TITLE

Single cell transcriptomics of human prenatal anterior foregut-derived organs identifies distinct developmental signatures directing commitment and specialization of the thymic epithelial stroma

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ABSTRACT

The thymus is the primary lymphoid organ that instructs adaptive T cell immunity and central tolerance. Within the thymus, the thymic epithelium comprises a diverse and highly specialized set of cells that promote T cell maturation, proliferation, and selection of a diverse and self-tolerant T cell receptor repertoire. As such, the function of the thymic epithelium is central to the integrity of the immune system in health and disease and regenerating thymic function holds great therapeutic promise. However, the gene regulatory networks that drive thymic epithelial cell ontogeny and maintenance during human embryonic development remain incompletely understood. Elucidating the complex interplay between cell intrinsic and environmental signals that contribute to thymic morphogenesis is essential to derive thymic epithelial cells from pluripotent stem cells to reconstitute thymic function for therapeutic purposes.

To deduce the signals instructing the development and specialization of the human thymic epithelial stroma, we have used a dual single cell transcriptomic approach: (A) To dissect lineage bifurcations on the trajectory towards thymic fate, we have compared transcriptional signatures of epithelial cells from human fetal thymus to epithelial cells derived from the other major anterior foregut-derived organs, i.e., bronchus, lung, and esophagus as well as the parathyroid. (B) To define the proliferative dynamics that give rise to developmental hierarchies within specialized thymic epithelial compartments, we have compared human thymus samples sequentially during embryonic, fetal, and early postnatal stages of organogenesis.

Distinct gene regulatory patterns delineate cortical, and medullary thymic epithelial cells, conducting airway basal cells, respiratory bud-tip progenitor cells and esophageal basal cells. Specifically, the transcription factors SOX2 and TP63, that promote basal epithelial cell fate when co-expressed and drive branching morphogenesis when cycled in a coordinated fashion, show a uniquely divergent TP63^{high}SOX2^{low} expression pattern in the thymic epithelium. In addition, the thymic epithelium shows distinctive interferon and NFκB-driven signature which is not present in other epithelial cells. Within the thymic epithelial compartments, a cycling progenitor pool gives rise to three distinct developmental trajectories. A dichotomy between PI3Kinase and TGFb signaling between cTECs and mTECs was observed. Our studies map gene regulatory signatures during thymic epithelial cell ontogeny with the intent to advance directed differentiation approaches for translational applications.

INTRODUCTION

Recent studies of murine and human thymus using single cell transcriptomics have dramatically transformed our understanding of thymic epithelial cell diversity[1-6], yet the signals that drive thymic epithelial cell fate during human foregut development remain incompletely understood. The anterior part of the mammalian foregut gives rise to the ventrally located respiratory system and the dorsally located esophagus which extends into the stomach[7]. The anterior-most segment of the foregut develops into the pharyngeal apparatus (Figure 1A). Essential to mammalian pharyngeal development is the out-pocketing of the endoderm to form the pharyngeal pouches[8]. The thymus is

derived from the ventro-caudal aspect of the third pharyngeal pouch (PPEIII). Two genetically separate steps have been implicated in the development of the thymus: Initially, the development of the PPEIII is instructed by signals from the surrounding mesenchyme. In the second phase of development, bone marrow-derived lymphoid precursors migrate to the thymic primordium. Reciprocal signals between cells of hematopoietic and thymic epithelial origin promote thymic organogenesis and T cell maturation, respectively[9]. The earliest detection of the PPEIII transcriptional regulators TBX1, HOXA3, PAX1 and PAX9 in human embryonic samples was demonstrated at the beginning of week 6 post-conception (CS16) and preceded the expression of the master thymic transcription factor FOXN1 mid-week 6 (CS 16-17)[10]. These findings are concordant with murine data in which Foxn1 is required cell-autonomously for maturation of the thymic epithelium but not for initiation of thymus organogenesis[9,11,12]. Lymphoid progenitors enter the human thymic anlage as early as week 7[4,10] and are indispensable for thymic epithelial maturation and expression of functional markers, such as PSMB11 or AIRE[13-15]. Parallels between branching morphogenesis of the airway and the initiation of cortical and medullary separation in the thymus have been proposed. In both setting, a homogenous epithelial cell population begins to polarize and display distinct apical-basal features. Epithelial cells in the center of the Thymic Anlage gain CLDN3/4 expression and go on to form the medulla, however, a lumen doesn't form[16,17]. Important insights into the developmental programs that instruct thymic organogenesis were derived from murine knock out studies in *Foxn1* which generate an athymic and hairless (nude) phenotype[18]. The thymic development of nude mice arrests after Cldn3/4 is expressed but before colonization with lymphoid precursors occurs[12,17]. The thymic rudiment of *Foxn1* knock-out mice displays nonfunctional cystic features strongly resembling respiratory epithelium in both, morphology, and gene expression[9,19-21]. It has therefore been suggested that Foxn1 induces thymic epithelial cell commitment at the expense of respiratory epithelial cell fate as the default pathway by inhibiting branching morphogenesis [17,19,20]. Morphogenesis of the esophagus, the other major anterior foregut-derived organ, occurs in tight coordination with the patterning of respiratory system[22] and deviations threaten appropriate separation between both organ systems[23].

While the signals that drive anterior foregut development from pluripotent cells as well as lung and esophageal commitment from anterior foregut have been successfully established[24-29], the developmental programs that define patterning of the third pharyngeal pouch and thymus from the anterior foregut endoderm remain elusive. To close this knowledge gap, we sought to investigate the signals that instruct the development and specialization of the human thymic epithelium, using a dual single cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq) approach: (A) To understand lineage branch points between fetal thymus to other organs that develop in close temporo-spatial proximity from the anterior foregut, we have compared the transcriptomes of human fetal bronchus, lung, esophagus as well as the parathyroid epithelial cells, in the following referred to as *horizontal* comparison. (B) To define the proliferative dynamics that give rise to developmental hierarchies within specialized thymic epithelial compartments, we have compared human thymus samples sequentially during embryonic, fetal, and early postnatal stages of organogenesis, in the following referred to as *vertical* comparison.

Our studies build on the recent advances in mouse and human thymic epithelial cell characterization using single cell transcriptomics that demonstrated an abundance of unique thymic epithelial cell subpopulations which had evaded discrimination by conventional flow cytometric means of characterization. In this work, we focus on understanding differential developmental trajectories between closely related anterior foregut derived epithelial cell populations with a view towards directed differentiation and tissue regeneration approaches.

RESULTS
Human fetal anterior foregut derived epithelial cells at single cell resolution
We analyzed a total of 14 biological specimens from human embryonic, fetal and postnatal tissues estimated to range from post conception week (pcw) 7 to 3 months post birth. For the comparison of the major anterior foregut derived organs (horizontal comparison), we sampled tissue from thymus, airway epithelium, lung parenchymal tissue (pcw 16, 17 and 18) and esophageal epithelium (pcw 16 and 17) from human fetal samples.

To dissect developmental hierarchies within the thymic epithelial lineages, we studied two very early thymic samples (estimated at or before pcw 7), in comparison to pcw 16, 17, 18 and neonatal (age 3 months) thymic tissue. EPCAM+ magnetic bead selection was used for all but the earliest thymic samples to enrich for cells of epithelial origin while preserving fractions of all other subpopulations of the microenvironment. In addition, thymic samples were partially depleted of CD45+ thymocytes (Figure 1B). The very early (pcw 7) thymus samples were used unmanipulated due to very small numbers of thymocytes at this stage of development (Supplementary Table S1).

After sequence alignment to human genome library, quality control including mitochondrial gene removal, and batch correction, the resulting data set yielded single cell transcriptomes with a median of 3000 unique genes per cell. For the horizontal comparison of anterior foregut derived organs, pcw 16, 17 and 18 samples of human thymus, bronchus, lung, and esophagus were clustered unsupervised and visualized using t-SNE. Samples were annotated in concordance with nomenclature employed in previously published organ-specific human single cell datasets for thymus[4], respiratory system[30,31] and esophagus[32], respectively. Within the thymus, we identified a total of 17 epithelial and non-epithelial cell populations. Epithelial cells further subdivided into canonical *CCL25, PSMB11, KRT8-* high cortical thymic epithelial cells (cTEC) and *CCL19* high, *KRT5/14*-high medullary thymic epithelial cells (mTECI). The previously described population of TECs with overlapping cTEC and mTEC features as well as unique expression of *CTGF* and *DLK2* termed mcTECs[4], was the third most abundant population visualized. Classical mTECII were characterized by high transcript levels of *AIRE* and *CLDN4*. The recently described medullary subpopulations mTECIII and mTECIV, characterized by expression of *KRT1* and *POUF3* respectively, which correspond to the corneocyte-like post-AIRE mTECs and Tufft cells in the mouse[2,3,33], were also visualized. TECmyo and TECneuro were defined by *NEUROD1*, *CHGA*, *CHGB*, *MYOD1* and *CHRNA1*, respectively. Nonepithelial clusters included double negative and double positive thymocytes, as well as small numbers of single positive T

cells (*PTPRC, CD3D, CD4, CD8A, CD8B*), macrophages (*S100A9, RETN*), dendritic cells (*LAMP3*), vascular smooth muscle cells (*PDGFRB, RGS5*), aldehyde-dehydrogenase positive fibroblasts, also known as thymic fibroblasts 1[4] (*PDGFRA, ALDH1A2*), fibronectin-high fibroblasts also known as thymic fibroblasts 2[4] (*FBN1*), vascular endothelial cells (*PECAM1, CDH5, AQP1*), lymphatic endothelial cells (*LYVE1, PROX1*) and neuronal cells (*NRXN1, MPZ*).

Tissues of the conducting airway clustered into bronchial epithelial basal cells (*KRT5, KRT15, TP63*), club cells (*SCGB1A1, BPIFA1*), multi-ciliated cells (*FOXJ1, PIFO*) and submucosal gland cells (*LTF*), along with goblet cells (*MUC5B, BPIFB1*), secretory progenitor cells (SFTPB, SCGB3A2) and bud tip progenitors from the adjacent respiratory parenchyma (*SFTPC, SOX9*). 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, neuroendocrine and neuronal cells.

Lung tissues expectedly shared many of the same cell types surrounding the airways albeit in reverse ratios. Bud tip progenitor (*SFTPC, SOX9*) and bud tip progenitor adjacent cells (*AGER, SFTPB*) were the most abundant, followed by multiciliate cells (*FOXJ1, PIFO*), secretory progenitors (*SFTPB, SCGB3A2*) and very small numbers of epithelial basal cells (*KRT5, KRT15, TP63*). Cell types not derived from 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 esophageal basal cells (*KRT5, KRT15, TP63*), suprabasal cells (*KRT13, KRT4, CLDN4*), multiciliate cells (*FOXJ1, PIFO*), gastric epithelial cells (*TFF1, MUC5B*) and non-foregut-derived cell types including immune cells (T cells, macrophages), smooth muscle, vascular smooth muscle, two different types of fibroblasts, endothelial cells and a sizable cluster of neuronal cells from the vagal nerve that was accidentally included during sample dissection (Figure 1C, D, E and Supplementary Figure S1).

Integration of all four tissues followed by batch correction and quality control showed an even contribution of all tissues (thymus, bronchus, lung, esophagus) to all major cell types (epithelial, endothelial, mesenchymal, immune) with a sharp clustering of cells stem from a shared developmental origin, separating epithelial cells (red) from mesenchymal cells (purple), immune cells (light blue), endothelial cells (green), myoepithelial cells (light pink) and neuronal cells (gray) (Figure 1F). Top differentially expressed genes in different tissue types that were shared across all anterior foregut derived epithelial cells included a variety of keratins (*KRT5, 8, 13, 15, 17, 18, 19*), claudins (*CLDN3, 4*), e-cadherin (*CDH1*), desmoplakin (*DSM*), the transcription factors *ELF3* and *HOPX*, the calcium binding protein *CAPS2* and interestingly the arginase *ARG2* that is known to govern mTOR signaling, autophagy and senesce in other cell types[34,35] (Figure 1G, Supplementary Figure S2).

SOX2 and TP63 show divergent expression pattern in the Thymic Epithelial Cells
To better understand the distinct developmental programs that give rise to epithelial cells of different anterior foregut origins at highest resolution, we computationally isolated epithelial cells (Figure 2A, Supplementary Figure S2), followed by reintegration and repeat clustering (Figure 2B). Cells derived from the same organ generally clustered together as did cells of shared function (i.e., multiciliate cells). The closest cluster relationship to thymic epithelial cells was shown by suprabasal and basal epithelial cells (Figure 2B).

Given the unresolved question of the role of branching morphogenesis in thymic development, we specifically interrogated the expression of the transcription factors SOX2 and TP63 that cycle *on* and *off* in a synchronized fashion to promote branching of the airways during development of the respiratory system. In the mouse *Sox2* is known to be highly expressed in non-branching and absent from branching regions, suggesting that downregulation of Sox2 is mandatory for airway epithelium to respond to branch inducing signals[36]. *Sox2* expression was shown to increase again after the branching process and directly induced the expression of *Tp63*, the master switch toward the basal cell lineage[37]. In our human data set, SOX2 and TP63 were highly co-expressed in basal epithelial cells of bronchus and esophagus and gradually decreased towards the parenchymal regions of the lung. All epithelial cells of the thymus, however, were marked by strong expression of TP63 while SOX2 was absent, both on an RNA and protein level (Figure 2C). Interestingly, the key foregut gene regulatory network transcription factors including FOXA1, SOX2, IRX3, IRX5[25,38] also remained highly expressed in epithelial cells of bronchial and esophageal origin and maintained moderate expression in the lung but were entirely absent in all epithelial cells of thymic origin which demonstrated persistently strong expression of the third pharyngeal pouch markers PAX1, PAX9, EYA1, SIX1 and FOXG1. (Figure 2D).This observation is compatible with the previously put forth hypothesis that the development of the third pharyngeal pouch is linked to an overriding transcriptional program the abrogates branching morphogenesis in basal epithelial cells of the anterior foregut.

Next, we interrogated Claudin (CLDN) family genes which encode tight junction proteins that are known to play a critical role in apical basal polarity and tube formation[39,40] (Figure 2B). Claudin-3 and 4 are specifically implicated in epithelial to mesenchymal transition[41] and the gain for Claudin-3 and 4 is classically considered a hallmark of medullary thymic epithelial commitment[16,17]. Interestingly, *CLDN3* and 4 were highly expressed in epithelial cells of bronchus, lung and esophagus while *CLDN5*, a gene missing in the commonly deleted region in 22q11 Deletion Syndrome was the prevailing *CLDN* gene in the majority of epithelial cells in thymus. *CLDN3* and *CLDN4* expression was uniquely high in the mTECII population.

FN1, VIM and VCAM1, other genes associated with epithelial to mesenchymal transition[42] were among the top differentially expressed genes in mTEC1. Although the contribution of laminins to the thymic extracellular matrix has frequently been described[43-46], collagens COL4A1, COL6A1, COL6A2, COL17A1, integrin alpha subunit V (ITGAV) and Galectin 1 predominated in the thymic samples while unique laminins and other extracellular matrix proteins, e.g. perlecan, were selectively high in basal cells

of bronchus and esophagus as well as bud tip progenitor adjacent cells of the lung. The distinctive extracellular environment is matched by a characteristic intracellular scaffold with keratins predominating the cytoskeleton while functioning as main mediators for adhesion, migration, stress response and metabolic reactions in epithelial cells[47]. Keratins (KRT) 8, 5, 14 and 17 predominate in cTECs and mTECs. Interestingly, mcTECs overall show a less keratinized phenotype possibly indicative of a developmentally less mature cell state. Bronchial basal cells share many of the keratins with TECs and show a uniquely high expression of KRT 15 while esophageal basal and suprabasal cells were specifically high in KRT4, 6B and 13. Bud tip and bud tip adjacent cells of the lung use EPCAM as the prevailing cell cytoskeletal element, in line with their more pliable tissue architecture.

To investigate the unique ability thymus to attract thymocytes and other immune cells and specifically, how this differs from other anterior foregut derived organs, we queried the expression of a wide range of chemokine receptors and ligands in our data set. Chemokine ligands are important chemo-attractants that actively recruit immune cells with cell type- and tissue-specific tropism. In addition to the well know chemokine ligands CXCL12, CCL25 as well as CCL19 and CCL21 that have been shown to display cell type specificity for cortical and medullary TECs respectively[48], we found high expression levels of CXCL14 in medullary TECs. CXCL14 is a natural inhibitor of the CXCL12:CXCR4 signaling axis[49]. The CXCL12:CXCR4 axis is used to attract CXCR4 positive thymocytes to the thymic cortex[50]. Expressing an inhibitor of this pathway in locations devoid of CXCR4 positive thymocytes raises the possibility that CXCL14 contributes to the spatial demarcation of immune cells within the thymic epithelial architecture. Interestingly, we also found a previously not recognized abundance of the C-C motif chemokine ligand CCL2 in mcTECs. CCL2 has been shown to play a role in attracting macrophages and dendritic cells as well as in inducing tolerance in T cells[51,52]. Our data suggest that CCL2 is a novel uniquely expressed gene in mcTECs, for which connective tissue growth factor CTGF and the non-canonical inhibitor of NOTCH signaling DKL2 have thus far been the only uniquely described genes[4]. (Figure 2B, C, D).

Medullary thymic epithelial cells demonstrate unique response to interferon type 1 and 2

To infer signaling pathways that could direct cell-type differentiation in an unbiased fashion, we performed Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA). Network visualization of positively enriched gene sets across select epithelial cells revealed three distinct clusters of nodes, representing cortical epithelial cells (cTEC), medullary epithelial cells (mTECl) and a combined cluster of esophageal basal cell (EEC) and bud tip progenitor cell (LEC) identity in which nodes were divided. Clusters of cTEC and mTEC origin shared abundant connections between nodes. Basal cells of bronchial origin (BEC) were spread apart with minimal spatial concentration (Figure 3A, and Supplementary Figure S3A). The most highly scoring gene sets in cTECs related to TCR signaling, protein processing by the proteasome, antigen cross presentation and NFκB activation. In mTECs, interferon $\alpha\beta$ and interferon γ signaling as well as antigen presentation were

the leading enriched gene sets. Shared gene sets in LECs and EECs all related to ribosomal function, highlighting the importance protein synthesis plays in these cell types (Figure 3B, top panel, and Supplementary Figure S3). To investigate developmental drivers shared by cortical and medullary thymic epithelial cell that may be overpowered due to the dominant effect of highly expressed individual genes or gene subsets, we removed gene sets related to proteasome structure and function from the analysis (Figure 3B, bottom panel, and Supplementary Figure S3). Even after removal of the proteasome gene sets, interferon $\alpha\beta$ and interferon γ module remained uniquely enriched in the mTEC compartment. Leading edge genes with the greatest abundance in the mTEC compartment were defined by direct effectors of interferon signaling including *IFI6, ISG15, IFI27, BST2, IFITM3* and *MX1*; while leading edge genes in cTEC compartment where largely MHC class 1 and 2 alleles implicated in antigen presentation.

Cortical TECs tightly regulate paracrine sources of retinoic acid
Retinoic acid (RA) signaling plays an important role in vertebrate morphogenesis, including the patterning of the pharyngeal pouches[53]. A dose-dependent excess of exogenous retinoic acid intake during pregnancy, e.g. in the form of vitamin A is associated with defects in thymus and parathyroid along with various other malformations[54,55]. Interestingly, children with mutations in RA metabolism (*STRA6, ALDH1A2*) resulting in RA deficiency present with the same spectrum of congenital defects associated with RA toxicicy[56,57]. These findings suggest that an intricate balance of retinoic acid signaling is essential for thymic development. To understand the differential impact that RA plays in the development of anterior foregut-derived epithelial cells, we developed an RA metabolism gene regulatory module that integrates a curated set developmentally relevant RA metabolism genes, separated into RA synthesis, RA homeostasis and nuclear receptor interactions and RA degradation (Figure 4A).
Out of our data set, basal epithelial cell of bronchial (BEC) and esophageal (EEC) origin scored highest in RA synthetic capacity within an overall narrow range across all queried cell types. BECs and cTECs displayed the nuclear activity score, once again within a relatively narrow range. Strikingly, cTECs had substantially the highest RA degradation score and were the only queried cell type with significant RA breakdown by any of the three RA cytochrome P450 family 26 subfamily members solely specific to retinoic acid, but not other aldehydes or alcohols (Figure 4A and B). This raises the possibility that RA levels in TEC are under uniquely tight control. Retinoic acid signaling can be mediated through autocrine or paracrine sources of RA. As RA synthesis scores were low across all types on epithelial cells including cTECs, we investigated exogenous sources of RA in the thymic microenvironment using the same functional RA metabolism models. Highest expression of RA metabolizing enzymes was found in both types of thymic fibroblasts, including aldehyde-dehydrogenase positive fibroblasts also known as thymic fibroblasts 1[4] (*ALDH1A2*), and fibronectin-high fibroblasts also known as thymic fibroblasts 2[4] (*FBN1*) (Figure 4C and D). These data suggest that TEC, specifically cortical TECs tightly regulate paracrine sources of retinoic acid. Interestingly, endothelial cells and lymphatic endothelial cells of the thymic microenvironment showed highest scores of nuclear activities while cTECs once again

showed highest scores of RA degradation not only within the epithelial but also across the thymic microenvironmental data subset.

MATERIALS AND METHODS
Tissue Acquisition
Human fetal tissues from thymus, bronchus, lung and esophagus from 7 to 18 post conception week (pcw) specimens 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 7-8 samples was obtained in collaboration with the laboratory of Sarah Teichmann, from the MRC/Wellcome Trust-funded Human Developmental Biology Resources (HDBR, http://www.hdbr.org).

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 per tube using a tissue dissociator (gentleMACS, C tube, program m_spleen_02 (Miltenyi), 1-3 runs depending on tissue). Tissue fragments were transferred to a 50ml tube and incubate at 37°C for 20 min. Cells were pelleted at 110g, 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, 2mM EDTA), filtered through a 100um 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 flowcytomery on Beckman FACSAria II with CD45-APC, CD3-FITC, CD205-PE, EpCAM-APC, and L/D-NearIR-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 an 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 and downstream processing was performed using Seurat V4.0.

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

Gene set analysis
Gene sets were obtained from 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. In order to visualize biological themes, created a network representation of positively enriched gene sets 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. Each node is then colored proportionally by the relative enrichment of that gene set in each single-cell cluster. GSEA was performed using clusterProfiler/4.5.1.902 and 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. In determining module scores from gene lists determined by Nusser et al. mouse gene IDs were converted to corresponding human gene IDs using biomaRt/2.46.3. Genes without corresponding human homologs were excluded.

Trajectory and pseudotime analysis
We utilized tSpace/0.1.0 [60], to better 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 with tSpace were then reduced using uniform manifold approximation and projection (UMAP). We then fit principle curves through dimensionally reduced tSpace data using slingshot/1.8.0 and

SingleCellExperiment/1.12.0. Cycling TECs 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 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 psueudotime for the purpose of visualization. Genes with statistically different expression patterns along an individual trajectory as well as those with statistically different expression between the ends of the two trajectories were determined using the Wald test. To determine transiently expressed genes, we identified those with significant variation in expression along pseudotime but with minimal difference in expression between the ends of pseudotime trajectories. We calculated a transient score based on the sum of squared Wald score for within-trajectory gene expression and the squared negative Wald square for between-trajectory end expression.

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ABSTRACT FIGURE

Figure 1. Dissecting and integrating the gene expression profile of fetal derived anterior foregut tissues using scRNAseq. (A) Sequential embryonic development showing the foregut development into the pharyngeal apparatus focusing on the thymic ontogeny, including the bipotent third (III) pharyngeal pouch endoderm (PPEIII), ventralization of the PPE (PPEv), thymic epithelial progenitor cell development (TEPC), and the thymus (medullary thymic epithelial cells, mTEC; cortical TEC, cTEC; neuroTEC; myoTEC). (B) Scheme of sequential cell digestion and cell separation of embryonic Thymus, Esophagus, Bronchus and Lungs for quality control check and single cell RNA sequencing library preparation. (C) tSNE visualization of epithelial cells colored by cell type from individual anterior foregut tissues (D) Dot plot showing top expressing genes within selected anterior foregut tissue epithelial cell type populations. Color representative of average expression level. Dot size representative of percentage of cells in cell type expressing selected marker gene. (E) tSNE visualization of cells from individual anterior foregut tissues overlaid with expression pattern of genes representative of specific cell classes. (F) Heatmap of top differentially expressed genes in specific cell types of different tissue. (G) tSNE visualization of cells colored by cell type from individual anterior foregut tissues.

Figure 2. Differential distribution of *TP63* and *SOX2* expression across AFG-derived epithelial cells. (A) tSNE visualization of epithelial cells colored by cell type from individual anterior foregut tissues, and tSNE visualization of epithelial cells from all anterior foregut tissues colored by tissue of origin (right panel). (B) Dot plot showing expression of genes from selected gene sets (transcription factors, claudins, ECM, epithelial keratins, chemokines) within selected anterior foregut tissue epithelial cell type populations. Color representative of average expression level. Dot size representative of percentage of cells in cell type expressing selected marker gene. (C) tSNE visualization of epithelial cells from individual anterior foregut tissue overlaid with ratio of *TP63* to *SOX2* gene expression. Ratio represents the scaled difference between log-normalized counts of the two genes. (D) Correlation matrix plot comparing anterior foregut tissues.

Figure 3. Interferon type 1 and 2 signaling pathway is enriched in medullary TECs compared to other AFG-derived epithelial cells. (A) Network visualization of positively enriched gene sets across select anterior foregut epithelial cells. Only selected gene sets are labeled. Nodes represent individual gene sets. Node color represents relative use of gene set genes by each cell type. Node size reflects number of genes in gene set. Edges weight reflects proportion of genes shared between gene sets with a minimum proportion of 0.2. (B) Dot plots of comparing gene set enrichment of original genes sets and gene sets with proteasomal genes removed across selected anterior foregut epithelial cell types (bottom panel). Dot plots of gene set enrichment across selected anterior foregut epithelial cell types (top panel). Only selected gene sets are included for both dot plots. Color representative of gene set enrichment score. Dot size representative of percentage of -log10 p-value. (C) Dot plot showing relative expression of genes from select gene sets across select anterior foregut epithelial cell types. Color representative of average log2 expression difference between indicated cell type and all other epithelial cell types. Dot size representative of percentage of cells in cell type expressing selected gene.

Figure 4. Regulation of retinoic acid signaling is differential specially within thymic epithelial cells. (A) Dot plots of gene expression for curated genes involved in retinoic acid synthesis, nuclear signaling, and metabolism across select anterior foregut epithelial cell types. Color representative of average expression level. Dot size representative of percentage of cells in cell type expressing selected marker gene. (B) Module score based on the composite gene expression of curated retinoic acid genes from (4A) across select anterior foregut epithelial cell types. Dot represents mean module score. (C) tSNE visualization of thymus cells colored by cell type as in Figure 1 focusing on RA modules. (D) tSNE visualization of thymus cells overlaid with module score for each cell as described in (4B).

A

1. cTEC
2. Cycling TEC
3. mcTEC
4. mTEC 1
5. mTEC 2
6. mTEC 3/4
7. TEC myo/neuro
8. Parathyroid

B

- 6w
- 7w
- 16w
- 17w
- 18w
- 3mo

C

Proportion of cells

6w 7w 16w 17w 18w 3mo

- cTEC
- Cycling TEC
- mcTEC
- mTEC 1
- mTEC 2
- mTEC 3/4

D

Early Progenitor

Postnatal Progenitor

cTEC

mTEC

Figure 5. Vertical development of thymic epithelial cells in sequential timepoints. tSNE visualization of thymic epithelial cells across all sampled developmental time points, colored by cell types (A) or by developmental time point (B). (C) Relative proportion of select thymic epithelial cell types at each developmental time point. (D) tSNE visualization of thymic epithelial cells across all sampled developmental time points, overlaid with score of gene expression modules composed of gene sets reflecting different thymic epithelial cell populations described by Nusser et al. 2022.

A

- 1. cTEC
- 2. Cycling TEC
- 3. mcTEC
- 4. mTEC 1
- 5. mTEC 2
- 6. mTEC 3/4
- 7. TEC myo/neuro
- 8. Parathyroid

B

Trajectory 1

Trajectory 2

C

Difference in expression between trajectory 1 and 2

MEF2C
NR4A2
NR4A3
CEBPA
HOXB2
PEG3
NFATC1
SOX17
HSF4
EGR2
CREB5
IRF8
SOHLH2
NFATC2
SOX7
ARNTL2
STAT1
BHLHE40
MYC
ZFP36L2
FOS
KLF6
JUNB
NME2
IRF1
JUN
EGR1

D

MEF2C NR4A2 NR4A3 CEBPA HOXB2 PEG3

NFATC1 SOX17 HSF4 EGR2 CREB5 IRF8

SOHLH2 NFATC2 SOX7 ARNTL2 STAT1 BHLHE40

MYC ZFP36L2 FOS KLF6 JUNB NME2

IRF1 JUN EGR1

Figure 6. Development-related gene signature modulates dual trajectory of thymic epithelial cell differentiation. (A) tSpace-UMAP visualization of thymic epithelial cells across all sampled developmental time points, colored by cell types. (B) tSpace-UMAP from above overlaid with pseudotime trajectories based on underlying gene expression. (C) Heatmap of difference in select transcription factor expression between trajectories along pseudotime. Expression based on negative binomial generalized additive model (GAM) to standardize differences in trajectory lengths. Transient transcription factors selected by including only those with significant difference in expression between trajectories and an absolute expression difference between trajectories of < 1.5 at the beginning and end of pseudotime. (D) tSpace-UMAP visualization of thymic epithelial cells across all sampled developmental time points, overlaid with trajectories and expression of transiently expressed transcription factors included in above heatmap.

A

Supplementary Figure S1. Dot plot showing representative marker gene expression of anterior foregut cell types across individual tissues. Color representative of average expression level. Dot size representative of percentage of cells in cell type expressing selected marker gene.

A

Supplementary Figure S2. Heatmap of selected genes across thymic epithelial cells.

A

B

Supplementary Figure S3. (A) Network visualization of positively enriched gene sets across select anterior foregut epithelial cells. Edges weight reflects proportion of genes shared between gene sets with a minimum proportion of 0.2. All genes are represented. **(B)** Network visualization of positively enriched gene sets across select anterior foregut epithelial cells. Nodes represent individual gene sets. Node color represents relative use of gene set genes by each cell type. Node size reflects number of genes in gene set. Edges weight reflects proportion of genes shared between gene sets. N = number of pathways included for each cell type. P = minimum proportion of gene set overlap required for an edge to be drawn between them.

A

Supplementary Figure S4. Dot plots of gene set enrichment across selected anterior foregut epithelial cell types. Only selected gene sets are included. Color representative of gene set enrichment score. Dot size representative of percentage of -log10 p-value. All gene sets are included

A

Supplementary Figure S5. Dot plots of comparing gene set enrichment of original genes sets and gene sets with proteasomal genes removed across selected anterior foregut epithelial cell types. Color representative of gene set enrichment score. Dot size representative of percentage of -log10 p-value. All gene sets are included.

A

Absolute difference in expression
between trajectory 1 and 2

Supplementary Figure S6. Heatmap of absolute difference in select transcription factor expression between trajectories along pseudotime. Expression based on negative binomial generalized additive model (GAM) to standardize differences in trajectory lengths. Transcription factors selected by including only those with significant difference in expression between trajectories.

Supplementary Table S1. Metadata for sequenced samples

Sample ID		Organ	Age	NumCells	MeanCountsPerCell	MeanGenesPerCell	MedianMitoPercentage	Gender	Tissue processing
C40_TH_TOT_2		Thymus	PCW7	7180	11139	3054.5	1.97	Female	All cells
C40_TH_TOT_1		Thymus	PCW7	6841	11293.8	3098.1	1.97	Female	All cells
C41_TH_TOT_2		Thymus	PCW7 to 8	5789	14190.5	3544.9	2.61	Male	All cells
C41_TH_TOT_1		Thymus	PCW7 to 8	5620	14244.3	3547.6	2.52	Male	All cells
KGW1 (previously HGSC5)	HGSC5	Thymus	PCW16	3046	21747	4135	7.29	Male	EPCAM positive selection, CD45 depletion
F83_TH_EPCAM		Thymus	PCW17	3678	9575.2	2634.2	2.55	Female	EPCAM FACS sorted
KGW2 (previously HGSC1)	HGSC1	Thymus	PCW17	7634	11754	2993	6.81	Female	EPCAM positive selection, CD45 depletion
KGW3 (previously HG1)	HG1	Thymus	PCW18	8648	9349	2721	5.73	Male	EPCAM positive selection, CD45 depletion
KGW4 (previously HGSC6)	HGSC6	Bronchus	PCW16	5920	15651	3525	7.69	Male	EPCAM positive selection
KGW5 (previously HGSC2)	HGSC2	Bronchus	PCW17	4376	16449	3188	8.56	Female	EPCAM positive selection
KGW6 (previously HG2)	HG2	Bronchus	PCW18	7414	15387	2979	9.43	Male	EPCAM positive selection
KGW7 (previously HGSC7)	HGSC7	Lung	PCW16	3726	20366	3862	7.95	Male	EPCAM positive selection
KGW8 (previously HGSC3)	HGSC3	Lung	PCW17	7075	11074	2810	8.11	Female	EPCAM positive selection
KGW9 (previously HG3)	HG3	Lung	PCW18	7208	12965	3254	7.12	Male	EPCAM positive selection
KGW10 (previously HGSC8)	HGSC8	Esophagus	PCW16	4603	16004	3513	7	Male	EPCAM positive selection
KGW11 (previously HGSC4)	HGSC4	Esophagus	PCW17	6464	11431	2723	8.48	Female	EPCAM positive selection