HEB collaborates with TCR signaling to upregulate *Id3* and enable γδT17 cell maturation in the fetal thymus

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Definitions of Acronyms and Abbreviations: TCR, T cell receptor; Id, Inhibitor of DNA

binding; HEB, HeLa binding box transcription factor; IL, interleukin; E, embryonic day; V,

variable region; Egr, early growth response; DP, $CD4^+CD8^+$ double positive thymocytes; DN,

$CD4^-CD8^-$ double negative thymocytes; UMAP, uniform manifold approximation and projection

for dimensional reduction; PCA, principal component analysis; sc, single cell; IFN, interferon

ABSTRACT

T cells expressing the γδ T cell receptor (TCR) develop in a stepwise process initiating at the αβ/γδ T cell branchpoint followed by maturation and acquisition of effector functions, including the ability to produce interleukin-17 (IL-17) as γδT17 cells. Previous studies linked TCR signal strength and fate choices to the transcriptional regulator HEB (*Tcf12*) and its antagonist, Id3, but how these factors regulate different stages of γδ T cell development has not been determined. We found that immature fetal γδTCR⁺ cells from conditional *Tcf12* knockout (HEB cKO) mice were defective in activating the γδT17 program at an early stage, whereas *Id3* deficient (Id3-KO) mice displayed a partial block in γδT17 maturation and a defect in IL-17 production. We also found that HEB cKO mice failed to upregulate *Id3* during γδT17 development, whereas HEB overexpression elevated the levels of *Id3* in collaboration with TCR signaling. Moreover, Egr2 and HEB were bound to several of the same regulatory sites on the *Id3* gene locus in the context of early T cell development. Therefore, our findings reveal an interlinked sequence of events during which HEB and TCR signaling synergize to upregulate *Id3*, which enables maturation and acquisition of the γδT17 effector program.

47 One Sentence Summary: The transcription factor HEB synergizes with TCR signaling to

48 upregulate *Id3*, which is required for the maturation of fetal IL-17-producing γδ T cells.

INTRODUCTION

IL-17–producing γδ T (γδT17) cells are critical effectors in immune responses to bacterial and fungal pathogens and contribute to tissue repair and barrier integrity, particularly at mucosal surfaces (Ribot, Lopes, & Silva-Santos, 2021). Beyond host defense, γδT17 cells regulate adipose tissue homeostasis and metabolic function (Kohlgruber et al., 2018). However, dysregulation of γδT17 cell function has been linked to autoimmunity and neuroinflammatory disorders, underscoring the importance of precisely controlled γδT17 cell development and function (Alves de Lima et al., 2020; Papotto, Reinhardt, Prinz, & Silva-Santos, 2018).

While significant progress has been made in defining the stages of γδ T cell development, the transcriptional networks that govern lineage commitment and effector fate specification remain incompletely understood. In mice, γδT17 cells arise exclusively during fetal and early neonatal thymic development. The earliest wave of γδT17 cells in the fetal thymus, which emerges around embryonic day 17 (E17), originates from T cell precursors expressing the Vγ6 Vδ1 T cell receptor (TCR) (W. Haas, Pereira, & Tonegawa, 1993; Shibata et al., 2008). A second wave of Vγ4$^+$Vδ5$^+$ cells, which begins at E18, also gives rise to γδT17 cells (In et al., 2017; Sandrock et al., 2018). By contrast, fetal-restricted Vγ5$^+$Vδ1$^+$ γδ T cells are associated with the IFN-γ– producing γδT1 fate (Havran & Allison, 1990; Turchinovich & Hayday, 2011). Most Vγ1$^+$ cells, which appear just before birth and continue to develop in the adult thymus, also differentiate into γδT1 cells (Buus, Odum, Geisler, & Lauritsen, 2017). Although Vγ4$^+$ cells continue to be generated in the adult thymus, their capacity to give rise to innate γδT17 cells is significantly diminished (Chen et al., 2021; Sandrock et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2023). Instead, adult Vγ4$^+$ cells remain poised for peripheral polarization into either γδT17 or γδT1 fates (Schmolka et al., 2013).

Other subsets, such as IL-4 producing $V\gamma1^+V\delta6.3^+$ cells, emerge primarily in neonatal and young

mice (Grigoriadou, Boucontet, & Pereira, 2003).

γδ and αβ T cells develop primarily from shared intrathymic T cell progenitors that lack

expression of CD4 and CD8 (double-negative, DN) (Ciofani & Zuniga-Pflucker, 2010; Dudley,

Girardi, Owen, & Hayday, 1995). These precursors can be further subdivided by CD44 and

CD25 expression, with the earliest thymic immigrants classified as $CD44^+CD25^-$, termed early

thymic progenitors (ETPs). In the fetal thymus, DN2 ($CD44^+CD25^+$) cells can generate either

γδT17 or γδT1 cells, while DN3 ($CD44^-CD25^+$) cells preferentially give rise to γδT1 cells or

proceed to αβ development following pre-TCR signaling in a process known as β-selection

(Dutta, Zhao, & Love, 2021). Successful progress through β-selection is followed by

upregulation of CD8 and CD4, generating $CD4^+CD8^+$ double positive (DP) cells. Commitment

to the γδ lineage is initiated by γδTCR signaling, which induces lineage-specifying transcription

factors such as *Sox13* (Gray et al., 2013; Malhotra et al., 2013), followed by effector

programming factors such as *Maf*, which are gradually upregulated as differentiation proceeds

(Malhotra et al., 2013; Sagar et al., 2020). These factors promote expression of lineage-defining

cytokines such as IL-17 and their regulators, including RORγt (Zuberbuehler et al., 2019).

TCR signal strength plays a central role in determining both the γδ T cell lineage choice and γδ T

cell effector program (Lee, Stadanlick, Kappes, & Wiest, 2010; Zarin, Wong, Mohtashami,

Wiest, & Zuniga-Pflucker, 2014). Weak pre-TCR signals promote αβ lineage progression,

whereas intermediate γδTCR signaling favors γδT17 cell development, and stronger signals

direct γδT1 differentiation (Haks et al., 2005; Zarin, Chen, In, Anderson, & Zuniga-Pflucker,

2015). Signal strength is modulated by TCR affinity, proximal CD3 signaling, and cytokine

crosstalk (Fahl, Coffey, et al., 2018; Fahl, Kappes, & Wiest, 2018; Michel et al., 2012; Muro et

al., 2018). Together, these factors converge on downstream signal transduction pathways, including the ERK–Egr–Id3 axis, which has been identified as a key mediator of TCR signal strength using manipulation of TCR ligands or TCR signaling pathways (Bain et al., 2001; Fahl, Kappes, et al., 2018; Lee et al., 2014; Munoz-Ruiz et al., 2016; Turchinovich & Hayday, 2011).

Id3 encodes a dominant-negative HLH protein that inhibits the expression of E protein-dependent genes. Id3 acts at the post-translational level by binding and sequestering E proteins, including HEB (encoded by *Tcf12*) and E2A (encoded by *Tcf3*), thereby preventing their DNA binding activity. HEB and E2A orchestrate multiple stages of αβ T cell development (D'Cruz, Lind, Wu, Fujimoto, & Goldrath, 2012; Jones & Zhuang, 2011; Jones-Mason et al., 2012; Leung et al., 2025). *Id3* expression is proportional to TCR signal strength, suggesting that it may influence T cell fate by titrating E protein activity (Lauritsen et al., 2009; Zarin et al., 2018). Moreover, *Id3* transcription is directly regulated by graded expression of Egr factors, linking TCR signal strength to E protein target genes (Lauritsen et al., 2009). We previously showed that HEB-deficient mice exhibit severe defects in γδT17 development, including impaired production of fetal Vγ4$^+$ γδ T cells and dysregulated expression of key γδT17 regulators in the Vγ6$^+$ subset (In et al., 2017). HEB directly activates early γδT17 genes, such as *Sox4* and *Sox13*, which are repressed when *Id3* is overexpressed. However, the complete physiological role of HEB in γδ T cell development remains unresolved.

Here, we investigated the roles of HEB and Id3 *in vivo* by analyzing fetal γδ T cell development in HEB$^{fl/fl}$;Vav-iCre (HEB conditional knockout, HEB cKO) and Id3-deficient (Id3-KO) mice using flow cytometry and single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq) of E18 thymocytes. Our results reveal a tiered disruption of γδ T cell development in HEB cKO mice, including dysregulated TRVG and TRDV expression, lineage diversion to the αβ program, and failure to

118 activate key specification factors, including *Id3*. In contrast, γδT17 precursors in Id3-KO mice

119 initiated the γδT17 specification program but failed to mature or produce IL-17. These findings

120 suggest that HEB and Id3 function in an interlinked negative feedback loop that reinforces γδ

121 lineage commitment and mediates the transition from specification to maturation during γδT17

122 cell development.

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RESULTS

Strategy for analyzing γδ T cell developmental progression in the fetal thymus

To analyze γδ T cell development by flow cytometry, we used a panel of antibodies that

distinguished developmental stages and lineage fate choices in the mouse fetal thymus. γδ T

cells develop from DN2/3 cells in the thymus from precursors with both αβ and γδ T cell

potential, with upregulation of CD8 (immature single positive, ISP) and CD4 marking

commitment to the αβ-T cell lineage (**Figure 1A**). γδTe (early γδ T cell subsets prior to

maturation; $CD24^+$) cells arising from DN2/3 cells express γδTCR and CD24 on the cell surface

but retain the ability to become either γδ T cells or αβ T cells (dotted arrow) (Coffey et al.,

2014). Strong γδTCR signaling results in upregulation of CD73 (*Nt5e*) at the γδT1p stage (p =

progenitor), followed by downregulation of CD24 (*Cd24a*) to yield mature $CD27^+CD24^-$

$CD73^+CD44^-$ γδT1 (IFNγ producing) cells. Signaling through $Vγ6^+$ or $Vγ4^+$ TCRs results in

downregulation of CD24 and upregulate CD44 as γδ T cell precursors differentiate into

immature γδT17p cells, which mature into $CD27^-CD24^-CD73^-CD44^+$ γδT17 (IL-17–producing)

cells (Sumaria, Grandjean, Silva-Santos, & Pennington, 2017). CD27 is expressed on all

immature γδ T cells and stays on in mature γδT1 cells but is downregulated during γδT17

maturation. Thus, detection of γδTCR, CD4, CD8, CD24, CD73, CD27, and Vγ chains, and the

genes that encode them, provides a solid framework for analyzing the impact of gene

perturbations on fetal γδ T cell development and maturation.

It is important to clarify the Vγ and Vδ chain nomenclature used in this study (**Figure 1B**). Cell

surface proteins detected in flow cytometry assays were classified using the Tonegawa

nomenclature (Heilig & Tonegawa, 1986). When referring to genes or gene transcripts, the

International Immunogenetics Information System (IMGT) nomenclature (Lefranc, 2003) was

used, except in scRNA-seq figures where R-Seurat program output gene names from the Mouse

Genome Informatics (MGI) site were preserved (Baldarelli et al., 2024). The numbering is the

same in all three systems except for Vδ1, which is equivalent to TRDV4 (IMTG) and Trdv4

(MGI).

HEB deficiency impairs Vγ4 cell development and inhibits functional maturation of γδT17

cells in the E18 fetal thymus.

To investigate how HEB loss affects fetal γδ T cell development, we crossed HEB$^{fl/fl}$ mice

with HEB$^{fl/fl}$ Vav-iCre mice to generate littermates without Cre (wildtype, WT) or with Cre

(HEB cKO). HEB cKO mice lack HEB in all hematopoietic cells, as previously described (In et

al., 2017; Welinder et al., 2011). At embryonic day 18 (E18), HEB cKO thymocytes showed

reduced cellularity (**Figure 1C**) and a developmental block at the ISP-to-DP transition (**Figure 1**

- figure supplement 1), as previously reported in adult HEB-deficient mice (R. Barndt, Dai, &

Zhuang, 1999; Wojciechowski, Lai, Kondo, & Zhuang, 2007). Although γδ T cells were

proportionally increased in HEB cKO mice (**Figure 1D, E**), their absolute numbers were

comparable to WT mice (**Figure 1F**), indicating that the reduced cellularity was primarily due to

the loss of DP thymocytes.

We next analyzed Vγ chain subsets. Vγ6 cells were identified using an exclusion strategy, as

cells lacking expression of Vγ1, Vγ4, and Vγ5 (**Figure 1G, H**). It should be noted that the flow

cytometry plots show the percentage of Vγ5^{+} and Vγ5^{-} (Vγ6) cells out of the Vγ1^{-}Vγ4^{-}

population (**Figure 1H**), whereas the bar graph shows the percentage of Vγ6 cells out of all

γδTCR^{+} cells (**Figure 1I**). HEB cKO mice exhibited a marked reduction in the frequency

(**Figure 1G, I**) and absolute numbers (**Figure 1J**) of Vγ4$^+$ cells, and a corresponding increase in

the other Vγ subsets (**Figure 1G, H, I, J**). Immature (CD24$^+$) cells were more prevalent across

all Vγ subsets in HEB cKO mice, except for Vγ4$^+$ cells, which were primarily CD24$^+$ and thus

had not yet matured, in either WT or HEB cKO mice (**Figure 1K**). Furthermore, fetal HEB cKO

γδ T cells showed a major impairment in IL-17 production in response to PMA/ionomycin

stimulation (**Figure 1L**), consistent with our prior fetal thymic organ culture (FTOC) results (In

et al., 2017). These findings indicate that even in the intact E18 thymic environment, HEB is

essential for γδT17 cell development.

Single-cell transcriptomic analysis reveals a role for HEB in establishing γδ T cell identity

To assess the transcriptomic impact of HEB deficiency, we performed single-cell RNA

sequencing (scRNA-seq) on γδTCR$^+$ thymocytes sorted from E18 WT and HEB cKO littermates.

After quality control, we merged the datasets, excluded myeloid cells, and regressed out cell

cycle genes using Seurat (Y. Hao et al., 2021). Our analysis identified eight distinct clusters

(numbered 0 to 7) visualized as a UMAP (**Figure 2A**). WT cells were enriched in clusters 2 and

4, while HEB cKO cells dominated clusters 0, 1, and 3, whereas Clusters 5–7 showed a more

balanced distribution (**Figure 2B, C**). To annotate the clusters, we curated 90 γδ T cell subset-

defining genes from prior studies (Inacio et al., 2025; Liu et al., 2020; Mistri et al., 2024;

Narayan et al., 2012; Sagar et al., 2020; Spidale et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2023) (**Figure 2 –**

figure supplement 1). The top 10 differentially expressed genes were used to generate a

clustered dot plot (**Figure 2D**), which we used to identify each cluster. We classified clusters 2

and 6 as early γδT cells (randomly assigned as γδTe1 and γδTe2), clusters 1 and 4 as γδT17

progenitors (γδT17p), cluster 0 as γδT1 progenitors (γδT1p), cluster 7 as mature γδT1 cells

(γδT1), cluster 5 as mature γδT17 cells (γδT17), and cluster 3 as αβ lineage-like cells (αβT).

Quantification of WT and HEB cKO cells per cluster (**Figure 2E**) revealed that the γδT17p

clusters segregated by genotype into WT (γδT17pw) and HEB cKO (γδT17pk) cells. HEB cKO

cells were also over-represented in the αβT cluster and under-represented in the γδTe1 cluster.

An unbiased heatmap of the top 10 most differentially expressed genes across all clusters further

validated our assigned identities, and revealed additional genes associated with these subsets

(**Figure 2F**). These findings suggest that the loss of HEB impairs the early γδ T cell program and

allows diversion toward the αβ T cell lineage.

HEB deficiency suppresses TRDV5 expression and promotes TRDV4 expression

We next confirmed that WT and HEB cKO cells within each cluster represented equivalent

developmental subsets (**Figure 2 - figure supplement 2**). All immature γδ T cell clusters

expressed *Cd24a* and *Cd27*, while mature subsets lacked *Cd24a* (**Figure 2 - figure supplement**

2A). Among mature cells, only γδT1 cells expressed *Cd27* and *Nt5e* (CD73), whereas γδT17

cells   were   uniquely *Cd44*-positive,   consistent   with   our   assignments.   We   also

analyzed TRGV and TRDV gene expression (**Figure 2 - figure supplement 2B, C**). In WT

cells, TRGV4 and TRDV5 were co-expressed in γδTe and γδT17p populations but were greatly

diminished in HEB cKO cells. TRGV6 and TRGV5 transcripts were detectable in γδTe subsets

from HEB cKO mice, consistent with a delay in Vγ6$^+$ and Vγ5$^+$ γδ T cell maturation, whereas

TRDV4 was expressed more broadly and at higher levels in all immature HEB cKO γδ T cell

subsets relative to WT counterparts. These results indicate that HEB plays an important role in

maintaining the subset-specific and magnitude of TRGV5 and TRDV4 expression during γδ T

cell development.

HEB deficiency impairs early γδ T cell signatures and enhances αβ-T lineage features

To further define differences between WT and HEB cKO cells at the transcriptomic level, we

constructed gene modules composed of suites of signature genes for the γδTe1, γδTe2, αβT,

γδT17p, γδT17, γδT1p, and γδT1 subsets, derived from the analysis of merged WT and HEB

cKO cells (**Figure 2D, F**; see Methods). These modules were used to assign scores in WT (left)

and HEB cKO (right) cells, which were visualized using split dot plots.

This analysis revealed a pronounced loss of the γδTe1 gene signature in HEB cKO cells (**Figure**

3A), alongside a notable increase in the αβT signature (**Figure 3B**). The γδTe2, γδT17p, and

γδT17 gene signatures were also diminished in HEB cKO cells relative to WT, whereas the

γδT1p signature was enriched. We also examined expression of individual genes that were

diagnostic for γδ T cell subsets (**Figure 3C**) versus committed αβ T cells (**Figure 3D**). In the

γδTe1 and γδTe2 subsets of HEB cKO mice, *Sox13* and *Etv5* were reduced and

Cd8b1 and *Dgkeos* were elevated relative to their WT counterparts. In γδT17p cells, αβT-lineage

genes were not detectable, but *Sox13* and *Etv5* were still lower in HEB cKO cells than WT cells,

potentially decoupling the specification and commitment events. A less dramatic reduction in

Il1r1 was observed in HEB cKO γδT17 cells (**Figure 3E**), and the levels of *Nrgn* and *Eomes*

were similar in γδT1 lineage cells (**Figure 3F**). These results suggest that the impact of HEB

deficiency at the transcriptomic level was more pronounced in early γδ T cell subsets than in

mature γδ T cells.

HEB deficiency obstructs γδT17 progenitor development and dampens TCR signal

strength

The γδT17p subset segregated into distinct clusters in WT and HEB cKO cells, highlighting a

critical stage of HEB-dependent regulation. To explore this further, we performed an unbiased

differential gene expression analysis in WT cells versus HEB cKO cells and visualized the

results using an enhanced volcano plot with stringent thresholds ($\log_2 FC > 0.5$, $-\log_{10}P > 25$)

(**Figure 4A**). Many of the top differentially expressed genes were signature markers of γδT17

differentiation, including *Blk, Sox13*, and *Etv5*, all of which were downregulated in HEB cKO

cells. *Trdv4* was among the most upregulated genes in HEB cKO γδT17p cells.

We next generated a list of differentially expressed genes between WT and HEB cKO γδT17p

cells using less stringent criteria (adj P value > 0.001, $\log2 Fc > 0.25$) (**Figure 4 - figure**

supplement 1). This list was subjected to gene ontology analysis using ShinyGO, which resulted

in a list of KEGG pathways with reduced gene representation in HEB cKO γδT17p cells. We

observed significant depletion of genes pathways related to TCR signaling (T cell receptor

signaling, PD-1 checkpoint, NF-κB signaling) and Th1, Th2, and Th17 differentiation in HEB

cKO cells relative to WT cells (**Figure 4** – **figure supplement 2**). Three key markers of TCR

signal strength, *Cd5*, *Cd69*, and *Egr1*, were reduced in both γδTe2 and γδT17p subsets in HEB

cKO mice (**Figure 4C**). *Id3* expression was markedly decreased in HEB cKO γδTe cells and

nearly absent in γδT17p cells but remained intact in γδT1p and γδT1 cells (**Figure 4D, E**). We

also examined the expression *Maf* and *Rorc*, two key regulators of γδT17 maturation, and found

that they were expressed similarly between HEB cKO and WT cells in each cluster (**Figure 4F**).

Therefore, HEB modulates TCR signaling during γδT17 specification but appears to be

dispensable for the expression of γδT17 cell maturation factors.

***Id3* expression in γδT17 progenitors is controlled through HEB-dependent mechanisms**

To further elucidate the landscape of E protein and Id protein expression during γδ T cell

development, we examined the expression of *Tcf12* (encodes HEB), *Tcf3* (encodes E2A), *Id3*,

and *Id2* in each cluster (**Figure 4 – figure supplement 3**). *Id1* and *Id4* transcripts were not

detectable in any of our datasets. It should be noted that the *Tcf12* deletion occurs in one of the

last exons of a 200 kb gene locus, and although the protein is absent (R. Barndt et al., 1999),

some mRNA expression can still be detected. In WT mice, γδTe cells co-expressed *Tcf12*, *Tcf3*,

and *Id3* (**Figure 4 - figure supplement 3A-C, E**), consistent with dynamic regulation of E

protein-dependent target genes expression during the αβ/γδ fate choice (Murre, 2019). γδT17p

cells co-expressed *Tcf12* and *Tcf3*, whereas γδT1 cells co-expressed *Tcf3* and *Id3* (**Figure 4 -**

figure supplement 3B, D). *Id2* expression was restricted to mature γδT17 and mature γδT1 cells

in both WT and HEB cKO mice. *Tcf3* expression was also unaffected by a lack of HEB,

indicating that *Tcf3* and *Id2* expression are HEB-independent (**Figure 4 - figure supplement 3E,**

F). *Id3* expression was disrupted in HEB cKO cells in γδTe and γδT17 cells but not in γδT1p

cells (**Figure 4 - figure supplement 3C, D**). This analysis reveals that *Id3* expression was

disrupted only in cells that normally express *Tcf12*.

Loss of *Id3* impairs CD73 upregulation and γδT17 cell function in the fetal thymus

Given the clear dependence of *Id3* expression on HEB in specific γδ T cell subsets, we next

investigated how loss of *Id3* itself affects γδ T cell development using E18 fetal thymocytes from

Id3 knockout (Id3-KO) mice. Total thymic cellularity in Id3-KO mice was comparable to WT

controls (**Figure 5A**), but the proportion of γδ T cells among total thymocytes was reduced

(**Figure 5B, C**). Analysis of Vγ chain usage revealed no major differences between WT and Id3-

KO mice, although there was a slight increase in the proportion of Vγ6^{+} cells in Id3-KO γδ T

cells (**Figure 5E, F**). Interestingly, very few Id3-KO γδ T cells expressed CD73 (encoded by

Nt5e) (**Figure 5G, H**), including Vγ5[+] and Vγ1^{+} cells (**Figure 5 - figure supplement 1**). *Nt5e*

expression is upregulated in response to strong TCR signaling during γδ T cell development, and

it can also be induced in response to short-term stimulation (Buus, Geisler, & Lauritsen, 2016;

Coffey et al., 2014). To determine whether the deficiency in CD73 expression in Id3-KO mice reflected an expansion of CD73$^-$ cells or a failure to induce *Nt5e*, we cultured E18 fetal thymocytes from WT and Id3-KO mice with PMA/ionomycin (P/I) for four hours and measured CD73 expression in γδ T cells by flow cytometry (**Figure 5I, J**). While CD73 was robustly induced in a substantial fraction of CD27$^+$ γδ T cells from WT mice, it remained nearly undetectable in Id3-KO γδ T cells, indicating a direct role for Id3 in the regulation of *Nt5e* expression.

Mature CD73$^-$ γδ T cells typically exhibit a bias toward the γδT17 lineage (In et al., 2017). We hypothesized that loss of *Id3* might re-direct γδT1-fated cells into the γδT17 lineage. However, upon stimulation, Id3-KO γδ T cells failed to produce IL-17 (**Figure 5K, L**), indicating that Id3 deficiency does not promote γδT17 differentiation. These findings highlight a critical role for *Id3* in the functional maturation of both CD73$^+$ and CD73$^-$ γδ T cells.

Loss of Id3 disrupts expression of γδT17 cell maturation transcription factors

To further investigate how Id3 deficiency affects γδ T cell development, we measured intracellular expression of PLZF (encoded by *Zbtb16*) and MAF in E18 γδ T cells from WT and Id3-KO mice by flow cytometry (**Figure 6**). PLZF is expressed in innate fetal/neonatal γδ T cells and adult iNKT and IL-4–producing γδ T cells (Alonzo et al., 2010; Kreslavsky et al., 2009; Lu, Cao, Zhang, & Kovalovsky, 2015). To compare developmental stages within Vγ subsets between WT and Id3-KO γδ T cells, we gated on: 1) immature (CD24$^+$) Vγ4 cells, which comprised the majority of Vγ4 cells, 2) immature (CD24$^+$) Vγ6 cells, and 3) mature (CD24$^-$) Vγ6 cells (**Figure 6A**). This analysis yielded three populations, based on PLZF and MAF expression: PLZF$^+$MAF$^+$, PLZF$^+$MAF$^-$, and PLZF$^-$MAF$^-$ cells (**Figure 6B**).

In WT mice, most immature Vγ4 and Vγ6 cells expressed PLZF, with about half of the PLZF$^+$

cells co-expressing MAF. Nearly all mature Vγ6 cells co-expressed PLZF and MAF. Immature

Vγ4 and Vγ6 subsets in Id3-KO mice had reduced proportions of PLZF$^+$MAF$^+$ cell proportions

and increased percentages of PLZF$^-$MAF$^-$ cells relative to WT. Mature Vγ6 cells in Id3-KO mice

exhibited a more severe disruption, with only ~50% co-expressing PLZF and MAF, and

significant increases within the PLZF$^+$MAF$^-$ or PLZF$^-$MAF$^-$ subsets. Mean fluorescence intensity

analysis revealed substantially lower PLZF protein levels in Id3-KO cells across all subsets,

especially immature cells, suggesting that this defect is not solely due to delayed maturation

(**Figure 6C**).

Id3 deficiency promotes the αβ-T lineage but does not disrupt the expression of early γδ T

cell regulators

To investigate population dynamics and gene expression changes in Id3-KO fetal thymocytes,

we performed scRNA-seq on CD4$^-$CD8$^-$ E18 fetal thymocytes. This strategy was designed to

capture γδ T-biased cells with low surface γδTCR that might be missed by flow cytometric cell

sorting. After quality control, WT and Id3-KO datasets were merged and subjected to

dimensionality reduction, which identified eleven clusters (0–10) (**Figure 6 – figure supplement**

1A). Violin plots of lineage and subset-specific genes identified two γδ T cell clusters (**Figure 6**

– figure supplement 1B), which were computationally isolated and reclustered . This process

yielded four new γδ T cell clusters (0-3), which we identified as γδTe, γδT17p, γδT17, and γδT1

cells (**Figure 6D, E**), using the same strategy shown in Figure 2 (**Figure 6G**). This scRNA-seq

dataset lacked a γδ/αβ T lineage cluster, likely due to low cell numbers and/or exclusion of CD4$^+$

and CD8$^+$ cells in the enrichment strategy. However, flow cytometry of E18 fetal thymocytes

revealed a significantly higher proportion of TCRγδ$^+$ cells co-expressing CD4 and CD8 in Id3-

KO mice than in WT mice, indicating a bias toward the αβ T cell program (**Figure 6 – figure supplement 2**). Notably, our scRNA-seq analysis showed that γδ T cell specification genes (*Sox13*, *Etv5*) and *Tcf12* were unaffected by the decrease in *Id3* (**Figure 6H**). These results decouple the loss of *Id3* from the disruption of early γδ T cell regulators in HEB cKO mice.

Id3 is required for the induction of γδT17 regulators at the transcriptional level

Compared to WT, the Id3-KO mice had increased numbers of γδT17p cells and fewer mature γδT17 cells (**Figure 6F**), consistent with a partial block in γδT17 maturation. *Id2* expression was markedly increased in all Id3-KO γδ T cell subsets (**Figure 6I**), consistent with a previously reported compensatory role (Zhang, Lin, Dai, & Zhuang, 2014). *Maf* and *Zbtb16* transcripts were markedly reduced in Id3-KO cells at the γδTe stage but recovered to near WT levels in mature γδT17 cells (**Figure 6I**). We noted a similar impact on expression of *Rora* in Id3-KO mice. *Rora* is not required for γδT17 cell function (Barros-Martins et al., 2016), but does play roles in regulation the development of Th17 (Hall et al., 2022) and ILC3 cells (Lo et al., 2016). We also examined expression of *Rorc* (encodes RORγt) (**Figure 6 – figure supplement 1**). Given the decrease in other genes involved in γδT17 cell maturation, and the dependence of *Rorc* expression on MAF in γδT17 cells (Zuberbuehler et al., 2019), we were surprised to find that *Rorc* was higher in Id3-KO γδT17p cells than in WT γδT17p cells (**Figure 6 – figure supplement 1D**) and was also elevated in the CD8-expressing DN4 subset (**Figure 6 – figure supplement 1E**). Although RORγt is a critical regulator of γδT17 development and function, it is also upregulated after β-selection and maintains DP cell survival (Xi, Schwartz, Engel, Murre, & Kersh, 2006), suggesting that the increase we observed in the γδT17p cells could in part be due to αβ-T cell lineage diversion.

ChIP-Seq analysis reveals shared HEB, E2A, and Egr2 binding sites in the *Id3* locus

Although our data showed that HEB is necessary for *Id3* expression during γδT17 development, it remained unclear whether HEB directly regulates *Id3*. The *Id3* gene locus is composed of three exons adjacent to the long non-coding RNA gene *Gm42329*, which lies in the opposite orientation (**Figure 7A**). To assess direct binding of HEB and/or E2A to the *Id3* locus, we analyzed ChIP-seq datasets from *Rag2*$^{-/-}$ DN3 thymocytes (Fahl et al., 2021). This analysis identified three major binding regions for both HEB and E2A upstream of the first exon of *Id3*, each containing multiple peaks. We also examined ChIP-seq datasets from DN3 cells stimulated with anti-CD3 or anti-TCRβ to mimic TCR signaling (Pekowska et al., 2011; Seiler et al., 2012). RNA polymerase II bound the *Id3* promoter in Rag2$^{-/-}$ mice stimulated with anti-CD3ε, revealing active *Id3* transcription in cells that had experienced CD3-mediated signaling. Additionally, we observed binding of Egr2 to two sites that overlapped with the HEB/E2A regions in total thymocytes from mice that had been injected with anti-TCRβ (Seiler et al., 2012). Notably, H3K27me3 repressive marks were detected across the *Gm42329* locus but were absent from *Id3*, indicating that *Id3* is epigenetically poised for activation before pre-TCR and/or γδTCR signaling occurs.

Given that the data from the Egr2 and HEB/E2A ChIP-seq analyses were generated using different thymocyte subsets, we analyzed additional ChIP-seq data for HEB and E2A binding in Rag2$^{-/-}$ DN3 cells which had been transduced with retroviral constructs encoding the KN6 γδTCR and cultured with stroma expressing the weak KN6 ligand T10 for four days (Fahl et al., 2021). These Rag2$^{-/-}$ DN3 + γδTCR cells) allowed us to examine HEB/E2A binding to sites in the *Id3* locus in a cellular context more closely aligned to the Egr2 binding assay (**Figure 7- figure supplement 1A**). This analysis revealed that the binding of HEB/E2A on those sites

persisted after weak γδTCR signaling, strengthening the likelihood that concurrent binding of

HEB/E2A and Egr2 occurs during this developmental transition. We noted that HEB/E2A

binding was slightly dampened in Rag2$^{-/-}$ DN3 + γδTCR cells relative to Rag2$^{-/-}$ DN3 cells,

consistent with the induction of *Id3* and subsequent Id3-mediated disruption of E protein

binding. We designated the regions of overlapping HEB, E2A, and Egr2 binding as *HE1* and

HE2. Additionally, sequence-level analysis of *HE1* and *HE2* allowed the identification of

predicted E protein binding sites (E box) in close proximity to Egr binding sites (Egr) (**Figure 7-**

figure supplement 1B), suggesting that HEB/E2A and Egr2 may participate in an

enhanceosome complex. Together, these findings support the hypothesis that HEB and E2A

work in concert with Egr2 to modulate *Id3* transcription in thymocytes undergoing TCR-

mediated selection.

To examine how the chromatin landscape of the *Id3* locus might change across this transition, we

generated ATAC-seq data from DN3 and DN4 cells, as well as Rag2$^{-/-}$ DN3 cells, to provide a

genuine pre-selection context (**Figure 7 – figure supplement 1A**). Alignment of ATAC-seq and

ChIP-seq peaks in the *Id3* locus revealed accessibility of *HE1* and *HE2* in Rag2$^{-/-}$, WT DN3, and

WT DN4 cells, strengthening their relevance. Given the known ability of E2A and HEB to

induce chromatin remodeling (Emmanuel et al., 2018; Lin et al., 2010), we also examined

accessibility in DN3 and DN4 cells from HEB cKO mice (**Figure 7 – figure supplement 1A**).

Alignment of ATAC-seq and ChIP-seq peaks in the *Id3* locus revealed accessibility of *HE1* and

HE2 in Rag2$^{-/-}$, WT DN3, and WT DN4 cells. However, accessibility of *HE1* and *HE2* was

dampened in HEB cKO cells, especially at the DN3 stage, suggesting that HEB may be involved

in remodeling the *Id3* locus, resulting in a poised state that enables TCR-dependent transcription

factors to induce *Id3* proportionally to TCR signal strength.

TCR Signaling and HEB Converge to Potentiate *Id3* Transcription

To test whether HEB can cooperate with TCR/CD3 signaling to upregulate *Id3*, we used a gain-of-function approach. We took advantage of the SCID.adh cell line, which ectopically expresses a chimeric hIL-2Rα:CD3ε receptor that mimics pre-TCR signaling when stimulated with anti-TAC (hIL-2Rα) antibody (Carleton et al., 1999). Stimulation results in downregulation of CD25, *Rag1*, *Rag2*, and *Ptcra*, while inducing *Trac* germline transcripts, recapitulating pre-TCR activity. We transduced SCID.adh cells with either control or HEB-expressing retroviruses to generate control and HEB-overexpressing cells (**Figure 7B**). To avoid the growth arrest and cell death associated with full-length HEB (HEBCan) overexpression (Engel & Murre, 2004; Wang et al., 2010), we used a construct encoding HEBAlt, a truncated form that activates E protein target genes without impairing cell viability (Wang et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2006; Yoganathan et al., 2022).

Upon overnight stimulation with anti-TAC, both control and HEB-expressing cells downregulated CD25 to similar degrees, as assessed by flow cytometry, confirming effective CD3-mediated signaling (**Figure 7C, E**). Quantitative RT-PCR analysis showed that *Id3* expression was modestly elevated in unstimulated HEB-expressing cells compared to controls, and stimulation of control cells upregulated *Id3* levels to a greater degree (**Figure 7D**). Notably, *Id3* expression in stimulated cells expressing HEB was much higher than either HEB or stimulation alone, and exceeded the sum of these two conditions, indicating a synergistic interaction. These results demonstrate that HEB can amplify *Id3* induction in response to TCR signaling, potentially through cooperative interaction with TCR-induced factors such as Egr2.

DISCUSSION

HEB and Id3 are both critical for T cell development, but their distinct functions in fetal γδ T cell

development have not been resolved. Here, we show that HEB controls expression of genes

involved in γδTCR signaling and induces a transcriptional program that primes γδ T cell

precursors for γδT17 differentiation. Furthermore, HEB collaborates with TCR-dependent

factors to upregulate *Id3*, which enables γδT17 cell maturation and inhibits the αβ T cell fate.

Together, these findings define a sequence of regulatory states governed by the E/Id axis that

orchestrate γδ T cell lineage commitment and the differentiation of functional γδT17 cells.

TCR signal strength is tightly linked to specific combinations of Vγ and Vδ chains expressed on

fetal γδ T cells, which serve as critical drivers of γδ T cell fate and functional programming

(Chen et al., 2021; Fahl, Kappes, et al., 2018; Munoz-Ruiz et al., 2016; Scaramuzzino et al.,

2022). We found that HEB is required for expression of TRGV4 and TRDV5. These genes

encode the Vγ4$^+$Vδ5$^+$ TCR, which supports γδT17 cell differentiation (Kashani et al., 2015).

While TRGV4 is known to be regulated by E proteins (Bain, Romanow, Albers, Havran, &

Murre, 1999; In et al., 2017; Nozaki et al., 2011), the requirement for HEB in TRDV5 expression

is newly appreciated. Notably, the TRD locus contains E2A-dependent insulators that limit

TRDV4 expression to the fetal thymus (B. Hao & Krangel, 2011). Whether these are also HEB-

dependent, and whether they impact TRDV expression among fetal γδ T cell subsets, remains to

be determined.

Our analysis identified known E protein target genes, including components of the TCR

signaling pathway (*Cd3d*, *Cd3g*, *Lat*, *Zap70*) (Braunstein & Anderson, 2011; M. Miyazaki et al.,

2017) and chemokine receptors (*Cxcr5*, *Cxcr4*, *Ccr9*) (Brauer et al.), validating the experimental

approach. Moreover, we found that a suite of γδT17-specific genes were also HEB-dependent,

including *Blk* and *Syk*, which are γδT17 cell-specific mediators of TCR signaling. We also noted

that several inhibitors of TCR signaling were decreased, including *Pdcd1* (encodes PD-1), *Nfbia*

(encodes Ikappaα), and *Sh2d2a* (encodes TSAd). All of these inhibitors are regulated post-

translationally, suggesting a role for HEB in inducing T-lineage specific pathways that enable

both positive and negative regulation of TCR signal transduction.

Our studies show that Id3 limits αβ-lineage potential even in the presence of HEB, suggesting

that HEB restricts the αβ program primarily by upregulating *Id3*. In contrast, the early γδ T cell

program is upregulated in Id3-KO mice, indicating that Id3 is not required for this function. A

third E/Id dynamic operates during γδT17 maturation, which requires Id3 independently of HEB.

Sox13 has been shown to initiate a cascade of regulatory events that induce *Blk* and *Maf* during

γδT17 development (In et al., 2017; Sagar et al., 2020). However, our work indicates that Sox13

is not sufficient to upregulate γδT17 maturation factors like *Zbtb16* and *Maf* in the absence of

Id3, implying an E-protein dependent brake on γδT17 maturation. This highlights a decoupling

between lineage specification and effector maturation, supporting the two-step model of γδ T cell

development (Buus et al., 2016).

HEB and E2A can partially compensate for each other in the context of lymphocyte

development, complicating interpretations of single gene knockouts (R. J. Barndt, Dai, &

Zhuang, 2000; Zhuang, Barndt, Pan, Kelley, & Dai, 1998). This has been especially well

characterized in αβ-T cell development, in which a lack of E2A leads to partial blocks at the

ETP and DP to SP transitions (Ikawa, Kawamoto, Goldrath, & Murre, 2006; Jones & Zhuang,

2007), whereas HEB deficiency impairs the ISP to DP transition (R. Barndt et al., 1999). Mice

conditionally lacking both HEB and E2A have more severe phenotypes (Jones & Zhuang, 2011),

especially at the ETP to DN2 transition when T-cell lineage identity is being established (M.

Miyazaki et al., 2017), and at the DN2 to DN3 transition, when T-lineage commitment occurs

(Wojciechowski et al., 2007). Indeed, early loss of HEB alone renders the T cell precursors

more open to divergence to non-T lineages, even at the DN3 stage (Braunstein & Anderson,

2011). Our laboratory and others identified "DN1-like" cells in the thymus of E protein deficient

and Id1-overexpressing mice, which were later identified as ILC2s (Berrett et al., 2019; K.

Miyazaki et al., 2025; M. Miyazaki et al., 2017; Qian et al., 2019). The TCRγ rearrangements

observed in thymic ILC2s and peripheral ILC2s in normal mice (Pankow & Sun, 2022; Qian et

al., 2019; Shin et al., 2020), support a critical role for E proteins in lineage divergence, rather

than outgrowth of alternative lineages, even prior to the αβ/γδ T cell branchpoint.

Our findings are consistent with a selective requirement for HEB factors in γδT17 cell

differentiation. Intriguingly, we observed that γδT1 lineage cells express *Tcf3* (E2A) and *Id3* but

not *Tcf12* (HEB). Furthermore, *Tcf3* levels remained constant under conditions of HEB

deficiency in all γδ T cell subsets. These results suggest that while E2A is insufficient for γδT17

development, it may be required and sufficient for γδT1 development. Overall, our analysis

suggests a strong division of labor between HEB and E2A in promoting the γδT17 and γδT1

fates, respectively.

It is possible that Id3 is needed after γδ T cell specification to inhibit E2A-driven inhibitors of

γδT17 maturation. Possible candidates include positive regulators of γδT1 differentiation, such as

T-bet (*Tbx21*) or Eomes. These transcription factors participate in negative cross-regulatory

loops with γδT17 regulators such as Runx1, RORγt, and AP-1 factors, which help to stabilize γδ

T cell subset lineage identity (Parker et al., 2025). Additionally, transiently expressed HEB-

dependent transcription factors such as *Etv5* and *Sox5* may act as a checkpoint for γδT17

maturation, to be released upon *Id3* upregulation.

The TCR signal strength model posits that strong signals induce high levels of Egr factors, which

induce high levels of *Id3* (Haks et al., 2005; Lauritsen et al., 2009). Our data add an important

new dimension to this paradigm, proposing that the lower Egr2 levels induced by weaker γδTCR

signaling require cooperation with HEB/E2A to upregulate *Id3* expression (**Figure 7 - figure**

supplement 2A). This model is supported by our ChIP-seq data, which confirms HEB and E2A

binding at the *Id3* locus, at regions also bound by Egr2, and gain-of-function studies, which show

that HEB synergizes with TCR/CD3 signals to amplify *Id3* expression. However, it is important

to note that additional studies will be needed to confirm whether HEB and E2A collaborate with

Egr2 in a temporally coordinated fashion during γδ T cell specification. Both HEB and E2A are

pioneering factors and can increase locus accessibility of genes involved in lymphoid

development, such as *Foxo1* (Welinder et al., 2011). Interestingly, we found that HEB/E2A

peaks in the *Id3* locus are diminished in cells from HEB cKO mice relative to WT, particularly at

the DN3 stage. Therefore, HEB may play an important role in epigenetically priming the *Id3*

locus prior to TCR signaling.

Our data is consistent with a partial compensation for Id3 by Id2, less effectively during γδ T cell

commitment, and more fully during late γδT17 maturation, when *Id2* is normally expressed. This

is consistent with the observation that Id3 supports transient developmental transitions, while Id2

stabilizes innate-like transcriptional states (Anderson, 2022). Since *Id2* is a direct target of E2A

(Schwartz, Engel, Fallahi-Sichani, Petrie, & Murre, 2006), the upregulation of *Id2* in *Id3*-

deficient precursors likely reflects increased E protein activity. Thus, HEB, Id3, and Id2

participate in negative regulatory loops that allow transient HEB activity and *Id3* expression,

followed by stabilization of the innate γδT17 gene network by Id2 (**Figure 7 – figure**

supplement 2B).   Understanding how Id3 and Id2 differentially regulate the timing and

magnitude of E protein activity, and whether they have different impacts on E2A/E2A

homodimers versus HEB/E2A heterodimers remains to be addressed.

There are limitations to our study. Our analyses focused on E18 γδ T cells, which reflect γδT17-

biased fetal development and may not capture functions of HEB or Id3 at other stages. We

previously showed that HEB cKO mice have defects in the production of functional γδT17 cells

in fetal and neonatal thymus (In et al., 2017). We also found that γδ T cells from HEB cKO mice

exhibited a diminished capacity for IL-17 production in adult lungs and spleen γδ T cells. While

the adult thymus does not support the development of fully functional innate γδ T cells (Chen et

al., 2021; J. D. Haas et al., 2012; Kashani et al., 2015), it does contain γδTCR^{+} cells that have

activated *Sox-Maf-Rorc* gene networks (Yang et al., 2023). In addition, we have not yet

addressed the roles of HEB and Id3 in TCR-independent development of a subset of early fetal-

derived Vγ4[+] γδ T cells (Spidale et al., 2018). Importantly, the specific contributions of HEBAlt

and HEBCan isoforms remain unresolved, as both were deleted in our conditional HEB model.

Further studies of γδ T cell development in the neonatal and adult thymus of HEB cKO as well

as HEBAlt KO and HEBCan KO mice are underway.

In summary, our studies have identified multiple interlinked transcriptional circuits that require E

proteins and Id factors during γδ T cell development. HEB induces Id3, which then inhibits E

protein activity. In the absence of Id3, HEB and E2A activity persist, inducing compensatory Id2

expression. Since *Id3* expression is self-limiting through E protein suppression, the HEB-Id3

interactions result in a negative feedback loop. Thus, HEB plays dual roles in establishing γδ

lineage identity and initiating γδT17 differentiation via Id3. Future work should clarify the direct

transcriptional targets and co-factors of HEB, as well as how dynamic levels of HEB, Id3, and

Id2 coordinate γδ T cell fate decisions.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Experimental Design and Statistical Analysis

The overall goal of this study was to understand how HEB transcription factors regulate the transcriptional networks required for the development of IL-17 producing γδ T cells. The subjects of these studies were genetically modified mice. The experimental variable was the genotype of the mice, chosen based on availability of animals and littermate controls. For the scRNA-seq experiments, fetal thymocytes of like genotype from 3 or more mice were pooled prior to enrichment. Each flow cytometry analysis was performed using 3 or more mice of like genotype per experiment, repeated 2-3 times. Mice of both sexes were used. No sex differences were apparent; therefore, data were pooled. Each data point depicted in graphs represents an individual mouse. The investigators were not blinded to allocation during experiments and outcome assessment, except when fetal thymocytes were individually analyzed by flow cytometry prior to genotyping. Significance of pairwise data was computed by unpaired two-tailed Student's t-test, with $p < 0.05$ considered statistically significance. The error bars represent standard error of the mean (SEM) values.

Mice

$HEB^{fl/fl}$ mice have loxP sites flanking exons that encode the bHLH DNA binding and dimerization domain, which is shared by all HEB isoforms (Wang et al., 2006; Wojciechowski et al., 2007). These mice were bred to Vav-iCre transgenic mice (JAX stock #008610) (de Boer et al., 2003), which deletes regions flanked by loxP sites in all hematopoietic cells (Siegemund, Shepherd, Xiao, & Sauer, 2015), to generate $HEB^{fl/fl;Vav-iCre}$ (HEB cKO) mice, as previously described (In et al., 2017; Welinder et al., 2011). All experimental mice were obtained from timed matings of $HEB^{fl/fl}$ x $HEB^{fl/fl;Vav-iCre}$ mice, giving rise to WT and HEB cKO littermates for

experimental use. *Id3* deficient mice (Id3-KO) lacked *Id3* in all cells due to a knock-in/knock-out

allele in which the Id3 coding sequence was replaced with red fluorescent proteins (RFP) (JAX

strain # 010983, B6;129S-*Id3^{tm1Pzg}*/J). RFP was not detectable in our analyses due to quenching

during intracellular staining. Id3-KO mice were acquired on the E29/B6 background and bred

onto the C57Bl/6 background for 8 generations. Id3$^{+/-}$ mice were timed mated together to

produce WT and Id3-KO littermates. Mice were bred and maintained in the Comparative

Research Facility of the Sunnybrook Research Institute (Toronto, Ontario, Canada) under

specific pathogen-free conditions. All animal procedures were approved by the Sunnybrook

Research Institute Animal Care Committee.

Timed Matings and Embryo Harvest

Timed matings were performed by setting up mating pairs (day 0) and separating them ~16 hrs

later. Embryos were harvested after 18 days (E18). Fetal thymuses were dissected, and single

cell suspensions were generated by mechanical disruption and filtered through 40-micron mesh.

Cells were resuspended in 1X HBSS/BSA for sorting or flow cytometry. Embryos were

processed and analyzed separately, and tail tissue was collected for genotyping of fetal mice.

Genotyping was performed as previously described (Wojciechowski et al., 2007).

Flow cytometry

Antibodies were purchased from eBiosciences (San Diego, California, USA), Biolegend (San

Diego, California, USA) and BD Biosciences (Mississauga, Ontario, Canada). For flow

cytometry, cells were washed and incubated with Fc blocking antibody (BD Biosciences),

followed by extracellular staining for surface CD4 (clone GK1.5), CD8α (clone 53–6.7), CD3

(clone 145-2C11), TCRγδ (clone GL3), Vγ4 (Vγ2; clone UC3-10A6), Vγ5 (Vγ3; clone 536),

Vγ1 (Vγ1.1; clone 2.11), CD27 (clone LG3-1A10), CD24 (clone M1/ 69), CD73 (clone TY11.8),

and CD25 (clone PC615). To assess functional capacities, cells were stimulated by incubation

for four h with PMA (50 ng/ml) and Ionomycin (500 ng/ml) in the presence of Brefeldin A

(5mg/ml; eBioscience), washed with 1X HBSS/BSA, and incubated with Fc block before

staining for surface epitopes. Cells were then fixed and permeabilized (Fix and Perm Cell

Permeabilization Kit; eBioscience) and stained with antibodies against IL-17A (clone

eBio17B7). For intracellular transcription factor staining, the cells were fixed, permeabilized

(FoxP3 Staining Kit, eBioscience) and stained for MAF (clone sym0F1), and PLZF (clone R17-

809). All flow cytometric analyses were performed using Becton-Dickenson (BD) LSRII,

Fortessa, or SymphonyA5-SE cytometers. FACSDiva and FlowJo software were used for

analysis. Sorting was performed on BD ARIA and BD Fusion sorters.

Cell culture

SCID.adh cells, which have been engineered to expresses a surface human IL-2Ra

(TAC):CD3epsilon chimeric signaling molecule on the surface, were cultured as previously

described (Anderson, Weiss, Hernandez-Hoyos, Dionne, & Rothenberg, 2002). Cells were

transduced with MIGR1 encoding GFP only, or MIGR1 encoding GFP and HEBAlt. GFP^{+} cells

were sorted, expanded, and cultured overnight on plates coated with anti-TAC antibody at

5ug/mL in 500 ul of PBS, or PBS only as control. Cells were analyzed by flow cytometry for

expression of CD25, and for mRNA expression of *Id3* by qRT-PCR.

RNA extraction and qRT-PCR

Total RNA was extracted from cells using TRIzol® Reagent (Invitrogen) and reverse-transcribed

into complementary DNA using Superscript III (Invitrogen). Reactions for qRT-PCR were

prepared using PowerUp SYBR™ Green Master Mix (ThermoFisher) or Luna® Universal qPCR

Master Mix (NEB) and 0.5 μM of primers. Primers (5´ to 3´) were as follows: b-actin forward:

ATGGTGGGAATGGGTCAGAA, b-actin reverse: TCTCCATGTCGTCCCAGTTG, Id3

forward: CTGTCGGAACGTAGCCTGG, Id3 reverse: GTGGTTCATGTCGTCCAAGAG. The

qRT-PCR reaction was run and analyzed using an Applied Biosystems 7500 Fast Real-Time

PCR System (ThermoFisher) and a QuantStudio™ 5 Real-Time PCR System (ThermoFisher).

Values from the qRT-PCR reactions were normalized to β-actin values, and relative expression

values were calculated by the delta Ct method.

Single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq) of WT and HEB cKO γδ T cells

E18 fetal thymuses from HEB cKO mice were dissected from embryos and individually pressed

through a 40-micron mesh with a syringe plunger to create single cell suspensions. Cells were

incubated with Fc block for 30 min on ice. Small aliquots from each sample were stained with

CD4, CD8, and CD3 to assess genotypes, with a lack of DP indicating HEB deletion, and

genotypes were verified by PCR. Five WT and five HEB cKO littermates were pooled by

genotype, stained, and sorted for TCRγδ$^+$CD3$^+$ cells. Samples were not hash-tagged as this

technology was not available at the time of the experiments. Fifty thousand cells per sample were

loaded onto the 10X Chromium controller, and barcoded libraries were generated using the

Chromium Next GEM Single Cell 5' Kit v2 (Dual Index) (10X Genomics) at the Princess

Margaret Genomics Facility (Toronto, ON, Canada). Next generation Illumina sequencing was

performed to a depth of ~30,000 reads per cell. The estimated number of cells sequenced was

~3300 for WT and ~5500 for HEB cKO samples.

scRNA-seq of WT and Id3-KO DN fetal thymocytes

E18 fetal thymuses from Id3-KO mice were dissected from embryos, pressed through mesh as

above, and incubated with Fc block. Embryos were genotyped by PCR, and thymocytes were

pooled according to genotype (3 WT and 3 Id3-KO mice). DN cells were enriched by magnetic

sorting using anti-CD4 and anti-CD8 microbeads according to manufacturer's instructions

(Miltenyi Biotech). Flow-through (CD4⁻CD8⁻) cells were processed in-house using the

Chromium Next GEM Single Cell 3' Kit v2 (Dual Index) (10X Genomics). Next generation

sequencing was performed using the Illumina platform to a depth of ~100,000 reads per cell. The

estimated numbers of cells sequenced for each sample was ~3700.

scRNA-seq data analysis of WT and HEB cKO γδ T cells

FASTQ raw data files were aligned to the mm10 genome using the STAR aligner (STAR

v2.5.2b). Cell Ranger (v1.1.7;10X Genomics) (G. X. Zheng et al., 2017) was used to generate

matrix files which were analyzed using programs in R Seurat version 4.4 (Y. Hao et al., 2021), as

detailed in the R-Markdown files. WT and HEB cKO datasets were processed for quality control

by excluding cells with more than 7% mitochondrial genes, less than 1000 unique genes, and/or

less than 4000 transcripts, resulting in 1272 WT cells and 1951 HEB cKO cells for further

analysis. Filtered WT and HEB cKO datasets were merged, and SCTransform was applied to the

merged dataset. Cell cycle regression was performed to mitigate the influence of cell cycle

heterogeneity on clustering, and cells expressing high levels of *Lyz2* were excluded to remove

most myeloid cells. PCA analysis was performed (RunPCA) and used to compute a nearest

neighbor graph (FindNeighbors) and identify clusters (FindClusters). UMAP plots were

generated using RunUMAP and displayed using DimPlot_scCustom. FindMarkers was used to

identify the top ten most differentially expressed genes between clusters which were visualized

by heatmap (DoHeatmap).

Generation of gene lists and module scores

To construct an unbiased and comprehensive list of genes diagnostic for different stages and

lineages of γδ T cell development, we collected lists of differentially expressed genes from eight

publications characterizing γδ T cell subsets in the fetal thymus, adult thymus, and adult

peripheral tissues (du Halgouet et al., 2024; Inacio et al., 2025; Liu et al., 2020; Mistri et al.,

2024; Narayan et al., 2012; Sagar et al., 2020; Spidale et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2023). Genes

were filtered to remove those involved in cell cycle and metabolism, as well as NK cell receptor

genes. Lists were combined, duplicates were removed, and a final list of 87 genes was obtained

(**Figure 2 – figure supplement 1**). This list was used for computation of the top ten genes per

cluster that were most differentially expressed from all other clusters, visualized as a Clustered

DotPlot. Comparisons with the source literature and the Immunological Genome Project (Heng,

Painter, & Immunological Genome Project, 2008) were used to categorize the clusters. γδTe1

and γδTe2 represent two types of early γδ T cell subsets with random assignments into "1" and

"2".

As developmental stages are continuous, not discrete, some genes were present in more than one

module; however, scores were based on all genes in each module. Genes in each module are

listed below.

gdTe1: *Ccr9, Sox13, Cpa3, Etv5, Sox5, Tox2, Ccr2, Igfbp4, Blk, Lmo4, Slamf1, Ifngr1, Rorc,*

Maf, Icos

gdTe2: *Hivep3, Cd28, Themis, Slamf6, Sell, Igfbp4, Cd24a, Gzma*

gdT17p: *Blk, Il17re, Vdr, Il17a, Lmo4, Slamf1, Ifngr1, Rorc, Maf, Icos*

gdT17: *Il18r1, Il7r, Id2, Il23r, Il1r1, Cd44*

gdT1p: *Klf2, Nrgn, Cd2, Ms4a4b, Prkch, Nr4a1, Id3*

gdT1: *S1pr1, Eomes, Slamf7, Tyrobp, Ifitm1, Fcer1g, Tbx21, Gzmb*

abT: *Cd8a, Notch1, Cd8b1, Rag1, Rag2, Rmnd5a*

Module location and intensity in WT versus HEB cKO cells were visualized using split UMAPs.

Comparisons of the expression of single genes between WT and HEB cKO clusters were shown

using split violin plots. To compare Clusters 1 and 4, we performed FindMarkers using the

Wilcox test, with a minimum of three cells per feature and three cells per group. Differentially

expressed genes were displayed using an Enhanced Volcano Plot, with significance set at

$\log_2$Fold change > 0.5 and $-\log_{10}P < 10^{26}$.

scRNA-seq data analysis of WT and Id3-KO DN thymocytes

The following analyses were conducted on the Id3-KO dataset. FASTQ raw data files were

aligned to the mm39 genome using the STAR aligner (STAR v2.5.2b), and Cell Ranger was used

to generate matrix files, which were analyzed using programs in R-Seurat. Cells were

computationally filtered as described above in the HEB cKO dataset, resulting in 2323 WT cells

and 2893 Id3-KO cells for further analysis. Datasets were merged and subjected to

SCTransform as above. PCA plots were generated and used to construct UMAP plots depicting

clusters in merged datasets and distribution of WT versus Id3-KO cells within each cluster by

UMAP (see R-markdown file). Feature plots and violin plots were used to identify clusters with

γδ T cell characteristics, which were subsetted using FindClusters. ClusteredDotPlot was used to

visualize the top eight most differentially expressed genes within the curated gene set described

above. Split violin plots were generated to show relative expression of early and late γδ T cell

genes in WT versus HEB cKO cells within each cluster.

ATAC-seq

Thymuses were dissected from adult Rag2$^{-/-}$, WT and HEB cKO mice, pressed through mesh as

above, and incubated with Fc block. WT and HEB cKO DN cells were enriched by magnetic

sorting using anti-CD4 and anti-CD8 microbeads according to manufacturer's instructions

(Miltenyi Biotech). Flow-through (CD4$^-$CD8$^-$) cells were stained and flow sorted into two

populations: DN3 (CD4$^-$CD8$^-$CD44$^-$CD25$^+$) cells and DN4 (CD4$^-$CD8$^-$CD44$^-$CD25$^-$). DN3 cells

were sorted from unfractionated Rag2$^{-/-}$ thymocytes, which do not develop past the DN3 stage

(Shinkai et al., 1992). Duplicates were generated for each subset, with each replicate derived

from three mice. Replicates were sorted on different days. Both males and females were used.

Sorted cells were cryopreserved in 50% FBS/40% growth media/10% DMSO in aliquots of

100,000 cells, which were subjected to ATAC-sequencing as follows.   After membrane

permeabilization, a transposase loaded with sequencing adaptors was added, which mediated

insertion of adaptors at accessible genomic locations. Libraries were amplified and subjected to

paired end next-generation sequencing using the Illumina platform.   Paired end ATAC-seq

libraries were generated and sequenced by Active Motif (Carlsbad, California).

ATAC-seq analysis

Bcl2fastq2 (v2.20) was used for processing of Illumina base-call data and demultiplexing, and

bwa (v0.7.12) was used to align of reads to reference genome (mm10). Samtools (v0.1.19) was

used to process BAM files. BEDtools (v2.25.0) was used to process of BED files, and

wigToBigWig (v4) was used for generation of bigWIG files. bigWIG files were aligned using

the Integrative Genomics Viewer (IgV) software (v2.16.2). Each sample yielded ~65 million

mapped reads.

Gene ontology analysis

Genes differentially expressed between Cluster 1 and Cluster 4 with a significance of $Log_2Fc >$

0.25 and adjusted P value < 0.001 (**Figure 4 – fig supplement 1**) were submitted to ShinyGO

8.0 (Ge, Jung, & Yao, 2020) for gene ontogeny analysis. Pathway inclusion was set at a

minimum of 5 genes with a false discovery rate (FDR) of 0.05. Genes were analyzed using the

Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomics (KEGG) pathway database (Kanehisa, Furumichi,

Sato, Matsuura, & Ishiguro-Watanabe, 2025) (**Figure 4 – figure supplement 1**). Results were

visualized as a bar graph showing Fold Enrichment (numbers) and -log10(FDR) values (colors).

Alignment of ChIP-seq data

ChIP-seq data for Rag DN3 and Rag DN3 + γδTCR cells binding to HEB and E2A were

generated as follows: $Rag2^{-/-}$ fetal liver hematopoietic cells were cultured on OP9-DL4 stroma to

produce DN3 cells. $Rag2^{-/-}$ DN3 cells were retrovirally transduced with the KN6 γδTCR or

control (no TCR), and sorted GFP^+ DN3 cells were cultured for four days on stroma expressing

the weak KN6 ligand T10 to initiate γδTCR signaling. These cells were subjected to ChIP-seq

using anti-E2A and anti-HEB antibodies as previously described (Fahl et al., 2021). All other

files were obtained from the Cistrome database (R. Zheng et al., 2019) and aligned to the mouse

genome (mm38) using the Integrated Genomics Viewer (IgV) (Robinson et al., 2011). Sources

were as follows: Thy anti-TCRb-Egr2, GEO accession # GSM845900 (Seiler et al., 2012); Rag

d7 aCD3-RNA pol II, GEO accession # GSM1340642 (Pekowska et al., 2011); DN3

H3K27me3, GEO accession # GSM1498423, and DN4 H3K27me3, GEO accession #

GSM1498422 (Oravecz et al., 2015).

Data and materials availability. Matrix files and R-markdown code have been deposited to the

Dryad repository and can be accessed private for review at:

HEB-WT scRNA-seq matrix files and R-markdown code

http://datadryad.org/share/-zSC1I_I7PG18RBT3i2-t45vZPJ4f7eu5hm0THG2pfM

HEB cKO scRNA-seq matrix files

http://datadryad.org/stash/share/-nS_Q6QOb1q3CikRrh8VxAT31lCdLToJpxtzN-YWRPk

Id3-WT scRNA-seq matrix files and R-markdown code

http://datadryad.org/share/FrAHKiuEdTi_ulzY44xUeQZu_rDU_aPVmeIb6CscF28

Id3-KO scRNA-seq matrix files

http://datadryad.org/stash/share/aKtT_-XCvpU8R9_i3_oyAq5emgLwauq5ukU-BB_Ij8U
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ATAC-seq bigwig files are available at Dryad:
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https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.4tmpg4fr5
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Conflict of Interest

The authors declare there are no conflicts of interest.

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 FIGURE LEGENDS

 Figure 1. Partial block in early γδ T cell development and decrease in Vγ4 cells in HEB-

 deficient mice. A. Stages of fetal mouse γδ T cell development. Thymocytes at the DN2 (CD4$^-$

 CD8$^-$CD44$^+$CD25$^+$) and DN3 (CD4$^-$CD8$^-$CD44$^-$CD25$^+$) stages of T cell development rearrange

 and express TCRγ, TCRδ, and TCRβ genes. DN3 cells with productive TCRβ chains expressing

 a pre-TCR are directed into the αβ-T cell lineage, characterized by upregulation of CD4 and

 CD8. Cells that express a cell surface γδTCR but have not yet committed to the γδ T cell lineage

 (γδTe, early γδ T cells) can still be diverted into the αβ T cell lineage (dotted line). γδTCR$^+$ cells

 receiving a strong signal become CD73$^+$ γδT1 cell progenitors (γδT1p) that mature into IFNγ

 producing γδT1 cells, whereas cells that receive an intermediate signal become γδT17 cell

 progenitors (γδT17p) that mature into IL-17 producing γδT17 cells. Downregulation of CD24

 and CD27, and upregulation of CD44, marks maturation of γδT17 cells, whereas γδT1 cell

 maturation is characterized by downregulation of CD24 and maintenance of CD73 and CD27

 expression. B. γδ T cell nomenclature. Vγ and Vδ chain genes and proteins can be identified by

 several different naming systems. Here we use the Tonegawa nomenclature to refer to the

 proteins, and the International Immunogenetics Information System (IMGT) for the genes and

 transcripts. R-Seurat-generated plots use the Mouse Genome Informatics (MGI) nomenclature.

 The numbering for genes and proteins in these three systems are identical except for the TRDV4

 gene, which encodes the Vγ1 protein (highlighted in red). C. Absolute numbers of cells per

 thymus in WT (blue) and HEB cKO (orange) E18 fetal mice. D, E. Percentages of γδ T cells in

 WT and HEB cKO fetal thymus. F. Absolute number of γδ T cells per thymus in WT and HEB

 cKO fetal thymus. G. Flow cytometry plots of Vγ4$^+$ and Vγ1$^+$ cells within the γδ T cell

population in WT and HEB cKO fetal thymus. H. Flow cytometry plot of Vγ5 and Vγ6 (Vγ1[-]

Vγ5[-]) expression on cells within the Vγ1[-]Vγ4[-] population. I. Percentages of Vγ1[+], Vγ4[+], Vγ5[+],

and Vγ6^{+} cells out of all γδ T cells in the WT and HEB cKO fetal thymus. J. Absolute numbers

of Vγ1^{+}, Vγ4^{+}, Vγ5^{+}, and Vγ6^{+} cells per WT and HEB cKO fetal thymus. K. Percentages of

immature (CD24^{+}) and mature (CD24^{-}) γδ T cells out of all γδ T cells in each Vγ subset in WT

and HEB cKO fetal thymus. L. Expression of IL-17A protein in γδ T cells from E18 thymus

stimulated with PMA/ionomycin as assessed by intracellular staining. Blue = WT, orange =

HEB cKO. * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001, *** p <0.0001.

1104

Figure 2. Identification of γδ T cell subsets in WT and HEB cKO fetal thymus by scRNA-

seq. γδ T cells were sorted from E18 fetal thymuses from WT and HEB cKO mice, pooled

according to genotype, and subjected to scRNA-sequencing and analysis. A. UMAP plots

depicting merged WT and HEB cKO cells in 8 clusters (0-7). B. Grouped UMAP showing the

distribution of WT (blue) and HEB cKO (orange) cells across all clusters. C. Split UMAP plots

showing the distribution of cells in WT (left) and HEB cKO (right) clusters; note that cluster 4 is

restricted to WT cells, and cluster 1 is heavily biased towards HEB cKO cells. D. Genes

previously identified as signatures for developmental and functional γδ T cell subsets were

compiled from previously published reports. The top ten most differentially expressed genes

from this list were visualized as a clustered dot plot which was used to assign cluster identities.

Two clusters corresponding to early γδ T cells were randomly named γδTe1 and γδTe2. E.

Numbers of WT (blue) and HEB cKO (orange) cells per cluster. F. Unbiased clustered dot plot

of the top ten most differentially expressed genes across all clusters. In the clustered dot plots,

the percentage of cells expressing the gene in each cluster is depicted by the size of the dot, and

the color indicates the relative magnitude of expression across clusters.

1120

Figure 3. The αβ T gene program is expanded and the γδT17 precursor gene program is

lost in HEB cKO cells. γδ T cells were sorted from E18 fetal thymuses from WT and HEB cKO

mice were pooled according to genotype and subjected to scRNA-sequencing and analysis. A,

B. Gene modules were generated from subset-biased genes, and cells were scored for each

module. Module scores are depicted as split feature plots, with WT plots on the left and HEB

cKO plots on the right. Module scores that characterize γδ T cell subsets are shown in (A), and a

module score for the αβ-T lineage is shown in (B). C-G. Split violin plots of genes that typify

different γδ T cell subsets as follows: C) γδTe/γδT17p cells, (D) αβ T cells, (E) γδT17 cells, (F)

γδT1p/γδT1 cells, and (G) γδT1 cells. Blue = WT, orange = HEB cKO.

1130

Figure 4. Decreases in T cell effector differentiation and TCR signaling genes in γδT17p

cells from HEB cKO mice. A. Volcano plots showing differential gene expression in γδT17p

cells from WT versus HEB cKO fetal thymus. Genes expressed at higher levels in HEB cKO

cells are on the left, and genes expressed at lower levels in HEB cKO cells are on the right.

Significance (pink) was set at $Log_2Fc > 0.5$ and $Log_{10}P < 10^{25}$. B. Gene ontology analysis of

genes significantly reduced in HEB cKO γδT17p cells relative to WT, with significance set at

avg $Log_2Fc > 0.25$ and adjusted P value < 0.001. Bar plots show pathway enrichment (Fold

enrichment) and significance by false discovery rate (FDR) for each functional category defined

in the KEGG pathway list. Minimum genes for pathway inclusion was set at 5 and FDR cutoff

was set at 0.05. C. Relative expression of genes associated with strong TCR signaling in WT

and HEB cKO cells in each cluster. D. Relative expression of *Id3* in immature γδ T cell subsets

from WT and HEB cKO mice. E. Split feature plots showing expression of *Id3* across all clusters

in WT versus HEB cKO cells. F. Relative expression of *Maf* and *Rorc* in WT versus HEB cKO

γδT cell subsets. WT = blue, HEB cKO = orange.

1145

Figure 5. Fetal γδ T cells from Id3-KO mice are defective in CD73 upregulation and IL-17

production. A. Absolute numbers of cells per E18 fetal thymus from WT and Id3-KO littermate

mice. B, C. Quantification (B) and flow cytometry plots (C) of the percentages of γδ T cells out

of all thymocytes. D, E. Flow cytometry plots (D) and quantification (E) of $V\gamma1^+$ and $V\gamma4^+$ out

of all γδ T cells. F. Percentages of $V\gamma5^+$ and $V\gamma6^+$ out of all γδ T cells. G. Flow cytometry plots

of CD24 and CD73 expression in $\gamma\delta TCR^+$ cells. H. Quantification of mature ($CD24^-$) $CD73^+$ and

$CD73^-$ γδ T cells out of all γδ T cells. I. Flow cytometry plots of expression of CD27 and CD73

expression in unstimulated (top) and stimulated (bottom) γδ T cells. J. Percentages of

$CD27^+CD73^+$ cells out of all γδ T cells under unstimulated or stimulated conditions. K, L. Flow

cytometry (K) and quantification (L) of the percentages of $CD27^-CD73^-CD24^-$ (primarily mature

$V\gamma6$) cells expressing IL-17 in response to stimulation. Blue = WT, pink = Id3-KO. P/I =

phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate (PMA) + ionomycin. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$, ***

$p < 0.0001$.

1159

1160 **Figure 6. Intact γδ T commitment gene program and impaired γδT17 maturation program**

1161 **in Id3-KO mice.**   A. Flow cytometry plots showing the percentages of cells expressing PLZF

1162 and/or MAF in immature ($CD24^+$) Vγ4 and Vγ6 cells, and in mature ($CD24^-$) Vγ6 cells (note that

1163 mature Vγ4 cells are not present in the E18 fetal thymus). B. Quantification of the percentages

of cells expressing PLZF and MAF (top), PLZF only (middle) or neither (bottom) within the immature Vγ4 and Vγ6 subsets, and the mature Vγ6 subset. C. Mean fluorescent intensities of PLZF in the $PLZF^+MAF^+$ and $PLZF^+MAF^-$ populations within the immature and mature Vγ subsets. D, E. sRNA-seq UMAP plots of γδ T cells as merged (D) or split (E) into WT versus Id3-KO populations. F. Number of WT and Id3-KO cells per cluster. G. Clustered dot plot of curated gene sets used to assign γδT17p, γδTe, γδT17, and γδT1 identities. H. Expression of γδ T cell commitment genes in WT versus Id3-KO cells by cluster. I. Expression of γδT17 maturation genes in WT versus Id3-KO cells by cluster. Blue = WT, pink = Id3-KO. ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$, *** $p < 0.0001$

Figure 7. Synergistic upregulation of *Id3* by HEB and CD3 signaling. A. ChIP-seq data analysis of the binding of HEB, E2A, RNA polymerase, and Egr2, and the extent of H3K27me3 chromatin modification, in DN3 and/or DN4 cells at the *Id3* gene locus, obtained from publicly available datasets (see Materials and Methods for accession numbers). The cell type and antibody used in each experiment are indicated to the right of the tracks. Peaks bound by HEB, E2A, and/or Egr2 are indicated in boxes. Inset shows the *Id3* exons and the adjacent *Gm42329* long non-coding RNA. B. Diagram of experimental design. SCID.adh cells transduced with HEBAlt or control retroviral vectors were cultured for 16 hours in the presence or absence of the anti-TAC antibody, which induces signaling through the CD3 complex. C, E. Flow cytometry plots (C) and quantification (E) of CD25 upregulation with and without stimulation and/or HEB expression. D. *Id3* mRNA expression relative to β-actin as determined by quantitative RT-PCR. Rag = $Rag2^{-/-}$ mouse thymocytes, which are arrested at the DN3 stage of development. ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$, *** $p < 0.0001$

Figure Supplement Legends

Figure 1- figure supplement 1. Defects in αβ T cell development in E18 fetal thymus of HEB cKO mice. Thymocytes were dissected from E18 WT and HEB cKO littermates and subjected to flow cytometry. At E18 very few cells had become CD4 or CD8 single positive cells with most cells at the DP stage in WT mice. The DN to ISP and ISP to DP transitions were severely compromised in the HEB cKO fetal thymus, in agreement with previously reports of HEB-deficient adult mice.

Figure 2 - figure supplement 1. References for curated gene list used to identify differentially expressed genes and assign cluster identities in Figure 2 and Figure 6. See spreadsheet.

Figure 2 - figure supplement 2. TRGV and TRDV expression profiling reveals depletion of TRGV4 and TRDV5 transcripts and overexpression of TRDV4 in the HEB cKO fetal γδ T cells. **A**. Violin plots of expression of canonical genes that mark γδ T cell subsets. **B**. Violin plots showing expression of TRGV and TRDV genes in WT versus HEB cKO by cluster. WT = blue, HEB cKO = orange. **C**. Blended split feature plots showing cells expressing TRGV chains (blue) or TRDV chains (red), and cells co-expressing TRGV and TRDV chains (pink). Co-expression in WT cells are shown on the top panel of each comparison and HEB cKO cells are shown on the bottom.

Figure 4 - figure supplement 1. Differentially expressed genes between WT and HEB cKO γδT17 precursor populations from Figure 4A. See spreadsheet.

Figure 4 - figure supplement 2. Enriched KEGG pathways and gene members between WT and HEB cKO γδT17 precursor populations, as shown in Fig. 4B. See spreadsheet.

Figure 4 – figure supplement 3. Patterns of E protein and Id protein gene expression during γδ T cell development in WT and HEB cKO mice. A. Relative expression of *Tcf12* (HEB), *Tcf3* (E2A), *Id3*, and *Id2* in WT versus HEB cKO cells by cluster. WT = blue, HEB cKO = orange.

1218   C-F. Co-expression of E protein and Id protein transcripts assessed by blended split feature

1219   plots, for (B) *Tcf12* and *Tcf3*, (C) *Tcf12* and *Id3*, (D) *Tcf3* and *Id3*, (E) *Tcf12* and *Id2*, and (F)

1220   *Tcf3* and *Id2*. Blue = E protein gene expression, red = Id gene expression, pink = co-expression.

1221

1222   **Figure 5 – figure supplement 1. CD73 is upregulated during development of Vγ5 and Vγ1**

1223   **γδ T cells in WT but not Id3-KO fetal thymus.** Flow cytometry plots of CD24 and CD73

1224   expression within the Vγ subsets from WT and Id3-KO E18 fetal thymus.

1225

Figure 6 – figure supplement 1. Identification of γδ T cell subsets from E18 WT and Id3-

KO DN cells using scRNA-seq. WT and Id3-KO E18 thymocytes were pooled and subjected to

magnetic sorting to obtain CD4$^-$CD8$^-$ (DN) cells for scRNA-seq. A. UMAP of merged dataset

depicting 11 clusters (0-10). B. Expression of lineage-defining genes to assign identities to

clusters in merged dataset: *Cd3e* for T-lineage, *Spi1* (encodes PU.1) for myeloid lineage, *Sox13*

for γδT17 lineage, *Maf* for myeloid and γδT17 lineages, and *Il2rb* and *Xcl1* for γδT1 lineage. C.

Expression of genes defining DN subsets in merged datasets: *Cpa3* for DN2 and γδ T cells, *Il2ra*

(encodes CD25) for DN2/3 cells, *Ptcra* (encodes pre-Ta) for DN3 cells, and *Id3* for γδ T cells

and DN4 cells. *Cd8b1* is upregulated transcriptionally before surface expression and marks αβ-T

lineage commitment within DN4 cells. *Cd4* was undetectable, validating our MACS enrichment

strategy. D. Expression of *Rorc* in WT versus Id3-KO cells in γδ T cell subsets. E. *Rorc*

expression in all WT and Id3-KO clusters.

1238

1239   **Figure 6 – figure supplement 2. γδTCR$^+$ cells from E18 Id3-KO mice include a population**

1240   **of CD4$^+$CD8$^+$ cells, indicating diversion to the αβ-T lineage program.** E18 fetal thymocytes

1241   were subjected to flow cytometry. Cells were gated on the TCRγδ$^+$CD3+ population and

1242   analyzed for expression of CD4 and CD8 which was quantified in a bar graph depicting the

1243   percentage of CD4$^+$CD8$^+$ (DP) cells within the γδTCR$^+$ population.

1244

1245   **Figure 7 – figure supplement 1. Accessibility and occupancy of Id3 locus elements by HEB,**

1246   **E2A, and Egr2 before and after pre-TCR or γδTCR signaling.** A. Rag2$^{-/-}$ DN3 cells were

1247   transduced (DN3 + γδTCR) or not (DN3) and stimulated with γδTCR ligand, followed by ChIP-

seq analysis of HEB (green) and E2A (blue) binding. Peaks in the *Id3* locus were aligned to Egr2 ChIP data to locate overlapping sites of binding. These peaks were also aligned to context-specific accessibility peaks obtained from ATAC-seq analysis of Rag2$^{-/-}$ DN3 (pre-selection) cells, and DN3 and DN4 (post-selection) cells from WT and HEB cKO mice. Sites showing overlapping HEB/E2A/Egr2 peaks and decreased accessibility in HEB cKO samples are designated as *HE1* and *HE2*. Circled peaks indicate a lower degree of accessibility in HEB cKO mice. B. Transcription factor binding motifs for HEB/E2A (E box; blue) and Egr2 (Egr; red) were identified in HE1 and HE2 in close proximity to each other. Colors of sequence bars indicate intensity of ChIP-seq signal, as shown in (A). It should be noted that HEB/E2A binding, but not Egr2 binding, is dampened in post-selection cells, as expected due to the increase in Id3 expression. Ranges of ATAC-seq traces were kept constant to allow direct comparisons.

Figure 7 – figure supplement 2. Model for HEB and Id3 requirements in the development and maturation of γδT17 cells. A. Strong γδTCR signaling induces high levels of Egr2, which are sufficient to drive *Id3* upregulation without HEB, whereas HEB is also required under lower γδTCR signaling conditions. Distinct cytokine signals also participate in *Id3* modulation and γδ T cell lineage choice. **B**. γδT17 development occurs in two stages, the first of which is HEB-dependent, and the second of which is Id3-dependent. HEB induces *Id3* during the first stage, which acts in a negative feedback loop to inhibit HEB activity during the second stage. The absence of *Id3* allows higher E protein activity, which inhibits second stage regulators but also results in *Id2* upregulation, providing partial compensation for the loss of *Id3*.