression Heatmap Construction

Inferred interactions between a regulon-defining TF and its target were identified using SCENIC's RcisTarget output. These interactions were visualized according to co-expression values (GRNBoost2's importance score) using ggplot2/3.40.

Immunohistochemistry and confocal imaging

Paraffin-embedded human fetal thymus tissues were deparaffinized in xylene and rehydrated with ethanol solutions of decreasing concentrations until a final wash step with milliQ water.

Antigen retrieval was performed with IHC-Tek™ Epitope Retrieval Solution (#IW-1100-1L, IHC World) using steam. Tissue slices were permeabilized with permeabilization solution (PBS, 0.2%TritonX-100) for 30 minutes at room temperature, blocked with PBS containing 10% of Donkey Serum (DS) and 1% Bovine Serum Albumin for 1 hour at room temperature, and incubated with primary antibodies (see table 1 for reference) diluted in PBS with 1% DS in a humid chamber for 16 hours at 4˚C. Slides were washed with PBS and incubated with fluorescently-labeled secondary antibody for 1 hour at room temperature. After subsequent washes with PBS, tissue autofluorescence was quenched with Vector TrueVIEW Autofluorescence Quenching Kit (# SP-8400, Vector Labs). Nuclei were stained with 5 μg/ml of DAPI in PBS for 10 minutes at room temperature. Slides were mounted with VectaMount. Tissue visualization and image collection was performed using a Leica Stellaris 5 Confocal microscope and LAS X software (Leica Microsystems). All images were acquired using 40X (HC PL APO CS2, NA 1.30) or 63X (HC PL APO CS2, NA 1.40) oil-immersion objectives.

Table 1. List of Antibodies

Antibody	Dilution	Source	Identifier
Mouse anti-human Histone deacetylase 4 (HDAC4)	1:50	Santa Cruz	sc-46671
Mouse anti-rabbit Pan-Keratin	1:100	Santa Cruz	sc-81714
Rabbit anti-human PSMB11	1:50	Abcam	ab170832
Rabbit anti-human Keratin 5	1:100	Biolegend	905501
Donkey anti-rabbit Alexa Fluor 488	1:500	Abcam	ab150073
Donkey anti-mouse Alexa Fluor 647	1:500	Abcam	ab150107

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

A.M., A.G., and K.G.W. interpreted the data and wrote the manuscript. The experiments were

designed, performed and analyzed by A.M., B.S., A.G., and K.G.W.. P.F.S, K.M.H., H.D.N.,

W.W., M.A., D.K.K., M.C. and C.Y.Y. performed additional experiments and bioinformatic data

processing. V.W., S.T., J.P. and V.K. provided samples and analytical input. G.A.H., C. G., V.S.,

and P.K. reviewed design, bioinformatic analysis and edited the manuscript.

COMPETING INTERESTS

None

DATA AVAILABILITY

Single cell RNA-seq data was deposited in GEO with accession number GSE212244. Bulk

RNA-seq data was deposited in GEO with accession number GSE241479. All code is available

at the following Github repository: https://github.com/abdulvasey/Thymic-Development-Figures.

All other data needed to support the conclusions of the paper are present in the paper or the

Supplementary Materials.

Figure 1. Cellular composition of human fetal anterior foregut-derived tissues.

(A) Ontogeny of anterior foregut-derived organs. Thymus, bronchus, lung, esophagus and parathyroid arise from the endodermal germ layer (PPEIII, third pharyngeal pouch endoderm) (top). Summary of samples including developmental age and tissue of origin. Colors denote tissue type (thymus, orange; bronchus, blue; lung, green; esophagus, pink; parathyroid, grey) (bottom). (B) Workflow of cell processing and quality control prior to transcriptional profiling. (C) UMAP visualization of human anterior foregut-derived tissues colored by cell type (DN, double negative thymocytes; SP/DP, double positive/single positive thymocytes; Mac, macrophages; Dend, dendritic cells; Fib, fibroblasts; Cyc, cycling; VSMC, vascular smooth muscle cells; SM, smooth muscle cells; Cart, cartilage; V Endo, vascular endothelial cells; L Endo cells, lymphatic endothelial cells; Neu, neuronal cells; Epi, epithelial cells; Submuc, submucosal cells; Sec, secretory cells; MC, multiciliated; BTP, bud tip progenitor cells; adj, adjacent; NE, neuroendocrine cells). Dotted line denotes epithelial clusters. (D) Dot plot of select, cell type-defining genes in individual anterior foregut-derived tissues. Here and onwards, color represents average expression of marker genes in each cell type. Dot size represents percentage of cells in each cell type expressing the selected marker gene (T, thymus; B, bronchus; L, lung; E, esophagus; Mesen, mesenchymal; En, endothelial; N, neuronal). (E) UMAP visualization of integrated anterior foregut-derived tissues at the fetal stage of development (horizontal integration), colored by organ of origin. (F) Heat map of the top thymic epithelial differentially expressed genes (DEGs) across all epithelial clusters from (C) downsampled to 30 cells per cluster.

Figure 2. Differential gene regulatory analysis across anterior foregut-derived epithelial cells.

(A) UMAP visualization of SCENIC transcription factor regulons in all fetal epithelial cells colored by tissue of origin (left) and cell type (right). **(B)** Heatmap of differentially expressed transcription factor regulons across anterior foregut-derived tissues (T, thymus; B, bronchus; L, lung; E, esophagus). Color key corresponds to annotated clusters from (D). **(C)** Visualization of transcription factor regulon subnetworks from (A) defined by Leiden algorithm. **(D)** Dot plot representing the average expression of individual transcription factor subnetworks in select epithelial cell subpopulations. **(E)** Dot plot of all subnetwork A genes across anterior foregut-derived tissues. Bar plot corresponds to number of target genes an individual transcription factor has (blue), and the number of regulons that target the respective transcription factor (gray) (top). Heatmap of top inferred interactions found in subnetwork A (TF, transcription factor) (bottom).

A Select AFG Populations

B GSEA Network

C Reactome IFN Gamma and AB Gene Sets

D Fetal IFN Response

E Embryonic IFN Response

F IFN Response Over Time

G IFN Gamma (Bulk)

Figure 3. IFN response signatures in select epithelial cell subpopulations throughout development.

(A) UMAP visualization of select epithelial cell subpopulations for thymus, bronchus, lung and esophagus at fetal stages of development. AFG, anterior foregut-derived epithelial cell. **(B)** Network visualization of differentially expressed GSEA gene sets across cell types from (A), colored accordingly. Each node represents a specific GSEA gene set ($p<0.05$). Edges between nodes denote a significant number of shared genes between nodes. Node size reflects the number of genes within each gene set. Gene set names have been abbreviated. Gene sets enriched primarily of *HLA* genes are within the dotted circle. **(C)** Dot plot of all detected Reactome-curated type I and II IFN response genes across populations from (A). **(D)** Violin plots depicting the average expression of Reactome-curated type I and II IFN response gene sets (modules) across populations from (A). Here and onwards, the dot within the violin plot indicates mean expression values. **(E)** Violin plot depicting the average expression of Reactome-curated type I and II IFN response modules in thymic and parathyroid epithelial cells at embryonic stages of development. **(F)** Average expression of Reactome-curated type I and II IFN response modules across embryonic, fetal and postnatal time points in select TEC subpopulations. **(G)** Cumulative (bulk) RNAseq expression of *IFNG* in thymocytes and EPCAM positive-selected epithelial cells from thymus, bronchus and lung.

Figure 4. Cellular composition of the human thymus during development

(A) UMAP visualization of integrated TECs across all sampled time points, colored by developmental/postnatal age (left). Relative frequency of cells from select TEC subsets across advancing developmental ages (right). **(B)** Dot plot of gene sets defining retinoic acid synthesis, nuclear signaling, and degradation across select TEC subsets (Nuc, nuclear; Deg, degradation). **(C)** Violin plot representing the average expression of retinoic acid metabolism gene sets from (B) across visualized cell types from (A). RA, retinoic acid. **(D)** Average expression of retinoic acid metabolism gene sets across embryonic, fetal, and postnatal time points for select TEC subsets. **(E)** Dot plot of *HDAC 1-8* gene expression across thymic and parathyroid epithelial cell subpopulations (top). Violin plot of *HDAC4* gene expression in select TEC subsets across advancing developmental ages. Embryonic: pcw 6-7, Fetal: pcw 16-18, Postnatal: 3 months post birth (bottom). **(F)** Representative immunohistochemistry images of human fetal thymus sections stained for PSMB11 (green) and HDAC4 (magenta) protein. Counterstain with DAPI (blue). Scale bars: 50um.

Figure 5. Expression patterns of rare TEC subsets.

(A) UMAP visualization of mTECII, mTECIII/IV, and TECmyo/neuro across all developmental time points. Cells colored by cell type, **(B)** cells colored by higher clustering granularity, **(C)** cells colored by developmental age. **(D)** Stacked bar chart representing cluster frequency of mTECII, mTECIII/IV, and TECmyo/neuro at embryonic (red), fetal (green) and postnatal (yellow) stages related to Fig. 4A. **(E)** Dot plot of marker gene expression defining select subclusters. **(F)** Network visualization of highly expressed regulons with inferred interactions between regulon defining transcription factors and target genes in neuroendocrine- and muscle-like TECs. **(G)** Dot plot of select HLA gene expression across individual TEC subsets.

A tSpace UMAP

- Cycling TEC
- mcTEC
- cTEC
- mTECI
- mTECII
- mTECIII/IV
- TEC myo/neuro
- Parathyroid

B Cortico-Medullary Lineages

End of Lineage 1
Start
Cycling TEC
mcTEC
cTEC
mTECI
End of Lineage 2

C Differential Expression along Lineage Bifurcation

Pseudotime
Early
Late

Trajectory 1

Trajectory 2

PGAM2
SCX
ASCL2
KDM4B
FOXN1
MXD4
PAX1
NFKB1
HMG20B
ETFB
HES4
HIVEP3
ETV7
ARID5B
STAT1
IRF7
IRF9
BHLHE40
TAGLN2
PML
SP100
SP110
ZNF267

Scaled Exp.
Lo Hi

E mTECII Lineage

AIRE Exp.
Hi
Lo

Start
End

Extended Trajectory 2

JUN
FOSB
EGR1
TP63
TP73
AIRE
TFAP2A
MSC
GRHL3
EHF
SOX2
SOX9
MYB
IRF4
SPIC
IKZF1
SPIB
CREB3L1
RELB
ETV7
HIVEP3
ASCL1
NR1D1
POU2F3
RFX5
GRHL1

Regulons

D Lineage Defining GRN

cTEC Hi
mcTEC
mTECI Hi

SREBF1, NFKB1, ASCL2, MAFG, REST, FOXN1, REL, ATF3, IRF8, CREB5, RELB, JUN, JUND, JUNB, FOSL1, IRF1, XBP1, STAT1, FOS, MAFF, FOSB, EGR1, SPIB, IRF7, BHLHE40, KLF5, KLF4, STAT2, BACH1, NFIL3, CREB3L1, ETV7, MYC, HIVEP3, SOX4, IRF9, CEBPB

Avg. Exp.
Lo Hi

% Exp.
25 50 75

Target Ratio
cTEC Hi
mTECI Hi

FOXN1
PEMT
GNG11
SPOCK2
LY75
HDAC4
CXCL12
CYP26B1
SREBF1
TBATA
PLTP
FABP5
PAX1
NFKB1
ASCL2
EGR1
REST
MAFG
JUND
KLF4
NFIL3
JUNB
FOSB
ATF3
REL
KLF5
IRF1
IRF8
BACH1
CREB5
STAT2
IRF7
RELB
MAFF
STAT1
FOSL1
IRF9
ISG15
MYC
SPIB
BHLHE40
HIVEP3
XBP1
ETV7
CREB3L1
FOS
CEBPB
JUN
SOX4
HES4
CLDN4
TMSB4X
CXCL14
CXCL21
CXCL10
CCL21
MX1
CXCL9
KRT17
CXCL11
KRT15
IFIT1
IFITM1
BCAM
KRT13
FN1
IFITM3
KRT14
CCL19
LY6E
RPL23
RPS2
RPL13

- Regulon TF
- mTECI Hi Marker
- cTEC Hi Marker

F *AIRE/FEZF2* Targeting Regulons

AIRE
FEZF2
Target

NFKB2, JUND, MSX1, REST, EBF1, SOX9, KLF5, IRF4, KLF4, RFX5, IRX2, RELB, GATA3, GRHL1, POU2F3, SOX2, CREB3L1, EPAS1, IKZF1, MSC, DLX6, SPIB, SPIC, AIRE

TF

Co-expression
Lo Hi

G HLA Progression

Extended Trajectory 2

HLA-A
HLA-B
HLA-C
HLA-E
HLA-F
HLA-DRA
HLA-DRB1
HLA-DRB5
HLA-DQA1
HLA-DQB1
HLA-DPA1
HLA-DPB1

Figure 6. Regulatory networks defining cortical and medullary thymic epithelial lineages.

(A) tSpace UMAP of TECs across advancing developmental and postnatal ages. Extended tSpace UMAP shown in supplementary figure S10. **(B)** Subset of tSpace UMAP from (A). Cortical and medullary lineage trajectories identified by Slingshot, plotted onto tSpace UMAP. **(C)** UMAP from (B) with cortical and medullary trajectories separately colored by pseudotime. Pseudotime intervals (knots) identified by TradeSeq are superimposed and numbered chronologically (top). Heatmaps representing the rolling average of select differentially expressed transcription factors between knots 2 and 3 along trajectories 1 (cortical) and 2 (medullary). From here onwards, heatmap color key corresponds to clusters in (A) (bottom). **(D)** Dot plot of regulon-defining transcription factors targeting lineage markers in populations with highest canonical lineage marker expression (cTEC^{Hi} and mTECI^{Hi}) accompanied by heatmap representing the ratio of targets in the cTEC^{Hi} and mTECI^{Hi} populations, respectively (top). Network visualization of inferred interactions between regulon-defining transcription factors (black) and lineage markers (bottom). **(E)** tSpace UMAP from (B) with superimposed *AIRE* expression and extended medullary lineage trajectory. Highlighted pseudotime range corresponds to onset of *AIRE* expression (top). Heatmap representing the rolling average expression of select transcription factor regulons with differential expression within highlighted pseudotime range (bottom). **(F)** Heatmap of regulon-defining transcription factors targeting *AIRE* and *FEZF2.* **(G)** Heatmap of the rolling average expression of select *HLA* genes along the extended medullary lineage trajectory.

Supplemental Materials

1. Supplementary Figure S1

2. Supplementary Figure S2

3. Supplementary Figure S3

4. Supplementary Figure S4

5. Supplementary Figure S5

6. Supplementary Figure S6

7. Supplementary Figure S7

8. Supplementary Figure S8

9. Supplementary Figure S9

10. Supplementary Figure S10

11. Supplementary Figure S11

12. Supplementary Figure S12

13. Supplementary Figure S13

14. Supplementary Figure S14

15. Supplementary Table S1

16. Supplementary Table S2

Supplementary Figure S1

Dot plot of marker gene expression for annotated cell types in fetal thymus, bronchus, lung, and esophagus.

Supplementary Figure S2

Dot plots of top differentially expressed genes for all major tissue types across cells from human fetal thymus, bronchus, lung and esophagus (transcription factors are labeled in bold).

Subnetwork
- A
- B
- C
- D
- E
- F
- G

Co-expression
- Low
- High

Supplementary Figure S3

Fully annotated version of network from Fig. 2C. Visualization of transcription factor regulon subnetworks in all fetal epithelial cells defined by Leiden algorithm. Line thickness corresponds to co-expression of interaction.

Supplementary Figure S4

Dot plot of enriched gene sets across select epithelial cell subpopulations for thymus, bronchus, lung and esophagus at fetal stages of development. Dot size corresponds to p-value, color corresponds to enrichment score.

Supplementary Figure S5

(A) Fully annotated version of GSEA network found from Fig. 3B. Network visualization of differentially expressed GSEA gene sets across select epithelial cell subpopulations for thymus, bronchus, lung and esophagus at fetal stages of development. Each node represents a specific GSEA gene set ($p<0.05$). Edges between nodes denote a significant number of shared genes between nodes. Node size reflects the number of genes within each gene set. **(B)** Enriched genes from the gene sets within the dotted circle are visualized in dot plots. Emboldened genes correspond to common genes across dot plots.

Supplementary Figure S6

UMAP visualization of integrated TEC across all sampled time points, colored by developmental/postnatal age (left) and cell type (right).

Supplementary Figure S7

Dot plots of differentially expressed genes for thymic epithelial and parathyroid clusters across

all sampled developmental time points (transcription factors are labeled in bold).

Supplementary Figure S8

Dot plots of differentially expressed transcription factors for thymic epithelial and parathyroid

clusters across all sampled developmental time points.

Supplementary Figure S9

UMAP visualization of TECs across all sampled developmental time points colored by Seurat S and G2M phase scores.

Supplementary Figure S10

tSpace UMAP visualization of all integrated TECs from embryonic, fetal and postnatal stages of development.

Supplementary Figure S11

Subset of tSpace UMAP from Fig. 6B with cortical and medullary trajectories separately colored by pseudotime. Pseudotime intervals (knots) identified by TradeSeq are superimposed and numbered chronologically (top). Heatmaps representing the rolling average of the top 40 differentially expressed transcription factors between knots 2 and 3 along trajectories 1 and 2 (bottom).

Supplementary Figure S12

(A) tSpace UMAP visualization of integrated TECs from embryonic, fetal and postnatal stages of development. mTECII, mTECIII/IV, TECmyo/neuro, and parathyroid epithelial cells not visualized (left). tSpace UMAP highlighted by populations with high canonical lineage marker expression (right). **(B)** tSpace UMAP with superimposed canonical cTEC and mTECI marker expression.

Supplementary Figure S13

(A) tSpace UMAP from Fig. 6B colored by cell type (left) and pseudotime values along the extended medullary trajectory (right). **(B)** Gene expression of cells along pseudotime of the extended medullary trajectory.

Supplementary Figure S14

Heatmap representing the rolling average expression of all transcription factor regulons with differential expression (p<0.05) along highlighted pseudotime region superimposed on tSpace UMAP from Fig. 6B.

Supplementary Table S1. metadata for sequenced samples								
Sample ID	**Organ**	**Age**	**Number of Cells**	**Mean Counts Per Cell**	**Mean Genes Per Cell**	**Median Mito Percentage**	**Gender**	**Tissue processing**
C40_TH_TOT_2	Thymus	Post Conception Week 7	7180	11139	3054.5	1.97	Female	All cells
C40_TH_TOT_1	Thymus	Post Conception Week 7	6841	11293.8	3098.1	1.97	Female	All cells
C41_TH_TOT_2	Thymus	Post Conception Week 6	5789	14190.5	3544.9	2.61	Male	All cells
C41_TH_TOT_1	Thymus	Post Conception Week 6	5620	14244.3	3547.6	2.52	Male	All cells
KGW1_TH_EPCAM_45	Thymus	Post Conception Week 16	3046	21747	4135	7.29	Male	EPCAM positive selection, CD45 depletion
F83_TH_EPCAM	Thymus	Post Conception Week 17	3678	9575.2	2634.2	2.55	Female	EPCAM FACS sorted
KGW2_TH_EPCAM_45	Thymus	Post Conception Week 17	7634	11754	2993	6.81	Female	EPCAM positive selection, CD45 depletion
KGW3_TH_EPCAM_45	Thymus	Post Conception Week 18	8648	9349	2721	5.73	Male	EPCAM positive selection, CD45 depletion
T07_TH_EPCAM_S3	Thymus	3 Months Postnatal	3149	11355.6	2819.6	3.86	Male	EPCAM FACS sorted
KGW4_B_EPCAM	Bronchus	Post Conception Week 16	5920	15651	3525	7.69	Male	EPCAM positive selection
KGW5_B_EPCAM	Bronchus	Post Conception Week 17	4376	16449	3188	8.56	Female	EPCAM positive selection
KGW6_B_EPCAM	Bronchus	Post Conception Week 18	7414	15387	2979	9.43	Male	EPCAM positive selection
KGW7_L_EPCAM	Lung	Post Conception Week 16	3726	20366	3862	7.95	Male	EPCAM positive selection
KGW8_L_EPCAM	Lung	Post Conception Week 17	7075	11074	2810	8.11	Female	EPCAM positive selection
KGW9_L_EPCAM	Lung	Post Conception Week 18	7208	12965	3254	7.12	Male	EPCAM positive selection
KGW10_E_EPCAM	Esophagus	Post Conception Week 16	4603	16004	3513	7	Male	EPCAM positive selection
KGW11_E_EPCAM	Esophagus	Post Conception Week 17	6464	11431	2723	8.48	Female	EPCAM positive selection

Supplementary Table S1

Sample metadata. [Sample ID] TH: Thymus, B: Bronchus, L: Lung, E: Esophagus

Organ	Tissue	Cell Type	Markers
Supplementary Table S2. Cluster markers			
Thymus	Epithelial	mcTEC	*CTGF, DLK2*
Thymus	Epithelial	cTEC	*CCL25, PSMB11, KRT8*
Thymus	Epithelial	mTECI	*CCL19, KRT5, KRT14*
Thymus	Epithelial	mTECII	*AIRE, CLDN4*
Thymus	Epithelial	mTECIII/mTECIV	*KRT1, POU2F3*
Thymus	Epithelial	TECneuro	*NEUROD1, CHGA*
Thymus	Epithelial	TECmyo	*MYOD1, CHRNA1*
Thymus	Immune	Double-Negative Thymocytes	*TRDS, PTPRC, CD3D*
Thymus	Immune	Single-Positive/Double-Positive Thymocytes	*PTPRC, CD3D, CD4, CD8A, CD8B*
Thymus	Immune	Macrophage	*S100A9, RETN*
Thymus	Immune	Dendritic	*LAMP3*
Thymus	Mesenchymal	Fibroblast 1	*PDGFRA, ALDH1A2*
Thymus	Mesenchymal	Fibroblast 2	*FBN1*
Thymus	Endothelial	Vascular Endothelial	*PECAM1, CDH5, AQP1*
Thymus	Endothelial	Lymphatic Endothelial	*PROX1*
Thymus	Neuronal	Neuronal	*NRXN1*
Bronchus	Epithelial	Epithelial Basal	*KRT15, IL33, DLK2*
Bronchus	Epithelial	Club	*SCGB1A1, BPIFA1*
Bronchus	Epithelial	Goblet	*MUC5B, BPIFB1*
Bronchus	Epithelial	Submucosal Gland	*LTF*
Bronchus	Epithelial	Secretory Progenitor	*SFTPB, SCGB3A2*
Bronchus	Epithelial	Multiciliated	*FOXJ1, PIFO*
Bronchus	Epithelial	Bud Tip Progenitor	*SFTPC, SOX9*
Bronchus	Myoepithelial	Myoepithelial	*EPCAM, ACTA2*
Bronchus	Immune	T Cell	*PTPRC, CD3D*
Bronchus	Immune	B Cell	*PTPRC, MS4A1*
Bronchus	Immune	Macrophage	*PTPRC, S100A9, RETN*
Bronchus	Mesenchymal	Vascular Smooth Muscle	*PDGFRB, ACTA2*
Bronchus	Mesenchymal	Smooth Muscle	*ACTA2, DES*
Bronchus	Mesenchymal	Fibroblast	*PDGFRA, FBN1*
Bronchus	Mesenchymal	Cartilage	*CNMD*
Bronchus	Endothelial	Vascular Endothelial	*PECAM1, CDH5, AQP1*
Bronchus	Neuronal	Neuronal	*NRXN1*
Lung	Epithelial	Bud Tip Progenitor	*SFTPC, SOX9*
Lung	Epithelial	Bud Tip Progenitor Adjacent	*AGER, SFTPB*
Lung	Epithelial	Multiciliated	*FOXJ1, PIFO*
Lung	Epithelial	Secretory Progenitor	*SFTPB, SCGB3A2*
Lung	Epithelial	Epithelial Basal	*KRT15, IL33, DKL2*
Lung	Epithelial	Neuroendocrine	*CHGA*
Lung	Immune	T Cell	*PTPRC, CD3D*
Lung	Immune	B Cell	*PTPRC, MS4A1*
Lung	Immune	Macrophage	*PTPRC, S100A9, RETN*
Lung	Mesenchymal	Fibroblast	*PDGFRA, FBN1*
Lung	Mesenchymal	Mesothelial	*MSLN*
Lung	Mesenchymal	Vascular Smooth Muscle	*PDGFRB, ACTA2*
Lung	Mesenchymal	Smooth Muscle	*ACTA2, DES*
Lung	Endothelial	Vascular Endothelial	*PECAM1, CDH5, AQP1*
Lung	Endothelial	Lymphatic Endothelial	*PROX1*
Lung	Neuronal	Neuronal	*NRXN1*
Esophagus	Epithelial	Epithelial Basal	*KRT15, DLK2, CLDN4*
Esophagus	Epithelial	Suprabasal	*KRT13, KRT4, CLDN4*
Esophagus	Epithelial	Multiciliated	*FOXJ1, PIFO*
Esophagus	Epithelial	Gastric Epithelial	*TFF1, MUC5B*
Esophagus	Immune	T Cell	*PTPRC, CD3D*
Esophagus	Immune	Macrophage	*PTPRC, S100A9, RETN*
Esophagus	Mesenchymal	Fibroblast	*PDGFRA, FBN1*
Esophagus	Mesenchymal	Vascular Smooth Muscle	*PDGFRB, ACTA2*
Esophagus	Mesenchymal	Smooth Muscle	*ACTA2, DES*
Esophagus	Endothelial	Vascular Endothelial	*PECAM1, CDH5, AQP1*
Esophagus	Neuronal	Neuronal	*NRXN1*

Supplementary Table S2

Table contains canonical markers used for cluster annotation.