Dynamic Regulation of Innate Lymphoid Cell Development During Ontogeny

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Graphical abstract

Highlight

- The ratio of LTi cells to non-LTi ILCs decreases from fetal to adult stage
- Modified fate determination of ILC progenitors contributes to this decrease of LTi cell ratio during ontogeny
- A conserved trajectory exists from early αLPs to Innate Lymphoid Cell

28   Precursors (ILCPs) during both fetal and adult ILC development

29 ● Enhanced activity of Notch-GATA3 signaling in ILC precursors accounts for

30   the transition of their differentiation from LTi cells in the fetal to non-LTi ILCs

31   in adults.

SUMMARY

Innate lymphoid cells (ILCs) are crucial for maintaining tissue homeostasis. The

dynamic composition of ILC subsets during ontogeny has been observed for

over a decade, yet the underlying mechanisms remain incompletely understood.

Here, we combined differentiation assay and scRNA-seq analysis to compare

the fetal and adult ILC development, and assessed their contribution to the

dynamic change of ILC subsets. We revealed the preference for LTi cell

differentiation in fetal hematopoietic progenitors, contrasted with a non-LTi

differentiation bias in adult stages. Our analyses elucidated that the two stages

shared a conserved differentiation trajectory and regulatory programs but used

different controlling logic. Through computational prediction and dose-response

experiments, we proposed a model where a transition from fetal $ROR\gamma t$-

dominant states to adult Notch-GATA3-dominant states orchestrates these

changes. This study suggests that ILC development can be modulated to

accommodate the varying demands for specific ILC subsets within the body at

different developmental stages.

INTRODUCTION

Innate lymphoid cells (ILCs), the innate counterparts of T cells (Vivier et al.,

2018; Walker et al., 2013), encompass a diverse array of cell types including

NK cells, ILC1s, ILC2s, ILC3s, and lymphoid tissue inducer (LTi) cells (Bal et

al., 2020; Vivier et al., 2018). The ILC3s and LTi cells are also refered as

$ROR\gamma t^+$ ILCs. Originating predominantly from common lymphoid progenitors

(CLPs), ILCs undergo differentiation through a series of progenitor stages,

including early innate lymphoid progenitors (EILPs) (Yang et al., 2015),

common helper innate lymphoid progenitors (CHILPs) (Klose et al., 2014), and

innate lymphoid precursors (ILCPs) (Constantinides et al., 2014), all are

included in $\alpha_4\beta_7^+$ lymphoid progenitors (αLPs). Different ILC subset pariticipate

in different facets of immune responses: NK cells and ILC1s produce IFN-γ to

defend against viruses and intracellular bacteria; ILC2s secrete IL-4/5/13,

playing a role in defense against parasitic infections and in promoting allergies;

ILC3s and LTi cells produce IL-17A/22 for defense against extracellular bacteria,

crucial for maintaining local tissue homeostasis, particularly at mucosal sites

(Bal et al., 2020; Vivier et al., 2018). LTi cells are also pivotal in forming

secondary lymphoid tissues, such as lymph nodes and Peyer's patches,

primarily during the embryonic stage (Eberl et al., 2004; Onder and Ludewig,

2018).

Previous studies have demonstrated that the composition of ILC subsets

exhibits dynamic shifts in various organs throughout murine development,

reflecting adaptations to evolving physiological demands essential for

maintaining homeostasis. LTi cells, predominant in the neonatal thymus, are

scarcely present in adults, while ILC2s emerge as the dominant subset in the

adult thymus (Jones et al., 2018). This trend of LTi cell proportions is also

observed in the mouse small intestine (Sawa et al., 2010) and human tonsils

and is associated with an increase in ILC3s (Hoorweg et al., 2012).

A consistent pattern in the shift of ILC subsets was suggested in the organs

mentioned above. Nonetheless, the dynamic distribution of ILC subsets across

various tissues remains to be systematically explored and summarized.

Furthermore, while microenvironmental alterations are recognized as a primary

external driver of ILC subset variations, the extent to which cell-intrinsic

differentiation potential contributes to these variations remains ambiguous.

Given the significant differences between hematopoietic progenitors at fetal

and adult stages, these intrinsic cellular factors are likely to play a crucial role.

Another significant challenge is the paucity of comprehensive profiling of ILC

progenitors during fetal development, as current identification methods are

primarily based on adult bone marrow studies.

In this study, we observed an elevated proportion of lymphoid tissue

inducer (LTi) cells in various organs, including lymphoid (spleen) and non-

lymphoid organs (small intestine, colon, lung, and liver) during fetal and

newborn stages. Notably, the LTi cell ratio demonstrated a gradual decrease,

concomitant with an increase in non-LTi innate lymphoid cells (ILCs) in

adulthood. Concurrently, we found ILC progenitors from fetal liver exhibited a

preferential differentiation towards LTi cells, whereas those derived from adult

bone marrow showed an inclination to differentiate into non-LTi ILCs. This

pronounced shift in differentiation preference was observed to occur within just

one week post-birth. To elucidate the underlying mechanisms, we utilized

single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq) to reconstruct the ILC developmental

landscapes, identifying a conserved developmental trajectory from early αLPs

to ILC precursors (ILCPs) in both fetal liver and adult bone marrow.

Comparative analysis revealed enhanced Notch signaling and GATA3

expression, alongside reduced RORγt levels in adult progenitors compared to

their fetal counterparts. Subsequent systematic dose-response experiments

corroborated a "seesaw" model, articulating an interplay between Notch-GATA3

signaling and RORγt during murine ontogeny, which governs the dynamic shifts

in ILC subsets. This model elucidates the predisposition of fetal ILC progenitors

towards LTi cell differentiation, in contrast to the preference exhibited by adult

progenitors.

RESULTS

Ratio of LTi cells to non-LTi ILCs decreases during ontogeny

To investigate the ontogenic distribution of ILCs, we systematically analyzed

major ILC subsets in lymphoid (spleen) and non-lymphoid organs (small

intestine, colon, lung, and liver) across various developmental stages in mice.

The dynamic composition of ILC subsets in these organs reached a stable state

within two weeks after birth (Figure 1 and Figure S1). Moreover, three

categories of the ILC composition could be grouped based on their dominant

subtype in adulthood (week 8): the ILC3-dominant category (small intestine in

Figure 1A and 1B), the ILC2-dominant category(colon in Figure 1D and 1E,

and lung in Figure S1A and S1B), and the ILC1-dominant category (spleen in

Figure 1G and 1H, and liver in Figure S1D and S1E).

Despite the organ-specific variations in ILC subset distribution, a consistent

pattern emerged, marked by a higher percentage of lymphoid tissue inducer
(LTi) cells during the fetal and neonatal stages, transitioning to an elevated
abundance of non-LTi ILCs, i.e., ILC1s, ILC2s, and ILC3s, in adulthood (Figure
1B, 1E, and 1H, Figure S1B and S1E). Concurrently, the ratio of LTi cells to
non-LTi ILCs exhibited a gradual decline across all examined organs, reaching
a stable state around two weeks postnatally (Figure 1C, 1F, and 1I, Figure S1C
and S1F). This consistent shift suggested a potential shared mechanism
governing the dynamic alterations in ILC subsets throughout ontogeny.

133 Distinct progenitor differentiation capacity contributes to the
134 composition shift of ILC subsets during ontogeny

While analysing ILCs, we also observed dynamic changes in αβT and γδT cells
during ontogeny (Figure S2). Given the disparate capacities of hematopoietic
progenitors to generate $\gamma\delta$ T cells and αβ T cells during fetal and adult stages
(Yuan et al., 2012), coupled with the close relationship between ILCs and T
cells (De Obaldia and Bhandoola, 2015), we speculated that fetal and adult
hematopoietic progenitors may exhibit differing abilities in generating LTi cells
and non-LTi cells.

To investigate this hypothesis, we sorted hematopoietic progenitor cells
(LSKs, CD45$^+$Lin$^-$c-Kit$^+$Sca-1$^+$) from fetal liver and adult bone marrow for an *in*
vivo ILC differentiation assay. The resultant progenies in the small intestines of
recipient mice were analyzed eight weeks later. Consistent with previous
findings (Yuan et al., 2012), we observed a higher proportion of αβ T cells
among the progenies derived from adult LSKs (Figure S3A). In contrast, the
fetal LSK-derived cells exhibited higher proportions of ILCs and B cells (Figure
S3A). Although both embryonic and adult LSKs exhibited proficiency in
reconstituting all major ILC subsets (Figure S3B), a lower proportion of LTi cells
and a higher abundance of ILC1s and ILC2s were identified among the ILCs
derived from adult LSKs (Figure S3B and S3C), denoting an increased
prevalence of non-LTi ILCs (Figure S3D). This observation aligned with the
gradual reduction in the ratio of LTi cells to non-LTi ILCs throughout ontogeny.

To further compare the differentiation capacities of fetal and adult ILC
progenitors, LSKs, CLPs, and αLPs were isolated from fetal liver and adult bone

marrow for an *in vitro* differentiation assay. As expected, fetal ILC progenitors
showed a predisposition for generating LTi cells (Figure S4A and S4C),
whereas their adult counterparts leaned towards producing ILC1s and ILC2s,
representing the non-LTi ILCs (Figure S4B and S4D). Furthermore, both fetal
and adult αLPs exhibited enhanced efficiency in ILC differentiation compared
to LSKs and CLPs (Figure S4C and S4D). Notably, a distinct population of
NCR$^+$ ILC3s was observed among the RORγt$^+$ ILCs derived from adult αLP2s,
whereas minimal to no NCR$^+$ ILC3s was generated by fetal αLP2s, during both
in vitro and *in vivo* differentiation assay (Figure S5). This divergence in ILC
composition derived from fetal and adult αLP2s precisely mirrored the distinct
distributions of ILC subsets between fetal and adult tissues.

Further analysis affirmed the consistent frequencies of CLPs, αLP1s, and
αLP2s throughout different ontogenic stages (Figure 2A and 2B). To identify
when the differentiation capacity begins to change, we sorted αLP2s from fetal
liver and bone marrow at different ages for an *in vitro* differentiation assay.
Remarkably, bone marrow αLP2s from mice within the first week post-birth
exhibited significant changes in differentiation ability, characterized by a
substantial decrease in the number of LTi cells and a simultaneous increase in
non-LTi ILCs, akin to adult αLP2s (Figure 2C to 2F). This observation suggested
that alterations in the differentiation capacity of ILC precursors occurred shortly
after birth, approximately one week prior to the establishment of a steady-state
in ILC subset composition across various tissues (Figure 1 and Figure S1).
Consequently, the postnatal shift in the differentiation ability of ILC precursors
could contribute to the dynamic changes of ILC subsets from the fetal to adult
stages.

Single-cell transcriptomic landscape of fetal and adult ILC progenitors

ILC progenitors, rare populations in both fetal liver and adult bone marrow, have
not been thoroughly elucidated, particularly in fetal tissues. To address this gap,
we isolated αLPs, comprising both αLP1s and αLP2s, from fetal liver and adult
bone marrow for single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq) analysis. Following
stringent quality control procedures (see Methods), we selected 4284 fetal and
3442 adult αLPs for subsequent UMAP analysis. Ten distinct clusters were

revealed (Figure S6A), all expressing of *Ptprc*, *Il7r*, *Itga4*, and *Itgb7* (Figure

S6B). Clusters 0, 1, 2, and over half of cluster 6 exhibited high expression of

Flt3, representing αLP1s. Conversely, clusters not expressing *Flt3* represented

αLP2s (Figure S6B).

Based on the expression characteristics of known transcription factors, such

as *Id2*, *Tcf7*, and *Zbtb16*, we defined clusters associated with the ILC lineage,

specifically Cluster 6, 3, 7, 8, 9, and 4, primarily distributed within αLP2s (Figure

S6B). Notably, Clusters 6, 3, and 9 represented early-stage progenitors in ILC

development, evidenced by their high expression of *Tcf7*. A comparative

mapping analysis of cell transcriptome (Methods) revealed that these early

precursor cells shared some characteristics with early T cell progenitors (ETP)

and double-ngative (DN) T cells   (Figure S6C). Among them, Cluster 6

expressed high *Nfil3* and low *Id2*, representing early ILC progenitors (EILPs)

(Harly et al., 2019). Cluster 3 showed high expression of *Zbtb16* and *Pdcd1*,

serving as specific markers for ILC progenitors (ILCPs) (Constantinides et al.,

2014; Yu et al., 2016). Additionally, Cluster 3 expressed signature genes of

multiple ILC subsets, including *Gata3*, *Rora*, *Ccl5*, *Ltb*, etc., leading us to define

it as ILCPs (Figure 3B). Cluster 7 also exhibited features of multiple ILC subsets,

and high *Il18r1* expression, indicative of ILCPs seeded in the peripheral tissues

via circulation system (Zeis et al., 2020), suggesting that Cluster 7 could

represent a later stage of ILCPs. Accordingly, we labeled Clusters 3 and 7 as

ILCP.1 and ILCP.2, respectively. Cluster 9, distinguished by high expression of

Rorc, *Cxcr5*, *Ccr6*, and *Ltb*, represented LTi precursors. Additionally, Cluster 9

highly expressed *Cd74*, *H2-Aa*, and *H2-Ab1*, possibly associated with the newly

annotated MHC-II^{+} LTi cells (Hepworth et al., 2013; Lyu et al., 2022). Meanwhile,

Cluster 4 exhibited high features of both LTi cells (*Ltb*, *Rorc*, etc.) and ILC2s

(*Gata3*, *Rora*, etc.) (Figure 3B), as confirmed by the cell-referring analysis

(Figure S6C). Since Cluster 4 showed low expression of *Tcf7* and *Il18r1* (Figure

3B), it might be a mixed cluster containing LTiPs and ILC2Ps at a more terminal

stage. Consequently, we defined Cluster 9 as an early stage LTiP.1 and Cluster

4 as LTiP.2/ILC2P. Finally, Cluster 8 was defined as NKPs based on their higher

expression of *Eomes*, *Tbx21*, *Il2rb*, etc. (Figure 3B and S6C).

Conversely, cells within Clusters 0, 1, 2, and 5, mainly comprising αLP1s, did
not exhibit significant genetic features of the ILC lineage. Cluster 0 showed high
expression of *Pbk* (Figure 3B), and a comparable fraction of Cluster 0 is
transcriptionally similar to pro-B cells (Figure S6C). Therefore, we defined
Cluster 0 as pro-B-like αLPs. Using the same strategy, we defined Cluster 1 as
CDP-like αLPs due to their high expression of *Irf8*, *Tcf4*, *Ctsh*, *Ctsb*, *Siglech*,
and Cluster 2 as ETP-like αLPs due to their high expression of *Cd34*, *Lmo2*,
Egfl7 (Figure 3B and S6C). Cluster 5 exhibited a high degree of heterogeneity,
containing various cell types, and was labeled as early αLPs due to its early
developmental characteristics (Figure 3B and S6C). Cluster 5 exhibited high
expression of genes shared by Cluster 0, 1, 2, and 6, and contained multiple
cell types, representing the highest heterogeneity among all these clusters
according to cell referring analysis (Figure 3B and S6C). Therefore, we define
Cluster 5 as the early αLPs.

Among the ten identified clusters, we observed an even distribution of cells
from fetal liver and adult bone marrow, except for Cluster 4 (LTiP.2/ILC2P)
(Figure 3C). Notably, fetal Cluster 4 was annotated as LTi cells, while adult
Cluster 4 is annotated as ILC2, based on cell referring analysis (Figure S6D).
Furthermore, fetal Cluster 4 showed higher expression of *Rorc*, *Cxcr5*, *Ccr6*,
etc., indicating the LTiP moiety (Figure S6E), whereas adult Cluster 4 exhibited
higher expression of *Rora*, *Gata3*, *Bcl11b*, *Il17rb*, etc., consistent with ILC2P
characteristics (Figure S6G). Consequently, we refined the annotation, defining
fetal Cluster 4 as LTiP.2 (Figure S6F) and adult Cluster 4 as ILC2P (Figure S6H).

RNA velocity analysis predictes a conserved ILC differentiation
trajectory in fetal liver and adult bone marrow
The markedly different capacity of fetal and adult ILC progenitors implicated
potential distinct developmental pathways underlie these two stages. To further
investigate this hypothesis, we employed RNA velocity analysis (Methods) to
predict differentiation trajectories in both fetal and adult αLPs.

Four relatively conserved differentiation trajectories were predicted for both
fetal and adult αLPs, all originating at early αLP (C5) and branching towards
pro-B-like αLP (Cluster 0, Path 0), CDP-like αLP (Cluster 1, Path 1), ETP-like

αLP (Cluster 2, Path 2), and ILC lineage (Cluster 3, Path 3), respectively (Figure
3D to 3F). Notably, a conserved ILC lineage (Path 3), initiated from early αLP
(C5) and extending through EILP (C6) and ILCP (C3), was identified in both
fetal liver and adult bone marrow. However, this ILC lineage (Path 3) terminated
as LTiP in fetal liver, while transitioning to ILC2P in adult bone marrow (Figure
3D to 3F). This observation suggested that crucial regulatory factors may have
undergone alterations from fetal to adult ILC development, resulting in distinct
progenies of ILC progenitors despite the apparently conserved developmental
pathway.

RORγt- and GATA3-biased gene programs in fetal and adult ILC subset fates

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To further explore the gene regulatory networks governing fetal and adult ILC
development, we identified activated gene modules by applying the TSC
(temporal spatial consensus) algorithm as described in the Method sections.
We selected representative cells from the four trajectories (Figure 4A),
analyzed the gene expression dynamics of these cells along Path 3, which
represents the ILC commitment path from C5 to C3 (Figure 4B), and proposed
a set of key gene regulatory modules along the path (Figure S7). Consistent
with the conserved trajectories in both fetal and adult ILC development, we
observed common patterns in gene expression dynamics. For example, we
found that genes including *Flt3*, *Spi1*, *Irf8*, and *Lmo2* were notably enriched in
the early stage of pseudotime, showing a significant decrease as differentiation
progressed (Figure 4B). Following this, the induction of *Lck*, *Sox4*, *Tcf7*, and
Gfi1b expressions marked the initiation of ILC commitment from early
progenitor cells. This initiation was accompanied by the following expression of
Tox, *Id2*, and *Zbtb16*, which further restricted the ILC commitment in these
progenitors (Figure 4B).

Nevertheless, the gene expression programs had exhibited major different
logic between the fetal and adult stages. Specifically, in the fetal stage, we
observed that the expression of *Rorc* was nearly synchronous with *Tox* and *Id2*,
whereas the *Gata3* expression was relatively delayed (Figure 4B and S7A).
Conversely, in the adult stage, the *Gata3* expression closely paralleled that of
Tox, *Id2*, and *Zbtb16*, whereas the peak expression of *Rorc* lagged behind

(Figure 4B and S7B). Moreover, our analysis of differentially expressed genes
revealed elevated expression levels of *Gata3* and *Bcl11b* in the adult clusters,
particularly in C6 (EILP) and C3 (ILCP), but higher *Id2* and *Rorc* in the fetal
clusters (Figure S8A). Additionally, higher GATA3 expression in adult ILCPs (C3:
GATA3^{hi}TCF-1$^+$ αLP2) and lower RORγt in the adult clusters (C9: RORγt^{hi} TCF-
1$^+$ αLP2) were confirmed by the flow cytometry analyses (Figure S8D to S8F).
Consistent with these findings, the expression level of RORγt in intestinal
RORγt$^+$ ILCs gradually decreased during the ontogeny (Figure S8G and S8H).
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Notch signaling plays a crucial role in ILC differentiation, especially the ILC2s
and ILC3s (Possot et al., 2011; Wong et al., 2012). Notably, we observed that
Notch2 was transiently expressed in the early stage of fetal ILC lineage (Path
3), followed with a significant downregulation. Conversely, in the adult stage,
Notch2 expression nearly synchronized with *Zbtb16* and *Gata3* (Figure 4B).
Moreover, *Rbpj*, a pivotal downstream component of the Notch receptor, was
also synchronously expressed with *Tox* and *Id2* during adult ILC commitment
(Figure S7B), in contrast to its limited temporal expression during fetal ILC
commitment (Figure S7A). Our analyses of differentially expressed genes
uncovered elevated expression levels of *Notch1* and *Rbpj* in adult clusters
(Figure S8A). Additionally, higher Notch2 expression in adult αLPs was
confirmed by flow cytometry analysis (Figure S8B and S8C). Gene Set Variation
Analysis (GSVA) further indicated a notably enriched Notch signaling pathway
in adult αLPs (Figure S9). Consequently, a heightened level of Notch signaling
activity was discerned during ILC development in the adult stage than in the
fetal stage.
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The induction of GATA3 and Bcl11b as a consequence of Notch signaling
activation has been documented in previous studies (Ho et al., 2009; Hosokawa
and Rothenberg, 2021; Rothenberg, 2019). These factors are known to exert
repression on *Rorc* expression (Califano et al., 2015; Zhong et al., 2015).
During adult ILC commitment, we observed an elevation in the expression of
Gata3 and *Bcl11b* (C6 and C3), closely following the heightened expression of
Notch1, *Notch2*, and *Rbpj* (C5), key components of the Notch signaling pathway.
This trend was less apparent during fetal ILC development (Figure 4C).

Additionally, an evident opposing expression pattern between *Gata3*/*Bcl11b*

and *Rorc* became apparent. Elevated *Gata3* and *Bcl11b* expression aligned

with decreased *Rorc* expression during adult ILC commitment. Conversely,

elevated *Rorc* expression was associated with decreased *Gata3* and *Bcl11b*

during fetal ILC commitment (Figure 4C).

Furthermore, we quantified the activation levels of the Notch signaling

pathway, the GATA3 regulon, and the RORγt regulon during ILC differentiation

as well as their mutual regulations (Method). We employed ternary plots to

analyze the interplay between them, as depicted in Figure 4D. The cell states

(points on the ternary plots) shifted from a RORγt-dominant distribution (fetal)

to a Gata3-Notch dominant distribution (adult). These data suggested that

RORγt may act as a key transcription factor during fetal ILC development,

whereas Notch signaling and GATA3 appear to be more influential in

modulating adult ILC development. With the help of *dynamo* analysis (Qiu et

al., 2022), we further predicted a suppressive effect of GATA3 and Bcl11b on

Rorc expression, particularly in the adult ILCP (C3) (Figure 4E and 4F). The

analysis calculated Jacobian values for each cell and reported negative partial

derivatives in the ILCP zones on the UMAP.

Based on the above observations and previously reported discoveries, we

inferred a regulatory model that explains the ILC subset preferences during

fetal and adult stages. In this model, we suggested that the amplified Notch

signaling observed in adulthood likely leads to an upregulation of GATA3 and

Bcl11b. This in turn results in the downregulation of Rorc expression, as

detailed in Figure 4G.

Enhanced activity of Notch-GATA3-signaling suppresses the generation of LTi cells but promotes non-LTi ILCs

Given the pivotal roles of Notch signaling, GATA3, and RORγt in the

developmental process of ILCs (Chea et al., 2016b; Cherrier et al., 2012; Eberl

et al., 2004; Possot et al., 2011; Sanos et al., 2009; Vonarbourg et al., 2010;

Yagi et al., 2014; Zhong et al., 2015; Zhong et al., 2020), we speculated that

changed Notch signaling, GATA3 and RORγt expression may result in the

modified fate determination of ILC subsets from the fetal to the adult stage.

To address this question, we performed an *in vitro* differentiation assay of ILCs using the OP9-DL1 cell line as feeder cells, which provides continuous ligands for activation of Notch signaling. Our experiments found that sustained activation of Notch signaling led to a substantial increase in the proportion of ILC2s (Figure 5A), which was consistent with prior studies (Wong et al., 2012). The ILC2s increase was acompanied by a significant reduction in the proportion of LTi cells among the progenies of fetal ILC progenitors (Figure 5B) and a notable decrease in the proportion of ILC1s among the progenies of adult ILC progenitors (Figure 5C). The proportion of ILC3s exhibited no significant change during this process (Figure 5D). Thus, enhanced Notch signaling promoted the generation of ILC2 while suppressing LTi cell development. This phenomenon could explain why the ILC lineage in the fetal liver ended with LTiPs, while in adult bone marrow with ILC2Ps (Figure 3D to 3F). Moreover, intervening in Notch signaling by DAPT at early stages, such as CLP and αLP1, resulted in a more substantial alteration of ILC subsets (Figure 5A to 5D). Additionally, blocking Notch signaling in αLP2s could significantly reduced their ability to differentiate into ILC3s, leading to the decreased proportion of ILC3s and increased proportion of LTi cells (Figure S10). However, this intervention had limited effects on the generation of ILC1s and ILC2s (Figure S10).

To assess the impact of elevated GATA3 expression on ILC differentiation from fetal to adult stage, we conducted *Gata3* overexpression experiments in fetal hematopoietic stem/progenitor cells (HSPCs). Subsequently, these modified HSPCs were then transplanted into recipient mice to observe *in vivo* ILC differentiation. Analysis of the progenies derived from GATA3-overexpressing HSPCs revealed a significant increase in the porpportion of ILC2s, accompanied by a notable decrease in the proportion of total RORγt$^+$ ILCs. Within the RORγt$^+$ ILCs, Gata3 overexpression led to an increased proportion of NCR$^+$ ILC3s and a decreased proportion of LTi cells (Figure 5E to 5G). Furthermore, *Gata3* overexpression resulted in a reduction in the expression level of RORγt in RORγt$^+$ ILCs isolated from the recipient small intestine (Figure 5H and 5I). This observation aligned with the previously

established negative regulatory effect of GATA3 on *Rorc* expression (Figure 4E
to 4G).

The reduced RORγt expression, as shown in adult *Rorc* heterozygous mice
with both *Rorc*Gfp/+ and *Zbtb16*Cre*Rorc*f/+ genotypes (Figure 5K and 5L), led to
decreased proportion of LTi cells among RORγt+ILCs and substantially
increased proportion of NCR+ILC3s (Figure 5J and 5N). However, the
proportions of ILC1s and ILC2s showed no significant change in *Rorc*
heterozygous mice (Figure 5J and 5M). Additionally, upon transplanting the
LSKs from the adult *Rorc* heterozygous mice for *in vivo* ILC differentiation
analysis, we found a dramatically decreased proportion of total RORγt+ILCs.
Within this population, the proportion of LTi cells was significantly reduced,
while the proportion of NCR+ILC3s showed a remarkable increase (Figure S11A
and S11B).

Furthermore, we observed that NCR+ILC3s emerged three days after birth
in the small intestine of *Rorc*Gfp/+ mice, a significantly earlier occurrence
compared to wild-type mice (Figure S11C). This observation indicated an
accelerated induction of NCR+ILC3s in mice when the RORγt expression level
was halved. Notably, an increased proportion of the NCR+ILC3 population was
also generated by fetal liver αLPs from *Rorc*Gfp/+ mice, compared to that derived
from wild type fetal αLPs (Figure S11D and S11E). Additionally, an elevated
proportion of NCR+ILC3s and a reduction in LTi cells were detected among the
progenies of adult *Rorc* heterozygous αLP2s (Figure S11F and S11G). In
contrast, upon further overexpressing RORγt in adult hematopoitic
stem/progenitor cells (HSPCs), a decreased proportion of NCR+ILC3s and an
increased proportion of LTi cells were observed among the progenies in the
recipient small intestine, while the development of ILC1s and ILC2s remained
largely unaffected (Figure S11H to S11L).

Taken together, these findings demonstrated a hierarchical molecular
regulation of ILC differentiation throughout mouse ontogeny. Specifically, a
higher level of RORγt expression by fetal ILC progenitors correlated with an
increased potential to preferentially generate LTi cells, particularly during the

fetal and neonatal stages. Conversely, enhanced Notch-GATA3 signaling in the
ILC precursors during later developmental stages was associated with
decreased RORγt expression, fostering the generation of non-LTi ILCs while
suppressing LTi cell production. Consequently, the dynamic modulation in the
fate of different ILC subsets during ontogeny appears to be driven by a seesaw-
like transition: moving from a RORγt-dominant phase in fetal stages to a stage
characterized by enhanced Notch signaling and GATA3 in adulthood.

DISCUSSION

ILCs play a crucial role in maintaining tissue homeostasis within the immune
system, with different subsets mediating distinct immune response (Bal et al.,
2020; Vivier et al., 2018). Dynamic alterations in ILC subsets have been
documented in the murine small intestine (Sawa et al., 2010) and thymus
(Jones et al., 2018) in recent years. However, a comprehensive elucidation of
this phenomenon across various tissues during ontogeny is yet to be achieved.
In this study, we proposed a "seesaw" model of the interplay between Notch-
GATA3 signaling and RORγt during murine ontogeny. Specifically, RORγt
demonstrated enhanced regulatory influence in fetal ILC development,
whereas the Notch signaling pathway and GATA3 assumed augmented
regulatory functions in adulthood. This model elucidated the predisposition of
fetal ILC progenitors towards LTi cell differentiation, contrasting with the
preference of non-LTi ILCs exhibited by adult progenitors. This dynamic
regulation of ILC progenitors may account for the evolving composition of ILCs
during ontogeny.
453
It is reasonable that different ILC subsets are required during various
developmental stages. Remarkably, our findings, along with those of others,
consistently demonstrate a prevalence of LTi cells throughout fetal and
newborn tissues, followed by an increased proportion of non-LTi ILCs, including
ILC1s, ILC2s, and ILC3s. The significant role of LTi cells in the formation of
secondary lymphoid organs (Eberl et al., 2004; Krishnamurty and Turley, 2020),
particularly during the embryonic and newborn stages (Onder and Ludewig,
2018), suggests a prioritization in the body to establish key secondary lymphoid
tissues in anticipation of the impending immune defense post-birth. However,

with the direct exposure to various pathogens after birth, non-LTi ILCs become

critical to defense against various pathogens (Eberl et al., 2015; Lim and Di

Santo, 2019; Oherle et al., 2020; Vivier et al., 2018), particularly during the early

stages after birth, when the T cell-mediated adaptive immune response is

incompletely formed (Mao et al., 2018).

Recent studies have emphasized the impact of local niches on this process

(Lim et al., 2017; Oherle et al., 2020; Zeis et al., 2020). For instance, a high

concentration of AhR ligands in the small intestine promotes the differentiation

and proliferation of ILC3s while restricting the expansion of ILC2s (Kiss et al.,

2011; Lee et al., 2012; Li et al., 2018). In the lung environment, regardless of

whether these precursor cells originate from neonatal or adult sources, they are

driven to differentiate into ILC2s (Ghaedi et al., 2020; Oherle et al., 2020; Zeis

et al., 2020). However, these findings could not fully explain the phenomenon

observed in this study, where the ratio of LTi cells to non-LTi ILCs systematically

decreased across tissues during ontogeny. Therefore, additional mechanisms

regulating the dynamic changes of ILC subset composition require further

clarification.

It is well-established that the characteristics of hematopoietic stem/progenitor

cells (HSPCs) change during ontogeny (Jassinskaja et al., 2017; Kim et al.,

2007; Medvinsky et al., 2011; Yuan et al., 2012). Fetal HSPCs exhibit a higher

capacity of $\gamma\delta$ T cells generation, while adult HSPCs show an enhanced

capacity of $\alpha\beta$ T cells generation (Yuan et al., 2012). Correspondingly, fetal

tissues manifest a higher composition of $\gamma\delta$ T cells, whereas adult tissues

exhibit a higher proportion of $\alpha\beta$ T cells (Dunon et al., 1997). In line with the

widely shared regulatory mechanisms governing T cell and ILC development,

our findings demonstrate distinct capacities for generating ILC subsets from

fetal and adult hematopoietic progenitors. Particularly noteworthy is the higher

capacity for LTi cell generation by fetal progenitors, contrasting with the greater

capacity for non-LTi ILC generation by adult progenitors. This pattern aligns

with the systematic reduction in the ratio of LTi cell to non-LTi ILC from the fetal

to adult development. Therefore, we propose that hematopoietic progenitors,

exhibiting distinct differentiation capacities for ILC subsets at different

developmental stages, play a significant role in driving the dynamic changes in
ILC subset composition during ontogeny.

A series of ILC progenitors has been identified in adult bone marrow (De
Obaldia and Bhandoola, 2015; Harly et al., 2019; Ren et al., 2022; Vivier et al.,
2018), however, there is still a lack of comprehensive profiling of ILC
progenitors during fetal development (Ishizuka et al., 2016). Notably, the
development of fetal and adult ILCs exhibits distinct sensitivities to the
deficiency of Notch signaling (Chea et al., 2016a; Possot et al., 2011) and
Ikaros (Li et al., 2016; Schjerven, 2013), implying potential different ILC
developmental pathways between these two stages. Contrary to expectations,
our scRNA-seq analyses revealed similar types of ILC progenitors and a
conserved differentiation trajectory during fetal and adult ILC development.
However, fetal and adult progenitors exhibited different transcriptomes and
gene regulatory networks. Remarkably, Notch signaling was enriched during
adult ILC development, as evidenced by higher expression of *Gata3*, *Tcf7*, and
Bcl11b. These transcription factors, involved in ILC subset fate determination,
are all known to be promoted by Notch signaling (Cherrier et al., 2018; Fang
and Zhu, 2017). Moreover, TCF-1 (encoded by *Tcf7*) (Mielke et al., 2013; Yang
et al., 2015), GATA3 (Zhong et al., 2016; Zhong et al., 2020) and Bcl11b
(Califano et al., 2015) all show a higher requirement for non-LTi ILC generation,
concurrently suppressing LTi cell differentiation. This aligns with the
observation that adult ILC3s, not fetal LTi cells, depend on Notch signaling
(Chea et al., 2016a; Possot et al., 2011). Consistent with prior observations that
GATA3 and Bcl11b can suppress RORγt expression (Califano et al., 2015;
Zhong et al., 2020), we aso confirmed reduced RORγt expression in the adult.
Moreover, reduced RORγt expression accelerated the emergence of ILC3 and
suppressed LTi cell generation. Therefore, we propose the modified activity of
Notch signaling, leading to changed expression of Gata3 and Rorc, will altered
the fate determination of ILC subsets and ultimately contribute to the dynamic
change of ILC subsets during ontogeny.

Furthermore, Notch signaling also plays a role in determining the fate of αβ
T cells and γδ T cells in a dose-dependent manner. Increased Notch signaling

activity is necessary for the generation of αβ T cells, while it is not essential for

γδ T cells (Ciofani et al., 2006; Garbe et al., 2006; Tanigaki et al., 2004). Taking

into account the enhanced Notch signaling observed in adult ILC progenitors,

which still maintain T cell differentiation capacity, exemplified by the early αLP1

cluster (C5) we identified, it is plausible that enhanced Notch signaling could

serve as a common trigger for shifting differentiation capacity from LTi cells to

non-LTi ILCs, and probably from γδ T cells to αβ T cells as well, during the

transition from fetal to adult stages. However, the mechanisms underlying the

modulation of Notch signaling strength during ontogeny remain unclear and

warrant further investigation.

Collectively, our findinngs highlight the dynamic regulation of ILC subset fate

determination by adjusting the activity of Notch-GATA3 signaling and RORγt

expression, leading to the gradually decreased ratio of LTi cells to non-LTi ILCs

from fetal to adult. This study propose an additional mechanism that altered

differentiation capacity of ILC progenitors may coordinate with the environment

cues to meet the demands of distinct ILC subsets in the body during mouse

ontogeny.

Limitations of Study

Our study revealed a correlation between changes in the differentiation ability

of ILC progenitor cells and the dynamic composition of ILC subsets in tissues

during ontogeny. However, direct evidence for the extent to which changes in

differentiation ability contribute to the distribution of ILC subsets in peripheral

tissues is lacking. While we demonstrated that the differentiation capacity of

ILC progenitors changed as early as one week after birth, we were unable to

determine definitively whether ILC progenitors from the bone marrow are still

required for generating ILC subsets in peripheral tissues after birth. This

consideration is particularly pertinent given the tissue-residence feature of ILCs

in adults.

AUTHOR CONTIBUTIONS

technical and experimental assistance. T.W., S.C., L.W. analyzed and interpreted the data.
Manuscript was written by T.W., S.C. and L.W., S.C. and J.M. are responsible for the data
curation, and this study was supervised by L.W., Y.Z. and X.Zhang.

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Life Sciences (to L.W. and T.W.).

DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

METHODS

KEY RESOURCE TABLE

RREGENT or RESOURCE	SOURCE	IDENTIFIER
Antibodies		
Anti-mouse CD45 BV605 (30-F11)	BioLegend	Cat# 103112
Anti-mouse CD45.1 BV605 (A20)	BioLegend	Cat# 110738
Anti-mouse CD45.1 BV711 (A20)	BioLegend	Cat# 110739
Anti-mouse CD45.1 V450 (A20)	BD Biosciences	Cat# 580520
Anti-mouse CD45.2 PE-Cy7 (104)	BioLegend	Cat# 109830
Anti-mouse CD45.2 APC (104)	BioLegend	Cat# 109814
Anti-mouse CD45.2 APC-Cy7 (104)	BioLegend	Cat# 109824
Anti-mouse CD45.2 FITC (104)	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# 11-0454-85
Anti-mouse CD3ε FITC (145-2C11)	BioLegend	Cat# 100306
Anti-mouse CD4 BV711 (RM4-5)	BioLegend	Cat# 100550
Anti-mouse CD8α APC-Cy7 (53-6.7)	BioLegend	Cat# 100714
Anti-mouse TCR-β FITC (H57-597)	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# 11-5961-85
Anti-mouse CD11b FITC (M1/70)	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# 11-0122-85

Anti-mouse CD11c FITC (N418)	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# 11-0114-85
Anti-mouse CD11b PerCP/Cy5.5 (M1/70)	BD Biosciences	Cat# 550993
Anti-mouse CD19 FITC (6D5)	BioLegend	Cat# 115505
Anti-mouse NK1.1 APC (PK136)	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# 17-5941-82
Anti-mouse NKp46 PerCP-eF710 (29A1.4)	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# 46-3351-82
Anti-mouse NKp46 PE-Cy7 (29A1.4)	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# 25-3351-82
Anti-mouse Thy1.2 APC-Cy7 (30-H12)	BioLegend	Cat# 105328
Anti-mouse Thy1.2 APC-eFluor780 (53-2.1)	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# 47-0902-82
Anti-mouse GATA3 eFluor660 (TWAJ)	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# 50-9966-41
Anti-mouse RORγt PE (AFKJS-9)	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# 12-6988-82
Anti-mouse CCR6 BV421 (29-2L17)	BioLegend	Cat# 129818
Anti-mouse c-Kit APC-Cy7 (ACK2)	BioLegend	Cat# 135136
Anti-mouse c-Kit BV605 (ACK2)	BioLegend	Cat# 135121
Anti-mouse c-Kit APC (ACK2)	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# 17-1172-83
Anti-mouse CD127-biotin (A7R34)	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# 1312721-82
Anti-mouse CD127-BV421 (A7R34)	BioLegend	Cat# 135024
Anti-mouse $\alpha_4\beta_7$ APC (DATK-32)	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# 17-5887-82
Anti-mouse $\alpha_4\beta_7$ PE (DATK-32)	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# 12-5887-83
Anti-mouse Flt3 PE (A2F10)	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# 12-1351-82
Anti-mouse Flt3 BV421 (A2F10)	BioLegend	Cat# 135314
Anti-mouse CD25 BV711 (PC61)	BioLegend	Cat# 102049
Anti-mouse Notch1 PE (HMN1-12)	BioLegend	Cat# 130607
Anti-mouse Notch2 PE (HMN2-35)	BioLegend	Cat# 130707
Anti-mouse KLRG-1 BV605 (2F1/KLRG1)	BioLegend	Cat# 138419
Anti-mouse KLRG-1 APC (2F1/KLRG1)	BioLegend	Cat# 138412
Ki-67-PE-Cy7 (SolA15)	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# 25-5698-82
Chemicals, peptides, and recombinant proteins		
Recombinant Murine IL-7	PeproTech	Cat# 217-17
Recombinant Murine SCF	PeproTech	Cat# 250-03
Recombinant Murine Flt3L	PeproTech	Cat# 250-31L
DAPT	Selleck	Cat# S2215
Collagenase Type III	Worthington Chemicals	Cat# CLS-3
Penicillin- Streptomycin (10,000 U/mL)	GIBCO	Cat# 15140122
Percoll	GE Healthcare	Cat# 17-0891-01
RPMI 1640	GIBCO	Cat# C22400500BT
HBSS	GIBCO	Cat# C14175500CP
Critical commercial assays		
Foxp3 transcription factor staining buffer set	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# 00-5523-00
BioMag anti-Rat IgG	Bangs Laboratories	Cat# BM560

7-AAD	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# 00-6993-50
Flexible viability dye eFulor506	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# 65-0866-18
Rat Gamma Globulin	Jacksonimmuno	Cat# 012-000-002
Experimental Models: Organisms/Strains		
C57BL/6J mice	Jackson lab	Jax000664 Jax002014
Rorc$^{GFP/+}$ mice	Dr. Xiaohuan Guo	N/A
Rorc$^{-/-}$*Il2rg*$^{-/-}$ mice	Dr. Xiaohuan Guo	N/A
Zbtb16^{Cre} mice	Dr. Xiaohuan Guo	N/A
Rorc$^{f/+}$*Zbtb16*^{Cre} mice	Dr. Xiaohuan Guo	N/A
OP9 cell line	Dr. Xiaohuan Guo	N/A
OP9-DL1 cell line	Dr. Xiaohuan Guo	N/A
pMSCV[Exp]-mGata3[NM_008091.3]:IRES:EGFP	VectorBuilder	
Software and algorithms		
FACS Diva software	BD Biosciences	
FlowJo V9.9.3 software	TreeStar	
GraphPad Prism 7.0 software	GraphPad	

RESOURCE AVAILABILITY

Lead contact

Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will be fulfilled by the lead contact, Li Wu (wuli@tsinghua.edu.cn).

Materials availability

This study did not generate any new unique reagents.

Data and code availability

Single-cell RNA-seq data have been deposited at GSA (https://ngdc.cncb.ac.cn/gsa/) with the accession number CRA011319. The codes for scRNA-seq data analysis were available at an online repository (https://github.com/chansigit/ilcdev).

EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND SUBJECT DETAILS

Animals and ethics statement

CD45.2 mice (Jax000664) and CD45.1 mice (Jax002014) were obtained from Jackson Laboratory. CD45.1.2 mice were generated by crossing CD45.2 mice (Jax000664) and CD45.1 mice (Jax002014). *Rag2*$^{-/-}$*Il2rg*$^{-/-}$ mice, *Rorc*$^{GFP/+}$ mice, *Zbtb16*^{Cre} mice, *Rorc*$^{f/+}$*Zbtb16*^{Cre} mice were kindly provided by Dr. Xiaohuan Guo (Tsinghua University, Beijing, China). Mouse embryos and pups were obtained by in-house breeding. Age of mice were illustrated in indicated experiment. Fetal liver were collected at embryonic day 15.5 (E15.5) or E16.5. For adult bone marrow analysis, 8- to 12-week-old mice were used. Mice after two weeks old were sex-matched, while the male and female fetus or newborn mice were randomly used.

605 All mice used in this study were bred on a C57BL/6 background, and maintained in a specific
606 pathogen free (SPF) animal facility (12 h light and 12 h dark) at Tsinghua University. Animal
607 procedures were under the approval of the Institution Animal Care and Use Committee at
608 Tsinghua University.

METHOD DETAILS

Cell preparation

Single-cell suspensions of bone marrow, fetal liver, small intestine, colon, lung, spleen and
liver were prepared following the listed protocols for flow cytometry analysis and/or cell
sorting.

For progenitor enrichment from bone marrow, procedures were detailly described
elsewhere (Manz et al., 2001; Wu et al., 2001). Briefly, bone marrow cells were enriched
by red blood cell removing, density gradient centrifugation (1.086 g/ml Nycodenz), and
immunomagnetic depletion of the lineage positive cells labeled by markers of CD3, CD2,
CD8, CD19, B220, Mac-1, Ly6G and Ter119. For cell isolation from fetal liver, fetal liver
was collected from E15.5 or E16.5 fetus and repeatedly blew by 1 ml pipette tip, cell
suspensions were passed through a 70 μM strainer, further enriched by red cell removing
and density gradient centrifugation (1.086 g/ml Nycodenz), cells that lighter than 1.086
g/ml were collected and washed. These enriched cells were blocked by Rat IgG and further
stained with indicated antibody panel for CLPs ($Lin^-CD127^+c\text{-}Kit^{int/+}Flt3^+\alpha_4\beta_7^-$), αLP1s
($Lin^-CD127^+c\text{-}Kit^{int/+}Flt3^+\alpha_4\beta_7^+$), αLP2s ($Lin^-CD127^+c\text{-}Kit^{int/+}Flt3^-\alpha_4\beta_7^+$).

For cell isolation from the small intestine and colon, the small intestine and colon were
flushed clean with cold mouse tissue PBS, opened along the longitudinal axis, and then
removed the Peyer's patches. The residual intestinal tissues were subjected to two
sequential 20-min incubated in 20 ml Buffer I (HBSS with 20mM EDTA, 10mM HEPES and
1M DTT), at 37℃ with shaking (220 rpm), for the preliminary digestion. Peyer's patches
and mesenteric tissues were removed from the residual intestinal tissues that were further
incubated in 10 ml Buffer II (1640 RPMI + 10% FBS + 1mg/ml Collagenase III) for 60min
at 37℃ with shaking (220 rpm), for final digestion. After which, samples were violently
vortexed, repeatedly blew by 1 ml pipette tips, and then passed through 70 μM strainer,
40% Percoll density gradient centrifugation was used for further immune cells enrichment.
The cells that heavier than 40% Percoll were washed and counted for further analysis.

For lung cell isolation, mouse lung tissues were minced and digested with collagenase
1A (0.5 mg/ml, Sigma) and Dnase I (0.05 mg/ml, Roche) in HBSS for 60 minutes at 37℃
in the thermostatic incubator, with several interval vortexes. Digested lung tissues were
further filtrated through a 70 μM strainer, the erythrocytes were removed by using red cell
removal buffer (0.168M NH_4CL), the residual cells were washed and collected for further
analysis.

For liver cell isolation from mice after birth, livers were collected and passed through a
100 μM strainer. The cells then enriched by density gradient centrifugation with 40%
Percoll, and red blood cells were removed. Splenocytes were isolated by forcing the
tissues through a 100 μM strainer, and red blood cells were further removed.

Flow cytometry analysis and cell sorting

Flow cytometry staining were performed in 96-well microtiter plates or 5 ml FACS tube.
Cells were blocked by Rat IgG and stained with fluorochrome-conjugated antibodies in
dark for 30-40 min on ice. Fixable Viability Dye eFluor506 or 7-AAD were used to exclude
the dead cells in all these samples. For intracellular transcription factor staining, cells were
fixed and permeabilized and stained with indicated antibodies using the
Foxp3/Transcription Factor Staining Buffer Set (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Data were
acquired on a BD LSRII or Fortessa cytometer, and cells were sorted by FACSAria III, in
the flow cytometry core at IITU.

In vitro **differentiation assay of ILC progenitors**
We cultured bone marrow progenitors ($0.5-1\times10^4$/sample) from CD45.1 or CD45.2 wild
type mice, including CLP, αLP1, and αLP2, with total bone marrow cells (1×10^4/sample)
from CD45.1.2 wild type or CD45.2 $Rag2^{-/-}Il2rg^{-/-}$ mice as feeder cells in RPMI 1640
media supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum, glutamine, β-mercaptoethanol,
penicillin, and streptomycin. For the OP9 and OP9-DL1 co-culture system, we sorted ILC
progenitors (500-1000 cells) and seeded them in wells with OP9 or OP9-DL1 cell lines
(500 cells for each well). All cultures were supplemented with stem cell factor (SCF, 100
ng/ml) and IL-7 (20 ng/ml), and ILC subsets among the daughter cells were analyzed 7-8
days later by flow cytometry.

Adoptive transfer of ILC progenitors for in vivo differentiation assay
We sorted equal number ($0.5\sim1\times10^4$ for one recipient) of indicated progenitor from fetal liver
(CD45.2 wild type) and adult bone marrow (CD45.1,wild type mice), and mixed them with
competitor cells (5×10^5 for one recipient, total bone marrow from CD45.1.2 wild type or CD45.2
$Rag2^{-/-}Il2rg^{-/-}$ mice) befor transferring them to the lethally irradiated mice (CD45.1.2 wild type
or CD45.2 $Rag2^{-/-}Il2rg^{-/-}$ mice, 5.5 Gy twice with a 3-hour interval). Neomycin (1 mg/ml) and
Polymycin (0.1 mg/ml) were added to the drinking water for 1~2 weeks.
For the *Rorc* over-expression experiments, we isolated adult bone marrow progenitors (Lin⁻c-
Kit^{int/+}Sca-1⁺) from wild type (CD45.1) or $Rorc^{Gfp/+}$ (CD45.2) mice were transduced them with
Rorc-GFP plasmid ($Rorc^{OE}$) or empty plasmid ($Rorc^{NC}$). For *Gata3* over-expression experiment,
we transduced progenitors from the fetal liver (Lin⁻c-Kit^{int/+}Sca-1⁺) with either Gata3-GFP
plasmid ($Gata3^{OE}$) or empty plasmid ($Gata3^{NC}$). After Successfully transduction, we sorted and
mixed the progenitors with competitor cells (5×10^5 for each recipient mice, total bone marrow
from CD45.2 $Rag2^{-/-}Il2rg^{-/-}$ mice) before transferring to the lethally irradiated mice (CD45.1.2
wild type, 5.5 Gy twice with a 3-hour interval). Neomycin (1 mg/ml) and Polymycin (0.1 mg/ml)
were added to the drinking water for 1~2 weeks. We analyzed cells in the recipient mice 5~6
weeks after transfer.

Single-cell RNA-seq library preparation
Single αLP cells were sorted by FACS from embryonic liver (E15.5~16.5) and adult bone
marrow. After the confirming of cell purity (above 95%) and the cell viability (above 85%)
after sorting, cells were further sent to 10×Genomics sequencing platform for single-cell
transcriptome sequencing (Annaroad Gene Technology(Beijing)Co., Ltd).

scRNA-seq data preprocessing and quality control
The transcriptional profiles of individual cells were acquired through a process involving

read mapping, removal of background noises, removal of multiplets, and selection of cells
of interest. We mapped scRNA-seq reads to the mm10 version *Mus musculus* reference
genome from 10x Genomics (https://cf.10xgenomics.com/supp/cell-exp/refdata-gex-
mm10-2020-A.tar.gz) using CellRanger v3.1.0 (10x Genomics) 'count' commands. To
remove the ambient RNA induced background noises, we removed the used SoupX v1.2.2
(Young and Behjati, 2020) to produce clean UMI-droplet matrices. The clean droplets with
low UMI counts and high percentages of mitochondrial expressions were removed from
the dataset. Besides single cells, the dataset also contained a small fraction of multiplet
droplets. We used DoubletFinder v2.0 (McGinnis et al., 2019) to identify these multiplets.
After removing multples, the datasets still contained cells we are not interested in because
the cell sorting procedure might have false detections. After data normalization and
clustering, we removed the clusters with low expression levels of *Ptprc* (non-immune cells
mingled in), clusters with high *Cd3e* expressions (T cells mingled in), clusters with high
Cd79a expressions (B cells mingled in). The feature selection, normalization, scaling,
dimensionality reduction, and visualization of data were conducted with the help of single-
cell data analyzing suites Seurat v3.2 (Stuart et al., 2019) and Scanpy v1.7 (Wolf et al.,
2018).

To reveal the identities and intrinsic diffenrentiation potential of the hematopoeitic
progenitors, we performed cell mapping analysis to show the affinities between the
progenitors and other known cell types. We used SingleR v1.0 (Aran et al., 2019) to map
the transcriptional profiles in the ImmGen references to our datasets.

scRNA-seq data integratoin
To make cell across different developmental stages and batches comparable, we
performed integration analyses using a GPU accelerated implementation of the Harmony
algorithm, harmony-pytroch v0.1.7 (https://pypi.org/project/harmony-pytorch) (Korsunsky
et al., 2019). The analyses reduced unwanted batch-associated variations and produced
harmonized cell latent vectors and under the following parameter settings: theta=5,
lambda=0.5.

Cell vector field analysis
The cell state transition streamlines were derived by RNA velocity analyses (La Manno et
al., 2018). Velocyto v0.17 was used to convert the bam format read alignment file produced
by CellRanger to the unspliced/spliced counts (La Manno et al., 2018). The cell vector field
streamlines and the differential geometry analyses were obtained using Dynamo v1.1.0
(Qiu et al., 2022).

To obtain the representative cells along the velocity trajectories, we calculated the least
action path (LAP) along the vector field using the Dynamo package's dyn.pd.least_action()
function. The starting and ending states of the LAPs are selected with the help of the
Dynamo vector field's fixed points. The outputs of LAP analysis contained T UMAP points
arranged in the state transition's chronological order. We chose the 10 nearest neighbors
in UMAP space for each point and take their average gene expression as a smoothed
expression profiles of each point. The cells on the LAP and their neighbors are finally
selected as the representative cells along the velocity trajectories. The average gene

expressions of each time point creates a representative expression time series (a matrix
with g rows and T columns, g is the number of genes in the dataset), which was used for
further gene regulatory program analyses.

Gene regulatory module identification
Existing methods for identifying gene regulatory program often suffers from compactness
problems, where the identified gene expression events are not concentrated around a
specific time point. Here, we proposed the TSC (temporal spatial consensus) algorithm to
refine the SCENIC gene regulatory network (GRN) output. TSC algorithm combines the
spatial localization information (TF-target genes relationships) and the temporal
information (gene expression time series). We used the "grn" and "ctx" command in
pySCENIC v0.11 (Van de Sande et al., 2020) to generate a basic GRN backbone.
TSC accepted the LAP derived gene expression time series (g x T matrix) and calculated
dynamic time wrapping distances (DTW) between every gene's expression time series
(https://zenodo.org/records/7158824). A k-NN (k nearest neighbor) graph was then created
using these distances (k=20 by default) and edges on the graph were next dropped out if
the two connecting nodes were not mutual k-NN. Given the DTW graph and the SCENIC
graph as two layers sharing the same set of nodes (genes), we build a multiplex network.
We used Node2Vec (Grover and Leskovec, 2016) for layers of the multiplex network and
obtained latent embedding for each genes. A hierarchical clustering from the
scipy.cluster.hierarchy package was used to group these genes into different affinity
modules, which was the TSC-refined gene regulatory modules.

Differentially Expressed Genes and GSVA analysis
The DEG (differentially expressed genes) were identified with the Seurat package's
FindMarkers() or FindAllMarkers() function with an adjusted p-value <0.05 threshold. The
DEG analyses compared expressions using Wilcoxon rank sum test on the normalized
data slot in Seurat objects.
In Gene Set Variation Analysis (GSVA) (Hanzelmann et al., 2013), cells are firstly
overclustered within cell types to be analyzed, and the overclustered cells are then merged
into metacells by taking their average expression profiles. GSVA analyses were performed
on these metacells using gene sets from MSigDB Hallmark (Liberzon et al., 2011).
We used the ternary plot (Hamilton and Ferry, 2018) to present the tangled
relationships between the *Gata3* regulon, the *Rorc* regulon, and the Notch signaling. The
Gata3 and *Rorc* regulons' gene members were extracted from the SCENIC-derived gene
regulatory modules. We used the following Notch signaling pathway gene members:
Notch1, *Notch2*, *Notch3*, *Notch4*, *Furin*, *Psen2*, *Adam17*, *Dtx1*, *Dtx4*, *Rbpj*. The activation
scores of the three modules were evaluated by GSVA. The samples used for GSVA
analysis were the average expression profiles of the time steps derived from the LAP
analyses.

QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Statistical Analysis
GraphPad Prism 7 was used for statistical analysis with the specific tests and the number
of samples used for each analysis (n) shown in the figure legends.

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Figures

Figure 1   Temporal and tissue distribution of innate lymphoid cells during ontogeny

(A, D and G) Representative FACS plots show the frequencies of major ILC subsets in (A) lamina propria of small intestine (Si.LP), (D) lamina propria of colon (Co.LP) and (G) spleen, between newborn (Day 1) and adult (Week 8) mice.

(B, E and H) The percentage and absolute number of ILC subsets in (B) Si.LP, (E) Co.LP and (H) spleen during ontogeny are shown. Data (n=3-6 mice per group) represent two independent experiments (mean ± SD).

(C, F, I) The logarithm of the percentage ratio of LTi cells to non-LTi ILCs in (C) Si.LP, (F) Co.LP, and (I) spleen are plotted. Each dot represents the value for one individual mouse.

Figure 2   ILC subsets generated by progenitors from different stages during ontogeny

(A) CD45$^+$Lin$^-$CD127$^+$c-Kit$^{int/+}$ cells were gated to identify CLP, αLP1, and αLP2 in fetal liver (E16.5) and bone marrow at neonatal (Day 1), infant (Day 4, Week 1, and Week 2), weaning (Week 4), and adult stages (Week 12).

(B) Dynamic percentages of CLPs, αLP1s, and αLP2s during ontogeny. Data (n=10 mice per group) are pooled from two independent experiments (mean ± SD).

(C) Representative FACS plots show ILC subsets derived from αLP2s sorted from fetal liver (E16.5), or bone marrow at the newborn (Day 0), infant (Day 4 and Week 1), weaning (Week 2-3) and adult mice (Week 8), after 7 days of *in vitro* culture with IL-7 and SCF.

(D-F) Percentage (D-E) and absolute cell number (F) of major ILC subsets in (C). Data (n=6-15 per group) are pooled from three independent experiments (mean ± SD).

Figure 3 ILC differentiation trajectories in fetal liver and adult bone marrow revealed by single-cell RNA-sequencing analysis.

(A) The cellular composition of αLPs from integrated fetal liver and adult bone marrow is visualized using Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection (UMAP). Cell types are color-coded.

(B) Feature gene expression is shown across the identified clusters among αLPs using dot-plot analyses.

(C) The integrated UMAP shows αLPs from fetal liver (red) and adult bone marrow (blue).

(D and E) RNA velocity algorithm-derived transition probabilities projected onto UMAP plots of (D) fetal liver and (E) adult bone marrow αLPs. Streamlines represent averaged and projected RNA velocities.

(F) Schematic diagram showing the potential ILC differentiation trajectories in fetal liver and adult bone marrow.

Figure 4 Comparation of gene programs during fetal and adult ILC development

(A) Visualization of the representative cells along the paths revealed in fetal liver and adult bone marrow αLPs.

(B) Heatmaps displaying differentially expressed genes along the ILC differentiation pseudotime (path 3) from early αLP1s (C5) to ILCPs (C3) in fetal liver and adult bone marrow.

(C) Heatmap of gene expressions associated with Notch signaling, *Gata3*, *Bcl11b*, and *Rorc* during both fetal and adult ILC differentiation.

(D) Ternay plots showing mutual relationships among activation scores of Notch signaling pathway, GATA3 regulon, RORγt regulon. The activation scores were evaluated along the ILC differentiation trajectories (Path 3) in fetal and adult stages. Colors of the dashed lines indicate the projection direction of the coordinates.

(E and F) *Dynamo* analysis predicting the potential relationship between (E) *Rorc* and *Gata3*, as well as between (F) *Rorc* and *Bcl11b* during fetal and adult ILC development trajectories. The dashed circles highlighted the negative regulatory relationships revealed by negative Jacobian values.

(G) Schematic diagram showing the potential relationship among Notch signaling, GATA3/BCL11b and RORγt.

Figure 5   Enhanced Notch signaling, increased GATA3 and decreased RORγt suppresses LTi cell differentiation.

(A-D) Percentage of ILC1s, ILC2s, ILC3 and LTi cells derived from fetal and adult CLPs, αLP1s and αLP2s after co-culture with either OP9 or OP9-DL1 stromal cells *in vitro*. Data (n=7-8 mice per group) are pooled from three to four independent experiments (mean ± SD).

(E) Representative flow cytometry plots showing the ILC subsets derived *in vivo* from the fetal liver progenitors transduced with either empty plasmid (*Gata3*^NC) or *Gata3* overexpression (*Gata3*^OE) in the recipient intestine.

(F-G) The percentage of ILC subsets in (E). Data (n=3-7 mice per group) are pooled from two independent experiments (mean ± SD).

(H and I) Intracellular staining of RORγt in RORγt⁺ ILCs in (G). Data (n= 2-3 mice per group) represent two independent experiments (mean ± SD).

(J) Flow cytometry analysis showing the major ILC subsets in the small intestine of *Rorc* heterozygous mice, including both *Rorc*^Gfp/+ and *Zbtb16*^Cre*Rorc*^f/+ mice.

(K and L) Mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) of RORγt in small intestinal RORγt⁺ ILCs from *Rorc* heterozygous mice. Data (n=3 per group) represent two independent experiments

(mean ± SD).

(M and N) Percentage of major ILC subsets in the small intestine from *Rorc* heterozygous mice. Data (n=3 per group) represent two independent experiments (mean ± SD).

Supplementary figures

Figure S1　ILC Subsets in lung and liver during ontogeny. Related to Figure 1.

（A and D) Representative FACS plots display the frequencies of major ILC subsets in (A) lung and (D) liver of the newborn (Day 1) and adult (Week 8) mice.

(B and E) Percentage and absolute number of ILC subsets in (B) lung and (E) liver during ontogeny are presented. Data (n=3 mice for each group) represent two independent experiments and are shown as mean ± SD.

(C, F and G) The logarithm of the percentage ratio of LTi cells to non-LTi ILCs in (H) liver, (I) lung, and (G) all these tissues combined. Each dot represents the value for one individual mouse.

(H) A pie graph is provided to illustrate the composition of ILC subsets across tissues between the newborn (Day 1) and adult (Week 8).

Figure S2 **Ontogeny of αβ T cells and γδ T cells. Related to Figure 1.**

The percentage of the αβ T cells and γδ T cells in indicated tissues during ontogeny. Data (n= 6 mice per group) are pooled from two independent experiments (mean ± SD).

Figure S3   ILC subsets generated by fetal and adult hematopoietic progenitors. Related to Figure 2.

(A) Composition of major immune cells derived from LSKs of fetal liver and adult bone marrow in the recipient small intestine. Data (n=8 mice pre group) are pooled from three independent experiments.

(B) Representative FACS plots show the major ILC subsets derived from LSKs of fetal liver and adult bone marrow in the recipient small intestine.

(C) Percentage of major ILC subsets derived from fetal and adult LSKs in the recipient small intestine.

(D) Proportion of LTi cells and non-LTi ILCs derived from LSKs of fetal liver and adult bone marrow in the recipient small intestine. Data (n= 8 mice per group) are pooled from three independent experiments.

Figure S4 Differentiation assay of ILC progenitors from fetal liver and adult bone marrow. Related to Figure 2.

(A-B) Representative FACS plots display the ILC subsets derived from (A) fetal liver and (B) adult bone marrow LSKs, CLPs and αLPs, after seven days of culture supplemented with IL-7 and SCF *in vitro*.

(C-D) The composition of major ILC subsets among the daughter cells derived from the indicated counterpart progenitors from (C) fetal liver and (D) adult bone marrow are presented. Data (n=3 samples per group) represent two independent experiments and are shown as mean ± SD.

Figure S5   Differentiation assay of αLP1s and αLP2s from fetal liver and adult bone marrow. Related to Figure 2.

(A) Representative FACS plots display the ILC subsets derived from fetal and adult αLP1s or αLP2s after seven days of culture with IL-7 and SCF *in vitro*.

(B-E) The (B-C) percentage and (D-E) absolute number of major ILC subsets derived from fetal and adult (B, D) αLP1s or (C, E) αLP2s are presented. Data (n=6 samples per group) are pooled from two independent experiments and are shown as mean ± SD.

(F) Representative FACS plots show ILC subsets derived from fetal and adult αLP2s in the small intestine of recipient mice.

(G-H) Percentage of (G) ILC1, ILC2 and RORγt+ ILCs and (H) RORγt+ ILC subsets derived from fetal and adult αLP2s in the recipient small intestine. Data (n=18 samples per group) are pooled from seven independent experiments (mean ± SD).

Figure S6   Single-cell transcriptomic landscape of fetal and adult ILC progenitors. Related to Figure 3.

(A) The cellular composition of αLPs from integrated fetal liver and adult bone marrow is visualized using Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection (UMAP). Cell types are color-coded.

(B) Marker gene expression is shown across the identified clusters among αLPs by feature-plot analysis.

(C and D) Histograms show the top correlated cell types in each (C) integrated or (D) separated cluster by comparing the single-cell transcriptome to that in the ImmGen database.

(E and G) Dot-plot representations of the marker gene expression for the identified clusters among αLPs from (E) fetal liver and (G) adult bone marrow are presented.

(F and H) The indicated clusters in (F) fetal liver and (H) adult bone marrow αLPs are finely annotated.

Figure S7 TSC analysis of indicated transcription factors during fetal and adult ILC development revealed by single-cell RNA-sequence. Related to Figure 4.

(A and B) Heatmap showing the expression of genes accompanied with indicated transcription factors along the ILC differentiation pseudotime (path 3) predicted by TSC analysis in (A) fetal liver and (B) adult bone marrow. The red characters mark the transcription factors. The pseudotime from C5 to C3 (path 3) is divided into four equal parts. The orange characters bend during the pseudotime, representing the expression period of the indicated transcription factor.

Figure S8　Different expression of genes involved in Notch signaling, *Gata3* and *Rorc* between fetal and adult. Related to Figure 4.

(A) Differentially expressed genes between indicated clusters in fetal liver and adult bone marrow.

(B and C) Flow cytometry analysis showing the expression of Notch1 and Notch2 on ILC progenitors, including CLPs, αLP1s and αLP2s, from both fetal liver and adult bone marrow. Data (n=6-7 samples per group) are pooled from three independent experiments and are presented as mean ± SD.

(D) Dot plots showing expression features of *Tcf7*, *Gata3*, and *Rorc* in ILC progenitors.

(E-F) Flow cytometry analysis showing expression of RORγt and GATA3 in fetal and adult TCF1⁺ αLP2s. Data (n=6 per group) represent two independent experiments (mean ± SD).

(G) Flow cytometry plots showing the intracellular expression level of RORγt in intestinal RORγt⁺ ILCs at different stages.

(H) Mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) of RORγt in small intestinal RORγt⁺ ILCs during ontogeny. Data (n=3-6 per group) are pooled from two independent experiments and shown as mean ± SD.

Figure S9   Differentially distributed signaling pathways between fetal and adult αLPs. Related to Figure 4.

Gene signature analyses and clustering of gene set variation analysis (GSVA) scores for single αLPs from fetal liver (Right) and adult bone marrow (Left).

Figure S10   Blocking Notch signaling led to increased LTi cells but decreased NCR⁺ ILC3s generation by adult αLP2s. Related to Figure 5.

(A) Notch signaling inhibitor DAPT was administered during the *in vitro* differentiation of adult bone marrow αLP2s with varying concentrations. Representative flow cytometry plots showing the major ILC subsets among the daughter cells.

(B-C) Percentage (B) and cell number (C) of ILC1s, ILC2s, and RORγt⁺ ILCs in (A).

(D-E) Percentage (D) and cell number (E) in (A). Data (n=6 per group) represent three independent experiments (mean ± SD).

Figure S11   RORγt reduction promotes NCR⁺ ILC3 differentiation. Related to Figure 5.

(A) Representative FACS plots show the small intestinal ILC subsets derived from wide type (WT) and *Rorc*^Gfp/+ bone marrow progenitor (Lin⁻c-Kit⁺ cells) and in the recipient mice.

(B) The percentage of major ILC subsets in (A). Data (n=5-6 per group) are pooled from two independent experiments and shown as mean ± SD.

(C) Percentage of NCR⁺ ILC3 and CD4⁺ LTi cells in the small intestine of both wide type and *Rorc*^Gfp/+ mice during ontogeny.

(D-G) Fetal liver αLPs or adult bone marrow αLP2s are sorted from wide type and *Rorc*^Gfp/+ mice for *in vitro* culture supplemented with IL-7 and SCF for 7 days. FACS plots and percentage of RORγt⁺ ILC subsets among the (D and E) fetal liver-derived and (F-G) adult bone marrow-derived daughter cells were shown. Each circle in the graph represented a biological replicate (n=6-14 per group pooled from two to five independent experiments).

(H-L) LSK from adult *Rorc*^Gfp/+ mice were transduced by empty (*Rorc*^NC) or *Rorc* (*Rorc*^OE) plasmid. (H) Flow cytometry showing the small intestinal ILC subsets in the recipient mice.

(I) Intracellular RORγt staining and (J) indicated MFI in intestinal RORγt⁺ ILCs in (H). (K-L) Percentage of major ILC subsets derived from empty (*Rorc*^NC) or *Rorc* (*Rorc*^OE) plasmid-transduced progenitors. Data (n=8-9 per group) are pooled from three independent experiments and shown as mean ± SD.