On growth and form of the mammary gland: Mesenchyme instructs growth while

epithelium directs branching

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Abstract

Mammary gland is a unique organ that undergoes dynamic alterations throughout a female's reproductive life, making it an ideal model for developmental, stem cell and cancer biology research. Mammary gland development begins *in utero* and proceeds via a quiescent bud stage before the initial outgrowth and subsequent branching morphogenesis. How mammary epithelial cells transit from quiescence to an actively proliferating and branching tissue during embryogenesis and, importantly, how the branch pattern is determined remain largely unknown. Here we provide evidence indicating that epithelial cell proliferation, segregation into basal and luminal lineages that characterize the postnatal mammary duct, and onset of branching are independent processes, yet partially coordinated by the Eda signaling pathway. By performing heterotypic and heterochronic epithelial-mesenchymal recombination experiments between mammary and salivary gland tissues and *ex vivo* live imaging, we demonstrate that unlike previously concluded, the mode of branching is an intrinsic property of the mammary epithelium while the growth pace and density of the mammary ductal tree are governed by the mesenchyme. Transcriptomic profiling and *ex vivo* and *in vivo* functional studies disclose that mesenchymal Wnt/ß-catenin signaling, and in particular IGF-1 downstream of it critically regulate mammary gland growth. These results underscore the general need to carefully decompose the different developmental processes producing branched organs.

Introduction

Branching morphogenesis is a common developmental process driving the formation of a number of organs including lung, kidney, salivary and mammary gland [1]. Although some fundamental principles are shared, each organ employs its unique branching strategy – mode and density of branching – to achieve the proper architecture tailored to its function [1-3]. In recent decades, significant advancements have been made in unraveling the underlying mechanisms of branching morphogenesis in various organs and species. However, many questions remain unanswered, especially regarding the mammary gland as much of the research focus has been on its postnatal growth[1, 2]. Yet, mammary gland morphogenesis commences already during fetal life by formation of placodes, local epithelial thickenings, in the flanks of the fetus. How these early steps of branching morphogenesis differ between mammary gland and other organs remains poorly understood.

In mice, five pairs of mammary placodes emerge around embryonic day 11 (E11). Placodes invaginate by E13 giving rise to buds that are now surrounded by condensed, mammary-specific mesenchyme [4-6]. Mammary buds stay relatively non-proliferative until E15-E16 when they sprout toward the adjacent 'secondary' mammary mesenchyme, the fat pad precursor tissue that later gives rise to the adult stroma. Branching begins at E16, and by E18 (1-2 days prior to birth) mammary rudiments have developed into small ductal trees with 10-25 branches [3, 7]. In contrast to the postnatal bilayered mammary epithelium consisting of outer basal and inner luminal cells, embryonic mammary rudiments undergo branching as a solid mass of epithelial cells without lumen. Mammary rudiments initially consist of multipotent precursors that become restricted to basal and luminal lineages during later stages of embryogenesis [8, 9]. The mechanisms governing the exit from quiescence and acquisition of branching ability are still enigmatic. The observation that the

initial outgrowth coincides with activation of proliferation and lineage segregation has led to

the hypothesis that they might be functionally connected [8, 10]. However, whether a causal

link exists between these phenomena is currently unknown.

Reciprocal epithelial-mesenchymal tissue interactions are critical for mammary

gland development at all stages. Many signaling pathways essential for mammary placode

and bud formation have been identified, but the paracrine factors regulating branching

during embryogenesis are less well understood [4, 5, 11, 12]. The tumor necrosis factor family

member ectodysplasin A1 (Eda) is one such mesenchymal factor: Eda deficiency

compromises ductal growth and branching, while mice overexpressing Eda exhibit a

dramatic ductal phenotype with precocious sprouting and excessive growth and branching

[13, 14]. In addition, the Wnt and fibroblast growth factor (Fgf) pathways are likely involved [7,

11], but the early developmental arrest observed in mice where these pathways are

inactivated [15, 16] has hampered elucidation of their exact roles during branching

morphogenesis.

Importantly, the current paradigm posits that the mesenchyme specifies the

epithelial branching pattern in all branched organs [1, 3]. This conclusion stems from tissue

recombination experiments where epithelia and mesenchymes of different origins have

been exchanged: lung mesenchyme instructs the kidney epithelium to adopt a lung-type

branching pattern while organ-specific mode of branching is maintained in homotypic

tissue recombinants [17, 18]. The same conclusion was drawn from the pioneering

experiments involving salivary gland mesenchyme and mammary gland epithelium. Even

though the mammary epithelium retained its cellular identity, the branch pattern was

reported to be salivary gland-like: branches formed at higher density and by tip clefting

rather than lateral branching [19, 20]. In addition, salivary gland mesenchyme promoted much

faster growth. Although the evidence from the early experiments appear compelling, the

underlying molecular basis remained elusive.

To uncover the regulation of mammary gland branching, we first revisited the

heterochronic tissue recombination using mammary tissues. Our results show that the

timing of the initial branching is epithelium-dependent, yet epithelial-mesenchymal

interactions are indispensable for the outgrowth to occur. Further analysis suggests that

onset of branching is independent of onset of proliferation and lineage segregation, yet

they are partially coordinated by the Eda pathway. In strong contrast to the previous

reports and to the paradigm of the role of the mesenchyme in directing branching [19, 20], live

imaging disclosed that salivary gland mesenchyme failed to switch the mode of mammary

branching into salivary-like. This implies that branch pattern formation is an intrinsic

property of the mammary epithelium. Nevertheless, salivary mesenchyme had a major

growth-promoting effect on the mammary epithelium once it had acquired branching

capacity. Transcriptomic profiling of mammary and salivary gland mesenchymes identified

mesenchymal Wnt/ß-catenin pathway and its downstream target *Igf1* as potential drivers

of epithelial growth, thereby decomposing mode of branching from growth control in

mammary development.

Results

The timing of onset of branching is an intrinsic property of the mammary epithelium

To assess whether timing of the mammary initial branching can be influenced by

tissues of different developmental stages, we performed heterochronic epithelial-

mesenchymal recombination experiments. To this end, we used tissues micro-dissected

from fluorescently labeled transgenic mice allowing day-to-day imaging, as well as

evaluation of the purity of the tissue compartments (Fig. 1a). Because anterior mammary

glands are more advanced in their development than the posterior ones [7], only mammary

glands 1 to 3 were used throughout the study, unless otherwise specified, to avoid any

biases caused by the asynchrony.

It has been previously shown that early (E12) mammary mesenchyme does not

alter the onset of branching of the mammary epithelium (E12 to E16) in *ex vivo* tissue

recombination experiments [19]. However, the ability of late mammary mesenchyme to

advance epithelial outgrowth and branching has not been assessed. To answer this

question, we recombined E13.5 mammary epithelia (quiescent bud stage) with E13.5,

E15.5, or E16.5 (when the very first branches are evident) mammary mesenchymes. In the

control explants (E13.5 epithelia with E13.5 mesenchyme), branching started after 3-4

days of culture (Fig. 1b,c), in good agreement with development *in vivo*. No precocious

branching was observed when 'older' mesenchyme was used: when E13.5 epithelia were

cultured with either E15.5 or E16.5 mesenchyme, branching was again evident only after

3-4 days of culture (Fig. 1b, c). As an additional control, we performed similar experiments

as described by Kratochwil [19], and cultured E13.5, E15.5 or E16.5 mammary epithelia with

E13.5 mammary mesenchyme (Fig. 1d). As previously reported, all epithelia branched in

E13.5 mesenchyme, and outgrowth started after 3-4, 1-2, and 0-1 days of culture,

respectively (Fig. 2e), correlating with the stage of epithelium and its developmental pace

in vivo.

Next, we asked whether the mesenchyme is needed for initiation of branching. To

this end, we utilized a mesenchyme-free 3D mammary organoid technique to culture

micro-dissected intact mammary rudiments in a serum-free medium with growth

supplements [21](Fig. 1f). In the 3D Matrigel matrix, E16.5 mammary epithelia generated

large branching trees in just 3 days (Fig. 2g,f and Supplementary Fig.1), whereas epithelia

from earlier stages (E13.5 to E15.5) consistently failed to branch even after eight days of

culture. Some specimens enlarged in size, yet they failed to progress, except for

occasional E15.5 epithelia that generated a few branches (Fig. 2g,i and Supplementary

Fig. 1).

Besides confirming previous observations [19] our results reveal that mesenchymes

from advanced developmental stages could not alter the pace of epithelial outgrowth, yet

epithelial-mesenchymal interactions are indispensable for the mammary epithelium to

acquire branching ability.

Basal-cell biased proliferation is activated in mammary epithelium prior to initiation

of branching

Next, we sought to determine which mammary epithelial properties are required

for the onset of branching. Majority of mammary epithelial cells are quiescent at the

placode and bud stages [22-24], and proliferation is thought to resume when branching

begins at around E16 [22]. Such coincidence suggests that activation of proliferation may

closely cooperate with, or even drive the onset of branching. To gain more insight into the

quiescent stage of the embryonic mammary primordium, we first quantified the volume of

the mammary epithelium with the aid of 3D surface renderings of EpCAM-stained

specimens (Fig. 2a). The volume of mammary rudiments steadily increased from E13.5 to

E16.5 (Fig. 2b), whereas quantification of the branch (tip) number showed that active

branching did not take place until E16.5 (Fig. 2c).

To analyze epithelial proliferation between E13.5 and E16.5, we investigated cell

cycle dynamics using the Fucci2a mouse model, where cells in S/G2/M phase of the cell

cycle express nuclear mVenus while cells in G1/G0 express nuclear mCherry [25]. The ratios

of mammary epithelial cells in S/G2/M and G1/G0 phases were quantified in 3D after

whole-mount staining with EpCAM (Fig. 2d). In line with the previous report [24], only ~20%

of mammary epithelial cells were in S/G2/M phase at E13.5, with no apparent change at

E14.5 (Fig. 2e). However, the proportion of S/G2/M cells significantly increased at E15.5

but plateaued and even slightly decreased at E16.5 when branching was evident (Fig. 2e).

Initiation of branching morphogenesis has also been proposed to be associated with

the onset of basal and luminal lineage segregation at E15-E16 [8]. A recent single-cell RNA

sequencing (RNAseq) profiling study identified a cluster of proliferative cells in addition to

the luminal and basal cell clusters in the E15.5 mammary gland [26]. These findings

prompted us to examine whether the proliferative cells display any bias in their distribution

at E13.5-E16.5. Due to the absence of clear spatial segregation of basal and luminal

lineage markers during these early developmental stages [9], we instead measured the

distance of each nucleus to the surface of epithelial mammary rudiments in 3D to define

their location (Fig. 2f). Distribution of all nuclei revealed a cluster of cells localizing within

10 µm distance from the epithelial surface (dashed line in Fig. 2g), corresponding well with

the confocal images showing radially organized, basally-located elongated cells in the

same position (Fig. 2d,f). Next, we stratified the epithelial cells to basal (nuclear distance

less than or equal to 10 µm from the surface) and inner ("luminal") (nuclear distance more

than 10 µm) ones and quantified the ratios of S/G2/M and G1/G0 cells in each

compartment (Fig. 2h). At E13.5 and E14.5, the proportion of S/G2/M cells was higher in

the inner compartment, though the difference was statistically significant only at E14.5.

However, concomitant with the overall increase in proliferation (Fig. 2e), there was a

switch in the proportion of S/G2/M and G1/G0 cells at E15.5 and E16.5, basal cells being

significantly more proliferative.

Basal-cell biased proliferation is not sufficient to drive initiation of branching

The observation that basal cell-biased proliferation occurred prior to onset of

branching suggests that it might be a prerequisite for branching to occur. Interestingly,

activation of epithelial cell proliferation also seems to be associated with basal cell lineage

specification. To further investigate the potential link between lineage segregation,

proliferation, and initiation of branching, we took advantage of a mouse model that

displays precocious onset of branching, the K14-*Eda* mouse overexpressing Eda under

the keratin 14 (K14) promoter. Eda and its epithelially-expressed receptor Edar regulate

growth and branching of the embryonic and pubertal mammary gland [13, 14, 27, 28]. In K14-

Eda embryos, mammary epithelial proliferation is increased, and branching is initiated

already at E14.5 [13].

      To more closely examine the cellular alterations induced by Eda, we quantified the

size, branch tip number, and proliferation status in K14-*Eda* embryos and their wild type

littermates at E13.5 and E14.5. Mammary buds of K14-*Eda* embryos were significantly

larger already at E13.5 (Fig. 3a,b), and at E14.5, the volume was comparable to those of

E16.5 wild type embryos (compare Fig. 3b to Fig. 2b, all mice in C57Bl/6 background). As

reported [13], branching was evident in K14-*Eda* embryos already at E14.5 (Fig. 3c).

      To specifically assess the link between lineage segregation and onset of branching,

we analyzed expression of the well-established basal and luminal markers, keratin 14

(K14) and keratin 8 (K8) respectively, in K14-*Eda* and littermate control mammary glands

(Supplementary Fig. 2a) between E13.5 and postnatal day 5 (P5). At E13.5, there was no

obvious difference between the genotypes. Intriguingly, at E14.5 and E15.5, K14-*Eda*

mammary rudiments displayed a notable downregulation of K8 not only in basal cells, but

also in inner cells (Supplementary Fig. 2a). However, K8 expression resumed at E16.5,

and at P1, and P5, no difference between the genotypes was observed (Supplementary

Fig. 2a). Accordingly, gene set enrichment analysis of a microarray dataset of E13.5 *Eda*^{-/-}

mammary buds treated with recombinant Eda protein for 4 hours [29] revealed a positive

enrichment of 'LIM_Mammary_Stem_Cell_Up' gene signature [30], known to represent the

basal cell signature (Supplementary Fig. 2b). These data suggest that lineage segregation

is unlikely to be a prerequisite for branching to commence, as branching was observed

even though luminal lineage was transiently suppressed in K14-*Eda* embryos. However,

we cannot exclude the possibility that consolidation of basal fate in basally located cells

(by downregulation of luminal fate) plays a role.

Next, we focused on investigating the link between proliferation and onset of

branching. Analysis of Fucci2a reporter expression in K14-*Eda* embryos at E13.5 and

E14.5 revealed that the portion of S/G2/M cells was significantly higher in K14-*Eda* mice at

both stages compared with wild type littermates (Fig. 3d and Supplementary Fig. 3a). In

addition, the basal cell-biased proliferation was evident already at E14.5 (but not yet at

E13.5) in K14-*Eda* embryos (Fig. 3e), similar to wild type mice at E15.5/E16.5 (Fig. 2h).

Since E14.5 K14-*Eda* mammary glands had similar characteristics to E16.5 wild type in

terms of volume, elevated overall proliferation, and basal cell-biased proliferation, we next

tested their ability to grow and branch in the mesenchyme-free 3D Matrigel culture. E14.5,

but not E13.5, K14-*Eda* epithelia were able to branch, whereas epithelia isolated from wild

type littermates expectedly failed to generate outgrowths (Fig. 3f, g). We also analyzed

Fucci2a reporter expression in *Eda*^{-/-} mice [31] at E15.5 and E16.5. As we previously

reported [13], loss of *Eda* led to smaller glands and the onset of branching was delayed with

most mammary glands being unbranched at E16.5 (Fig. 3h-j). However, the overall

proliferation (Fig. 3k), as well as the relative portion of S/G2/M cells in basal and inner cells

(Fig. 3l and Supplementary Fig. 3b) were similar between *Eda*^{-/-} and wild type controls at

both stages. To evaluate the branching ability, we again performed mesenchyme-free 3D

culture. While nearly all E16.5 control epithelia gave rise to branched outgrowths, as

expected, about half of *Eda*^{-/-} epithelia failed to do so (Fig. 3m,n).

Collectively, these data indicate that initiation of branching succeeds activation of

proliferation but is not its direct consequence. Additionally, analysis of K14-*Eda* mammary

rudiments suggests that exit from quiescence and branching ability can occur

independently of lineage specification.

Salivary gland mesenchyme is rich in growth-promoting cues, but does not alter the

mode of branch point formation of the mammary epithelium

Next, we shifted our focus on the regulation of the branching pattern, which is

thought to be determined by mesenchymal cues [19, 20]. To assess the influence of the

mesenchyme, we performed heterotypic and heterochronic epithelial-mesenchymal

recombination experiments between fluorescently labeled mammary and salivary gland

tissues. Mammary epithelia and mesenchymes were isolated either at the quiescent bud

stage (E13.5), or right after the bud had sprouted (E16.5); in addition to the primary

mesenchyme, also mammary fat pad precursor tissue was micro-dissected from E16.5

embryos. Salivary gland tissues were isolated at E13.5, when the first branching events

are evident and tissue separation is effortless. Homotypic recombinations were used as

controls.

As previously reported [19], E16.5 mammary ductal trees were far denser when

cultured with salivary gland mesenchyme, and grew and branched at a faster rate than

with any of the mammary mesenchymes tested (Fig. 4a, top row). Of E13.5 mammary

epithelia, majority (13 out of 18) did not survive in the salivary gland mesenchyme, and in

the remaining ones, only traces of epithelial cells could be detected after 6 days of culture

(Fig. 4a, middle row). However, E13.5 mammary epithelia branched readily in combination

with all mammary mesenchymes (Fig. 4a, middle row), although their success rate was

generally lower than that of E16.5 epithelia, as also previously reported [19]. In addition, we

assessed the impact of mammary mesenchyme on salivary gland epithelium. Although the

salivary gland epithelium usually survived, further growth and branching were minimal

when cultured with any of the mammary mesenchymes, in stark contrast with homotypic
control recombinants (Fig. 4a, bottom row).

In principle, new branches can be generated by two different mechanisms: tip
clefting/bifurcation or lateral (side) branching [1, 3]. In the embryonic mammary gland, both
events are common [7] while the salivary gland branches by tip clefting only [32]. Recent
advances in imaging technologies have enabled time-lapse analysis of branching events in
detail prompting us to perform live imaging of salivary and mammary epithelia recombined
ex vivo with salivary gland mesenchyme (Fig. 4b, Supplementary Video 1). Images were
captured at 2h intervals, and branching events were traced and quantified from the time-
lapse videos. Nearly all salivary gland branching events occurred by tip clefting (Fig. 4c),
as expected. Surprisingly, over 60% of mammary branching events were generated by
lateral branching, similar to normal embryonic mammary gland branching [7]. We conclude
that although salivary gland mesenchyme boosts growth of the mammary epithelium, the
mode of branching is an intrinsic property of the mammary epithelium that is not altered by
the growth-promoting salivary gland mesenchyme environment.

Transcriptomic profiling of mammary and salivary gland mesenchymes identifies
potential growth regulators

To identify the mesenchymal cues governing the differential growth characteristics
of mammary and salivary gland epithelia, we performed transcriptomic profiling of five
distinct tissues: E13.5 mammary mesenchyme surrounding the quiescent bud (E13.5 MM),
E16.5 mammary mesenchyme surrounding the mammary sprout (E16.5 MM), E16.5 Fat
pad precursor tissue (E16.5 FP)*,* and E13.5 salivary gland mesenchyme (E13.5 SM) (Fig.
5a). E13.5 non-mammary ventral skin mesenchyme (E13.5 VM) was also included to allow
identification of mammary-specific transcriptomes. Five biological replicates for each tissue
were sequenced.

The principal component analysis revealed that each group of samples were distinct

from each other, although the E13.5 MM and E13.5 VM group quite close together

(Supplementary Fig. 4a). To investigate the differences between the samples and assess

the quality of the data, we performed pairwise comparisons and identified 51, 10, 54, 195,

and 393 signature genes preferentially expressed in only one of the five sample sets (Fig.

5b and Supplementary Table 1). Among them, *Esr1* and *Ar* encoding estrogen and

androgen receptors, respectively, were markers of E16.5 MM, while E16.5 FP was rich

with adipogenesis markers such as *Aoc3*, *Adipoq*, *Cebpa*, *Fabp4, Lpl, Plin1 and Pparg* [33].

E13.5 SM-enriched genes *Nr5a2*, *Negr1*, *Klf14* and *Satb2* have been identified as salivary

mesenchyme markers by Sekiguchi et al. using single-cell RNA sequencing [34]. These data

indicate that our RNAseq data represent well the transcriptomes of the designated tissues.

To understand the functional disparity between salivary and mammary

mesenchymes in promoting epithelial growth and branching, we performed a Gene

Ontology (GO) enrichment analysis for differentially expressed genes (DEGs) in Biological

Processes (BP) (Fig. 5c,d). In total, 461 GOBP terms were shared among E13.5 MM,

E16.5 MM and E16.5 FP when compared to E13.5 SM. Among the 461 shared GOBP

terms, the top 10 most significantly enriched terms in each pairwise comparison resulted

only into 16 unique GOBP terms. Strikingly, of these, four were Wnt pathway related

terms: canonical Wnt signaling pathway, regulation of canonical Wnt signaling pathway,

negative regulation of Wnt signaling pathway, and negative regulation of canonical Wnt

signaling pathway (Fig. 5d).

To identify genes with the potential to regulate epithelial cell behaviors, we focused

on DEGs encoding extracellular (secreted or membrane-bound) molecules (signaling

molecules, signaling pathway inhibitors, extracellular matrix components) in biologically

relevant pairwise comparisons (Fig. 5e). Exclusion of lowly expressed genes led to the

identification of 644 candidate genes (Supplementary Table 2). mFuzz cluster analysis [35]

suggested that those genes could be further classified into 9 clusters based on their

expression pattern across all the samples (Fig. 5f and Supplementary Table 2).

Examination of the Wnt pathway related genes (as identified by GOBP enrichment

analysis shown in Fig. 5d) in these clusters revealed that altogether 12 out of 19 negative

regulators of Wnt pathway were markers of clusters 1 and 3, including *Dkk2*, *Bmp2*,

Wnt11, *Slc9a3r1*, *Grem1*, *Wif1*, *Tsku*, *Wnt5a*, *Dkk1*, *Notum*, *Sostdc1* and *Cthrc1* (Fig. 5g).

Clusters 1 and 3 were characterized by genes displaying lower expression in E16.5 MM

than E13.5 MM, and the lowest level in E13.5 SM (Fig. 5f). Our tissue recombination

experiments (Fig. 1b) suggest that such an expression pattern might represent potential

growth suppressors. In other words, low expression of these negative regulators in salivary

gland mesenchyme might enhance epithelial growth and branching, and in turn their

higher expression in mammary mesenchyme might inhibit growth.

Clusters 2, 7, 8 and 9 were defined by genes such as *Hgf, Ltbp1, Tnc, and Postn,*

with highest expression levels in one or more mammary-derived mesenchymes,

highlighting them as best candidates to possess mammary-specific functions, e.g. in

regulation of sprouting or epithelial cell differentiation. On the other hand, the clusters 5

and 6 genes, such as *Adam10*, *Adamts1*, *Bmp1*, *Bmp7*, *Fgf10*, *Igf1*, *Igf2* and *Eda,* have

highest expression levels in E13.5 SM, indicating a potential role as drivers of epithelial

growth. This fits well with the known roles of Eda and Fgf10 in salivary and mammary

gland development [7, 13, 36-38].

Wnt-activated mesenchyme promotes growth of the mammary epithelium

The transcriptomic analysis suggests that one significant difference between salivary

and mammary mesenchymes is the Wnt pathway. Gene set variation analysis (GSVA)

confirmed that the Wnt signaling signature was higher in E13.5 SM compared to all

mammary mesenchymes (Supplementary Fig. 4b), which is consistent with the high

expression of Wnt inhibitors in the mammary mesenchyme. Moreover, we have previously

shown that suppression of mesenchymal Wnt activity in developing salivary glands

compromises growth of the salivary gland [36]. Together, these findings promoted us to ask

whether low levels of mesenchymal Wnt activity could limit the growth of the mammary

epithelium. To answer this question experimentally, we aimed to activate Wnt signaling by

stabilizing β-catenin in the mesenchyme by crossing *Dermo1-Cre^{+/-}* mice with those

harboring exon3 –floxed ß-catenin (*ß-catenin[flox3/flox3]* mouse) [39]. However, this led to

embryonic lethality already at E12.5, in line with previous reports [40]. Therefore, we chose

the tissue recombination approach where E13.5 wild type mammary buds were

recombined with E13.5 mammary mesenchyme dissected either from control (*ß-*

catenin[wt/wt]) or *ß-catenin[flox3/wt]* embryos, followed by adeno-associated virus (AAV8) –

mediated gene transduction as a means to deliver Cre recombinase [41] (Fig. 6a). As a

result, Wnt signaling was activated in the mesenchymal cells only. Quantification of tissue

recombinants transduced with AAV8-Cre revealed that wild type mammary epithelia

cultured on mammary mesenchyme from *ß-catenin[flox3/wt]* embryos had significantly more

ductal tips than those cultured on control mammary mesenchyme (Fig 6b,c). These data

indicate that low level of mesenchymal Wnt signaling activity limits growth and branching

of the mammary epithelium.

Next, we asked which paracrine factors could regulate epithelial growth downstream of

mesenchymal Wnt signaling. First, we explored a publicly available RNA-seq dataset [42]

(Fig. 6d) which compared gene expression levels in wild type and β-catenin deficient

mammary fibroblasts cultured with or without Wnt3a protein, and narrowed our analysis on

cluster 5 and 6 genes identified in the mFuzz analysis (Fig. 5f and Supplementary Table

2). These genes displayed opposite expression patterns to genes in clusters 1 and 3, and

hence were expected to positively regulate epithelial growth (Fig. 5f,g). The analysis

revealed that the expression of most of the cluster 5 and 6 genes was altered in mammary

fibroblasts upon manipulation of Wnt signaling activity (Fig. 6d). Focusing on genes

upregulated by Wnt3a in wild type, but not in β-catenin deficient fibroblast led to the

identification of 18 and 5 candidate genes in clusters 5 and 6, respectively, *Eda* and *Igf1*

being amongst them (Fig. 6d-f). We have previously identified *Eda* as a gene downstream

of Wnt pathway in the salivary gland mesenchyme [36], validating our analysis pipeline.

IGF-1R is required for embryonic mammary gland development and branching

morphogenesis

IGF-1 is well known for its role in growth control and, similar to other tissues, it

functions as an important local mediator of the growth hormone in pubertal mammary

glands [43-45]. However, the role of the IGF-1 pathway in embryonic mammary gland

development has not been explored, apart from one study reporting the smaller size of the

E14 mammary bud in IGF-1R deficient embryos [46]. Analyses of the known secreted

components of the IGF pathway revealed that many of them were differentially expressed

between salivary and mammary gland mesenchymes (Supplementary Fig. 5), the most

striking being *Igf1* and pregnancy-associated plasma protein-A (*Pappa*), a zinc

metalloproteinase that promotes IGF-1 signaling through cleavage of the inhibitory Igf-

binding proteins (IGFBPs) [47]. *Pappa* was also identified as a cluster 5 gene in the mFuzz

analysis (Supplementary Table 2). To functionally test the effect of IGF-1 on mammary

gland growth, we performed *ex vivo* culture of E16.5 mammary glands and treated the

explants for 3 days with moderate levels of recombinant IGF-1 or vehicle (Fig. 7a).

Quantification of branch tip number showed that IGF-1 significantly increased growth of

the mammary epithelium (Fig. 7b).

To assess the function of IGF-1 *in vivo*, we examined mammary gland development in

embryos deficient for *Igf1r*, the obligate cognate receptor of Igf1 [48, 49]. As previously

reported [50], *Igf1r⁻/⁻* embryos were significantly smaller compared with wild type littermates

(*Igf1r⁺/⁺*) (Fig. 7c). At E16.5, the anterior glands of littermate control embryos had sprouted.

Small outgrowths were also observed in *Igf1r⁻/⁻* embryos, with the exception of mammary

gland 3 that was consistently absent (Fig. 7d). At E18.5, growth and branching was

severely compromised in the *Igf1r⁻/⁻* embryos, verified by quantification of the epithelial

area of the mammary gland and the ductal tip number of mammary glands 1-4 at E18.5

(Supplementary Fig. 6a,b). To avoid biases caused by the conspicuously smaller size of

the *Igf1r⁻/⁻* embryos [50, 51], we normalized the data to the body weight (Fig. 7e,f). The

normalized values revealed that the mammary gland area and tip numbers were

significantly reduced in *Igf1r⁻/⁻* embryos compared to controls. There was no significant

difference between *Igf1r⁺/⁻* and *Igfr1⁺/⁺* embryos, except that the number of tips in mammary

gland 2 was reduced in *Igf1r⁺/⁻* embryos (Fig. 7f). Analysis of E13.5 embryos revealed that

mammary rudiment 3 was absent in *Igf1r⁻/⁻* embryos already early on (Supplementary Fig.

6c,d). We also examined the developing salivary glands at E13.5, E16.5 and E18.5. In

stark contrast to the mammary gland, the salivary glands of E16.5 and E18.5 *Igf1r⁻/⁻*

embryos were highly branched although smaller (Supplementary Fig. 6e), paralleling the

overall growth defect of the mutant embryos (Fig. 7c). Collectively, these data show that

embryonic mammary gland development is exceptionally sensitive to loss of IGF-1/IGF-1R

signaling, as shown by the complete absence of mammary bud 3 and the specific growth

and branching impairment during late embryogenesis.

Discussion

In this study, we explored the fundamental principles of epithelial-mesenchymal tissue interactions guiding embryonic mammary gland development. Our findings reveal that while both the timing and type of branching events are intrinsic properties of the mammary epithelium, mammary-specific mesenchymal signals are crucial for the acquisition of the branching capacity. Importantly, we demonstrate that salivary gland mesenchyme could only promote the growth of mammary epithelium without changing the branching regime. Transcriptomic profiling and experimental evidence indicate that mesenchymal Wnt signaling and Igf1 downstream of it are critical regulators promoting mammary gland growth and contribute to the differences in growth-promoting capacity of the mammary and salivary mesenchymes. Other pathways are also involved, as several signaling molecules known to regulate growth, such as *Eda* and *Fgf10* [7, 52, 53], were differentially expressed between salivary and mammary gland mesenchymes.

Three important events occur before initiation of mammary gland branching: exit from quiescence, lineage segregation and initial outgrowth. Our data suggest that these three phenomena are likely coordinated, in part through Eda signaling. Interestingly, basal cells are more proliferative initially, unlike during later embryogenesis when branching is ongoing [54]. Our observation that basal cell-biased proliferation is activated prior to branching seems to support the previous hypothesis that proliferation and lineage segregation may be prerequisites for branching [8, 10]. However, basal cells are more proliferative also in K14-*Eda* mammary glands where establishment of luminal fate is temporarily disrupted when branching begins. This finding argues that lineage segregation is independent of onset of branching. Moreover, analyses in both Eda loss- and gain-of-function mice imply that even though cell proliferation precedes, it alone is not sufficient to induce branching. This is in line with our recent study showing that inhibition of cell proliferation does not prevent branch point generation or branch elongation *per se*, though

new cells are evidently needed as building blocks for further ductal growth [54]. Instead, cell

motility is critical for branch point formation in the mammary gland [54], as well as in other

branching organs [55-57].

Epithelial-mesenchymal tissue recombination experiments performed mainly in the

50's to 70's using different branched organs, including the lung, kidney, and salivary gland,

have disclosed the dominant role of the mesenchyme in branch patterning [17, 58-64], a

conclusion confirmed also by detailed branch pattern analyses of heterotypic kidney and

lung tissue [18]. Similarly, recombination experiments between mammary epithelium and

salivary gland mesenchyme [19, 20] laid the foundation for our current understanding on the

instructive role of the mesenchyme in mammary gland branching morphogenesis.

However, at the time, time-lapse imaging was not feasible precluding a comprehensive

investigation of the dynamic branching process. Advances in imaging may explain our

contrasting result. That is, our data clearly demonstrate that although the density and

growth rate of the mammary ductal tree were greatly enhanced by the salivary gland

mesenchyme, the type of branch point formation was not. This observation suggests that

mammary epithelium itself carries the instructions dictating the mode of branching

involving both lateral branching and tip bifurcations. This conclusion is further supported by

our recent study showing that isolated E16.5 mammary epithelia retain bimodal branching

also in the mesenchyme-free 3D organoid culture [54]. Evidently, further studies are required

to elucidate which properties of the mammary epithelium enable its bimodal branching

behavior.

In contrast to the mode of branching, growth rate and density of the mammary

ductal tree was grossly altered by the salivary gland mesenchyme implying an important

role for paracrine factors in these processes. This, together with the failure of the salivary

epithelium to grow in mammary gland mesenchyme indicate that the mammary gland

mesenchyme is either poor in growth-promoting cues and/or rich in growth-inhibitory cues.

Our transcriptomic profiling suggest that it may be both. Our RNA-seq data indicated that

low level of mesenchymal Wnt activity may restrict mammary gland growth. Mesenchymal

Wnt activity is critical for the early specification of the mammary mesenchyme [65], but its

function beyond the bud stage is largely unknown. Here, our experimental data revealed

that growth and branching of the mammary gland was enhanced by mesenchymal

activation of Wnt/β-catenin signaling activity. Previous studies have shown that an excess

of Wnt ligands promotes growth of the embryonic mammary epithelium but the primary

target tissue was unknown [13, 66]. Our results suggest that this could be (in part) an indirect

effect, due to augmented mesenchymal Wnt signaling activity.

The IGF-1/IGF-1R signaling pathway has a critical role in the coordinate regulation

of body growth downstream of the pituitary growth hormone [49, 67]. In its absence, the size

of the organs is also proportionally reduced [49, 68]. Here we show that the embryonic

mammary gland is particularly sensitive to *Igf1r* deficiency, mammary gland 3 failing to

develop at all. These data suggest that the role of IGF-1R during mammary gland

development, particularly in the branching morphogenesis, extends beyond its general

growth promoting function during embryonic development. The reason for this is currently

unknown but one possibility is that the availability of active IGFs in mammary gland

mesenchyme is limited to begin with, due to low expression of *Pappa*. Normally, the IGFs

exist in the form of binary complexes with IGFBPs, and PAPPA degrades IGFBPs,

increasing the bioavailable fraction of IGFs thereby promoting activation of IGF-1R [49].

In conclusion, our findings provide valuable insights into the growth control of the

mammary gland and the transcriptomic profiling of different mesenchymes as a novel

resource for investigating the mesenchymal contribution in organ development.

Intriguingly, we found that heterochronic mammary mesenchyme did not advance/delay

the timing of epithelial outgrowth and branching, indicating that mechanisms intrinsic to the

mammary epithelium govern these processes. Yet, mammary-specific mesenchyme was

indispensable for branching to occur, suggesting that mammary mesenchyme may provide

permissive cues that allow the mammary bud to exit quiescence and become competent to

respond to mitogenic cues. Parathyroid hormone like hormone (Pthlh, also known as

Pthrp) signaling may play a critical role here: deletion of the mesenchymally expressed

receptor *Pthr1* or the epithelially expressed ligand halts mammary gland development at

E15.5-E16.5, prior to onset of branching [69]. However, the downstream targets of Pthr1 are

incompletely understood, but both Wnt and bone morphogenetic protein (Bmp) pathways

are involved [65, 70]. In addition, the transcriptomic and epigenetic changes taking place in

the mammary epithelium between the quiescent bud stage and growth competent sprout

are currently unknown. Uncovering how mammary epithelial cells acquire their remarkable

growth potential and identification of the underlying mesenchymal cues are fascinating

avenues for future research with implications to our understanding of basic breast biology,

as well as breast cancer.

Methods

Mice

To obtain mice constitutively expressing the Fucci2a cell cycle reporters (R26R-Fucci2a-del/del), the conditional R26R-Fucci2a-floxed/floxed (Fucci2a$^{floxed/floxed}$) mice [25] were first bred with PGK-Cre mice [71] ubiquitously expressing Cre. The obtained PGK-Cre;Fucci2a$^{del/floxed}$ offspring were used to generate Fucci2a (R26R-Fucci2a-del/del) mice without the PGK-Cre transgene. Heterozygous R26R-Fucci2a-del/wt embryos were used for the quantitative analysis. The dual fluorescent mGFP;mTmG (R26-mGFP;mTmG) mice were generated by breeding mTmG (R26R-mTmG/mTmG) mice (ICR background; the Jackson Laboratory Stock no. 007576) with mGFP (R26R-mGFP/wt) mice (mixed background). The mGFP allele was generated by breeding mTmG mice with PGK-Cre mice [71] to remove the sequence containing the mTdtomato coding region and STOP cassette surrounded by loxP sites leading to ubiquitous expression of mGFP. The obtained PGK-Cre;mGFP mouse was bred with wild type C57Bl/6 mouse to remove the PGK-Cre transgene. For embryonic tissue recombination experiments, male mGFP;mTmG mice were mated with wild type NMRI females. K14-*Eda* and *Eda*$^{-/-}$ mice were maintained as described previously [13]. The K14-*Eda*;Fucci2a embryos were obtained by crossing K14-*Eda* males with Fucci2a-del/del females. As the *Eda* gene is localized in the X-chromosome, to obtain the Fucci2a;*Eda*$^{-/-}$ and Fucci2a;*Eda*$^{+/+}$ embryos, the Fucci2a mice were first bred with *Eda*$^{-/y}$ male or *Eda*$^{-/-}$ female to obtain Fucci2a;*Eda*$^{+/y}$ and Fucci2a;*Eda*$^{-/y}$ males, and Fucci2a;*Eda*$^{+/-}$ females. For the analysis, the Fucci2a;*Eda*$^{-/-}$ embryos were obtained by breeding Fucci2a;*Eda*$^{-/y}$ males with Fucci2a;*Eda*$^{+/-}$ females and Fucci2a;*Eda*$^{+/+}$ embryos were obtained by breeding Fucci2a;*Eda*$^{+/y}$ males with Fucci2a;*Eda*$^{+/-}$ females. The *ß-catenin*$^{flox3/flox3}$ mice [39] were maintained in C57Bl/6 background as described previously [72]. *ß-catenin*$^{flox3/flox3}$ or *ß-catenin*$^{wt/wt}$ (wild type C57Bl/6) male mice were bred

with C57Bl/6 wild type females to obtain the *ß-catenin^(flox3/wt)* or *ß-catenin^(wt/wt)* embryos for

the AAV virus transduction experiments. *Igf1r^(+/-)* mice were maintained in 129S2/SvPasCrl

background as described previously [51]. The littermates obtained from breeding of *Igf1r^(+/-)*

male and *Igf1r^(+/-)* female mice were used for analysis.

All mice were kept in 12 hours light-dark cycles with food and water given ad

libitum. The appearance of the vaginal plug was considered as embryonic day 0.5, and the

age of the embryos was further verified based on the limb and craniofacial morphology

and other external criteria [73]. For embryos older than E13.5, only female embryos were

used for experiments and analysis. The gender was determined by the morphology of the

gonad as described previously [21] and further confirmed by detecting the Y chromosomal

Sry gene using PCR [74].

***Ex vivo* embryonic tissue culture and tissue recombination**

Ex vivo culture of embryonic mammary glands was performed as described earlier

[21]. Briefly, the abdominal-thoracic skin containing mammary glands 1-3 was dissected from

E13.5 to E16.5 embryos. The tissues were treated for 30-60 min with 2.5 U/ml of Dispase

II (4942078001; Sigma Aldrich) in PBS at +4ºC in the shaker and then 3-4 min with a

pancreatin-trypsin (2.5 mg/ml pancreatin [P3292; Sigma Aldrich] and 22.5 mg/ml trypsin

dissolved in Thyrode´s solution pH 7.4) at room temperature. The tissues were incubated

in culture media (10% FBS in 1:1 DMEM/F12 supplemented with 100 µg/ml ascorbic acid,

10 U/ml penicillin and 10 mg/ml streptomycin) on ice for a minimum of 30 min before

further processing. The skin epithelium was removed with 26-gauge needles leaving the

mesenchymal tissue with the mammary buds.

For typical mammary gland culture, the tissues were collected on small pieces of

Nuclepore polycarbonate filter with 0.1 µm pore size (WHA110605, Whatman) and further

cultured on the air-liquid interface on filters with the support of metal grids in a 3.5 cm

plastic Petri dish with culture medium. The explants were cultured in a humidified incubator

at 37°C with an atmosphere of 5% CO_2 and the culture medium was replaced every other

day.

To test the role of Igf1 in branching morphogenesis, recombinant mouse IGF1

protein (791-MG, R&D systems) at the final concentration of 150 ng/ml was added to the

culture medium 3 hours after the onset of the culture. The same volume of 10% BSA was

used as a vehicle control. The fresh culture medium with IGF1 or BSA was replaced after

two days, and the explants were cultured for three days in total.

For tissue recombination experiments, embryos expressing mGFP or mTmG were

identified with a fluorescent stereomicroscope and processed separately. The E13.5

submandibular glands (hereafter salivary gland) were dissected and processed similarly as

described above for the mammary gland. After enzyme treatment and incubation on ice,

the tissues were further dissected under a stereomicroscope to separate the intact

mammary or salivary gland epithelium and their mesenchyme. The mesenchymes without

any epithelium were collected with the filter and maintained in the culture incubator until

further use. For salivary mesenchyme, mesenchymes from 3-4 salivary glands were

pooled into one piece of filter to increase the amount of mesenchyme in each sample.

After epithelial-mesenchymal separation of all samples, salivary epithelium or mammary

buds 1-3 were gently washed by pipetting through a 1000 µl tip several times to remove

the remaining mesenchymal tissues and then transferred onto the mesenchyme

expressing different fluorescent protein, as previously described [41]. 1-2 mammary buds

were transferred to each mesenchyme. The recombinants were cultured as described

above.

To specifically activate the WNT/ß-catenin signaling in the mesenchyme, tissue

recombination has been performed as described above, while the mesenchymes from

E13.5 *ß-catenin^flox3/wt* or *ß-catenin^wt/wt* embryos were recombined with mammary buds from

ß-catenin ^wt/wt embryos. 2 hours after culture, final concentration of 1.13×10^7 vg/µl AAV8-

Cre (purchased from AAV Gene Transfer and Cell Therapy Core Facility, Faculty of

Medicine, University of Helsinki) were added into the culture medium. The fresh culture

medium without virus was replaced every other day, and the explants were cultured 6-7

days in total.

Time-lapse imaging for recombinants

To monitor the growth of the recombinants, the explants were imaged with Zeiss

Lumar microscope equipped with Apolumar S 1.2x objective once per day. To assess the

branching type of each event of the epithelium in salivary mesenchyme, multi-position,

automated time-lapse imaging described previously [21] was used instead. Briefly, tissue

recombination was performed as described above (Day 0). 1-2 days after the culture,

explants with filter were transformed to 24 mm Transwell inserts with 0.4 µm polyester

membrane (CLS3450, Costar) and cultured on 6-well plates allowing multi-position

imaging [7]. From day 1 or 2 to day 4 of culture, explants were imaged with 3i Marianas

widefield microscope equipped with 10x/0.30 EC Plan-Neofluar Ph1 WD=5.2 M27 at 37 °C

with 6% CO2. The medium was changed right before the imaging and thereafter, every

other day. Images were acquired with an LED light source (CoolLED pE2 with 490 nm/550

nm) every 2 hours.

Mesenchyme-free mammary rudiment culture and time-lapse imaging

E13.5 to E16.5 mammary rudiments were cultured in 3D Matrigel as previously

described [21]. Briefly, after separation of the mammary tissue with mesenchyme, the intact

mammary rudiments 1-3 were dissected under stereomicroscope as described above. The

mammary rudiments collected from littermate embryos of same genotype were pooled

together, except for *Eda*$^{-/-}$ or *Eda*$^{+/+}$. Pooled mammary rudiments 1-3 from each *Eda*$^{-/-}$ and

Eda$^{+/+}$ embryo were cultured separately as it is not possible to obtain *Eda*$^{-/-}$ and *Eda*$^{+/+}$

genotypes from the same litter. Intact mammary rudiments were transferred onto the

bottom of 12-well plates with 10 µl of culture media. The medium was then replaced with a

20-30 µl drop of growth-factor reduced Matrigel (356231; Corning) using a chilled pipette

tip. The MBs were dispersed to avoid any potential contact with each other or the bottom

of the plate. The mixture was then incubated in the 37°C culture incubator for 15-20

minutes until the matrix was solidified. The MBs were cultured in a humidified incubator at

37°C with an atmosphere of 5% CO_2 in serum-free DMEM/F12 medium supplemented

with 1X ITS Liquid Media Supplement (I3146, Sigma Aldrich] and 2.5 nM hFGF2 (CF0291;

Sigma Aldrich), 10 U/ml penicillin and 10 000 µg/ml streptomycin. The culture medium was

replaced every other day and the growth of the MBs was monitored once per day by

imaging with Zeiss Lumar microscope.

Whole-mount immunofluorescence staining and imaging

For whole-mount immunofluorescence staining, dissected ventral skin containing

mammary glands, cultured explants, or mammary epithelia cultured in Matrigel were fixed

in 4% PFA at 4°C overnight, washed three times in PBS and then three times in 1% PBST

(1% TritonX-100 in PBS) at room temperature. Samples were blocked with blocking buffer

containing 5% normal donkey serum, 0.5% BSA, and 10 µg/ml Hoechst 33342 (Molecular

Probes/Invitrogen) in 1% PBST at 4°C overnight. The samples were then incubated with

primary antibodies diluted in blocking buffer for 1-2 days at 4°C, washed three times with

0.3% PBST at room temperature before incubation with secondary antibodies diluted in

0.3% PBST with 0.5% BSA for 1-2 days at 4°C. After washing three times with 0.3% PBST

and three times with PBS, samples were post-fixed with 4% PFA for 10 minutes at room

temperature. Finally, samples were washed twice with PBS before immersing into the

fructose-glycerol based clearing solution described by Dekker et al. [75] before imaging. For

samples from older embryos, the blocking step was extended to 2 days followed by an

extra microdissection procedure, where samples were dissected under fluorescence

stereomicroscope to expose the mammary epithelium and remove surplus mesenchymal

tissues. The samples were imaged with Leica TCS SP8 inverted laser scanning confocal

microscope with HC PL APO 20x/0.75 IMM CORR CS2 object. The images were acquired

with z-stack of 0.11 μm intervals.

For E13.5 *Igf1r* embryos, the staining was performed with the whole embryos

before imaging. The samples of *Igf1r* embryos or IGF1-treated explants were imaged with

Lumar stereomicroscope.

The following antibodies were used in this study: rat anti-mouse CD326 (EpCAM,

552370, BD Pharmingen, 1:500), rabbit anti-mouse Krt14 (RB-9020-P, Thermo Fisher

Scientific, 1:500), rat anti-Krt8 (TROMA-1, DSHB, 1:500), Alexa Fluor 488-conjugated

Donkey anti-Rat secondary antibody (A21208, Invitrogen, 1:500) and Alexa Fluor 647-

conjugated Donkey anti-Rat secondary antibody (A48272, Invitrogen, 1:500).

Image analysis

For mammary gland volume quantification, the border of mammary epithelium and

mesenchyme was outlined manually based on EpCAM expression and bud morphology

and the surface rendering and volume quantification were performed with Imaris 9.2

software (Bitplane). The mammary gland tip number was counted manually in 3D using

Imaris. To further quantify the cell cycle dynamics of mammary epithelial cells, the

mammary epithelium was masked using the rendered mammary gland surface in Imaris.

Epithelial cells expressing nuclear mCherry (G1/G0) or nuclear mVenus (S/G2/M) were

automatically detected using spot detection function with manual correction. The distance

of each detected nucleus to the mammary epithelium surface was measured using the

distance transformation function of Imaris. All the data were exported to be further

analyzed using R version 4.2.1, a free software environment available at https://www.r-

project.org/.

To quantify the mammary gland growth affected by the deficient of *Igf1r,* the

epithelial area of the mammary glands and the number of ductal tips were acquired

manually with ROI Manager within ImageJ (Fiji, version 1.53t) [76]. -Time-lapse images were

analyzed with ImageJ manually.

The plots were produced with R using packages tidyverse version 1.3.2 [77], ggplot2

version 3.4.0 [78], ggsignif version 0.6.4 [79], ggpubr version 0.4.0 [80] and RcolorBrewer

version 1.1-3 [81].

RNA sequencing and data analysis

To obtain the mesenchyme samples for RNA sequencing, salivary glands or flank skins

with mammary rudiments 1-3 were dissected and followed by enzyme treatment as

described above for *ex vivo* embryonic tissue culture. E13.5 salivary gland mesenchymes

were obtained after removing the salivary gland epithelium. For E13.5 and E16.5

mammary gland mesenchymes, after removing the skin epithelium, the mammary

epithelium and its surrounding mesenchyme were isolated together with small scissors

followed by removal of the mammary epithelium using 26-gauge needles (303800, BD

Microlance). The E16.5 fat pad precursor was microdissected from the explants after

enzyme treatment. The E13.5 ventral skin mesenchymes further away from the mammary

gland region were collected as E13.5 skin mesenchyme. The mesenchymes isolated from

2-3 embryos from the same litter were pooled together as one sample. Altogether, five

biology replicates for each sample were collected from 3 different litters of

C57Bl/6JOlaHsd mice. Samples were lysed immediately after collection and stored in TRI

Reagent (T9424, Sigma) at -80°C. Total RNA was extracted using Direct-zol RNA

Microprep kit (Zymo Research, Irvine, CA) with DNase treatment according to the

manufacturer's instructions. RNA quality was assessed with 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent,

Santa Clara, CA) using Agilent RNA 6000 Pico Kit or Agilent RNA 6000 Nano Kit (Agilent,

Santa Clara, CA). RNA concentration was determined using Qubit RNA HS Assay Kit

(Q32855, Thermo Fisher) with Qubit 4 Fluorometer (Thermo Fisher). cDNA libraries were

prepared with Ovation SoLo RNA-seq System (NuGen/Tecan Genomics) according to

manufacturer's instructions and sequenced with NextSeq 500 (Illumina, San Diego, CA) in

the DNA Genomics and Sequencing core facility, Institute of Biotechnology, HiLIFE,

University of Helsinki. 45-68 million reads per sample were obtained after 3 rounds of

sequencing.

For RNAseq data analysis, all sequencing reads were processed for quality control,

removal of low-quality reads, adaptor sequence and ribosomal RNA using fastqc version

0.11.8 [82], multiqc version 1.9 [83], Trimmomatic version 0.39 [84] and SortMeRNA version 2.1

[85] accordingly. The filtered reads were mapped to the reference genome (mm10) using

Salmon version 0.99.0 [86] resulting in 36.6 to 53.4 million mapped reads per sample. The

GSVA analysis was performed with R package GSVA version 1.44.5 [87]. The conversion of

murine gene Ensembl IDs to human Entrez IDs was performed with the biomaRt package

version 2.46.3 [88, 89], using the reference mart https://dec2021.archive.ensembl.org. The

significant differentially expressed signatures between different mesenchymes were

assessed with lmFit and eBayes functions from R package limma version 3.52.4 [90], by

comparing E13.5 MM, E16.5 MM or E16.5 FP with E13.5 SM, respectively. The signature

database was downloaded from www.gsea-msigdb.org [91] on 12th February 2023. The

significantly enriched KEGG signaling pathways were pooled together for visualization.

The data normalization and analysis of differentially expressed genes (DEGs) were

performed using the R package DESeq2 version 3.15 [92]. DEGs were defined with the

thresholds of average count number > 50, adjusted p-value <0.05 and Log2(Fold

Change) >=0.58 in each pairwise comparison.

Gene Ontology enrichment analysis was performed with the DEGs using R package

pathfindR version 1.6.4 [93]. Only the GOBP terms with lowest adjusted p value less than

0.01 were considered as significant. Among the commonly significantly altered GOBP

terms, the top 10 GOBP terms with lowest adjusted p-value in each comparison and totally

16 GO terms were plotted. Gene Ontology database was downloaded from MSigDB [91]

using R package msigdbr version 7.5.1 [94] on 9th November 2022.

The DEGs with an average count number >100 and upregulated more than twice

(Log2(Fold change)>=1) in each group of samples compared to all the other 4 groups of

samples were identified as marker genes.

To detect the pattern of the gene expression among different mesenchymal tissues,

DEGs encoding extracellular matrix protein or ligands in selected pairwise comparisons

with an average count number >200 in each group were further analyzed using Mfuzz

version 2.58.0 [95]. The average of the normalized count number of each group was used as

input. In addition, the groups were converted to pseudotime for the analysis. The fuzzifier

m was determined with the default function and returned a value of 2.113207. The number

of clusters was optimized empirically and set as 9 for the final analysis. The curated

database including ECM, Ligand or Receptor genes was combined from the databases of R package SingleCellSignalR version 1.2.0 [96], CellTalkDB version 1.0 [97] and curated GO terms downloaded from https://baderlab.org/CellCellInteractions [98].

The plots were produced using R packages tidyverse version 1.3.2 [77], ggplot2 version 3.4.0 [78], circlize version 0.4.15 [99], RcolorBrewer version 1.1-3 [81], pathfindR version 1.6.4 [93], ComplexHeatmap version 2.12.1 [100], venn version 1.11 [101] and patchwork version 1.1.2 [102].

Public RNAseq data analysis

The raw data from Wang et al. [42] (OEP001019) were downloaded from https://www.biosino.org/node/index. The sequence reads were processed similarly as described above. The log2 transformed normalized expression of selected genes were extracted to construct the heatmap shown in Fig. 6D.

Statistical analysis

All data were analyzed by Prism 9 (GraphPad Software), or R packages ggsignif version 0.6.4 [79] and ggpubr version 0.4.0 [80]. Statistical tests used are indicated in figure legends. p-values < 0.05 were considered significant. Throughout the figure legends: *p < 0.05, **p<0.01; ***p < 0.001, ****p < 0.0001.

Ethics statement

All mouse experiments were approved by the Laboratory Animal Center at the University of Helsinki and the National Animal Experiment Board of Finland with the licenses number KEK19-019, KEK22-014 and ESAVI/2363/04.10.07/2017. Mice were euthanized with CO_2 followed by cervical dislocation.

Data availability

The raw and processed RNAseq data created in this study have been deposited in the GEO database under the access code GSEXXXXXX.

Code availability

The code used for the analyses is open-source and available through the R packages described in the methods. All the customized scripts for producing the figures in this study are available upon request to the corresponding author.

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Author Contributions

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Q.L.; Formal analysis, Q.L., J.S., B.K.; Investigation, Q.L., E.T., R.L., J.S., M.C.; Resources,

M.H., J.J., M.L.M.; Data Curation, Q.L.; Writing – original draft preparation, Q.L., M.L.M;

Writing – review and editing, Q.L., E.T., R.L., J.S., B.K., M.C., M.H., J.J., M.L.M;

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1043

a

mTmG
mGFP

wild type

X

Manual microdissection of mammary gland area

Enzyme treatment and manual separation

Tissue recombination

b E13.5 Mammary Epithelium

Day 1 Day 2 Day 3 Day 4 Day 5 Day 6

Mammary Mesenchyme

E13.5

E15.5

E16.5

500 μm

c E13.5 Mammary Epithelium

E13.5
E15.5
E16.5

Age of Mammary Mesenchyme

p = 0.78

0 1 2 3 4 5 6
Onset of outgrowth (days in culture)

d E13.5 Mammary Mesenchyme

Day 1 Day 2 Day 3 Day 4 Day 5

Mammary Epithelium

E13.5

E15.5

E16.5

500 μm

e E13.5 Mammary Mesenchyme

E13.5
E15.5
E16.5

Age of Mammary Epithelium

p = 5.7x10⁻¹⁷

0 1 2 3 4 5 6
Onset of outgrowth (days in culture)

f

Enzyme treatment and manual seperation

Matrigel

3D Culture

g

E13.5 E14.5 E15.5 E16.5

Day 1

Day 3

Day 8

500 μm

h

100 μm
EpCAM

i

%

Branching rudiments

ns ns ****

E13.5 E14.5 E15.5 E16.5

Fig. 1

Fig. 1 The timing of mammary gland outgrowth is an inherent property of the epithelium. a, A scheme illustrating the experimental procedure used in tissue recombination experiments. **b**, Representative images showing the onset of outgrowth of E13.5 mammary epithelia recombined with E13.5, E15.5, or E16.5 mammary mesenchymes, respectively. The appearance of the primary outgrowth is indicated with arrow. Scale bar, 500 μm. **c**, Quantification of the time (in days) required for onset of the branching. Data were pooled from 3-6 independent experiments of E13.5 mammary epithelia recombined with E13.5 (n=46 explants), E15.5 (n=14), and E16.5 (n=30) mammary mesenchymes. Statistical significance was assessed with the Kruskal–Wallis test. **d**, Representative images showing onset of outgrowth of E13.5, E15.5 and E16.5 mammary epithelia recombined with E13.5 mammary mesenchymes. The appearance of the primary outgrowth is indicated with arrow. Scale bar, 500 μm. **e**, Quantification of the time (in days) required for the onset of the primary outgrowth. Data were pooled from 3-6 independent experiments of E13.5 (n=46 explants), E15.5 (n=20) and E16.5 (n=27) mammary epithelia recombined with E13.5 mammary mesenchyme. Statistical significance was assessed with the Kruskal–Wallis test. **f**, A scheme illustrating the 3D culture of intact, mesenchyme-free epithelial mammary rudiments. **g**, Representative images showing the growth of E13.5, E14.5, E15.5 and E16.5 epithelial mammary rudiments in 3D culture; only E16.5 mammary rudiments were capable of branching (see also Supplementary Fig. 1). Scale bar, 500 μm. **h**, Representative 3D projection image of an EpCAM-stained E16.5 mammary rudiment after three days of 3D culture in Matrigel. Scale bar, 100 μm. **i**, Quantification of branching mammary rudiments in 3D culture. Data are presented as percentage of branching mammary rudiments (mean ± SD) from a total of 4 (E13.5), 3 (E14.5), 4 (E15.5), and 10 (E16.5) independent

experiments (each with minimum 6 rudiments in culture). The statistical significances were assessed using unpaired two-tailed Student's *t*-test with Bonferroni correction. ns, non-significant; ****, $p < 0.001$.

Fig. 2

Fig.2 Cell cycle dynamics in embryonic mammary glands. a, Representative 3D surface rendering images of EpCAM-stained E13.5, E14.5, E15.5 and E16.5 epithelial mammary rudiments, based on 3D confocal imaging. Mammary gland 2 is shown. Scale bar, 20 µm. **b, c**, Quantification of epithelial mammary gland volume **(b)** and number of branching tips **(c)**, $n_{E13.5}$=15, $n_{E14.5}$=24, $n_{E15.5}$=41, $n_{E16.5}$=36. **d**, Confocal optical sections of whole mount-stained mammary glands from E13.5, E14.5, E15.5 and E16.5 Fucci2a embryos stained with EpCAM. Scale bars, 20 µm (E13.5-E15.5) and 30 µm (E16.5). **e**, Quantification of the proportions of all epithelial cells in S/G2/M and G1/G0 phases. Altogether, 15 glands (in total 9228 cells) from three E13.5 embryos, 24 glands (in total 17599 cells) from five E14.5 embryos, 41 glands (in total 40431 cells) from eight E15.5 embryos, and 36 glands (in total 50574 cells) from seven E16.5 embryos were analyzed. Data are presented as mean ± SD. **f**, A schematic image illustrating how the distance of cells (center of the nucleus) was quantified with respect to the surface of mammary rudiments. **g**, Density plot showing the distribution of the distance of nuclei in S/G2/M and G1/G0 phase to the surface of the mammary rudiment. Density plot revealed that a cluster of cells was localized within the distance of 10 µm (dashed line), which was set as the threshold to define "basal" and "inner" (luminal) cells. **h**, Quantification of the proportion of epithelial cells in S/G2/M phase in basal and inner compartments in E13.5-E16.5 epithelial mammary rudiments. Sample sizes are as in **e**. Data are presented as mean ± SD. The statistical significance was assessed using unpaired two-tailed Student's *t*-test with Bonferroni correction. ns, non-significant; *, $p < 0.05$, ***, $p < 0.001$; ****, $p < 0.0001$.

Fig. 3

Fig.3 Basal-cell biased proliferation precedes, but is not sufficient to drive onset of branching. a, Representative 3D surface rendering images of EpCAM-stained mammary glands of K14-*Eda* embryos and their wild type (WT) littermates at E13.5 and E14.5. Mammary gland 2 is shown. Ectopic mammary rudiments (asterisk) common in K14-*Eda* embryos were excluded from the analysis. Scale bar, 20 μm. **b, c**, Quantification of mammary gland volume **(b)** and branching tip number **(c)** at E13.5 (n_{WT}= 17, $n_{K14-Eda}$= 21) and at E14.5 (n_{WT}= 16 and $n_{K14-Eda}$= 18). **d, e**, Quantification of the proportions of mammary epithelial cells in S/G2/M and G1/G0 phases in the entire epithelium (**d**) and the proportions of mammary epithelial cells in S/G2/M phase in basal and inner compartments (**e**) in WT or K14-*Eda* embryos at E13.5 (n_{WT}= 17 glands and in total 7714 cells from 3 embryos, $n_{K14-Eda}$= 21 glands and in total 15561 cells from 4 embryos) and E14.5 (n_{WT}= 16 glands and in total 10221 cells from 4 embryos, $n_{K14-Eda}$= 18 glands and in total 10520 cells from 5 embryos). **f**, Representative images showing the growth of E13.5 and E14.5 K14-*Eda* and wild type littermate epithelial mammary rudiments in 3D Matrigel culture. Note branching in E14.5 K14-*Eda* mammary rudiments. Scale bar, 500 μm. **g**, Quantification of branching mammary rudiments in 3D culture. Data are presented as percentage of branching mammary rudiments (mean ± SD) from a total of 4 (E13.5 WT), 6 (E13.5 K14-*Eda*), 3 (E14.5 WT) and 3 (E14.5 K14-*Eda*) independent experiments (each with minimum 5 rudiments in culture). **h**, Representative 3D surface rendering images of EpCAM-stained E15.5 and E16.5 epithelial mammary rudiments of *Eda*$^{-/-}$ and wild type embryos. Mammary gland 2 is shown. Scale bar, 50 μm. **i, j**, Quantification of epithelial mammary gland volume **(i)** and number of branching tips **(j),** at E15.5 (n_{WT} = 17 and $n_{Eda-/-}$ = 27) and at E16.5 (n_{WT} = 16 and $n_{Eda-/-}$ = 13). **k, l**, Quantification of the proportions of mammary epithelial cells in

S/G2/M or G1/G0 phases (**k**) and the proportions of mammary epithelial cells in S/G2/M phase in basal and inner compartments (**l**) in WT or $Eda^{-/-}$ embryos at E15.5 (n_{WT} = 17 glands and in total 14054 cells from 3 embryos, $n_{Eda-/-}$ = 27 glands and in total 21986 cells from 5 embryos) and E16.5 (n_{WT} = 16 glands and in total 40036 cells from 3 embryos, $n_{Eda-/-}$ = 13 glands and in total 22009 cells from 3 embryos). **m**, Representative images showing E15.5 and E16.5 $Eda^{-/-}$ and wild type epithelial mammary rudiments in 3D culture after 3 days. Scale bar, 200 µm. **n**, Quantification of branching mammary rudiments in 3D culture. Data are presented as percentage of branching mammary rudiments from a total of 6 WT and 18 $Eda^{-/-}$ E16.5 embryos (each with 3-6 rudiments in culture). Data are presented as mean ± SD. The statistical significance was assessed using unpaired two-tailed Student's *t*-test with Bonferroni correction. ns, non-significant; *, $p < 0.05$, **, $p < 0.01$, ***, $p < 0.001$; ****, $p < 0.0001$.

a

Mesenchyme

b

E13.5 Salivary Mesenchyme

c

Branching Type
Tip clefting
Lateral branching

****

Branching events in salivary mesenchyme (%)

Epithelium: Salivary Mammary

Fig. 4

Fig. 4 Mammary mesenchyme is indispensable for the branching ability of the mammary gland. Recombination experiments between micro-dissected mammary and salivary gland tissues using fluorescently labeled epithelia (see also Fig.1). **a**, Representative images showing growth of the indicated epithelia recombined with distinct mesenchymes. Images were taken 0-6 days after culture as indicated in each figure. n in the lower right corner indicates growing recombinants out of those that survived, except for E13.5 mammary epithelium recombined with E13.5 salivary gland mesenchyme where it shows the number of survived recombinants/total recombinants (in red). In these recombinants, the epithelia never branched. Data were pooled from 3-4 independent experiments. Scale bars, 500 μm. **b**, Captions of time-lapse live imaging series of explants consisting of E13.5 salivary epithelium or E16.5 mammary epithelium recombined with E13.5 salivary mesenchyme. Images were captured every 2 hours starting 48h after recombination. The full video is provided as Supplementary Video 1. Scale bar, 500 μm. **c**, Quantification of the branching events (lateral branching and tip clefting) from time-lapse videos. A pooled data from three independent experiments: in total of 239 branching events from 9 control recombinants (salivary epithelium + salivary mesenchyme) and 159 branching events from 8 explants consisting of mammary epithelium and salivary gland mesenchyme were analyzed. Data are represented as mean ± SD and the statistical significance was assessed with unpaired two-tailed Student's *t*-test. *p* values: ****, *p* < 0.0001.

Fig. 5

Fig.5 Transcriptomic analysis identifying mesenchymal signals potentially regulating epithelial growth. a, A scheme illustrating the tissues isolated for RNAseq analysis. **b**, Heatmap showing the expression of the identified marker genes (with a threshold of average of normalized expression value in each group ≥ 100, fold change ≥ 2 and adjusted p-value < 0.05) in different mesenchymes using the z-score of log2-transformed normalized expression value (also see Supplementary Table 1). **c**, Venn diagram showing 461 enriched Gene Ontology Biological Process (GOBP) terms shared among E13.5 mammary mesenchyme (MM), E16.5 MM and E16.5 fat pad (FP) when compared to E13.5 salivary gland mesenchymes (SM) separately. **d**, Top 10 (among the 461 shared terms) of the most significantly enriched GOBP terms in each comparison resulted in 16 distinct terms in total. Four out of 16 terms were related to Wnt signaling pathway (in magenta). **e**, A scheme illustrating the pair-wise comparisons used to identify the genes with the potential to regulate epithelial growth. Altogether 644 genes encoding extracellular matrix proteins and ligands with average of normalized expression value in each group ≥ 200, fold change ≥ 1.5 and adjusted p-value < 0.05 were identified. **f**, mFuzzy cluster analysis of the genes identified in **e**. **g**, Heatmap showing the expression of genes identified in **e** using the z-score of log2-transformed normalized expression value. The clusters were defined by mFuzzy shown in **f**. The genes within the Wnt related GOBP terms identified in **d** are indicated accordingly in the right.

Fig. 6

Fig.6 Wnt-activated mesenchyme promotes growth of the mammary epithelium. a, A scheme illustrating the experimental design for mesenchymal activation of Wnt/ß-catenin signaling activity. **b**, Representative images showing EpCAM stained wild type mammary epithelia after 6 days culture in wild type or *ß-catenin^flox3/wt* mesenchyme infected with AAV8-Cre virus during the first 48 hours. **c**, Quantification of the number of branching tips of wild type mammary epithelia recombined with wild type or *ß-catenin^flox3/wt* mesenchyme after 6 days of culture. Data are presented as mean ± SD (n = 9 and 18 for WT and *ß-catenin^flox3/wt* mesenchyme, respectively) and represented from three independent experiments. Statistical significance was assessed using unpaired two-tailed Student's *t*-test. *, $p <$ 0.05. **d**, Unsupervised cluster of heatmap showing the expression of cluster 5 and 6 genes identified by mFuzzy analysis (see Fig. 5f) in a published dataset [42] that compared gene expression levels in wild type and *β-catenin* deficient mammary fibroblasts cultured with or without Wnt3a protein. Data are shown as z-score of log2-transformed normalized expression values. Two subsets of potential mesenchymal Wnt target genes identified are marked (box in magenta). **e**, Heatmap showing the expression of the candidate genes from **d** in different mesenchymes of the RNAseq data. Data are shown as z-score of log2-transformed normalized expression values. **f**, Graphs representing mRNA expression of *Eda* and *Igf1* as measured by RNAseq. Data are presented as normalized expression values (mean ± SD). Each dot represents one biological replicate.

Fig. 7

Fig. 7 IGF-1R is required for embryonic mammary gland development and branching morphogenesis. a, Representative images of E16.5 K14-Cre::mTmG mammary glands cultured *ex vivo* for three days in the presence of 150 ng/ml recombinant IGF-1 or vehicle (BSA). Scale bar, 200 μm. **b**, Quantification of the number of branching tips in vehicle (n=33) and IGF-1 treated (n=40) mammary gland explants. Data are pooled from 5 independent experiments and presented as mean ± SD. Statistical significance was assessed using unpaired two-tailed Student's *t*-test. *, $p < 0.05$. **c**, Body weight of $Igf1r^{+/+}$, $Igf1r^{+/-}$ and $Igf1r^{-/-}$ embryos at E16.5 ($n_{Igf1r+/+}$=10, $n_{Igf1r+/-}$=16; $n_{Igf1r-/-}$=7), and E18.5 ($n_{Igf1r+/+}$=20, $n_{Igf1r+/-}$=20; $n_{Igf1r-/-}$=17). Data are presented as mean ± SD. Statistical significances were calculated with unpaired two-tailed Student's *t*-test with Bonferroni correction. ns, non-significant; **, $p < 0.01$; ****, $p < 0.0001$. **d**, Representative images of EpCAM-stained ventral skin including mammary glands (MG) 1-5 from $Igf1r^{+/+}$, $Igf1r^{+/-}$ and $Igf1r^{-/-}$ female embryos at E16.5, and E18.5. Note absence of MG3 in $Igf1r^{-/-}$ embryos. Magnifications show mammary gland 2. Scale bars, 500 μm. **e, f**, Quantification of mammary gland area **(e)** and number of branch tips **(f)** normalized to body weight in $Igf1r^{+/+}$, $Igf1r^{+/-}$ and $Igf1r^{-/-}$ embryos at E18.5. MG5 was often lost during dissection and therefore was not included in the analysis. n.d, not detected. Data are presented as mean ± SD and the statistical significances were assessed using unpaired two-tailed Student's *t*-test with Bonferroni correction. ns, non-significant; *, $p < 0.05$, **, $p < 0.01$, ***, $p < 0.001$; ****, $p < 0.0001$.

a

Supplementary Fig. 1

Supplementary Fig.1 Epithelial mammary rudiments isolated from stages earlier than E16.5 are not able to branch in 3D culture. Representative images showing the growth of E13.5, E14.5, E15.5 and E16.5 epithelial mammary rudiments 1 in 3D Matrigel culture. Images were acquired once per day. Scale bar, 500 μm.

Supplementary Fig. 2

Supplementary Fig. 2 Overexpression of Eda transiently suppresses the luminal cell fate. a, Confocal optical sections of whole mount imaged E13.5, E14.5, E15.5, E16.5, postnatal day 1 (P1), and P5 wild type and K14-*Eda* mammary glands stained with the basal marker K14 (Cyan in merged images) and luminal marker K8 (Magenta in merged images). Nuclei were visualized with Hoechst. Mammary glands from at least 3 embryos from 2-3 litters were examined in each condition. Scale bars, 20-50 µm as indicated in the figures. **b**, Gene set enrichment analysis of Voutilainen data [29] of E13.5 *Eda*$^{-/-}$ mammary buds treated with recombinant Eda protein for 4 hours revealed a positive enrichment of 'LIM_Mammary_Stem_Cell_Up' gene signature [30].

Supplementary Fig. 3

Supplementary Fig. 3 The proliferation dynamics of mammary epithelium in
***Eda* gain-of-function and loss-of-function mouse models. a**, Confocal optical
sections of whole-mount mammary glands from E13.5 and E14.5 K14-*Eda* or WT
littermate embryos expressing Fucci2a reporter stained with EpCAM. Scale bars, 20
µm (E13.5) and 50 µm (E14.5). **b**, Confocal optical sections of whole-mount
mammary glands from E15.5 and E16.5 WT or *Eda*$^{-/-}$ Fucci2a embryos stained with
EpCAM. Scale bars, 20 µm (E15.5) or 50 µm (E16.5).

Supplementary Fig.4

Supplementary Fig 4. Transcriptomic profiling of different mesenchymes. a,
Scatter plot shows the principal component analysis of E13.5 ventral skin
mesenchyme (VM), E13.5 mammary mesenchyme (MM), E16.5 MM, E16.5 fat pad
(FP), and E13.5 salivary gland mesenchyme (SM). **b**, Heatmap shows the
significantly altered KEGG signaling pathways comparing E13.5 MM, E16.5 MM or
E16.5 FP with E13.5 SM separately. WNT_SIGNALING_PATHWAY (marked with
Magenta) is low in E16.5 MM and E16.5 FP compared to other tissues.

Supplementary Fig. 5

Supplementary Fig. 5. Expression of IGF pathway genes in the mesenchymal tissues.

Graphs show mRNA expression of the indicated genes by RNAseq in E13.5 ventral, non-mammary skin mesenchyme (VM), E13.5 mammary mesenchyme (MM), E16.5 MM, E16.5 fat pad precursor (FP), and E13.5 salivary gland mesenchyme (SM). Each dot represents one biological replicate.

Supplementary Fig. 6. Impact of *Igf1r* deficiency on mammary gland and salivary gland growth and branching. a, b, Quantification of mammary gland area **(a)** and tip number **(b)** of E18.5 *Igf1r*$^{+/+}$, *Igf1r*$^{+/-}$ and *Igf1r*$^{-/-}$ female embryos. Samples are the same as in Fig. 7e,f. Data are presented as mean ± SD. **c**, Body weight of *Igf1r*$^{+/+}$, *Igf1r*$^{+/-}$, and *Igf1r*$^{-/-}$ embryos at E13.5 (n$_{Igf1r+/+}$=5, n$_{Igf1r+/-}$=13; n$_{Igf1r-/-}$=3). Data are presented as mean ± SD. **d**, Representative images of EpCAM-stained E13.5 embryos showing mammary glands (MG) 1-5 from *Igf1r*$^{+/+}$, *Igf1r*$^{+/-}$ and *Igf1r*$^{-/-}$ embryos. Scale bar, 500 μm. **e,** Representative images of EpCAM-stained *Igf1r*$^{+/+}$, *Igf1r*$^{+/-}$, and *Igf1r*$^{-/-}$ salivary glands at E13.5 (n$_{Igf1r+/+}$=6, n$_{Igf1r+/-}$=8; n$_{Igf1r-/-}$=20), E16.5 (n$_{Igf1r+/+}$=15, n$_{Igf1r+/-}$=29; n$_{Igf1r-/-}$=5), and E18.5 (n$_{Igf1r+/+}$=6, n$_{Igf1r+/-}$=13; n$_{Igf1r-/-}$=6). Scale bars, 200 μm. Statistical significances were assessed using unpaired two-tailed Student's *t*-test with Bonferroni correction. ns, non-significant; *, $p < 0.05$, **, $p < 0.01$, ***, $p < 0.001$; ****, $p < 0.0001$.

Supplementary Table 1. The list of identified marker genes for each mesenchyme and their normalized expression value in each sample.

Supplementary Table 2. The results of mFuzzy analysis shown in Fig. 5f and the normalized expression value of each gene in each sample.

Supplementary Video 1. Time-lapse live imaging showing the growth of E13.5 salivary epithelium (left) and E16.5 mammary epithelium (right) in E13.5 salivary mesenchyme. Images were captured every 2 hours starting 48h after recombination. Scale bar, 500 µm.