CONSERVATION AND VARIATIONS OF BIMODAL *HoxD* GENE REGULATION

DURING TETRAPOD LIMB DEVELOPMENT

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Keywords: Forelimb, hindlimb, genome topology, TADs, Polycomb, tetrapod evolution,

enhancers

Short title: Comparative regulation of *Hoxd* genes during tetrapod limb development

ABSTRACT

In all tetrapods examined thus far, the development and patterning of limbs

require the activation of gene members of the *HoxD* cluster. In mammals, they are

controlled by a complex bimodal regulation, which controls first the proximal patterning,

then the distal structure, allowing at the same time the formation of the wrist and ankle

articulations. We analyzed the implementation of this regulatory mechanism in chicken,

i.e. in an animal where large morphological differences exist between fore- and hindlimbs.

We report that while this bimodal regulation is globally conserved between mammals and

avian, some important modifications evolved at least between these two model systems,

in particular regarding the activity of specific enhancers, the width of the TAD boundary

separating the two regulations and the comparison between the forelimb *versus* hindlimb

regulatory controls. Some aspects of these regulations seem to be more conserved

between chick and bats than with the mouse situation, which may relate to the extent to

which forelimbs and hindlimbs of these various animals differ in their functions.

AUTHOR SUMMARY

The morphologies of limbs largely vary either amongst tetrapod species, or even

between the fore- and hindlimbs of the same animal species. In order to try and evaluate

whether variations in the complex regulation of *Hoxd* genes during limb development

may contribute to these differences, we compared their transcriptional controls during

both fore- and hindlimb buds development in either the mouse, or the chicken embryos.

We combined transcriptome analyses with 3D genome conformation, histone

modification profiles and mouse genetics and found that the regulatory mechanism

underlying *Hoxd* gene expression was highly conserved in all contexts, though with some

clear differences. For instance, we observed a variation in the TAD boundary interval

between the mouse and the chick, as well as differences in the activity of a conserved

enhancer element (*CS93*) situated within the T-DOM regulatory landscape. In contrast to

the mouse, the chicken enhancer indeed displayed a stronger activity in fore- than in

hindlimb buds, coinciding with the observed striking differences in the mRNA levels.

Altogether, differences in both the timing and duration of TAD activities and in the width

of their boundary may parallel the important decrease in *Hoxd* gene transcription in chick

hindlimb *versus* forelimb buds. These differences may also account for the slightly

distinct regulatory strategies implemented by mammals and birds at this locus, potentially

leading to substantial morphological variations.

INTRODUCTION

Tetrapod limbs are organized into three parts bearing skeletal elements; the

stylopodium (humerus/femur), the zeugopodium (radius/fibula, ulna/tibia) and the

autopodium, the latter including the acropod (phalanges, metacarpals/metatarsals) and the

mesopodium (carpals and tarsals)[1]. Limbs can display large variations in their

morphologies, either between tetrapod species or within the same species, between fore-

and hindlimbs, as a result of their adaptation to different functions and ecological niches.

For example, frogs display particular shapes of carpal and tarsal elements, with an

elongated proximal tarsal whenever detectable[2], whereas geckos forelimb skeletal

elements somehow resemble those of their hindlimbs[3]. Another example of this

morphological flexibility are the forelimbs of bats, which do have digits early on similar

to those of other mammals but that subsequently elongate to make flight possible[4].

In this context, birds are a fascinating animal group as they evolved forelimbs

(wings) and hindlimbs (legs) specialized for flying or for terrestrial locomotion,

respectively[5]. Recent studies using comparative genomics approaches either amongst

birds or between bats and mice, have revealed that some DNA sequences potentially

involved in limb development and which are highly conserved can display differential

enhancer activities as compared to their mouse orthologous sequences[6,7]. Furthermore,

the analysis of several domestic pigeons displaying variations in foot feathering within

the same species, suggested that changes in cis-regulatory elements in the genes encoding

forelimb- or hindlimb-specific transcription factors may contribute to a partial

transformation from hindlimb to forelimb identity[8]. Taken together, these observations

suggest that both the gain of species-specific enhancers, the different activities of the

same regulatory sequences and alterations in DNA sequences amongst various species

and/or within the same species, contributed to generate these large morphological

differences.

In addition to their essential role during axial patterning and organogenesis in

vertebrates[9,10], *Hox* genes are required for proper growth and skeletal patterning of

tetrapod limbs. In particular, genes belonging to the *HoxA* and *HoxD* clusters for both

fore- and hindlimbs, as well as some genes of the *HoxC* cluster during hindlimb

development[11,12]. Regarding both *Hoxd* and *Hoxa* genes, recent development in

chromatin conformation techniques have made it possible to associate previously defined

limb regulatory landscapes to large chromatin interaction domains referred to as TADs

(topologically associating domains)[13–15]. Therefore, multiple limb-specific DNA

regulatory sequences were identified on either side of the *HoxA* and *HoxD* clusters,

grouped either into TADs and smaller sub-megabase large domains (sub-TADs)[16–19].

At the murine *HoxD* locus, two overlapping subsets of genes are controlled by the

two adjacent regulatory TADs located on the telomeric side (T-DOM) and the

centromeric side (C-DOM) of the cluster[17]. The region of the cluster extending from

Hoxd1 to *Hoxd8* generates constitutive interactions with T-DOM, whereas the 5' region

of the cluster, which includes *Hoxd13* to *Hoxd12,* predominantly contacts C-DOM.

Interestingly, the genes from *Hoxd9* to *Hoxd11,* located within the boundary between

these two TADs, interact with both T-DOM and C-DOM, yielding their transcripts in

both the future zeugopod and acropod domain. In this situation, the expression of *Hoxd1*

to *Hoxd11* is driven by contacts with enhancer elements situated in T-DOM in the

prospective zeugopod. Then, as the future acropod domain is generated, *Hoxd* genes start

to weaken their interactions with T-DOM and *Hoxd9* to *Hoxd11* switch to establish

interactions within C-DOM. This switch is partly controlled by HOX13 proteins, which

inhibit T-DOM activity while re-enforcing C-DOM-located enhancers function[20]. This

bimodal regulatory mechanism allows the production of a domain of low *Hoxd-*

expression in which both T-DOM and C-DOM regulations are functionally inert, giving

rise to the future mesopodium. While this complex system seems to be globally conserved

throughout evolution[21,22], some slight modifications could readily lead to important

changes in expression specificities.

In different tetrapod species, the morphological diversifications seen in particular in

both the mesopod and the zeugopod between fore- and hindlimbs were suggested to result

from heterochronic variations in *Hox* gene expression[2][23]. Both gain of function and

loss of function experiments have revealed that either the ectopic expression or the mis-

regulation of *Hoxa13* and *Hoxd13* can induce a substantial reduction and malformation

of the zeugopod, similar to mesomelic dysplasia conditions in human families (e.g.[24]).

This is due to the potential of these particular HOX13 proteins to antagonize the function

of other HOX proteins to control and stimulate the ossification of limb skeletal

elements[25]. In this view, HOX protein production controlled by the T-DOM stimulate

bone growth, whereas C-DOM enhancers upregulate *Hoxd13* to antagonize this property,

leading to both smaller bones (phalanges) and the termination of the structure, in a dose-

dependent manner[26–30].

In this context, it was recently reported that a bat regulatory sequence located within

T-DOM and controlling *Hoxd* genes displays differential enhancer activity in the limbs,

when compared to its mouse orthologous sequence[6]. These findings suggest that some

variations in limb morphology may be associated with the mechanism of bimodal gene

regulation described at the *HoxD* locus. However, this mechanism was reported to be

implemented during the development of forelimb buds only and hence it remained unclear

as to how much the important differences between fore- and hindlimbs either amongst

various species or within the same species, may be related to variations of this mechanism.

To tackle this issue, we used a comparative regulatory approach involving chick and

mouse embryonic fore- and hindlimbs, mostly for two reasons. First chicken embryos,

unlike mice, display striking differences between the morphologies of their adult wings

(forelimbs) and legs (hindlimbs) (Fig. 1A, B, left). Secondly, it was reported that *Hoxd*

gene expression domains during chick wing- and leg buds development showed important

deviations when compared to their mouse counterparts[23,31]. These features suggested

that the bimodal regulatory system at work at the mouse *HoxD* locus may be operating

slightly differently during the development of the avian appendicular skeletons.

Here we combine analyses of transcriptome, 3D genome conformation, histone

modification and mouse genetics to show that this bimodal regulatory mechanism is

highly conserved in birds. However, in chicken leg buds, the duration of the T-DOM

regulation is much reduced, as suggested by dynamic changes in histone modifications,

along with a slight difference in chromatin interaction profiles at specific enhancer

regions, which accounts for the concurrent reduction in *Hoxd* genes expression in the

zeugopod. Finally, by using mutant mouse embryos lacking a large part of T-DOM, we

uncovered differences in the effect of T-DOM deletion for *Hoxd* genes between fore- and

hindlimbs. Therefore, while these regulatory mechanisms are virtually the same amongst

tetrapod species and even within the same species between the fore- and hindlimbs, slight

differences are scored, which may partly contribute to the observed morphological

differences.

RESULTS

Transcription of *Hoxd* genes in mouse and chick limb buds

We first compared the expression patterns of *Hoxd* genes in mouse fore- and

hindlimbs at E12.5 (Fig. 1A) with those observed in chick at either HH28 (equivalent to

E12.25 to E12.5) (Fig. 1B) or HH30 (equivalent to E13 to E13.5) (Fig. 1D). In mouse

fore- and hindlimbs, expression of *Hoxd13* and *Hoxd12* was strong in the prospective

acropod region (hereafter termed "distal"), whereas the domains of *Hoxd11* and *Hoxd10*

transcripts were split into the distal and zeugopod (hereafter termed "proximal") regions,

except the future mesopod, which was labelled by a *Col2a1*-expressing domain (Fig. 1A,

arrowheads). These expression patterns were similar in both fore- and hindlimbs, except

for a clearly weaker expression level in the hindlimb proximal domain.

When compared with *Hoxd* gene expression in the mouse counterparts, at least two

dramatic differences were confirmed in chick limbs. First, unlike the *Hoxd12* expression

pattern observed in murine limbs, the chick *Hoxd12* gene was strongly expressed in chick

proximal forelimb (wing) (Fig. 1B). Secondly, the expression of all *Hoxd* genes was

significantly reduced in the chick proximal hindlimb (leg) by stage HH28, when

compared to chick proximal wing and mouse proximal limbs[23,31]. As a result, the

expression domains of the chick *Hoxd12* in wing buds was much like that of *Hoxd11* or

Hoxd10, in contrast with the mouse where *Hoxd12* was never strongly expressed in the

proximal domain. However, the transition between the two *Hoxd*-expressing domains

also labelled the future wing mesopod (Fig.1B, arrowheads). Of note, expression of all

Hoxd genes was weak in proximal leg buds, again in contrast to what was observed during

mouse limb bud development (Fig. 1).

To characterize these differences in more detail, we performed RNA-seq analyses

by using HH30 limb buds in order to more easily micro-dissect the various domains and

thus exclude a potential contamination of the future mesopod from the distal domain.

RNA profiles confirmed the differences detected by WISH. First, *Hoxd11* to *Hoxd8* were

expressed at lower levels in the mouse proximal hindlimb when compared to forelimb, a

situation re-enforced in chick proximal leg where only a weak *Hoxd12* signal was

detected (Fig. 1C, D, upper tracks). In contrast, more reads were scored for *Hoxa10* to

Hoxa11 in both mouse and chick proximal hindlimb when compared to forelimb (S1 Fig).

In the distal domains, transcription patterns and profiles from mouse and chick were

similar between fore- and hindlimbs, at both *HoxA* and *HoxD* clusters (Fig. 1C, D, lower

tracks, S1 Fig). However, the chick profile revealed a consistently higher transcription of

Hoxd12, which was as strong as *Hoxd13*, whereas the amount of transcripts in the mouse

counterpart was much lower than that for *Hoxd13* (Fig. 1C, D, lower tracks). Taken

together, these initial results indicated that both the expression status and the transcript

domains of *Hoxd* genes displayed significant differences, either amongst species or

within the developing fore- and hindlimb buds, in particular in chicken.

Bimodal regulation in both fore- and hindlimb buds

To determine to what extent these differences could result from variations in the

implementation of the bimodal regulatory mechanism, we performed comparative 4C-

seq analyses. We used a variety of viewpoints located at comparable positions to reveal

potential interactions in both mouse and chicken limb buds. To do this, we cross-

annotated *Hoxd* genes regulatory sequences identified in the mouse genome onto the

chick genome by using the LiftOver tool in UCSC. These annotations were then used for

all following experiments. In both fore- and hindlimbs, interactions were scored between

Hoxd genes and the regulatory sequences *island III* and *Prox*, as hallmarks of C-DOM

transcriptional activity, or with the *CS39* sequence as a proxy for T-DOM activity in

either the distal or the proximal region, respectively[17,18]. As seen in mouse forelimbs,

Hoxd11 mainly contacted T-DOM sequences, especially *CS39*, in mouse proximal

hindlimb cells, i.e., in cells where T-DOM was fully active and where C-DOM was silent

(Fig. 2A, top). In contrast, in mouse distal hindlimb cells, it preferentially interacted with

C-DOM sequences such as *island III* and *Prox* (Fig. 2A, bottom). Quantification of

contacts indicated 75% of telomeric contacts in proximal forelimb cells and 50% in distal

forelimb cells, showing that *Hoxd11* had reallocated 25% of its global interactions toward

the C-DOM TAD in distal cells. Likewise, mouse hindlimb cells showed the same

interaction profiles, with 70% of telomeric contacts in proximal hindlimb cells and 45%

in distal hindlimb cells (Fig. 2A). This comparison indicated that the bimodal regulation

is virtually identical between fore- and hindlimbs in mouse.

We then examined the related interaction patterns in chick wing and leg cells by

using a region between *Hoxd11* and *Hoxd10* as a viewpoint (termed '*Hoxd10-11'*), i.e. a

sequence located as close as possible to the bait used in the mouse experiments. In chick

proximal wing cells, *Hoxd10-11* mostly interacted with the *CS39* and *CS93* regions

located in T-DOM, as well as with a region near the *Hnrnpa3* gene, where the distal TAD

border is observed in the murine locus (Fig. 2B, black arrowhead). These predominant

contacts with T-DOM were reduced in chick distal wing cells, as in the mouse, and 25%

of contacts were indeed reallocated to C-DOM sequences such as the chicken *island III*

and *Prox* counterparts. When compared to chick proximal wing cells, the global

interaction with the T-DOM was decreased from 81 to 70% in proximal leg cells. In

particular, the interactions between the *Hoxd10-11* bait and the *CS93* sequence in T-DOM

were lost in proximal leg cells, which may account for the significant reduction of *Hoxd*

expression in chick proximal leg buds (Fig. 2B, red arrows). In contrast, the interaction

established by the *Hoxd10-11* bait in chick wing and leg distal cells were comparable, as

expected from transcripts analyses, and interactions were observed up to around the

Atp5g3 gene where the border of C-DOM TAD had been mapped in mouse (Fig. 2B,

white arrowheads).

Different enhancer activity of mouse and chick CS93 in fore- *versus* **hindlimbs**

The mouse *CS93* sequence contains the former *CS9* sequence[17], which was unable

to elicit any reporter gene expression in a mouse transgenic context (Fig. 3A). Likewise,

a larger murine sequence encompassing *CS9* and referred to as mouse BAR116 (Bat

Accelerated Region 116) did not show any enhancer activity in the limbs[6] (Fig. 3A). In

contrast, the bat BAR116 sequence was able to drive strong expression in transgenic

mouse forelimb buds whereas a weak activity was detected in hindlimb buds, correlating

with the different expression levels of *Hoxd10* and *Hoxd11* observed between bat fore-

and hindlimb buds[6] (Fig. 3A). This sequence was thus proposed as having evolved a

bat-specific function.

Therefore, low expression of *Hoxd* genes in proximal hindlimbs seems to be a

common feature of bats and chicken, suggesting that the chick *CS93* sequence may have

a limb enhancer activity similar to that reported for the bat BAR116. We examined the

enhancer activity of chick *CS93* using a transgenic mouse *lacZ* reporter system and

compared it to the activity of full-length mouse *CS93* sequence by using lentivector-

mediated transgenesis[32,33]. We initially cloned a 2kb large sequence containing chick

CS93 and those surrounding sequences (Fig. 3B), which showed higher interactions with

Hoxd10 to *Hoxd11* in the 4C profiles obtained from proximal wing cells (Fig. 2B, track

1). We noted that the surrounding sequences are not particularly conserved among species,

whereas the *CS93* region of the chick genome is more conserved with the bat than with

the mouse counterpart (Fig. 3B). By using the BLAT search tool in UCSC, we also found

that most of conserved regions from the bat BAR116 and the chick *CS93* sequences can

be aligned onto the mouse *CS9* region, respectively (Fig. 3A).

We assessed their enhancer activities and, unlike for the mouse BAR116, the full-

length mouse *CS93* triggered *lacZ* transcription in E10.5 limb buds with an expression

localized to the prospective stylopod and zeugopod at E12.5 (Fig. 3C). The staining was

weaker in hindlimb than in forelimb buds, possibly due to the delay in limb

development[34,35]. Accordingly, the 380bp localized in 5' of the mouse *CS93* seem to

be essential for expression. On the other hand, we found that the 2kb large sequence

containing the chick *CS93* displayed limb enhancer activity in mouse limb buds at E12.5

(Fig. 3D). The transgene expression driven by chick *CS93* came under two different

patterns. The first one displayed *lacZ* staining throughout the forelimbs (n=2/5), which

was similar to the staining observed when the bat BAR116 sequence was assessed in

mouse forelimb bud (Figs 3 and 4 in[6]). The second pattern concerned mostly the

proximal forelimb buds (n=3/5), as seen when the mouse *CS93* was used (Fig. 3C). In

both cases, a weaker expression was observed in hindlimb bud, as in the case of bat

BAR116. These results suggest that the downregulation of *Hoxd* genes in chick leg bud

involves a weaker activity of- and less interactions with the *CS93* sequence. Taken

together with previous research [6], these results indicate that, unlike for the bat BAR116

and the chick *CS93*, the mouse *CS9* is devoid of limb enhancer activity. Accordingly, the

380bp localized in 5' of the mouse *CS93* seem to be essential for expression.

Implementation of the regulatory switch between TADs in mouse and chicken

We observed that the differences in *Hoxd12* expression were more substantial

between chick fore- and hindlimb buds than in the murine counterparts (Fig. 1C, D).

Therefore, we wondered whether the regulatory switch from the T-DOM to the C-DOM

regulations would occur differently in the two species. We produced and examined 4C

interactions profiles by using *Hoxd12* itself as a bait. Similar to the profiles obtained with

the *Hoxd10-11* bait, we observed weaker interactions between *Hoxd12* and both the *CS39*

and *CS93* regions in T-DOM in chick proximal leg cells than in proximal wing cells (S2A

Fig, top). The profiles with the *Hoxd10-11* bait showed strong and stable interactions with

T-DOM, when compared with C-DOM, in both proximal and distal limbs (Fig. 2B). We

also found that *Hoxd12* mainly contacted T-DOM in both chick proximal wing and leg

cells, whereas it established more interactions with C-DOM in both chick distal cells

(S2A Fig, top and bottom).

The murine *Hoxd9* to *Hoxd11* genes, but not *Hoxd12*, are located within the TAD

boundary and interact both with T-DOM and with C-DOM. In contrast, in chicken limb

buds, *Hoxd12* was able to switch contacts from T-DOM to C-DOM, suggesting that the

TAD boundary in chick could be located between *Hoxd12* and *Hoxd13* (see also S2B and

S2C Fig) thus suggesting that the exact genomic interval where the switch in contacts

occurs between the genes and the TADs is displaced towards a more 5' position within

the chicken gene cluster, when compared to murine limb buds where this switch region

was localized around the *Hoxd11* locus[17,19]. This same switch was observed in both

chick wing- and leg bud cells, regardless of the various expression levels of *Hoxd* genes

in the proximal region, revealing that the switch between TADs is independent of *Hoxd*

expression itself in proximal cells.

These results showed that the bimodal regulatory mechanism and the sequential

transition from the proximal to the distal global controls are implemented during chick

limb development similarly to what was described in mice. Therefore, the differences in

gene expression observed both between mice and chicken and between chick wing- and

leg buds cannot be solely explained by visible variations in the respective interaction

profiles. Instead, they ought to involve the distinct use of enhancers (or group thereof-)

within an otherwise globally conserved chromatin architecture.

Premature termination of the proximal TAD activity in chick leg buds

Since the chromatin architecture at the *HoxD* locus is seemingly comparable

between mouse and chicken in both fore- and hindlimb buds, we looked for what may

cause the drastic reduction of *Hoxd* expression observed in chick proximal leg. Within

the T-DOM TAD structure, the interaction profiles obtained from chick leg proximal cells

showed reduced contacts between *Hoxd* promoters and enhancers in T-DOM (Fig. 2 and

S2 Fig). We complemented these observations by assessing the functional state of T-

DOM sequences by comparing particular histone modifications profiles between chick

wing- and leg buds, at several developmental stages (Fig. 4). We looked at the acetylation

of H3K27 (H3K27ac), a modification associated with transcriptional and enhancer

activity and at the trimethylation of the same residue (H3K27me3), a mark associated

with Polycomb-dependent silencing[36]. In both wing- and leg buds at stage HH19, a

stage which corresponds to ca. E9.5 in mouse, enrichments of H3K27ac were detected

over both T-DOM and the *HoxD* cluster itself, showing that the activation of *Hoxd* genes

by the T-DOM enhancers had been properly initiated in leg buds (Fig. 4A, tracks 1 and

2). Of note, higher levels of this mark were scored over the *Hoxd11* to *Hoxd13* region in

leg- than in wing buds (S3A Fig).

At stage HH20 (approximatively E10 in mouse), the H3K27ac enrichment in T-

DOM was still substantial in wing buds. In marked contrast, however, this level appeared

dramatically reduced in leg buds (Fig. 4A, tracks 3 and 4, region *a*), thus coinciding with

low gene expression (S3A Fig). The accumulation of H3K27ac observed near the TAD

border was specific for the early wing-bud (Fig. 4A, tracks 1 and 3, region *b*).

Furthermore, H3K27ac signals over C-DOM were not yet observed at these stages

(except around the island I region), in agreement with the fact that the regulatory switch

had not yet occurred. At a later stage (HH28, i.e. approximately E12.5 in mouse),

enrichment of H3K27ac within the *HoxD* cluster was significantly lost in proximal leg

bud cells where *Hoxd* expression was weak (Fig. 4A, track 6, S3A Fig). In contrast,

H3K27ac accumulation over the T-DOM in proximal wing bud cells remained, yet it

started to slowly decrease as observed in mouse proximal forelimb at E12.5 (Fig. 4A,

track 5). At the same time, H3K27ac was finally enriched over both C-DOM and the

HoxD cluster, in both wing- and leg distal cells, as scored in mouse distal forelimb buds

(Fig. 4A, tracks 7 and 8, S3A Fig)[17,20]. These various profiles showed that in chick

leg bud cells, the functional switch between T-DOM and C-DOM had occurred normally,

except that after its initial onset, T-DOM activity was terminated much more rapidly than

in the wing bud, followed by a decrease in accumulation of H3K27ac at the target *HoxD*

cluster itself.

We complemented these observations by analyzing H3K27me3 marks, which

antagonize the acetylation of the same residue[36]. At stage HH20, no H3K27me3 signal

was detected over T-DOM in both wing- and leg buds, except around *CS39* in leg buds

(Fig. 4B, tracks 1 and 2, region '*a*'), in agreement with the H3K27ac profiles (compared

with Fig. 4A, tracks 3 and 4). In contrast, strong levels of H3K27me3 enrichment were

observed over the C-DOM regions, where H3K27ac peaks were not detected (Fig. 4B,

tracks 1 and 2), suggesting that the activation of *Hoxd* genes by C-DOM regulation had

not yet occurred at this stage.

At the *HoxD* cluster itself, stronger levels of H3K27me3 enrichment were clearly

detected in leg buds, as compared with wing buds, from the pseudo-*Hoxd1* gene to *Hoxd8*,

a DNA interval controlled by T-DOM regulation (S3B Fig). At later stages, H3K27me3

marks were observed over C-DOM in proximal wing bud cells, where C-DOM is inactive,

whereas the levels of H3K27me3 marks over T-DOM, in both proximal and distal wing

bud cells, were comparable to those seen in the H3K27ac profiles (Fig. 4B, tracks 3, 5).

We had previously suggested that the binding of HOX13 proteins to sequences located in

T-DOM could cooperate with Polycomb complexes to terminate T-DOM regulatory

activity[20].

Altogether, the distribution of both H3K27ac and H3K27me3 marks in chicken limb

buds were in agreement with the observed expression status of *Hoxd* genes profiles. A

major difference was scored, however, when compared to their mouse counterparts. In

proximal leg bud cells at HH28 indeed, where *Hoxd* gene expression is quite weak (Fig.

4B, track 4; regions '*a*' and '*b*'), T-DOM and the *HoxD* cluster were heavily decorated

with H3K27me3 marks, in addition to the C-DOM TAD. The latter profile resembled that

obtained from distal leg bud cells at the same stage, i.e. cells where T-DOM is inactive

and completely shut down (Fig. 4B, track 6; regions '*a*' and '*b*'), suggesting that T-DOM

was not operational in proximal leg cells, unlike in the mouse forelimb proximal

situation[17,20].

We also examined the distribution of both H3K27ac and H3K27me3 marks over

the *HoxA* cluster and its limb regulatory landscape that maps within a sub-TAD adjacent

to *Hoxa13* [16](S4 Fig). H3K27ac distribution suggested an earlier activation of *Hoxa13*

in leg- than in wing buds at HH19 and HH20 (S4 Fig), which corroborated the

transcriptomes established at HH20 (S4C Fig). At HH28 however, the profiles of

H3K27ac and H3K27me3 marks over the *HoxA* cluster and within the flanking regions

were comparable between wing- and leg bud cells (S4 Fig) and did not show any of the

differences reported for the *HoxD* cluster and their regulatory landscapes. H3K27ac

profiles were similar over the *HoxA* limb enhancers in wing- and leg tissues at all stages,

except perhaps for a slight decrease in H3K27ac in leg bud at HH20 (S4A Fig).

Chromatin conformations of the chicken *HoxD* cluster in wing- and leg buds

Gene expression usually occurs concomitantly with enhancer-promoter

contacts[37–39]. Because of the dramatic difference in T-DOM activity observed in chick

leg- *versus* wing buds at stage HH20 (Fig. 4A, tracks 3 and 4, region '*a*'), we looked for

potential parallel differences in chromatin contacts by performing high-resolution capture

Hi-C analyses (CHi-C)[40,41] using wing- and leg buds at HH20. Since such a global

chromatin assessment had not been done during chick development, it also allowed us to

compare it with mouse counterpart cells and see to what extent these complex regulatory

systems were conserved in distinct groups of tetrapods.

The CHi-C profiles of chicken cells confirmed that the *HoxD* cluster is positioned at

the boundary between two TADs, similar to what was proposed in mouse limb bud

tissues[17,19] and the two sub-TADs seen in the murine T-DOM were detected as well

(S5A and S5B Fig). To position the boundary between the two TADs, we applied the

TopDom algorithm[42], which determined the border around the *Hoxd13* locus in both

wing- and leg bud cells at HH20 (Fig. 5A). This extended the conclusion reached after

the 4C analyses, i.e. that the TAD boundary region in chick was displaced towards the 5'

part of the gene cluster when compared to mouse limb bud cells[19].

In mouse limb cells, this TAD boundary falls within a region where multiple CTCF

sites are occupied[43–45]. CTCF is an architectural protein that both helps defining

constitutive domains of interaction and triggers enhancer-promoter contacts[46]. We thus

examined the presence of bound CTCF at the chick *HoxD* locus and surrounding TADs

and found that the profiles were comparable between wing- and leg buds at HH20 (S5

Fig). As for the mouse *HoxD* cluster[19], the orientations of the CTCF motives located

on either sides of the TAD boundary were facing those sites found in their flanking TADs,

suggesting the possibility for long-range loops to be established (S5C Fig, top)(e.g.[47]).

Noteworthy, the orientation of the CTCF motives were conserved between mouse and

chick. However, we found less bound CTCF in the chicken *HoxD* cluster than in the

mouse counterpart, which could affect the strength and/or stability of the TAD boundary

in chick (S5C Fig, bottom).

Using CHi-C at 5kb resolution, the distribution of contacts was relatively similar

between wing- and leg bud cell populations, despite the reduced level of H3K27ac in the

T-DOM and near the TAD border in leg bud cells described above. The contacts between

the *HoxD* cluster (galGal5, chr7:16,315,000-16,395,000) and the T-DOM region '*a*'

(galGal5, chr7: 16,045,000-16,255,000) were indeed comparable between wing- and leg

bud cells (Wilcoxon sum test, W=222,690, p-value=0.663) (Fig. 5B). However, when the

comparison was further limited to a 30kb large region including *CS93* (galGal5,

chr7:16,090,000-16,120,000) rather than to the entire region '*a*', the contact intensity in

leg bud cells was clearly below that scored in wing bud cells (W=5,495, p-value=0.0213).

These reduced contacts between *Hoxd* genes and the surroundings of region *CS93*

confirmed the observation made by looking at the 4C profiles obtained using the later

stage (HH30) (Fig. 2).

The fact that bound CTCF was not detected around the *CS93* region suggests that

CTCF-independent variations in enhancer-promoter interactions may participate to the

important decrease in *Hoxd* gene expression levels in leg bud cells. The decreased

contacts seen in leg bud cells were also scored between the *HoxD* cluster and around the

T-DOM border region *'b'* (galGal5, chr7: 15,910,000-15,985,000; W=32,746, p-

value=0.009415). The decrease in contacts between the *HoxD* cluster and both the *CS93*

and TAD border regions in leg bud cells was somehow compensated for by an increase

of interactions between the *HoxD* cluster and the 5' region of *CS39* where several bound

CTCF sites were observed. The 4C profiles obtained when using the *Hoxd10-11* bait

showed interactions with the 5' region of *CS39* in both chick proximal and distal cells,

suggesting that these stable contacts are associated with CTCF, as described in mouse

developing limb buds[48].

Regulation of T-DOM by HOXA13

We asked what may cause both the robust reduction in H3K27ac marks in chicken

T-DOM and the decrease in contacts between *Hoxd* genes and the *CS93* region in leg bud

cells at HH20. As it was reported that HOX13 proteins bind T-DOM-located sequences

concomitantly to its inactivation and that the absence of these proteins prevented T-DOM

to terminate operating[20,49], we re-assessed the expression dynamics of *Hoxa13*. We

found it expressed earlier in chick leg bud than in wing buds[31](S4C Fig), suggesting

that the exact timing of *Hoxa13* transcriptional activation may fix the duration of T-DOM

activity during limb development.

We examined this possibility by performing time-course *in situ* hybridization and

RT-qPCR experiments, using chick and mouse entire fore- and hindlimb buds from HH20

to HH22 and E10.5 to E10.75, respectively (Fig. 6). While these developmental stages

are not strictly equivalent between chick and mouse[50], they were selected because the

size difference between chick wing- and leg buds is not yet too large between HH20 and

HH22[51]. Also, *Hoxa13* starts to be expressed in mouse forelimb buds at around

E10.5[52]. While the onset of *Hoxa13* expression was detected in chick wing bud at

HH22, *Hoxa13* transcripts were already well present in chick leg bud at HH20-21 (Fig.

6A, left). Also, the expression level of this gene in leg buds was markedly stronger than

in wing buds (Fig. 6A, right). *Hoxa11* expression was also higher in chick leg buds than

in forelimb buds, as was also observed in the RNA-seq dataset (S4C and S6A Fig),

suggesting that the entire chicken *HoxA* cluster was activated in leg buds well before it

was switched on in wing buds. This was nevertheless not a general phenomenon for *Hox*

genes, for the expression of *Hoxd13* was comparable between wing- and leg buds (Fig.

6A, bottom and S6B, S6C Fig, left).

In the mouse, the development of the forelimb bud precedes that of hindlimb buds

by about half a day. In contrast, the initiation of both wing- and leg bud in chicken is

almost concomitant and the growth of the leg bud exceeds that of the wing bud[34,51].

However, even when considering these developmental differences, the dramatic

variations we scored between both the timing of *Hoxa13* activation and its transcript

levels between the chick wing- and leg buds were different from the situation observed

in murine fore- and hindlimb bud (Fig. 6B, top). Also, expression of other *Hoxd* genes

increased in both mouse fore- and hindlimb buds, as development proceeded (Fig. 6B

bottom, S6B and S6C Fig. right), unlike in chicken leg buds. Therefore, an inverse

correlation exists between the activation of *Hoxa13* on the one hand, and the

downregulation of *Hoxd* genes such as *Hoxd11* in chick leg bud on the other hand. This

correlation was observed neither in chick wing bud, nor in mouse limb buds, supporting

the idea that an early activation of *Hoxa13* induces a premature termination of T-DOM

activity in chick leg bud.

We looked whether the profiles of H3K27ac ChIP-seq and Hi-C data obtained from

chick limb tissues and covering the *HoxA* cluster would reveal traces of this early and

strong activation of *Hoxa13* seen in chick leg buds at HH20 (S4A and S6D Fig). While

this activation was consistent with enriched H3K27ac marks over the *HoxA* cluster itself,

it was not fully consistent with the distribution of chromatin marks over those enhancers

previously described to regulate *Hoxa13* in developing mouse limbs[16](S4A Fig). Hi-C

heat maps, however, showed increased contacts between the 5' region of the *HoxA* cluster

and its limb enhancer regions in leg bud at HH20, when compared to wing buds,

suggesting this may contribute to an early activation of *Hoxa* genes in leg buds (S6D Fig).

Different impacts of T-DOM upon mouse fore- and hindlimb buds developments

The importance of the T-DOM TAD for mouse proximal limb development was

initially assessed in forelimbs exclusively. The fact that birds displayed this striking

difference in T-DOM-dependent regulations in wing and leg buds suggested that tetrapod

fore- and hindlimbs may use the T-DOM enhancers in a slightly different manner. We

investigated this possibility by looking at the effect of a full deletion of T-DOM upon

Hoxd gene regulations in both murine fore- and hindlimb buds, in order to identify a

potential difference in the genetic requirements for T-DOM regulations between the two

contexts. We analyzed mouse limb buds carrying the $HoxD^{Del(attp-SB3)}$ allele, where an

approximatively 1Mb large region including the entire T-DOM as well as its distal border

was deleted. *Hoxd* transcripts produced in E12.5 proximal limbs by the $HoxD^{Del(attp-SB3)}$

allele (Fig. 7A left, *Del(attp-SB3)/Δ*) were scored by using both *in situ* hybridization and

RT-qPCR (Fig. 7A right, S7A Fig. left). In such mutant proximal forelimb buds, *Hoxd11*

to *Hoxd8* transcripts were depleted for more than 90% when compared to control

proximal forelimbs (Fig. 7A right, S7A Fig. left). Surprisingly however, *Hoxd11*

transcripts were not as dramatically affected in proximal mutant hindlimbs, and

transcripts produced by the *Hoxd10* to *Hoxd*8 genes were decreased in amount by 50 to

60% when compared to control animals (Fig. 7A right, S7A Fig. left). The reduced level

of *Hoxd* gene expression elicited by the mouse T-DOM deletion in the forelimb bud thus

mimics the situation observed in chick proximal leg bud (S7A Fig. right) and these

significant differences also exist in the way T-DOM operates in murine forelimb *versus*

hindlimb buds.

Interestingly, the sustained expression of *Hoxd* genes in T-DOM deletion mutant

proximal hindlimb buds completely disappeared when a larger deletion was engineered

between the *Mtx* and *Titin (Ttn)* genes (Fig. 7A), indicating that the genomic regions

between SB3 and *Ttn*, i.e. telomeric to the T-DOM TAD, contributes to the difference in

gene expression observed between the mouse fore- and hindlimb buds when T-DOM is

removed.

To identify potential forelimb to hindlimb differences in chromatin re-

organization after the deletion of T-DOM, we generated 4C profiles from the mutant

allele using the *Hoxd11* promoter as a viewpoint (Fig. 7B). In control proximal fore- and

hindlimb cells, *Hoxd11* mostly contacted the intact T-DOM, with a particularly strong

interaction with and around the CS39 region (Fig. 7B, tracks 1 and 3). In proximal cells

deleted for T-DOM, interactions within the *HoxD* cluster were increased and ectopic

contacts were established (or strongly re-enforced) with the newly fused neighboring

telomeric TAD (Fig. 7B, tracks 2 and 4). We used this 4C-seq dataset to determine three

candidate regions of potential enhancer activity, referred to as hindlimb enhancer (HE) 1

to 3 (Fig. 7B, C, red arrows). We cross-checked this selection either with DNaseI

hypersensitive sites (HS) data from E11.5 hindlimb buds (GSM1014179)[53], with

potential enhancer regions as defined by the Limb-Enhancer Genie tool[54] and with

H3K4me1 ChIP-seq datasets obtained from control and mutant hindlimb proximal

domains (Fig. 7C and S7B Fig). According to these criteria, HE1 turned out to be the

most promising region and we thus assessed its enhancer potential in developing

transgenic limb buds.

By using a transgenic enhancer reporter system, the HE1 region reproducibly drove

lacZ expression in proximal fore- and hindlimb buds, lateral plate and somatic mesoderm

at E12.5 (Fig. 7D). This result indicated that the HE1 enhancer activity is not specific for

the proximal hindlimb, even though it was potentially active in a hindlimb-specific

manner after deletion of T-DOM. To confirm this observation, we performed a 4C-seq

analysis by using the HE1 sequence as a bait (S7C and S7D Fig), using both control and

T-DOM deleted mutant proximal hindlimb cells. The 4C-profiles revealed that the HE1

sequence established slightly more contacts with the *Hoxd9* to *Hoxd12* DNA interval in

mutant than in control hindlimb cells.

Finally, we looked at potential genetic interactions between the limb-specific

differences in *Hoxd* gene expression and the *HoxC* gene cluster. Both *Hoxc10* and *Hoxc11*

are indeed strongly transcribed in proximal cells of hindlimb buds (*Hoxc11* in S7E Fig),

whereas these transcripts were not detected in the equivalent forelimbs territories[55].

Furthermore, in proximal hindlimbs where *Hoxc* genes are expressed, the amount of *Hoxd*

transcripts is decreased when compared to forelimb buds (Fig. 1C). Also, the deletion of

Hoxc11 on top of *Hoxa11/Hoxd11* double knockout mice exacerbated the observed

hindlimb malformations[11][56], suggesting that HOXC proteins in hindlimb buds may

help maintaining *Hoxd* transcripts, a function that would become visible in the absence

of T-DOM, when *Hoxd* genes are no longer transcribed in forelimb proximal cells. We

thus performed *in situ* hybridization for *Hoxd11* by deleting the entire *HoxC* cluster[57]

on the top of the deletion of T-DOM. In these combined mutant limb buds, expression of

Hoxd11 was still detected in hindlimb proximal cells, indicating that the persistence of

Hoxd11 expression in hindlimb buds in the absence of T-DOM did not depend upon the

presence of hindlimb proximal cells-specific *Hoxc* transcripts.

DISCUSSION

Conservation of the bimodal regulation in birds

While the expression of *Hox* genes belonging to the *HoxA*, *HoxC* and *HoxD* clusters during limb development are globally comparable between mammals and birds, some clear differences are nevertheless apparent, such as the quasi absence of *Hoxd* genes transcription in the proximal part of the developing leg buds in birds, while their expression there is required for proper mouse hindlimb development[56,58]. Also, while *Hoxd12* is expressed in the mouse limb buds like *Hoxd13*, i.e. mostly under the control of C-DOM only, its expression in the avian wing buds resembles that of *Hoxd11*, i.e. involving also the control of T-DOM, in future zeugopod cells. Because these expression specificities depend on the implementation of global regulations located within the two TADs flanking the *HoxD* cluster, we wondered whether the structures of these TADs were somehow modified in birds, or at least whether they would show some variations either between the two species, or between the bird wing and leg buds.

A global analysis of 4C and capture Hi-C datasets did not reveal any salient differences between mammals and birds regarding the way they implement this complex bimodal limb regulation at the *HoxD* locus. The TADs appeared well conserved between the two species, as well as the presence in chick of most -if not all- regulatory elements that had been described in the mouse counterparts, on both sides on the gene cluster[17,18], even though the chick TADs were reduced in size. We thus conclude that the bimodal regulatory strategy described in mammals (see[59]) is implemented in a similar manner during bird development. This re-enforces the idea that the function of

Hox genes at these early steps of limb development is mostly to set up and organize the

basic plan of the future appendages, rather than elaborating or fine-tuning on a pre-

patterned structure.

Interspecies comparison of the TAD boundary at *HoxD*

The bimodal regulatory mechanism and the transition between the two global

controls at *HoxD* are thus well conserved amongst tetrapods. However, the distinct

expression of *Hoxd12* in proximal limbs between mouse and chick suggests that the width

of the TAD boundary at the *HoxD* locus may slightly vary between the two species. By

using transcriptome, 4C and Hi-C datasets, we previously observed slightly different

positions of this boundary in mouse distal *versus* proximal limb cells, due to the fact that

Hoxd10 and *Hoxd11* respond to both T-DOM and C-DOM regulations. We thus proposed

that the boundary was located between *Hoxd11* and *Hoxd12* in proximal cells, while

between *Hoxd9* and *Hoxd10* in distal cells[17,19] (Fig. 8A).

In contrast, the chick *Hoxd12* is strongly expressed in proximal wing buds,

suggesting that the TAD boundary, in this context, expands towards the 5' part of the

gene cluster, close to the *Hoxd13* locus (Fig. 8B). Our CHi-C analysis re-enforced this

view and positioned this boundary around the *Hoxd13* gene in chick limb buds at early

stages (HH20), i.e. when T-DOM is active and controls the first phase of *Hoxd* genes

transcription (S5 Fig). Subsequently (HH30), the boundary region was slightly reduced

from *Hoxd13* to an area between *Hoxd13* and *Hoxd12* in chick limbs. Of note, *Hoxd12* is

expressed in proximal limbs in geckos as in chicken[23], suggesting that the TAD

boundary at the *HoxD* locus in proximal buds may have been slightly shifted during

tetrapod evolution between birds and squamates on the one hand, and mammals on the

other hand.

Different tetrapod species may thus display various positions of their TAD

boundaries at *Hox* loci, acting as morphological cursors that would redistribute the

various sub-sets of *Hox* genes responding to either proximal or distal enhancers. The

distinct topologies of these boundaries may rely upon differences in the distribution

and/or usage of CTCF binding sites. In the mouse, subsets of genes responding to either

proximal or distal limb enhancers are delimited by different sets of bound CTCF sites

[19] (Fig. 8A). Here, we show that chicken wing bud cells have less bound CTCF sites

and of reduced intensity in the *HoxD* cluster than their murine counterparts, which could

modulate the positioning of the boundary. In this case, the decrease in the overall strength

of the boundary effect as a result of having less sites occupied by CTCF, may explain the

extension of interactions up to *Hoxd12-Hoxd13* established by proximal enhancers (Fig.

8B). This hypothesis could nevertheless not be verified on chicken leg proximal cells as

these cells do not strongly express the genes controlled by T-DOM.

Distinct T-DOM regulations in mouse, chick and bat fore- and hindlimb buds

During bat limb development, *Hoxd10* and *Hoxd11* transcripts are progressively lost

throughout the hindlimbs only, in part due to the distinct enhancer activity of the BAR116

sequence located within T-DOM[6]. When the mouse BAR116 cognate sequence was

used in a transgenic context, no activity was detected in any limb cells. Likewise, when

we used mouse *CS9*, i.e. a shorter fragment of the *CS93* sequence, staining was not

observed. However, when the full length *CS93* sequence was injected, a robust enhancer

activity was scored in a proximal limb region (Fig. 3). This discrepancy between two

experiments involving almost the same sequences may be caused by the positions of the

regions used for the mouse transgenic enhancer assays, the mouse sequence extending a

bit more towards one of its extremities. Either the enhancer activity was provided by this

sub-fragment, or this fragment may be required for the expression of a more widespread

activity of the full DNA sequence. It remains that the BAR116 sequence may not be a bat

specific enhancer.

However, while the bat BAR116 showed different enhancer activities between the

mouse transgenic fore- and hindlimb buds, i.e. strong in forelimb and weak in hindlimb,

the mouse equivalent appeared to have similar enhancer activities between fore- and

hindlimbs, in agreement with the continuous expressions of *Hoxd10* and *Hoxd11* in both

types of limbs. To further validate this correspondence, we looked at the behavior of the

chick *CS93* sequence in the same mouse transgenic context. While two sets of patterns

were obtained with various distal to proximal distributions of the *lacZ* staining, a clear

imbalance was scored between forelimb and hindlimb cells, with a much stronger

expression in the former than in the latter. Therefore, the chick enhancer sequence

behaved more like the bat sequence than like their murine counterparts, an effect that was

re-enforced by the sequence alignments, which revealed more similarities between chick

and bats than between the two mammalian species. This similarity correlates with *Hoxd*

gene expression and may relate to the salient distinctions in morphologies between fore-

and hindlimbs.

Premature termination of T-DOM regulation in chick hindlimb buds

The termination of the T-DOM regulatory activity in proximal limb cells coincides

with the binding of the HOXA13 protein at various sites within the TAD. Also, the

removal of both *Hoxa13* and *Hoxd13* functions lead to the continuation of T-DOM

regulation and to the failure of C-DOM activation, suggesting that HOX13 proteins are

necessary to terminate T-DOM function and to implement the bimodal switch[20,49].

The chick *Hoxd13* gene starts to be expressed at around stage HH18-19[31] when

H3K27ac enrichment is not yet detected over C-DOM (except for *island I*)(Fig. 4).

Instead, H3K27me3 marks are still present over C-DOM at this early stage, unlike in the

early mouse limb buds (Fig. 4 and S3 Fig)[17], suggesting that *Hoxd13* early activation

in chick may be driven by the T-DOM regulation until the C-DOM regulation is

implemented and takes it over. This idea is well supported by our CHi-C analysis showing

that the TAD boundary is expanded towards the *Hoxd13* locus in the early chick limb

buds.

In addition, a major difference was observed in the activation of *Hoxa13* between

chick and mouse hindlimb buds, with an earlier and stronger activation of *Hoxa13* in

chick leg buds at HH20, when compared to both mouse hindlimb buds and chick wing

buds. This indicates that the T-DOM activity may be readily terminated by the early

presence of HOXA13 protein and that the C-DOM regulation is ready to be active earlier

in chick leg buds than in wing buds. The potential causes for both this early activation of

Hoxa13 in chick leg buds and the strong level of H3K27me3 observed over C-DOM in

chick wing and leg buds remain to be determined.

Enhancer reallocation and anterior-posterior (AP) position of the limb buds

In the mouse, we show that the deletion of the telomeric TAD has different effects

upon forelimb and hindlimb proximal cells, as fair levels of *Hoxd* gene expression remain

only in the proximal hindlimb domain. Since a larger deletion including more telomeric

sequences totally abrogated *Hoxd* expression in proximal hindlimb, we concluded that

additional hindlimb-specific enhancers may be located telomeric of the T-DOM TAD.

Interaction profiles established after the deletion of T-DOM revealed novel hindlimb-

specific contacts between target *Hoxd* genes and the newly identified HE1 sequence,

which is normally located outside T-DOM but brought to the vicinity of the cluster after

the deletion. The HE1 region is located near the *Agps* and *Pde11a* genes and our 4C

profile using HE1 as a bait showed strong interactions with both genes under normal

condition. Noteworthy, *Agps* is involved in the rhizomelic chondrodysplasia punctate 3

(RCDP3) condition, with a shortening of proximal limbs[60,61], suggesting that HE1

may be involved in the regulation of the *Agps* gene. The deletion of T-DOM may thus

reallocate part of the HE1 proximal limb enhancer activity towards *Hoxd* promoters.

Our genetic approach however makes it difficult to assess whether this sequence is

used for *Hoxd* regulation under normal circumstances, or whether the interactions

observed are mostly due to its new proximity to the target genes induced by the deletion

of T-DOM. In the former case, this may indicate that as in chick and bats, the global C-

DOM regulation may be more active in forelimb than in hindlimb buds and hence the

HE1 enhancer may not be necessary. In the case of the mouse, this deficit of regulation

during proximal hindlimb development could have been compensated for by evolving

additional enhancers outside the TAD (Fig. 8C). The HE1 sequence is bound by several

factors, such as the YY1, proposed to mediate enhancer-promoter contacts at distance in

ESCs[62], or PITX1, a hindlimb-specific factor[63], suggesting that multiple

transcriptional factors may contribute to this interaction.

Finally, the sustained expression of *Hoxd* genes observed in T-DOM deleted mutant

proximal hindlimb cells may merely reflect the history of early limb bud cells. In the wild

type condition indeed, the anterior bud emerges from a field of lateral plate mesoderm

(LPM) devoid of transcripts for *Hoxd9*, *Hoxd10* or *Hoxd11*. In contrast, posterior limb

buds derive from LPM cells already expressing these genes, due to their more posterior

AP position along the trunk mesoderm. In the absence of T-DOM, expression of these

genes would not occur in the anterior buds due to their repressed state and the lack of

appropriate enhancers, whereas expression could be inherited and maintained in the

posterior buds through a mechanism independent of T-DOM, perhaps involving the HE1

sequence.

Materials and Methods

Animal experimentation

All experiments involving animals were performed in agreement with the Swiss law on

animal protection (LPA), under license No GE 81/14 (to DD). Chick embryos from a

white Leghorn strain were incubated at 37.5°C and staged according to ref[51].

In situ **hybridization and *lacZ* staining**

Whole mount *in situ* hybridization was performed as described previously[64]. For *lacZ*

staining, embryos were fixed in 1x PBS pH7.39-7.41, 2mM MgCl$_2$, 4% PFA/PBS, 0.2%

glutaraldehyde and 5mM EDTA for 20 min at room temperature and washed three times

for 20 min in 1x PBS, 2mM MgCl$_2$, 0.2% NP40 and 0.01% sodium deoxycholate.

Samples were stained in 5mM potassium ferrocyanide, 5mM potassium ferricyanide and

0.5 mg/ml X-gal at room temperature overnight, followed by wash with the wash solution

once and refixation with 4%PFA/PBS at 4°C overnight.

Micro-dissection chick limbs at HH30

Limb tissues at HH30 were micro-dissected into acropod (distal), mesopod and zeugopod

(proximal) regions, respectively. Only distal and proximal regions were used for RNA-

seq and 4C-seq.

RNA-seq and Data analysis

Total RNA was extracted from mouse and chick limb bud tissues using the RNeasy Micro

Kit (QIAGEN) following the manufacturer instructions. Libraries were prepared with at

least 200 ng of total RNA following Illumina TruSeq stranded mRNA sample preparation

guide. Sequencings were performed with 100-bp or 75-bp single-end. The data was

mapped onto either GRCm38 (mm10) or the International Chicken Genome Reference

Consortium Gallus_gallus-5.0 (galGal5) using the Tophat2 (Version 2.0.9)[65] and

unique mapped reads were extracted. The number of uniquely mapped reads was

calculated using FLAGSTAT (SAMtools, Version 0.1.18)[66] and this value was used

for the subsequent normalization of each coverage data to be the million reads number.

All analyses were processed by our Galaxy server (the Bioteam Appliance Galaxy Edition,

https://bioteam.net, https://bioteam.net/products/galaxy-appliance)[67].

RNA extraction and RT-qPCR

Total RNA was extracted using the RNeasy Micro Kit (QIAGEN), following the

manufacturer instructions. 1 μg total RNA was used for cDNA synthesis with SuperScript

VILO (Invitrogen). RT-qPCR was performed on a CFX96 real-time system (BIORAD)

using the GoTaq qPCR Master Mix (Promega). Each RT-qPCR was carried out with at

least two biological replicates and each experimental information is described in S1 Table.

Primer sequences for qPCR are listed in S2 Table.

4C-seq and Data analysis

Each mouse and chick limb tissue were fixed separately with 2% formaldehyde, lysed

and stored at -80°C. Samples were digested with *NlaIII* and *DpnII* as primary and

secondary restriction enzymes, respectively, and ligation steps were performed using high

concentrated T4 DNA ligase (Promega)[68]. Inverse PCRs for amplification were carried

out using primers for each viewpoint[69](S3 Table). PCR products were multiplexed and

sequenced with 100bp single-end, followed by post-processing (de-multiplexing,

mapping, and 4C analysis) using the HTS station (http://htsstation.epfl.ch)[70]. Fragment

scores were normalized to the mean score of fragments falling into a region defined as

the bait coordinated ± 1 Mb, and the data were smoothed by using a running mean with

a window size of 11 fragments. The information regarding fragments excluded during the

procedure is provided in S3 Table. A relative quantification of the signal spanning both

the *HoxD* telomeric or centromeric domains was performed. Genomic coordinates for

calculations are:

mm10, chr2: 73,921,943-74,648,943 / chr2: 74,765,943-75,601,943;

galGal5, chr7: 15,920,642-16,318,067 / chr7: 16,414,183-16,699,172.

This quantification is not absolute and only reflects the balance of contacts between the

two domains, for each sample.

ChIP-seq and Data analysis

Chromatin immunoprecipitation experiments were performed as previously

described[20]. Micro-dissected limb tissues from mouse and chick embryos were cross-

linked with 1% formaldehyde/PBS for 15 min at room temperature. Chromatin was

sheared and used for each immunoprecipitation with anti-H3K27ac (ab4729, Abcam),

anti-H3K27me3 (07-449, Merck Millipore), anti-H3K4me1 (ab8895, Abcam) and anti-

CTCF (61311, Active Motif). Libraries were prepared with at least 5 ng of purified DNA

following Illumina TruSeq ChIP library preparation guide. Sequencing was performed

with 100bp single-end. Demultiplexed ChIP-seq reads were mapped onto the galGal5 or

mm10 using Bowtie (Version 0.12.7)[71], with parameters "-m1 –strata –best" according

to conditions described previously[72], and PCR duplicates were removed from mapped

reads using SAMtools (Version 0.1.18)[66]. By using bamCompare (Version 2.5.0), the

ChIP data from H3K27ac, H3K27me3 and H3K4me1 and the input data were normalized

and compared to compute the log2 of the number of reads ratio. The CTCF ChIP data

was normalized to obtain 1x depth of coverage by using bamCoverage (Version

2.5.0)[73,74]. The CTCF motif orientation analysis was performed as previously

described[19]. All analysis was done with our Galaxy server (the Bioteam Appliance

Galaxy Edition, https://bioteam.net, https://bioteam.net/products/galaxy-appliance)[67].

SureSelect probe design and Capture Hi-C (CHi-C)

The library of SureSelect enrichment probes were designed over the genomic interval

(galGal3: chr7:15,990,001-19,170,000) using the SureDesign online tool of Agilent.

Probes cover the entire genomic region (galGal5, chr.7: 14,946,000-17,870,000) and

were not designed specifically in proximity of *DpnII* sites. Dissected tissues were

dissociated in 10% FCS/PBS with collagenase (C7657, Sigma) to a final concentration

of about 1.3 μg/μL, and samples were incubated in Thermomixer at 37°C at 800 rpm for

20 min. After discarding the supernatant, cells were crosslinked with 1%

formaldehyde/PBS at RT for 10 min, quenched with glycine and centrifuged to discard

the supernatant. Cells were resuspended with PBS containing proteinase inhibitor and

then centrifuged again. After removing supernatant, cells were kept at -80°C before use.

Hi-C library preparation was performed as described in[75], with the following changes:

(i) Resuspended crosslinked cells in ice-cold Lysis buffer were placed on a rotation wheel

at 4°C at 30 rpm for 30 min for cell lysis. (ii) For chromatin digestion, 400U of *DpnII*

(R0543M, New England Biolabs) were added to the samples and incubated at 37°C at

700 rpm for 4 hrs. Another 400U of *DpnII* were added and samples were incubated

overnight. (iii) Blunt-end ligation of biotin filled-in DNA was performed at RT at 30 rpm

on rotating wheel for 4 hrs. (iv) No removal of biotin from un-ligated ends was performed.

(v) DNA was sheared to a size of 200 to 800bp by using COVARIS E220, with the

following conditions; 175W, 10% Duty factor, 200 Cycles per Burst, 60 sec. (vi) DNA

pulldown was performed by using Dynabeads MyOne Streptavidin T1 (65601, Thermo

Fisher). (vii) DNA was measured by Qubit and 200ng were used for further treatment

followed by manufacturer's protocol (SureSelect[XT] Target Enrichment System for

Illumina Paired-End Multiplexed Sequencing Library).

CHi-C data analysis

Paired-end sequencing data were processed as follows. First, adapters were removed

using cutadapt version 1.6[76] with the following parameters: -a

AGATCGGAAGAGCACACGTCTGAACTCCAGTCAC for R1 and -a

AGATCGGAAGAGCGTCGTGTAGGGAAAGAGTGTAGATCTCGGTGGTCGCCG

TATCATT for R2. They were then processed by using hicup version 6.1.0 with the

bowtie2 version 2.2.6[77] and SAMtools version 1.2[66], with galGal5 as reference

genome and GATC as restriction enzyme recognition sequence. The pairs were next

converted from bam to tabulated files, with the position of the middle of the fragment to

which hicup assigned the read, by using an ad-hoc python script (available upon request).

Only valid pairs with both MAPQ above 30 were kept. Then, pairs with both mates in the

capture region (galGal5, chr7:14,946,000-17,870,000) were extracted and processed with

cooler to obtain a balance matrix of the capture region with 5kb bins. The Fig. 5 and S5

Fig were obtained with personal R scripts (available upon request) (http://www.R-

project.org). S5A and S5B Fig are the balanced matrices with linear scale. Fig 5 was

obtained by subtracting the two balanced matrices. To assess the significance of increased

contact between two regions, a Wilcoxon rank sum test was performed using R with the

values of the bins in the region of the two balanced matrices. Because 75% of valid pairs

MAPQ30 do not involve the capture region, all valid pairs were also processed with

cooler to obtain a balance matrix of the whole chromosome 2 at 40kb. These matrices

were used in S6 Fig. To define TAD borders (Fig 5), the TopDom algorithm[42] was run

with a window size of 28 from the 10kb binned balanced matrices, as gaps were too

numerous at a 5kb resolution.

Mutant stocks

The $HoxD^{Del(8-13)}$ and $HoxD^{Del(attp-SB3)}$ alleles have been previously described[17,78]. The

$HoxD^{Del(Mtx-Ttn)}$ allele was produced by TAMERE using the TiE2 (*Titin* exon 2) allele[79]

(kindly provided by Dr. Michael Gotthardt) and a *Mtx2* gene trap allele

(https://igtc.org/cgi-bin/annotation.py?cellline=CSI574). The sequences of genotyping

primers are indicated in S2 Table. All embryos analyzed in Fig 7 and S7 Fig were

heterozygotes, balanced by the $HoxD^{Del(8-13)}$ allele.

Analysis of sequence alignment and limb enhancer prediction

mVista, tools for comparative genomics was used for comparison between sequences of

the mouse *CS93* (mm10, chr2: 75,208,103-75,210,328), the bat BAR116 (Myoluc2,

GL429772: 6,606,808-6,608,652) and the 2kb region containing the chick *CS93* (galGal5,

chr7: 16,104,863-16,106,863), with LAGAN alignment program with default parameter

(http://genome.lbl.gov/vista/index.shtml). Potential limb enhancer regions were

identified by using Limb-Enhancer Genie tool, with the following condition: (i) analysis

type: Scan for top, (ii) method: Combined Model (https://leg.lbl.gov/)[54].

Enhancer transgenic assays

For the enhancer assays, embryos carrying the mouse *CS93/lacZ* and *HE1/lacZ* were

generated by lentivirus-mediated transgenesis and pronuclear injection, respectively. The

mouse *CS93* (mm10, chr2: 75,208,104-75,210,328) was amplified from C57BL/6

genomic DNA and cloned into the *pRRL-lacZ* vector, as described previously[17].

Lentiviruses were produced and injected into the peri-vitelline space of mouse

zygotes[32]. The mouse *HE1* (mm10, chr2: 75,959,179-75,960,378) and the region

containing the chick *CS93* sequence (galGal5, chr7: 16,104,863-16,106,863) were

obtained from B6CBAF1/J and White Leghorn genomic DNA, respectively, and cloned

into a *βglobin-lacZ* vector. The construct was injected into mouse oocytes. All transgenic

embryos were harvested between E10.5 and E12.5 and used for *lacZ* staining.

Accession Numbers

RNA-seq, 4C-seq, ChIP-seq and CHi-C datasets are available from the NCBI Gene

Expression Omnibus repository under accession number GSE115563. The public datasets

used in this research are listed in S4 Table.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We thank Dr. A. Necsulea for help with bioinformatic analyses, S. Gitto and T.-H.

Nguyen Huynh for technical help, Drs. J.-M. Matter, M. Gotthardt, M. Ros, C. Tabin, Y.

Kawakami and K. Tamura for sharing materials, the Geneva Genomics Platform

(University of Geneva), the transgenic core facilities (University of Geneva and Ecole

Polytechnique Fédérale in Lausanne), the Gene Expression Core Facility, the

Bioinformatics and Biostatistics Core Facility of the Ecole Polytechnique Fédérale in

Lausanne and the ENCODE Consortium and the ENCODE production laboratory

generating the particular dataset. We also thank all members of the Duboule laboratories

for discussions.

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 LEGENDS TO FIGURES

Fig. 1. *Hoxd* genes expression in mouse and chick limb buds. (A, B) *In situ*

hybridization analysis of E12.5 mouse and HH28 (equivalent to E12.25 to E12.5) chick

fore- and hindlimb buds showing the expression of *Hoxd* genes and *Col2a1* or *Aggrecan*,

which are markers for chondrocyte differentiation. (A, left) Schemes showing

morphologies of forelimb (red) and hindlimb (yellow) in mouse. (A, right) Expression

patterns of *Hoxd* genes in forelimb buds are comparable to those in hindlimb buds. The

expression domain of *Col2a1* (opened arrowheads) corresponds to the low *Hoxd*

expression region leading to the future mesopodium. (B, left) Schemes representing

morphologies of forelimb (wing, red) and hindlimb (leg, yellow) buds in chick. (B, right)

Expression of *Hoxd* genes in proximal leg is significantly reduced and restricted to the

presumptive ulna. (C, D) Transcription profiles of *Hoxd* genes in micro-dissected

proximal and distal domains, either from E12.5 mouse (C) or HH30 (equivalent to E13

to E13.5) chick (D) fore- and hindlimb buds. Each right limb in (A, B) is oriented with

proximal to the bottom and distal to the top. FL, forelimb; HL, hindlimb. The *Y* axis

represents the strand-specific RNA-seq read counts, normalized by the total number of

million mapped reads.

Fig. 2. Conserved bimodal TAD regulatory structure at *HoxD* locus in tetrapod.

(A, B) 4C-seq tracks showing contacts established by mouse *Hoxd11* and chick *Hoxd10-*

11 viewpoint in mouse and chick proximal and distal cells from fore- and hindlimb at

E12.5 and HH30, respectively. (A) The interactions between *Hoxd11* and around *CS39*

were mainly observed in proximal cells, whereas those between *Hoxd11* and *island III* or

Prox, which are hallmarks of the C-DOM activity, were increased in distal region. (B)

Each contact extended to the predicted TAD border located on either side at *HoxD* cluster

(C-DOM side, opened arrowheads; T-DOM side, closed arrowheads). In addition to the

interactions between *Hoxd10-11* and *CS39*, contacts were also observed with *CS93* in

proximal wing bud cells, whereas it decreased in proximal leg bud cells where *Hoxd*

expression is strongly reduced (red arrows). FL, forelimb; HL, hindlimb.

Fig. 3. Differential enhancer activities of mouse and chick *CS93* in fore- and

hindlimb buds. (A) Genomic coordinates and sequence alignment using either the bat or

the chick sequence onto the mouse genome, and schematics of enhancer activities for

each of the identified sequences[6,17] and this work. Both mouse BAR116 and mouse

CS9 showed no enhancer activity in limbs[6,17], whereas the bat BAR116 displayed

different patterns between mouse fore- and hindlimb[6]. The sequences of both the bat

BAR116 (Myoluc2, GL429772: 6,606,808-6,608,652) and the chick *CS93* (galGal5,

chr7:16,104,952-16,105,803) were aligned onto the mouse genome. (B) Coordinates of

either the chick *CS93* (green rectangle), or the 2kb large region used for enhancer assay

(blue domain). The 2kb sequence contains the chick *CS93* region and the region of high

interactions with the *Hoxd10* to *Hoxd11* region in proximal wing bud cells at HH30.

Conservation plot of mouse *CS93* and bat BAR116 using the 2kb region of chick *CS93*

as a reference. The peaks represent a conservation higher than 50%. Pink regions are

conserved non-coding sequences. The phylogenetic tree shows the highest conservation

of the chick CS93 with the bat BAR116 sequences. (C) Enhancer activities of mouse

CS93 and chick *CS93* in mouse fore- and hindlimb buds from E10.5 to E12.5. The *lacZ*

expression pattern (left) showed that mouse *CS93* has an enhancer activity in the proximal

region of developing limb buds at E10.5 to E12.5. In contrast to the mouse, the chick

CS93 (right) showed differential enhancer activity between fore- and hindlimb buds at

E12.5, as was also reported for the bat BAR116 sequence. The numbers of *lacZ* positive

embryos over total transgene integrated are indicated.

Fig. 4. Premature termination of T-DOM activity in chick leg buds. (A, B)

Comparison of H3K27ac and H3K27me3 ChIP-seq profiles in either whole, proximal or

distal wing- and leg buds at HH19 (equivalent to mouse E9.5), HH20 (equivalent to

mouse E10) and HH28. (A) In chick leg bud, enrichment of H3K27ac at region '*a*' in T-

DOM was initially detected at HH19, whereas it was significantly decreased at HH20.

Few H3K27ac marks were scored in region '*b*' in hindlimb bud at both HH19 and HH20,

as compared with those in wing buds. At HH28, the accumulation of H3K27ac marks

was quite low in both the *HoxD* cluster and the T-DOM region in proximal leg, when

compared to distal wing cells, whereas the profiles of H3K27ac in the distal region where

Hoxd genes are strongly expressed were similar between wing and leg buds at HH28. (B)

In whole wing- and leg buds at HH20, several C-DOM regions were covered by

H3K27me3, whereas T-DOM was either not yet labelled, or started to be enriched around

CS39 in forelimb bud and hindlimb buds, respectively. In proximal leg buds where *Hoxd*

expression was reduced, H3K27me3 enrichment was observed at the *HoxD* cluster and

over T-DOM, when compared to proximal forelimb buds. Both regions '*a*' and '*b*' in T-

DOM seemed to be specific targets of H3K27me3 enrichment. Enrichment (*Y-axis*) of

ChIP is shown as the $\log_2$ ratio of the normalized number of reads between ChIP and

input samples. FL, forelimb; HL, hindlimb.

Fig. 5. Subtraction of CHi-C matrices between wing- and leg buds with plotted TADs.

(A) The black lines demarcate the TADs in wing- and leg buds as identified using the

TopDom algorithm. Subtraction are those of CHi-C matrices shown in S5A and S5B Fig,

with wing bud cells in red and leg bud cells in blue. (B) Subtraction of the CHi-C matrices

shown in S5A and S5B Fig at regions between the *HoxD* cluster and the area ranging

from region '*a*' to region '*b*' within T-DOM, with a 5kb resolution. A significant decrease

in contacts was detected between the *HoxD* cluster and the *CS93* region, which

corresponded to the reduction in H3K27ac levels (black rectangle). The increased

contacts involving the *HoxD* cluster shown in red and blue represent wing- and leg buds

cells, respectively. ChIP-seq profiles of CTCF and H3K27ac from wing- and leg buds at

HH20 are shown in red and blue, respectively. Opened and closed arrowheads indicate

the orientation of the CTCF motives. Enrichments (*Y*-axis) of CTCF and H3K27ac ChIP

are shown at the normalized 1x sequencing depth or the $\log_2$ ratio of the normalized

number of reads between ChIP and input samples, respectively. FL, forelimb; HL,

hindlimb.

Fig. 6. Leg bud-specific early activation of the chick *Hoxa13*. (A) Expression patterns

and levels of *Hoxa13* and *Hoxd11* in chick wing- and leg buds from HH20 to HH22.

Stronger expression of *Hoxa13* was observed in chick leg bud as compared to that in wing

bud (top). Expression level of *Hoxd11* increased in wing bud as development proceeded,

yet it decreased in leg bud (bottom). Expression levels were normalized to *Gapdh* and

depicted as fold change relative to wing bud at HH20-21. Error bars indicate standard

deviation of three biological replicates. **$P<0.01$, Student's *t*-test. (B) Expression of

Hoxa13 and *Hoxd11* in mouse fore- and hindlimb buds, from E10.5 to E10.75. Both genes

were increasingly transcribed in fore- and hindlimb buds as development proceeded.

Expression levels were normalized to *Gapdh* and depicted as fold change relative to

forelimb buds at E10.5. Error bars indicate standard deviation of two or four biological

replicates. **$P<0.01$, NS, $P>0.05$, Student's *t*-test.

Fig. 7. Different effects of a T-DOM deletion on fore- and hindlimb buds. (A) The

HoxD^{Del(attp-SB3)} and *HoxD^{Del(Mtx-Ttn)}* alleles were constructed by deleting T-DOM through

a ca. 1Mb or 2.1Mb large deletion, respectively (left, dashed line). *Hoxd11* expression in

E12.5 fore- and hindlimbs from either control (*HoxD^{Del(8-13)/+}*) animals (indicated as

'+/Δ') or mutants (*HoxD^{Del(attp-SB3)/Del(8-13)}*, *HoxD^{Del(Mtx-Ttn)/Del(8-13)}*, *HoxD^{Del(8-13)/+};HoxC^{-/-}*,

HoxD^{Del(attp-SB3)/Del(8-13)};HoxC^{-/-}) littermates (indicated as '*Del(attp-SB3)/Δ*', '*Del(Mtx-*

Ttn)/Δ', '+/Δ/HoxC^{-/-}', '*Del(attp-SB3)/Δ/HoxC^{-/-}*'). In *Del(attp-SB3)/Δ* mutant, *Hoxd11*

expression was dramatically reduced in proximal forelimbs (arrowhead). Unexpectedly

however, expression remained robust in proximal hindlimbs (arrowhead). In *HoxD^{Del(Mtx-*

TiE2)} mutant, *Hoxd11* expression disappeared in both proximal fore- and hindlimb buds

(arrowhead). The absence of both T-DOM and the *HoxC* cluster did not affect *Hoxd11*

expression. (B) HiC data adapted from ref[19] showing the two TADs on either side of

the *HoxD* cluster and the TAD next to T-DOM. 4C profiles represent contacts established

by *Hoxd11* in proximal fore- and hindlimb buds, from control or *Del(attp-SB3)/Δ* mutant

animals. In mutant cells deleted for T-DOM, (tracks 2 and 4), ectopic contacts between

Hoxd11 and regions in the neighboring TAD appeared due to their new proximity to

HoxD. The shaded region with red arrows shows the domains where more contacts were

detected in mutant proximal hindlimb versus proximal forelimb buds. (C) Enlargement

of 4C profiles dispatched in (B), DNaseI, hyper-sensitive profiles using E11.5 embryos

and potential limb enhancer regions (pink rectangles), as identified by using Limb-

Enhancer Genie tool. Potential hindlimb-specific enhancers (HE) are shown by red

arrows. (D) Mouse HE1 is active in the proximal fore- and hindlimb buds and in the trunk

at E12.5. The number indicate stained embryos over total number of integrations. PFL,

proximal forelimb; PHL, proximal hindlimb; HL, hindlimb.

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Fig. 8. TAD boundaries at the mouse and chicken *HoxD* cluster and effect of T-DOM

deletion. (A, B) TADs boundaries at the *HoxD* locus in mouse (A) and chick (B) limb

buds. (A) In the mouse, the boundary moves along a few genes, in a window likely

determined by a series of CTCF sites. In chick, the boundary appears less robust and

slightly expanded towards the *Hoxd13* locus. This latter situation may enable T-DOM

enhancers to interact with *Hoxd13* more efficiently in chick than in murine cells (B).

Black and white arrowheads indicate the orientation of CTCF motives. (C) The different

effects of T-DOM deletion in mouse proximal fore- and hindlimb cells. The

transcriptional status of *Hoxd* genes is different between forelimb and hindlimb buds due

to their prior expression or non-expression in lateral plate mesoderm, respectively. In the

absence of T-DOM, H3K27me3 marks may accumulate over the silenced *Hoxd* genes in

mutant forelimb buds as described in [17], making them poorly responsive to the HE1

enhancer. In contrast, mutant hindlimb bud proximal cells have their *Hoxd* genes poised

for activation and *de novo* interactions with the HE1 enhancer may occur. H3K27me3

marks are in blue and presumptive factors, such as a potential mediator of DNA looping

and a hindlimb-specific transcription factor, are shown by a green oval and a yellow star.

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SUPPORTING INFORMATION

S1 Fig (related to Fig 1). *Hoxa* genes expression in mouse and chick limb buds.

S2 Fig (related to Fig 2). The regulatory switch between TADs in mouse and chick

limb buds.

S3 Fig (related to Fig 4). H3K27ac, H3K27me3 and RNA-seq at *HoxD* in chick limbs.

S4 Fig (related to Fig 4). H3K27ac and H3K27me3 profiles of ChIP-seq and RNA-

seq at the *HoxA* locus in chick limbs.

S5 Fig (related to Fig 5). Chromatin conformation at the chick *HoxD* locus in wing-

and leg buds and conservation of CTCF sites orientations.

S6 Fig (related to Fig 6). Expression of *Hoxa* and *Hoxd* genes in chick and mouse

limb buds.

S7 Fig (related to Fig 7). A T-DOM deletion induces interactions between HE1 and

Hoxd **genes.**

S1 Table. Information about samples.

S2 Table. DNA sequences of primers used for both RT-qPCR analyses and

genotyping.

S3 Table. DNA sequences of primers used for 4C analyses.

Custom barcodes (4bp shown by NNNN) were introduced in between the Illumina

adapter sequence and the specific viewpoint sequences to do multiplexing using different

samples with the same viewpoint.

S4 Table. Public datasets used in this research.

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1283

A

Hoxd11

T-DOM

control

39 93 65

Del(attP-SB3)

attP   SB3

Del(Mtx-Ttn)

Mtx   Ttn

+/Δ   Del(attp-SB3)/Δ   Del(Mtx-Ttn)/Δ   +/Δ/HoxC⁻/⁻   Del(attp-SB3)/Δ/HoxC⁻/⁻

Forelimb

Hindlimb

B

250 kb

I II III V   Prox   39 93 65

Hoxd11

+/Δ

Del(attp-SB3)/Δ

PFL

+/Δ

Del(attp-SB3)/Δ

PHL

C-DOM   T-DOM

C

Agps   100 kb

Ttc30b   Ttc30a1   Pde11a

Del(attp-SB3)/Δ   Hoxd11

PFL   HE2   HE3   HE1

Del(attp-SB3)/Δ

PHL

E11.5   DNaseI HS

HL

D

HE1 (11/19)   E12.5   Forelimb   Hindlimb