Specification of axial identity by Hoxa2 distinguishes between a phenotypic and molecular ground state in mouse cranial neural crest cells Irina Pushel¹, Paul A Trainor^{1,2}, Robb Krumlauf^{1,2*} Stowers Institute for Medical Research, Kansas City, MO 64110, USA Department of Anatomy and Cell Biology, University of Kansas Medical Center, Kansas City, KS 66160, USA *corresponding author, rek@stowers.org

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10 Abstract

Hox genes play a key role in head formation by specifying the axial identity of neural 11 crest cells (NCCs) migrating into embryonic pharyngeal arches. In the absence of Hoxa2, NCC 12 derivatives of the second pharyngeal arch (PA2) undergo a homeotic transformation and 13 duplicate structures formed by first arch (PA1) NCCs. Current models postulate that PA1 14 15 represents a NCC 'ground state' and loss of Hoxa2 causes a reversion of PA2 NCCs to the PA1 'ground state'. We use bulk and single-cell RNAseq to investigate the molecular mechanisms 16 driving this phenotypic transformation in the mouse. In Hoxa $2^{-/-}$ mutants, PA2 NCCs generally 17 maintain expression of the PA2 transcriptional signature and fail to strongly upregulate a PA1 18 transcriptional signature. Our analyses identify putative HOXA2 targets and suggest that 19 subsets of NCCs may respond to HOXA2 activity in distinct manners. This separation of 20 phenotypic and molecular states has significant implications for understanding craniofacial 21 22 development.

23 Introduction

24 Neural crest cells (NCCs) represent one of the defining traits in the evolution of 25 vertebrates (Sauka-Spengler et al. 2007; Green et al. 2015). The neural crest is a transient 26 population of cells that arises along the anterior-posterior axis of the developing central nervous system (Knecht and Bronner-Fraser 2002). NCCs delaminate from the neural 27 epithelium and migrate into the periphery of vertebrate embryos. These migratory and 28 29 proliferative cells are multipotent and play a dynamic role in vertebrate development, giving 30 rise to diverse structures including neurons, glia, pigment cells, and craniofacial bone and cartilage (LaBonne and Bronner-Fraser 1998; Le Douarin and Kalcheim 1999; Minoux and Rijli 31 32 2010). They are divided into trunk and cranial NCCs: trunk NCCs primarily contribute to the 33 peripheral nervous system, while cranial NCCs also give rise to most of the bone and connective 34 tissue of the head and play a key role in craniofacial morphogenesis.

The establishment of cranial NCCs is thought to have been an important step in 35 evolution of the vertebrate head (Northcutt and Gans 1983; Parker et al. 2016; Square et al. 36 2017). Mutations in genes important for cranial NCC development have been shown to play a 37 role in human craniofacial defects and disorders, making a deeper understanding of NCC 38 development a relevant area of clinical study (Crane and Trainor 2006; Terrazas et al. 2017; 39 Etchevers et al. 2019). Cranial NCCs are initially specified at the neural plate border region, 40 41 together with neural precursors (LaBonne and Bronner-Fraser 1999; Le Douarin and Kalcheim 1999; Knecht and Bronner-Fraser 2002). The NCCs then delaminate from the dorsal neural tube 42 and migrate into the frontonasal prominence and pharyngeal arches (PAs), highly conserved 43 transient embryonic structures that form the oral apparatus which is essential for feeding and 44 breathing. Upon arrival at their destination, NCCs differentiate into the derivative structures 45 that shape the vertebrate head (Couly et al. 1993)(Fig. 1A,B). NCCs give rise to unique 46 structures based on their axial level of origin (Kontges and Lumsden 1996). For instance, the 47 48 NCCs migrating into the first PA (PA1) contribute to the maxillary and mandibular components of the jaw, Meckel's cartilage, and the incus and malleus of the middle ear, while the NCCs 49 migrating into the second PA (PA2) form the stapes of the middle ear and the hyoid bone in the 50 neck (Le Douarin and Kalcheim 1999; Minoux and Rijli 2010). 51







The highly conserved family of HOX transcription factors plays a key role in establishing 66 regional identities in diverse tissues throughout animal development (Carroll 1995; Alexander 67 et al. 2009; Mallo et al. 2010). During vertebrate head development, the expression and 68 69 function of Hox genes are tightly coupled with the specification of axial identity in hindbrain 70 segments and cranial NCCs (Hunt et al. 1991; Couly et al. 1998; Trainor and Krumlauf 2000b; Trainor and Krumlauf 2001; Minoux and Rijli 2010; Parker et al. 2018). In the developing mouse 71 72 embryo, NCCs express Hox genes in two general phases during their development: prior to their delamination from the neural tube (the 'hindbrain Hox code') and after they begin migrating 73 into the PAs (the 'neural crest Hox code') (Fig 1B). This establishes a colinear nested expression 74 75 pattern of Hox genes in the PAs: PA1 NCCs lack Hox expression, PA2 NCCs express Hoxa2 and Hoxb2, PA3 NCCs express Hoxa2, Hoxb2, Hoxa3, Hoxb3, and Hoxd3, and so on into more 76 posterior arches (Hunt et al. 1991; Minoux and Rijli 2010; Parker et al. 2018). This generates a 77 78 combinatorial Hox code that underlies the establishment of unique axial identities of each PA (Trainor and Krumlauf 2001). 79

80 Whether Hox codes are first established in the hindbrain and transferred into the 81 periphery by migrating NCCs or initiated independently in NCCs separate from the hindbrain 82 Hox code is not well understood. Regulatory studies have generated evidence for both 83 independent and shared regulation of Hoxa2 and Hoxb2 genes in hindbrain segments and 84 cranial NCCs (Maconochie et al. 1997; Maconochie et al. 1999; McEllin et al. 2016; Parker et al. 85 2019). Heterotopic grafting experiments in zebrafish and mouse embryos have revealed that Hox expression in NCCs is not permanently fixed and is influenced by signals from the PA 86 87 environment (Trainor and Krumlauf 2000a; Trainor and Krumlauf 2000b; Schilling et al. 2001). 88 This suggests there is dynamic regulation of *Hox* expression during NCC formation and 89 migration in the PAs. However, it remains unclear whether the NCC Hox code acts in parallel to 90 or directly within the emerging framework for the conserved core gene regulatory network 91 governing NCC development (Gammill and Bronner-Fraser 2002; Simoes-Costa and Bronner 92 2015; Martik and Bronner 2017; Parker et al. 2018; Martik et al. 2019).

Loss and gain of function experiments of the *Hox* genes in a number of vertebrate
species have led to the formulation of a NCC ground state model for axial patterning of the PAs

95 during embryonic development. In this model, NCCs migrating into the PAs share a common default patterning program, or ground state, that is modified by combinations of Hox gene 96 expression to produce distinct derivatives at each axial level (Couly et al. 1998; Minoux and Rijli 97 2010; Vieux-Rochas et al. 2013). Since NCCs in PA1 lack Hox expression, they are postulated to 98 99 represent the ground state. This hypothesis is largely based on phenotypes associated with perturbation of *Hoxa2* expression. In mouse *Hoxa2^{-/-}* mutants, PA2-derived skeletal structures 100 display homeotic transformations and duplicate PA1-derived structures (Gendron-Maguire et 101 al. 1993; Rijli et al. 1993). Conversely, ectopic expression of Hoxa2 in PA1 NCCs results in 102 transformation of PA1-derived skeletal structures to duplicate PA2 derivatives (Kitazawa et al. 103 104 2015). This functional role for *Hoxa2* in patterning PA identity has also been observed in other vertebrate species (Grammatopoulos et al. 2000; Pasqualetti et al. 2000; Hunter and Prince 105 106 2002). Together, this evidence supports a conserved role for Hoxa2 as a master regulator or selector gene that modifies the Hox-free NCC ground state to impart a PA2 identity on the NCCs 107 colonizing PA2. However, the precise timing of this Hoxa2-dependent process remains 108 109 unknown, as do the cell populations and downstream target genes through which Hoxa2 acts to regulate regional identity. There is evidence of a continued requirement for Hoxa2 activity in 110 111 NCCs during differentiation (Santagati et al. 2005), but an earlier role for its input into 112 programming the cranial NCCs remains unclear.

113 In addition to the specific perturbation of *Hoxa2* expression, deletion of the entire *HoxA* 114 cluster in the mouse results in PAs 2-4 all producing additional PA1-like structures in lieu of caudal derivatives. This further supports the existence of a Hox-free ground state that is 115 116 transformed in each of the PAs by distinct combinations of Hox gene expression (Minoux et al. 117 2009). It is clear from the phenotypic transformations observed in mutant embryos that there exists a phenotypic NCC ground state represented by the set of NCC derivatives produced in the 118 119 absence of Hox gene expression. Whether this phenotypic ground state is accompanied by a 120 shared molecular ground state – a transcriptional signature – that corresponds to Hox-free 121 NCCs and is observed in Hox mutant embryos, has not yet been addressed. Where the term 122 'ground state' has been used to date, the explicit distinction between a phenotypic and 123 molecular ground state has not been made (Rijli et al. 1993; Minoux et al. 2009; Amin et al.

2015). This is an important issue to resolve for understanding regulatory mechanisms that
pattern craniofacial development, because *Hoxa2* could be working to modify the properties of
all NCCs in PA2 or only sub-populations of cells required for specifying PA2 derived structures.
Regardless of the process, *Hoxa2* clearly has a fundamental effect in determining PA2 identity.

Recent advances in sequencing technologies enable us to more thoroughly explore the 128 molecular underpinnings of axial specification and distinguish between phenotypic and 129 130 transcriptional effects at single-cell resolution. Several studies have provided comparative analysis of gene expression in the PAs (Brunskill et al. 2014; Lumb et al. 2017; Minoux et al. 131 2017). However, these comparisons have not yet been extended to Hox mutant embryos, and 132 133 thus lack the power to determine whether a *Hox*-free mutant PA (other than PA1) reverts not 134 only at the phenotypic level but also at the molecular or transcriptional level to a PA1-like state. Thus, elucidating the molecular mechanism by which *Hoxa2* expression acts to impart a PA2 135 NCC fate directly informs our understanding of the transcriptional basis of axial identity 136 specification in the developing mouse embryo. 137

In this study, to deepen our understanding of the role of *Hoxa2* in regulating PA2 138 identity, we have used bulk and single cell RNAseq in mice, comparing wildtype (WT) and Hoxa2 139 mutant embryos, to investigate the precise timing and populations of cells where it exerts its 140 regulatory activity on NCCs. Strikingly, our data do not show a global reversion of the Hoxa2^{-/-} 141 142 PA2 transcriptional profile in NCCs to a PA1-like state, as would be expected in the presence of a molecular NCC ground state. Rather, we find evidence that *Hoxa2* exerts its regulatory activity 143 in distinct subpopulations of cells in PA2 as NCCs are undergoing differentiation. Using 144 differential expression analyses from transcriptional profiling of cell populations and single 145 cells, we identified both previously described and novel putative targets of Hoxa2 involved in 146 PA2 fate specification. Taken together, our data suggest that the phenotypic ground state of 147 mouse cranial NCCs is not matched with an underlying molecular ground state and reveal novel 148 149 downstream targets of Hoxa2 involved in axial identity specification. Our findings highlight the value of scRNA-seq in evaluating and refining models surrounding the molecular basis of 150 151 developmental and evolutionary phenotypes. Moreover, the rich transcriptomic datasets

- 152 generated in this study are a valuable resource to further characterize the molecular
- 153 underpinnings of NCC axial identity.

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156 Results

157 Generation of a new mouse *Hoxa2* null allele

In order to investigate the molecular mechanisms by which Hoxa2 expression drives PA2 158 159 fate, we used a strategy based on transcriptional profiling approaches to compare wildtype 160 (WT) and *Hoxa2* mutant mouse embryos. Existing mouse lines have mutations with a *neomycin* cassette inserted into Hoxa2 (Gendron-Maguire et al. 1993; Rijli et al. 1993), which may alter 161 162 the expression of neighboring Hox genes, as we know this is a region rich in regulatory 163 elements both within and flanking the gene (Tümpel et al. 2006) (Fig. 1C). These lines also exist on a mixed genetic background and we wanted to minimize noise in genomic comparisons by 164 performing analyses in a consistent background. In addition, we wanted to be able to monitor 165 166 endogenous Hoxa2 mRNA expression in cells lacking functional HOXA2 protein. To do this, we 167 generated a novel null allele by using CRISPR-Cas9 gene editing to alter a 7 bp region in the endogenous locus which includes part of HOXA2 start codon, deleting 2 bp and converting it 168 into an *Xhol* site (5'-AGGCCATG-3' to 5'-CTCGAG-3'). We refer to this allele as *a2KO*, which 169 minimizes changes to the locus and preserves all known *cis*-regulatory elements (Fig. 1C). 170

To validate the successful abrogation of HOXA2 protein function by this mutation, we 171 compared homozygous a2KO embryos to a previously characterized mutant containing the 172 173 neomycin cassette (Rijli et al. 1993) (Fig. 1C-D). We refer to this published allele as the a2neo. As with pups homozygous for *a2neo*, homozygous *a2KO* pups die within 24 hours of birth and 174 175 display the previously characterized 'cauliflower ear' phenotype. Importantly, *a2KO* embryos 176 also show the same duplication of PA1-derived middle ear elements that is characteristic of the a2neo embryos at E18.5 (Fig. 1D). It is interesting to note that a2KO embryos do not show the 177 cleft palate defect originally observed in *a2neo* mice (Rijli et al. 1993). Our *a2neo* colony also 178 179 lacks cleft palate, and a complementation test intercrossing a2KO and a2neo heterozygous alleles also fails to recapitulate the cleft palate phenotype. These observations may be due to 180 differences in genetic background or an off-target effect of the *neomycin* cassette disrupting 181 182 expression of other genes in the HoxA cluster. Homozygous embryos with a2KO or a2neo alleles

183 show matching phenotypes with respect to PA2 derived structures and affected tissues,

rendering the *a2KO* allele a valid genetic model for studying *Hoxa2* function in NCCs.

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186 PA1 and PA2 have distinct molecular states early in NCC migration

187 The 'ground state' model considers that *Hoxa2* is a selector gene for PA2 fate, modifying 188 the Hox-free ground state observed in PA1 (Fig. 1B). Thus, we wanted to understand when 189 differences appear in the transcriptional profiles of NCCs from PA1 and PA2 during 190 development and when HOXA2 acts to modify the putative ground state to specify PA2 fates. 191 To address these questions, we dissected PA1 and PA2 from wildtype (WT) and homozygous 192 a2KO mutant embryos at four timepoints, ranging from early NCC migration (E9.0) to the start 193 of differentiation (E10.5), and examined their transcriptional profiles by bulk RNAseq 194 (bRNAseq). While NCCs represent the majority of cells in the dissected PA tissue, the arches 195 also contain cells from the surface ectodermal and endodermal layers and a core of 196 mesodermal cells (Fig. 1A). We utilized the entire PA tissue for these experiments to avoid 197 inducing changes in cell properties during manipulations or finer level dissections and to ensure 198 we had the full cellular repertoire of components of the PAs.

We first examined when molecular differences between PA1 and PA2 appear during 199 NCC migration and early differentiation by performing differential gene expression analysis 200 201 (Supplementary Tables S1-5). If early NCCs migrating into the PAs have a common ground state 202 that is progressively modified in PA2 by HOXA2, their initial transcriptional profiles in PA1 and 203 PA2 would be predicted to be quite similar, with differences emerging and becoming more 204 pronounced as HOXA2 exerts its activity during the course of NCC colonization of the PAs. Our data reveal that early in migration at E9.0, PA1 and PA2 already display significantly different 205 206 transcriptional profiles and this pattern persists through E9.5 (Fig. 2A), arguing against a common molecular ground state early in the developmental process. Then as the embryo 207 continues to develop from E10.0-E10.5, at the onset of NCC differentiation, we observe 208 209 progressively fewer differences between PA1 and PA2. The majority of the differentially 210 expressed genes are unique to a particular timepoint, although 89 genes are PA-biased

- 211 throughout development and a fair number of genes are differentially expressed at both E9.0
- and E9.5, when we observe the greatest transcriptional differences between PA1 and PA2
- 213 (Supplementary Fig. S1A-B).



215 Figure 2. Hoxa2 knockout PA2 does not revert to a PA1-like transcriptional state. A) Number of genes differentially expressed between WT PA1 and WT PA2 at each timepoint E9.0-E10.5. B) 216 217 Number of genes differentially expressed between WT PA2 and a2KO PA2 at each timepoint E9.0-E10.5. C) Principal component analysis (PCA) plot depicting clustering of WT PA1, WT PA2, 218 219 a2KO PA1, and a2KO PA2 from E9.0-E10.5. Each point corresponds to a sample from an individual embryo (PA1 and PA2 were both collected from each embryo). Color corresponds to 220 221 timepoint, shape corresponds to tissue, fill corresponds to genotype. All samples cluster according to PA of origin, with PA2 in upper left of the plot and PA1 in lower right, independent 222 of genotype. 223





timepoints in bRNAseq dataset. UpSet plots depict overlapping data in a clearer format than

227 Venn diagrams. Each timepoint is listed at the left, with dots (connected by lines) showing the

228 datasets that a given group of genes (bar) belongs to. For further information on UpSet plots,

refer to (Lex et al. 2014). A) Genes with higher expression in WT PA1 than WT PA2 at any

timepoint. B) Genes with higher expression in WT PA2 than WT PA1 at any timepoint. C) Genes

downregulated in PA2 in the absence of HOXA2. D) Genes upregulated in PA2 in the absence of

232 HOXA2.

Overall, these data indicate that cranial NCCs emerging from the hindbrain at different 234 235 axial levels have distinct transcriptional profiles as they begin to migrate into PA1 and PA2, 236 suggesting that axial identities may already be established by early stages of NCC migration. The similarity of transcriptional profiles in both arches at later stages may reflect that NCCs are 237 undergoing differentiation programs that generate a similar repertoire of cell types -238 osteoblasts, chondrocytes, neurons, glia, and melanocytes in each pharyngeal arch 239 environment. These cells may exist in different proportions and end up in unique orientations 240 relative to one another, ultimately resulting in distinct derivatives in PA1 and PA2, however the 241 cell types forming these structures are similar. 242

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244 *Hoxa2* maintains the molecular character of PA2 in different phases of NCC development

245 To investigate how the loss of HOXA2 affects PA2 development, we compared the 246 transcriptional profiles between PA2 of WT and a2KO embryos and identified genes differentially expressed during NCC migration and early differentiation (Fig. 2B and 247 248 Supplementary Tables S6-10). At the earliest timepoint (E9.0), there are significant transcriptional differences in PA2 between WT and a2KO embryos, indicating that Hoxa2 plays 249 an important early role in shaping PA2 identity. These molecular differences then decrease as 250 251 NCCs colonize the PAs (E9.5-E10.0), but then pronounced differences once again arise in their expression profiles as they begin to differentiate at E10.5 (Fig. 2B). Many of the genes 252 253 differentially expressed between WT PA2 and *a2KO* PA2 are specific to a particular timepoint. 254 For example, 65% of genes differentially expressed at E9.0 and 62% of genes differentially expressed at E10.5 are not differentially expressed at any other timepoint (Supplementary Fig. 255 S1C-D). Thus, the loss of HOXA2 results in series of dynamic changes in the transcriptional 256 program of NCCs from PA2. Consistent with the observed $Hoxa2^{-/-}$ phenotype of increased 257 ossification in PA2, the genes differentially expressed at E10.5 include Msx2, which is expressed 258 at higher levels in a2KO PA2 than WT PA2, suggesting an increase in osteogenesis. Taken 259 260 together, these data suggest that Hoxa2 has multiple roles in regulating transcriptional 261 programs in different phases of NCC development – i.e. migration and differentiation.

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PA2 is not transformed to the molecular character of PA1 in the absence of Hoxa2 activity 263

Our bRNAseg analysis indicates that the establishment and maintenance of the 264 transcriptional signature of PA2 depend upon HOXA2 (Fig. 2B). We then examined whether the 265 266 changes observed in the transcriptional profiles of PA2 represent a general reversion to that of PA1, as predicted by the ground state model. To compare transcriptional signatures over the 267 268 timecourse between the WT and *a2KO* samples, we performed principal component analysis (PCA) to visualize similarities and differences between their profiles (Fig. 2C). WT PA1 and PA2 269 begin by clustering separately at E9.0 and E9.5, in accordance with our observation that in 270 these early stages of NCC development, gene expression differs greatly between the two (Fig. 271 272 2A, C). The differences are less pronounced at the E10.0 and E10.5 timepoints. If PA2 converts 273 to a PA1-like signature in *a2KO* mutants, in association with the transformation of PA2 derivatives to PA1, at some point in the timecourse we expected to see a2KO PA2 begin to 274 275 cluster with PA1 of WT and a2KO embryos. To our surprise, the transcriptome of a2KO PA2 276 samples at all timepoints continues to cluster with the corresponding transcriptome of WT PA2and do not at any point cluster with PA1 samples from WT or *a2KO* embryos (Fig. 2C). The 277 278 fact that this continues into E10.5, when gene activity has previously been shown to be altered 279 due to the absence of Hoxa2 (Santagati et al. 2005; Donaldson et al. 2012), suggests that the 280 clear phenotypic transformation of PA2 derivatives in *a2KO* embryos is not accompanied by a general transition in the transcriptional state of PA2 to that of PA1. Hence, the phenotypic 281 ground state is not reflected in an underlying common molecular ground state. 282

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Single-cell transcriptomics reveals heterogeneity of PA1 and PA2 during NCC differentiation

One possible explanation for the observed lack of transformation at the transcriptional 285 level is heterogeneity in the tissue collected via manual dissection of PAs (Fig. 1A & 3B). While a 286 large fraction of the cells in the PAs at the stages examined are NCCs, cells from other tissues of 287 the PAs (ectoderm, endoderm and mesoderm) may make it difficult to identify NCC-specific 288 effects using whole PAs. The concerns about tissue heterogeneity and the challenges of 289

understanding tissue-specific effects of *Hoxa2* in this context led us to pursue a higher-290 291 resolution technique to address these questions at the level of single cells. Because our 292 bRNAseg analysis and previously published data (Santagati et al. 2005; Donaldson et al. 2012; Amin et al. 2015) support a significant contribution of HOXA2 to NCC differentiation, we 293 collected PA1 and PA2 from WT and a2KO embryos at E10.5 and performed scRNAseq to 294 compare gene expression at the single-cell level (Fig. 3A). As with our bRNAseq experiments, 295 we used whole PAs to maintain cell health during collection and to avoid biasing the isolation 296 process by ensuring access to a full repertoire of cellular components of the PAs. The presence 297 298 of non-NCC tissues also allows further interrogation of cell non-autonomous effects. After 299 filtering the data for quality, we performed an integrated analysis in Seurat v3 (Stuart et al. 2019) to concurrently look at all four samples (Supplementary Fig. S2). To facilitate accessibility 300 301 to these data, we have created and made available an R ShinyApp to visualize gene expression across cells in this dataset, available at https://simrcompbio.shinyapps.io/irp_scrnaseg_2020/. 302



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Figure 3. Single-cell RNAseq data demonstrate the heterogeneity of cells in the PAs. A) Uniform
 manifold approximation and projection (UMAP) depicting a total of 67,674 cells across the four
 samples were used for downstream analysis after quality control filtering for low sequencing
 depth and doublets. B) Cross-section representing key PA structures at the onset of NCC
 differentiation (E10.5). C) Marker gene expression allows the identification of eleven distinct
 clusters common to all PAs sampled. D) UMAP visualization of marker genes for selected
 clusters.



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314 **Supplementary Figure S2.** UMAP visualization of cells from each of the four samples. Cells

colored by cluster as defined in Figure 3. A) WT PA1. B) WT PA2. C) *a2KO* PA1. D) *a2KO* PA2.

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318 Clustering the cells from all four samples results in 67,674 cells arranged in 11 clusters

319 (Fig. 3A). Based on known marker genes characteristic of tissues and cell types, we were able to

assign identities to the cells in each cluster (Table 1, Fig. 3C-D, Supplementary Table S11).

Table 1. Cluster identity of cells from E10.5 WT PA1, WT PA2, a2KO PA1, and a2KO PA2.

Cluster	Identity	Marker genes
1	Uncommitted NCC	Twist1, Barx1, Crabp1, Dlx6
2	NCC -> bone/cartilage	Twist1, Prrx1, Col9a1
3	NCC -> bone/cartilage	Hand1, Hand2, Col9a1
4	NCC -> bone/cartilage	Sox9, Col2a1, Dlx1, Dlx2, Barx1
5	Endoderm & ectoderm	Epcam, Wnt6, Fgf8, Bmp7
6	Mesoderm	Myf5, MyoD
7	Endoderm & ectoderm	Epcam, Wnt6, Fgf8, Bmp7
8	Endothelial	Cldn5, Kdr, Lmo2
9	Blood	Hbb-bs, Hba-a1, Hbb-bt
10	Blood	Hba-bh1, Hba-a1, Hbb-a2
11	Unknown	Pf4, Fcer1g, Tyrobp, C1qb, Lyz2

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At E10.5, the majority of the cells (80.2%), represented by clusters 1-4, are of neural 323 crest origin and many of them show gene expression profiles characteristic of cells that have 324 325 begun to differentiate into NCC derivatives. Clusters 2-4 correspond to NCCs differentiating into bone and cartilage, characterized by the expression of established marker genes such as Sox9, 326 327 Col2a1, Col9a1, Prrx1, Hand1, and Hand2. We also observe a population of NCCs (cluster 1) that 328 express known NCC markers, including Twist1 and Barx1, but do not express genes indicative of a commitment to a particular fate. These may represent a later-migrating population of NCCs 329 330 that have yet to initiate programs of differentiation at the time of tissue collection.

In addition to NCCs, we also observe populations of ectodermal and endodermal cells (clusters 5 & 7), as well as pharyngeal mesoderm (cluster 6) and endothelium (cluster 8). Two clusters of cells (clusters 9 & 10) are largely defined by their expression of hemoglobin genes, suggesting that they are blood cells. There are several possible sources of blood cells in this experiment that likely explain the presence of these two clusters - one source being

contamination picked up from the dish during PA isolation and the other corresponding to
blood cells developing in the PAs. Finally, there is a small cluster (11) of cells that do not
correspond to a known cell type. In summary, these transcriptional profiles of single cells within
the PAs allow us to identify populations that reflect specific tissues and cell types known to
reside within PA1 and PA2 of WT and *a2KO* embryos, including NCCs undergoing
differentiation.

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343 NCC clustering reflects spatial, temporal and cell type differences

344 The scRNAseq dataset enables us to identify individual subsets of NCCs as they commit 345 to specific fates and begin to form derivative structures. The four clusters of NCCs and NCC 346 derivatives (clusters 1-4) display underlying transcriptional differences that reflect spatial, 347 temporal and cell type differences between and within PA1 and PA2. For example, looking at 348 the distribution of proximal-distal markers, we see a clear gradient through the bone and 349 cartilage derivatives (clusters 2-4). Cluster 3 contains distal NCCs marked by expression of 350 Hand1 and Hand2, while cluster 4 corresponds to proximal NCCs marked by expression of Barx1 and Pou3f3 (Fig. 4A). This data suggests a clear proximal-distal (right-left) order is reflected in 351 352 the clustering of NCC-derived bone/cartilage. In cluster 1, the less committed NCCs, we see 353 lower levels and greater heterogeneity in the expression of these proximal-distal markers, supporting the idea that this cluster corresponds to NCCs found throughout the arch that have 354 355 not yet adopted a particular fate. Examining rostral-caudal markers in clusters 2-4, we see that 356 cells in the lower left are marked to a greater extent by Gsc, indicating a caudal bias, while cells 357 in the upper right are marked by *Lhx8*, indicative of rostral cells (Fig. 4B). Cluster 1 again shows lower levels and more heterogeneous expression of rostral-caudal markers, consistent with the 358 359 idea that these cells cluster according to their identity as less committed NCCs rather than based on a spatial location within the arches. This illustrates that clustering trends that 360 generate clusters 2-4 have captured positional information and spatial arrangements of NCCs in 361 362 the PAs.

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Figure 4. Spatial markers and Hoxa2 expression delineate subsets of NCC derivatives. A) A left-365 right distal-proximal axis emerges in NCC-derived bone/cartilage of the PAs. Hand1 and Hand2 366 expression mark distal cells, while Barx1 and Pou3f3 expression mark proximal cells. B) An 367 upper right-lower left rostral-caudal axis emerges in bone/cartilage NCC derivatives, marked by 368 Lhx8 (rostral) and Gsc (caudal) expression. C) Markers of chondrogenesis, Sox9 and Col2a1, are 369 segregated in their expression from markers of osteogenesis, Msx1 and Msx2. D) Hoxa2 370 371 expression in WT and a2KO mouse embryos at E10.5. D) Hoxa2 expression in WT PA2 (left) and 372 a2KO PA2 (right). Hoxa2 transcript is still observed in a2KO PA2 due to the nature of the a2KO allele, in which the gene is still transcribed but the transcript cannot be translated. E) 373 374 Percentage of cells in each cluster expressing Hoxa2 transcript. F) Visualization of Hoxa2

expression in WT PA2 (left) and *a2KO* PA2 (right) in scRNAseq data.

With respect to cell types, markers of chondrogenesis and osteogenesis also display a 376 377 fair amount of segregation (Fig. 4C and Supplementary Fig. S3). Sox9 and Col2a1, hallmarks of 378 chondrogenesis, show the highest levels of expression in cluster 4, with limited expression at the distal-most tip of cluster 3. We observe similar levels of expression between PA1 and PA2, 379 with a bias toward the proximal domain of the arches, consistent with previous descriptions of 380 their expression domains. In contrast, Msx1 and Msx2, regulators of osteogenesis, are largely 381 expressed in cluster 2. Expression of these genes is higher in PA1 than PA2, as expected 382 considering greater intramembranous ossification in PA1 (Minoux and Rijli 2010). Moreover, 383 *Msx1* and *Msx2* expression is biased in both arches toward the distal end of the clusters, 384 385 consistent with their endogenous patterns of expression. This segregation and lack of overlap between differentiation markers supports the observation that chondrogenesis and 386 387 osteogenesis are occurring in distinct groups of cells. In cluster 1, the expression of all of these markers is lower and less segregated, consistent with the idea that these cells have not yet 388 committed to a bone/cartilage fate. Taken together, these transcriptional profiles reveal that 389 NCC-derived bone and cartilage cells, undergoing differentiation at E10.5, show spatial and cell 390 391 differentiation biases in their clustering that capture diverse endogenous features of NCCs in 392 the PAs.



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- 395 **Supplementary Figure S3.** Visualization of chondrogenesis and osteogenesis markers across WT
- and *a2KO* PA1 and PA2. A) Chondrogenesis marker *Sox9*. B) Chondrogenesis marker *Col2a1*. C)
- 397 Osteogenesis marker *Msx1*. D) Osteogenesis marker *Msx2*.

399 *Hoxa2* expression is enriched in NCCs and NCC-derived clusters at E10.5

400 To probe the role of Hoxa2 in specifying axial identity, we next wanted to examine its 401 expression within the scRNAseq dataset. We designed the *a2KO* mutation so that the 402 homozygous mutant mice produce a *Hoxa2* transcript with a small change (7 nt) spanning the 403 initiation codon, which prevents translation. This enables us to monitor endogenous Hoxa2 transcripts in embryos of both WT and *a2KO* embryos. To validate this ability, we performed 404 405 whole mount in situ hybridization in E10.5 WT and *a2KO* embryos and found that *Hoxa2* is 406 expressed in identical domains in the hindbrain and PAs (Fig. 4D). Intriguingly, we observe higher levels of Hoxa2 transcripts in PA2 of the a2KO mutants compared to WT embryos, which 407 408 is consistent with levels observed in our bulk and single cell RNAseq data (Fig. 4F). This domain-409 specific elevation of *Hoxa2* transcript levels may arise through the input of cross-regulatory feedback circuits known to modulate Hox expression in the hindbrain and NCCs (Parker et al. 410 411 2019; Parker and Krumlauf 2020). The ability to monitor endogenous Hoxa2 transcripts in a2KO 412 mutants is important because the expression of Hoxa2 serves as a lineage tracer in this system and indicates that these cells survive even in the absence of HOXA2. Moreover, directly 413 414 comparing the properties of cells expressing *Hoxa2* in WT and *a2KO* embryos enables us to 415 identify transcriptional differences associated with *Hoxa2*-dependent activity.

416 In PA1 of WT and *a2KO* embryos, which are expected to be *Hox*-negative, fewer than 5% 417 of the cells express Hoxa2 and they are not enriched in any single cluster (Fig. 4E and Supplementary Fig. S4). The low fraction of *Hoxa2*-expressing cells observed could be due to 418 contamination during the cell collection process or a small population of *Hoxa2*-expressing cells 419 in the tissue that have not been previously described. In both WT and a2KO PA2, we see the 420 highest levels of Hoxa2 transcript in NCCs and NCC-derived clusters (1-4), with very few cells 421 expressing Hoxa2 in surface ectoderm, endoderm, mesoderm or endothelia (Fig. 4F). 422 Expression of *Hoxa2* is spread throughout clusters 2-4, with higher levels of expression in 423 424 clusters 2 and 4 than clusters 1 and 3. The differences in expression levels in NCC clusters may be related to the emerging identities and fates of these cells and the temporally dynamic roles 425 of HOXA2 on the establishment of these identities. 426



427

428 <u>Supplementary Figure S4.</u> Visualization of *Hoxa2* expression in WT PA1, WT PA2, *a2KO* PA1,
429 and *a2KO* PA2.

430

431 <u>Comparing transcriptional signatures of PA1 and PA2</u>

We sought to leverage the richness of our bRNAseq and scRNAseq datasets to understand key characteristics that define the transcriptional states of PA1 and PA2, as well as how these states are modified in the absence of *Hoxa2*. Returning to the differential expression analysis of our bRNAseq datasets, we focused on early differentiation at E10.5 and looked at genes differentially expressed between WT PA1 and WT PA2 (Supplementary Table S12). We refer to the 126 genes more highly expressed in PA1 as the 'PA1 transcriptional signature' and the 164 genes more highly expressed in PA2 as the 'PA2 transcriptional signature' (Fig. 5A-B).

We then compared the expression of genes in these signatures between WT and a2KO 439 embryos at E10.5 using the bRNAseg dataset. As expected, because Hoxa2 is not expressed in 440 441 PA1, we observe that the genes of the PA1 signature are highly expressed in both WT PA1 and a2KO PA1 (Fig. 5A). Interestingly, we do not see a noticeable increase in their expression in 442 a2KO PA2 over WT PA2, which would be expected in a reversion of the mutant tissue to a PA1-443 like ground state. Equally strikingly, we see that many of the genes of the PA2 signature are 444 445 likewise still strongly expressed in a2KO PA2 (Fig. 5B). The persistence of components of the 446 PA2 signature and lack of induction of the PA1 signature further support the idea that there has not been a conversion of the transcriptional state of PA2 in *a2KO* embryos to a PA1-like state at 447 448 this stage in association with the phenotypic transformation.



- 450 **Figure 5.** Transcriptional signatures of PA1 and PA2 at the onset of NCC differentiation.
- 451 Differential expression analysis from bRNAseq between WT PA1 and WT PA2 at E10.5
- 452 generated a 126-gene PA1 transcriptional signature and 164-gene PA2 transcriptional
- 453 signature. Visualization of these signatures across bRNAseq (A & B) and scRNAseq (C & D) E10.5
- 454 datasets across WT PA1, WT PA2, *a2KO* PA1, and *a2KO* PA2 reveals trends in transcriptional
- 455 identity. bRNAseq data (A & B) shown as Z-scores of expression across all conditions and
- 456 timepoints for each gene. scRNAseq data (C & D) shown as normalized expression of a
- 457 MetaFeature for each PA-specific signature across NCCs in each condition.

458 The expression of these transcriptional states is consistent between the bRNAseg and 459 scRNAseq datasets. Aggregate gene expression of the PA1 signature is strongest in distal NCCs 460 (cluster 3). We again observe strong expression of these genes in both WT and a2KO PA1, with 461 limited expression in WT and a2KO PA2 (Fig. 5C). Aggregate gene expression of the PA2 signature is strongest in proximal NCCs (cluster 4). This expression is maintained in PA2 even in 462 the absence of HOXA2 (Fig. 5D). Taken together, these data show that the Hoxa2-/- phenotypic 463 reversion is not matched by a corresponding molecular transformation of PA2 to a PA1-like 464 transcriptional ground state. 465

466

467 Integration of transcriptomic datasets to identify putative HOXA2 targets in NCCs

468 To search for Hoxa2-dependent genes associated with axial specification, we identified 469 genes that are differentially expressed between PA1 and PA2 in WT embryos, as well as those 470 whose expression in PA2 changed in *a2KO* mutant embryos. For candidate genes specifying PA1 471 fate, we searched for genes that are expressed at higher levels in PA1 than PA2 of WT embryos, 472 and also for those expressed at higher levels in PA2 of a2KO mutant embryos (potentially repressed by HOXA2) compared to WT. Conversely, for genes specifying PA2 fate, we identified 473 474 genes that are expressed at higher levels in PA2 than PA1 of WT embryos, and those expressed 475 at higher levels in PA2 of WT (potentially activated by HOXA2) compared to a2KO embryos. This two-step selection strategy identifies candidate genes that are downstream of Hoxa2 and play 476 477 potential roles in regulating the axial identity of NCCs.

478 To further exploit our transcriptomic datasets, we applied these criteria to both the 479 bRNAseg dataset and the NCC and NCC-derived clusters (1-4) of the scRNAseg dataset, identifying 90 PA1 specifiers and 233 PA2 specifiers (Supplementary Tables S13 & S14). Among 480 481 PA1 specifiers identified across datasets, we observe a very strong enrichment of ribosomal components and functions, including Gene Ontology (GO) terms for translation, peptide 482 biosynthetic process, and RNA processing (Supplementary Table S15). The increase in 483 expression of these components of protein synthesis in *a2KO* samples suggests they may be 484 485 negatively regulated by Hoxa2. In contrast, PA2 specifiers are strongly enriched for

486 transcription factors and transcriptional regulation, featuring GO terms such as protein binding,

487 *cis*-regulatory region binding, and anatomical structure development (Supplementary Table

488 S16). The decrease in expression levels of these genes in *a2KO* embryos indicates they may be

- 489 positively regulated by HOXA2.
- 490 **Table 2.** Putative *Hoxa2*-responsive axial specifiers identified through differential gene
- 491 expression analysis from bRNAseq and scRNAseq NCC clusters.

Hoxa2-repressed PA1 specifiers			Hoxa2-activated PA2 specifiers		
Ribosomal	Hoxa2-repressed	Novel	Hoxa2-activated	Novel	
Rpl35	Lhx6	Prrx1	Meox1	Pax9	Enho
Rpl27	Alx4	lft57	Meis1	Tbx15	Errfi1
mt-Rnr1	Rspo2	Rnd3	Meis2	Cntfr	Nr2f1
mt-Rnr2	Barx1	Peg10	Fzd4	Pou3f4	Hmx1
Npm1	Pitx1	Tle4	Zfp703	Ptn	Tshz1

492

From candidate *Hoxa2*-responsive specifiers, some of the individual genes revealed by 493 494 this comparative analysis offer insight into potential downstream pathways involved in the 495 process (Table 2 and Fig. 6A-B). Among PA1 specifiers, we see a number of ribosomal subunits and rRNA processing genes, including Rpl35, Rpl27, mt-Rnr2, and Npm1. We also identified 496 497 genes previously shown to be negatively regulated by Hoxa2, including Lhx6, Alx4, Rspo2, 498 Barx1, and Pitx1 (Bobola et al. 2003; Santagati et al. 2005; Kirilenko et al. 2011; Donaldson et al. 499 2012), validating the approach. Additionally, this analysis uncovered genes of interest that have 500 not been previously characterized for their response to Hoxa2 or their role in the specification 501 of NCC axial identity, including Tle4, Rnd3, Ift57, and Peg10. Many of the candidate PA2 502 specifiers we identified are transcription factors, including well-characterized Hoxa2 targets 503 such as Meis1, Meis2, and Meox1 (Kirilenko et al. 2011; Donaldson et al. 2012; Amin et al. 504 2015). In addition, some of the genes we identified as being dependent upon Hoxa2, are known 505 to be functionally linked with specification of NCC, including Zfp503, Zfp703, and Fzd4 506 (Donaldson et al. 2012). Furthermore, a number of novel targets emerged from this analysis,

including Ptn, Cntfr, Enho, Errfi1, 3110099E03Rik, Pou3f4, Hmx1, and Nr2f1. Our selection

508 strategy, based on analyses of bulk and scRNAseq datasets, has identified a list of candidate

509 *Hoxa2*-responsive specifiers of NCC axial identity that include many novel and previously

510 described genes involved in NCC development.

511

512 Identification of putative direct targets of HOXA2 in axial specification of NCCs

513 To explore whether any of the candidate axial specifiers of PA1 and PA2 identified from 514 our analyses may be directly regulated by *Hoxa2*, we leveraged published genome-wide binding 515 data of endogenous HOXA2 protein in mouse PA2 at E11.5 (Donaldson et al. 2012). Despite the 516 difference in developmental stages, this dataset presents an opportunity for comparison of our 517 data at E10.5 with HOXA2 binding in differentiating NCCs at E11.5. In total, we find that 24/90 518 PA1 specifiers (26.7%) and 91/233 PA2 specifiers (39.1%) have at least one nearby HOXA2 519 binding peak, suggesting possible direct regulation by HOXA2 (bold in Table 2 and Fig. 6A-B). In this comparison we observe that a number of genes that have been previously identified as 520 521 direct targets of HOXA2 show nearby binding, including putative PA1 specifiers Barx1 and Rspo2, as well as putative PA2 specifiers Fzd4, Meis1, and Meis2. However, other published 522 523 targets of *Hoxa2* may be indirect, as evidenced by a lack of nearby HOXA2 binding. These 524 include putative PA1 specifiers *Pitx1* and *Alx4*, as well as putative PA2 specifier *Meox1*.

525 In conclusion, this integration of DNA binding data with our analysis has allowed us to 526 identify candidate axial specifiers of NCC identity which are directly and indirectly downstream 527 of *Hoxa2* in patterning the PAs. Together, these data provide insight into the molecular 528 mechanisms and cell populations through which HOXA2 establishes the axial identity of PA2.

529

530 Putative axial specifiers show diverse responses to HOXA2 activity

531 To deepen our understanding of the mechanisms by which putative axial specifiers 532 uncovered through our analyses of bRNAseq and scRNAseq data impart axial identity, we 533 sought to validate our findings and explore how these genes behave across PA1 and PA2 in 534 both WT and *a2KO* embryos. We observe expression of these genes throughout the NCCs and a 535 diverse set of responses to the absence of HOXA2. Prrx1, a putative PA1 specifier, has been 536 shown to be essential for skeletogenesis, including correct specification of the middle ear (Martin et al. 1995) but had not previously been associated with Hox gene expression. We 537 observe expression of *Prrx1* in PA2 of *a2KO* embryos, but not their WT littermates (Fig. 6C). 538 Putative PA2 specifiers Nr2f1 and Tshz1 show the converse trend – reduced expression in a2KO 539 PA2 when compared to WT littermates (Fig. 6D-E). Nr2f1 has been implicated in positive 540 regulation of NCC enhancers (Rada-Iglesias et al. 2012) and the Nr2f family of nuclear receptors 541 has been shown to play a role in the specification of bone and cartilage in the zebrafish jaw 542 543 (Barske et al. 2018). Tshz1 has been shown to play a role in middle ear development (Coré et al. 2007). However, neither gene has previously been shown to interact with *Hox* genes. 544

The genes identified by the comparative analyses above show unique spatial expression 545 546 patterns and responses to HOXA2 activity, suggesting distinct roles for these genes in Hoxa2-547 mediated axial specification. The in vivo observations also help to validate the differential association of these putative targets with specific subsets of NCCs in clusters 1-4 uncovered by 548 549 our datasets (Fig. 6A-B and Supplementary Tables S13 and S14). We believe that many other 550 genes identified in our comparative analysis share similar properties and with thorough 551 functional validation will enhance our understanding of *Hox*-mediated NCC axial specification. 552 In contrast to what might be expected based on the observed phenotypic transformation in 553 Hoxa2 mutants, we conclude that there is not a singular molecular ground state in NCCs that is dramatically switched by HOXA2 to impart a PA2 fate. Rather, we see different transcriptional 554 555 profiles for PA1 and PA2 with subsets of NCCs expressing distinct sets of genes in each PA. 556 Moreover, we see that many of the putative axial specifiers identified here do not depend upon 557 HOXA2 in all NCCs but rather show marked differences in subsets of cells. This suggests that 558 subsets of cells are likely to be responsible for imparting specific cell fates and morphogenic 559 features in the PAs (Fig. 6F). This context dependent role for HOXA2 uncovers complexity in our 560 understanding of NCC axial specification and highlights an unexplored heterogeneity of the 561 system.



563 Figure 6. Putative axial specifiers show heterogeneous responses to Hoxa2 activity. A & B) 564 UpSet plots depicting putative axial specifiers from bRNAseq and scRNAseq clusters 1-4. Red 565 bars and text refer to putative direct targets of HOXA2 – those with nearby HOXA2 binding 566 (Donaldson et al. 2012). A) Hoxa2-repressed PA1 specifiers. B) Hoxa2-activated PA2 specifiers. C-E) In situ hybridization and FeaturePlots showing expression in scRNAseq data for each gene 567 in WT and a2KO embryos at E10.5, focusing on PA1 and PA2. C) PA1 specifier Prrx1 shows 568 expression in PA2 of a2KO embryos. PA2 specifiers Nr2f1 (D) and Tshz1 (E) show reduced 569 570 expression in PA2 of a2KO embryos. F) Summary illustrating that the molecular state of PA2 does not correlate with the phenotypic outcome of PA2 in *a2KO* mutants. 571

572 Discussion

573 Hox genes play a key role in craniofacial development by specifying the axial identity of 574 neural crest cells migrating into the pharyngeal arches of the developing head. In this study, we 575 have used genomic approaches to investigate the transcriptional programs that underlie the 576 role of Hoxa2 in specifying the fate of PA2 NCCs. Hoxa2 is believed to be a selector gene that 577 serves as a regulatory switch to convert a PA1 ground state into a unique PA2 identity. 578 Comparing the bulk and single cell transcriptomes of PA1 and PA2 in wildtype and Hoxa2 579 mutant embryos during NCC migration and differentiation, we find that the phenotypic transformations observed in Hoxa2 mutants is not matched by a corresponding molecular 580 581 transformation of PA2 to a PA1-like transcriptional ground state. This separation of phenotypic 582 and molecular states has significant implications for our understanding of NCC biology and craniofacial development. The scRNAseq analyses also reveal heterogenous expression patterns 583 584 in NCC populations within the PAs and the changes observed upon loss of HOXA2 suggest that 585 different subsets of NCCs may respond to HOXA2 activity in distinct manners related to their 586 ultimate fate. Our findings raise a number of interesting issues important for understanding 587 axial specification of NCCs and the role of HOXA2 in this process.

588 <u>Transcriptional analysis suggests that there is not a molecular NCC ground state</u>

589 Previous work has demonstrated the existence of a phenotypic 'ground state' among NCCs colonizing the PAs in the developing mouse embryo, which is modified by Hox gene 590 591 expression to produce axial-specific derivatives (Minoux et al. 2009). In this study, we set out to 592 understand the molecular underpinnings of this phenotypic ground state and identify the mechanisms by which Hox genes impart axial identity. To address this question, we began by 593 594 comparing WT and a2KO PA1 and PA2 transcriptional profiles throughout NCC migration and 595 differentiation (E9.0-E10.5). In WT embryos, we observe large differences in gene expression profiles between PA1 and PA2 from the earliest point in our timecourse – E9.0, when NCCs are 596 migrating into the PAs (Fig. 2A). Hence, NCCs migrating into different PAs do not appear to 597 598 emerge from the neural tube with a common or shared transcriptional signature that is 599 progressively modified to generate unique axial identities. This contrasts with what might be

600 expected from populations of cells known to maintain plasticity and be highly responsive to 601 environmental signals as they migrate at E9.0 (Trainor and Krumlauf 2000a; Trainor and 602 Krumlauf 2000b; Schilling et al. 2001). Because the cells entering the PAs have distinct gene 603 expression patterns based on their axial level of origin prior to delamination (Hindbrain Hox 604 code in Fig. 1B), and have been previously shown to be primed to respond to different environmental cues in the PAs (Trainor and Krumlauf 2001; Trainor et al. 2002), it is not 605 606 unreasonable to expect their gene expression profiles will differ during early phases of 607 migration.

In comparing the transcriptomes of PA1 and PA2 in both WT and a2KO embryos, the 608 609 existence of a molecular ground state underlying the previously described phenotypic 610 transformation of PA2 to a PA1 identity would suggest that the transcriptome of PA2 reverts to a PA1-like transcriptome in a2KO embryos, mirroring the phenotypic reversion. We did not 611 612 observe such a transformation or switch in the molecular identity of NCCs in PA2 over the course of their migration and differentiation (Fig. 2C). This argues against the existence of a 613 common PA1-like molecular ground state in NCC development that is modified by Hox 614 615 expression. The comparison of WT PA1 and a2KO PA1 also revealed a surprising number of 616 differentially expressed genes (Supplementary Fig. S5 and Supplementary Tables S17-21). This is 617 unexpected, as Hoxa2 is not thought to be expressed within the NCCs giving rise to PA1 derivates (Couly et al. 1998) and no phenotypes in PA1 structures have been observed in 618 619 Hoxa2 mutant embryos (Gendron-Maguire et al. 1993; Rijli et al. 1993). These differences in the 620 molecular character of PA1 generated by the loss of *Hoxa2* may reflect an unexpected early role 621 for the gene in modulating properties of NCCs in the hindbrain before they emigrate to colonize 622 PA1. Alternatively, the differences could be a consequence of altered signaling between PAs in 623 mutant embryos or reflect previously undetected expression of Hoxa2 in PA1 NCCs. In this 624 regard, it is worth noting that our scRNAseq data suggest the presence of a small number of 625 Hoxa2 expressing cells in PA1 (Supplementary Fig. S4). Regardless of the underlying 626 mechanism, this unexpected effect on gene expression in PA1 upon loss of HOXA2, reveals complexities in the establishment of the PA1 transcriptional signature that are not consistent 627 628 with a molecular ground state model.





630 Supplementary Figure S5. Bar plot showing genes differentially expressed in bRNAseq between
 631 WT PA1 and *a2KO* PA1 across timepoints.

632

633 In considering alternatives to a ground state model, one concern in studying a heterogeneous sample, such as the PA, using bRNAseq is the noise inherent in the system, with 634 635 gene expression changes potentially amplified or lost for our tissue of interest (NCCs) because of reads from another tissue. It is possible that a small set of cells, or a small set of genes are 636 responsible for the phenotypic transformation observed in *a2KO* PA2, which would not shift the 637 general transcriptome of the entire PA. Consistent with this idea, previous work indicates that 638 different cells may respond to Hoxa2 expression in different ways - with distinct requirements 639 for levels and timing of Hoxa2 expression within NCCs (Ohnemus et al. 2001; Santagati et al. 640 2005). 641

642

644 <u>scRNAseq reveals heterogeneity of differentiating NCC populations in the mouse embryo</u>

In recent years, scRNAseq experiments have been used to shed light on the dynamics of 645 embryonic development, from whole-embryo studies (Cao et al. 2019; Soldatov et al. 2019) to 646 647 in-depth characterization of particular developmental processes (Xu et al. 2019; Tambalo et al. 2020). Here, we took advantage of this approach to explore the heterogeneity of the PAs and 648 characterize the role of HOXA2 in imparting PA2 NCC identity at single-cell resolution. We 649 650 focused our analysis on E10.5, the start of NCC differentiation, due to the strong effects of HOXA2 observed in our bRNAseq analysis and previous work characterizing HOXA2 activity at 651 this timepoint (Santagati et al. 2005; Donaldson et al. 2012; Amin et al. 2015). We generated 652 653 transcriptional profiles for 67,674 cells across our four samples (PA1 and PA2 from WT and 654 a2KO embryos), which aligned into 11 clusters, four of which correspond to NCCs. We focused primarily on uncommitted NCCs (cluster 1) and NCC-derived bone and cartilage (clusters 2-4), 655 656 which together comprise 80.2% of the total cells isolated.

657 Our data show strong patterns in the expression of both proximal-distal and rostralcaudal markers in clusters 2-4 consistent with previously published observations (Xu et al. 658 2019). This suggests that the clustering, a reflection of transcriptional similarity between cells, 659 is informed by the location of NCCs within the PA (Fig. 4A-B). Moreover, the expression of 660 chondrogenic markers Sox9 and Col2a1 is similar between WT PA1 and PA2, while osteogenic 661 662 markers Msx1 and Msx2 are enriched in PA1 (Fig. 4C), consistent with the formation of cartilage in both tissues but bone primarily in PA1 (Dash and Trainor 2020). This trend is consistent in 663 a2KO embryos (Supplementary Fig. S3), implying that intramembranous ossification is not 664 increased in a2KO PA2 at this point in development, although it likely is at a later point as 665 duplicate PA1 bone structures are being formed in the arch. 666

Consistent with previous observations, we see *Hoxa2* expression throughout PA2,
expressed primarily in NCCs and NCC-derived clusters (Fig. 4D-F). It is important to note that
because of the structure of the *a2KO* mutant allele, *Hoxa2* transcript is produced in the
homozygous null embryos, but not translated. This serves as a lineage tracer for *Hoxa2*expressing cells and shows they are not lost in *a2KO* embryos, demonstrating that HOXA2 is not

required for their survival. Interestingly, we do not observe strict segregation of *Hoxa2*expressing cells and *Sox9*-expressing cells (Kanzler et al. 1998). This is potentially due to the
collection of these cells early in the differentiation process, a pattern that is refined over the
course of developmental time. The higher levels of *Hoxa2* expression at the proximal end of the
NCC-derived bone/cartilage clusters are also consistent with previous observations that the
proximo-caudal portions of PA2 require higher levels of HOXA2 for proper skeletal development
(Ohnemus et al. 2001).

679

Behavior of PA-specific transcriptional signatures in WT and *a2KO* embryos indicates lack of a molecular NCC ground state

682 Based on bRNAseq transcriptomes of PA1 and PA2 in WT embryos at E10.5, we utilized 683 differential expression analysis to identify a set of genes enriched in PA1, referred to as the PA1 684 transcriptional signature, and a set of genes enriched in PA2, referred to as the PA2 transcriptional signature. By establishing a reference set of genes characteristic of each PA in 685 WT embryos, we provided a framework for comparison to determine how tissue identity 686 changes in the absence of HOXA2. We also used this as a reference to shed light on the 687 molecular mechanisms of HOXA2 activity and characterize the molecular underpinnings of the 688 Hox-free PA1 phenotypic ground state and how it is altered in $Hoxa2^{-/-}$ embryos. 689

Based on the phenotypic transformation of PA2 NCC derivatives to duplicate PA1 690 691 structures in the absence of HOXA2 (Minoux et al. 2009), we expect an accompanying 692 transformation of the a2KO PA2 transcriptome to a PA1-like molecular ground state. However, the PA1 and PA2 signatures in both our bRNAseq and scRNAseq datasets revealed a retention 693 of the general PA2 signature and a lack of upregulation of PA1 signature genes in PA2 of *a2KO*, 694 695 embryos (Fig. 5). These data strongly suggest the absence of a true molecular NCC ground state that is globally altered by *Hoxa2* expression in PA2 NCCs. The resolution afforded by scRNAseq 696 in this context enables us to identify transcriptional changes regardless of potential tissue 697 heterogeneity and noise and illustrates its value in evaluating models surrounding the 698 699 molecular basis of developmental and evolutionary phenotypes.

700 Our observations are consistent with a published comparison of mouse NCCs at E10.5 701 from WT PA1, WT PA2, and PA1 with ectopic *Hoxa2* expression (Minoux et al. 2017). In that 702 study, Hoxa2 expression alters the PA1 transcriptional profile, but Hoxa2-expressing PA1 NCCs do not cluster with WT PA2 cells, as would be expected if HOXA2 was sufficient to drive a 703 704 molecular transformation corresponding to the phenotypic one (Kitazawa et al. 2015). The 705 effects of HOXA2 in PA2 specification appear to be more subtle than expected, giving a glimpse into what appears to be a complex regulatory picture consisting of cross-regulation with other 706 Hox genes (Tümpel et al. 2007), cofactors such as Pbx and Meis (Amin et al. 2015; Parker et al. 707 2019), axial signaling programs such as FGF (Trainor et al. 2002), and epigenetic regulation 708 709 (Minoux et al. 2017). Although the effect of *Hoxa2* knockout (Fig. 2C & Fig. 5) or overexpression (Minoux et al. 2017) on the average transcriptome of NCCs is limited in scope, it nevertheless 710 711 results in a dramatic phenotypic transformation. Our scRNAseq dataset reveals that subsets of a2KO PA2 NCCs do show reduction in expression of PA2 signature genes and upregulation of 712 PA1 signature genes, suggesting that a molecular transformation may be occurring on a limited 713 714 scale. This prompted us to further investigate the heterogeneity of NCCs and their response to HOXA2. 715

716

717 HOXA2 imparts PA2 identity in subsets of NCCs

Several studies have now looked at transcriptional differences between PA1 and PA2 in 718 719 mouse embryos at various stages, seeking to identify key characteristics and components in 720 establishment of axial identity (Brunskill et al. 2014; Lumb et al. 2017; Minoux et al. 2017). Other studies have identified a small set of genes regulated by Hoxa2 within NCCs (Kanzler et 721 al. 1998; Santagati et al. 2005; Kirilenko et al. 2011; Donaldson et al. 2012; Minoux et al. 2013). 722 Despite these extensive efforts and the known role of HOXA2 in specifying NCC axial identity, 723 the link between HOXA2 activity and PA2 fate has not been well characterized at this point. 724 Here, we identified *Hoxa2*-responsive axial specifiers for both PA1 and PA2. In addition to 725 726 finding a number of novel candidates, several of the genes we identified have been previously 727 shown to have an axial-specific bias and others to respond to HOXA2 activity. Our analyses

describing putative *Hoxa2*-responsive axial specifiers establish new regulatory links between
 these genes and the regulatory network governing the specification of NCC identity. This
 provides functional and mechanistic insights into the role of HOXA2 in the establishment of NCC
 axial identity.

732 PA1 specifiers are strongly enriched for translation and related processes (Supplementary Table S15). There is increasing evidence from studies on craniofacial 733 734 abnormalities in humans and vertebrate model systems that it is important to maintain the proper balance of ribosome biogenesis in cranial NCCs (Dixon et al. 2006; Jones et al. 2008; 735 Weaver et al. 2015; Terrazas et al. 2017; Watt et al. 2018). Moreover, individual genes such as 736 737 Npm1 that emerge as putative HOXA2-repressed PA1 specifiers have been implicated in processes including epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition, such as that observed when NCCs 738 delaminate from the neural tube to begin migration (Prakash et al. 2019). In contrast, PA2 739 specifiers are largely enriched for developmental processes and morphogenesis, with many of 740 741 the identified genes acting as transcription factors (Supplementary Table S16). It is encouraging that we identify genes previously implicated in NCC-related processes, such as Nr2f1 (Fig. 6D), 742 743 as well as genes shown to play a role in middle ear development, such as Tshz1 (Fig. 6E), which 744 have not previously been connected to Hox gene activity. These connections enable us to 745 identify specific developmental processes through which Hoxa2 likely acts to impart PA2 746 identity.

The differences observed between specifiers of PA1 and PA2 likely speak to the processes occurring at different axial levels at this time. The enrichment for ribosomal components in PA1 may suggest higher levels of proliferation in this tissue, a hypothesis supported by the fact that the skeletal structures derived from PA1 NCCs are significantly larger than those in PA2, thus requiring a greater expansion of the NCC population. Moreover, there may be differences in developmental timing between PA1 and PA2, with PA1 forming earlier than PA2, resulting in the gene expression differences observed in our data.

The advent of genomic tools to address questions in developmental biology marks a shift in our approach to characterizing phenotypes and the activity of individual genes. These

data provide opportunities to explore the correlation, or lack thereof, between phenotypic 756 757 effects and the underlying transcriptional differences that lead to them. Studies are beginning 758 to emerge that draw a distinction between morphological and molecular phenotypes (Dooley et al. 2019). Likewise, here we show that the striking phenotypic ground state of mouse NCCs is 759 nonetheless not accompanied by a corresponding molecular ground state (Fig. 6F). In light of 760 the differences we observe in transcriptional regulation between subsets of NCCs, it would be 761 invaluable to determine whether there are corresponding changes in HOXA2 occupancy within 762 the genome that correlate with them. Though we integrated a previously published dataset of 763 HOXA2 binding in PA2 (Donaldson et al. 2012), the rapid development of low-input, high-764 765 resolution methods to assay transcription factor binding such as Cut & Run (Hainer and Fazzio 2019) and ChIPmentation (Schmidl et al. 2015) will likely prove a meaningful step toward 766 767 identifying such correlations at higher resolution and with more confidence. Furthermore, recent data show strong epigenetic differences between craniofacial tissues across axial levels 768 (Minoux et al. 2017). The relationships between these *cis*-regulatory features, HOXA2 binding, 769 and the transcriptional status of subsets of NCCs will provide a wealth of data toward 770 understanding axial-specific processes. 771

773 Materials and Methods

774 Mouse husbandry and embryo collection

- All mouse work was performed in the Laboratory Animal Services Facility at the Stowers
- 776 Institute for Medical Research under IACUC approved protocols RK-2016-0164 and RK-2019-
- 777 094. Euthanasia procedures were performed in accordance with recommendations by the
- American Veterinary Medical Association. All mice used in this study were maintained on a
- 779 CBA/Ca/J x C57BL/10 background.
- 780

781 <u>CRISPR-Cas9 mutation to create Hoxa2-ATG-Xhol mouse line</u>

A CRISPR-Cas9 gene editing approach was developed to mutate a 7 bp region including part of

the start codon of HOXA2 (5'-AGGCCATG-3'), by deleting 2 bp and converting it into an XhoI site

(5'-CTCGA**G-3'**) – hereafter referred to as the *a2KO* allele. A chimeric guide RNA was designed

to target the start codon of HOXA2, consisting of the oligos 5'-

786 CACCGCCGAGGGGGCTCCAAGGAGA-3' and 5'-AAACTCTCCTTGGAGCCCCCTCGGC-3', which were

- annealed and ligated into the pX330 plasmid (Cong et al. 2013). Together with a homology oligo(5'-
- 789 CTTGCCCCCCAAAGCCCCTCCAAAAGAGGGAACTTTTCCTCCGAGGGGGGCTCCAAGGAGA**CTCGAG**AA

- 791 plasmid was microinjected into one-cell CBA/Ca/J x C57BL/10 embryos collected from
- superovulated donor mice. The next day, surviving two-cell embryos were transferred into
- 793 pseudopregnant CBA/Ca/J x C57BL/10 females and genotyped upon weaning. Founders were
- 794 maintained on this background.
- 795

796 Bulk RNAseq preparation and sequencing

- 797 Embryos were collected from heterozygous *a2KO* matings at approximately E9.0, E9.5, E10.0,
- and E10.5, with the day of identification of a vaginal plug defined as E0.5. The number of somite

pairs were counted to more accurately stage each embryo and their yolk sacs used to 799 800 determine genotype. To minimize variation in staging between individual embryos, we 801 narrowly defined the number of somites appropriate for each stage (E9.0: 16-17 somites, E9.5: 22-24 somites, E10.0: 28-29 somites, E10.5: 35-36 somites) and only used wildtype (WT) or 802 803 homozygous a2KO mutant embryos falling within the respective ranges. PA1 and PA2 were individually isolated from each embryo by manual dissection in ice-cold phosphate-buffered 804 saline (PBS), flash frozen in liquid nitrogen, and then stored at -80 °C. Following genotyping, 805 Ambion TRIzol (catalog number 15596026) was added to each frozen sample, vortexed to 806 807 homogenize, and the Zymo Research Direct-zol mini-prep kit (catalog number R2052) with on-808 column DNase treatment was used to extract RNA. This was performed for PA1 and PA2 of individual embryos, resulting in 3-5 WT and $\alpha 2KO$ biological replicates at each developmental 809 timepoint. 810

RNA quantification and quality control were performed using an Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer. All
samples had RIN scores >9.0. The Takara Clontech SMART-seq v4 ultra low input RNA kit
(catalog number 634891), Illumina Nextera XT Library prep kit (catalog number FC-131-1096),
and Illumina Nextera XT Index kit (catalog number FC-131-2001) were used for polyA-selected
cDNA preparation and library construction. Library quality was checked using an Agilent 2100
Bioanalyzer, then pooled and loaded onto five lanes of an Illumina HiSeq flow cell to sequence
50 bp single reads for a total of 20-30X genomic coverage.

818

819 Bulk RNAseq data analysis

Reads were aligned to mm10 (Ensembl 91) using Tophat 2.1.1 (Kim et al. 2013). Downstream
analysis was performed in R 3.3.2 using EdgeR quasi-likelihood pipeline 1.4.1 (Chen et al. 2016)
for differential expression analysis with default settings. Differentially expressed genes between
samples were called with adjusted p < 0.05.

824

826 <u>Single-cell RNAseq preparation and sequencing</u>

827 Homozygous a2KO mutant embryos do not display obvious morphological phenotypes at E10.5 828 that would enable them to be distinguishable from wildtype or heterozygous littermates. 829 Hence, it was necessary to develop a rapid genotyping method to identify wildtype and 830 homozygous *a2KO* embryos which is also compatible with subsequent processing steps for scRNAseq experiments. Mouse embryos were collected with their extra-embryonic membranes 831 832 intact at E10.5 from a2KO heterozygous matings and kept in Tyrode's Solution (8.0g NaCl, 0.2g 833 KCl, 0.2g CaCl₂, 0.21g MgCl₂*6H2O, 0.57g NaH₂PO₄*H₂O, 1.0g glucose, 1.0g NaHCO₃ per 1L DEPC treated H_2O , pH 7.4) at room temperature until ready to proceed with dissections of the 834 835 PAs. Approximately 1 mm² piece of the yolk sac was collected for each embryo and genotyped 836 using ThermoFisher Phire Tissue Direct PCR Master Mix Kit (catalog number F170S) to rapidly 837 identify homozygous a2KO embryos. WT embryos were collected at E10.5 from CBA/Ca/J x C57BL/10 matings. 838

PAs from homozygous a2KO (n = 5) and WT (n = 6) embryos were manually dissected in ice-cold 839 DEPC-treated phosphate-buffered saline (DPBS, Sigma catalog number D8537). Individual PAs 840 were pooled into four samples (WT PA1, WT PA2, a2KO PA1, a2KO PA2) and pooled samples 841 dissociated by incubation in 0.25% Trypsin + EDTA (Gibco catalog number 25200-056) for 3 842 minutes with two rounds of manual disruption by pipetting. The reaction was stopped with 843 844 fetal bovine serum and samples were washed two times in DPBS. Single-cell suspensions were loaded on a Nexelome Cellometer Auto T4 to assess cell count and viability. All samples had 845 >90% viability and were loaded on a 10X Chromium Single Cell Controller. Libraries were 846 prepared using the Chromium Single Cell 3' Reagents Kits v3 (CG000183 Rev A). Library quality 847 was checked on an Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer, then pooled and loaded onto two Illumina 848 NovaSeg S1 flow cells to sequence paired reads consisting of: 28 bp cell barcode & UMI, 8 bp i7 849 index, and 91 bp read. All samples were sequenced to a read depth >60,000 reads/cell. 850

851

852

854 <u>Single-cell RNAseq data analysis</u>

855 Reads were aligned to mm10 (Ensembl 98) using CellRanger 3.0.0. Downstream analysis was 856 performed in R 3.5.2 using Seurat 3.1.0 (Butler et al. 2018; Stuart et al. 2019). Cells were 857 removed from analysis if they had mitochondrial percentage greater than 5% or fewer than 200 genes expressed. DoubletFinder 2.0 (McGinnis et al. 2019) was used to remove ~20% of cells 858 identified as doublets (based on extrapolation of 10X Chromium reported multiplets for a given 859 number of recovered cells). After this final filtering step, a total of 67,674 cells remained for 860 861 downstream analysis. Further analysis was performed on these cells using the standard Seurat Integration pipeline, with 2000 variable features and 40 principal components used for uniform 862 863 manifold approximation and projection (UMAP) and clustering (at resolution = 0.5). Cluster 864 identity was assigned based on marker genes identified using FindAllMarkers() function with a minimum of 10% of cells expressing a gene and log fold change greater than 0.25, using marker 865 866 genes annotated in (Cao et al. 2019). Exploration of cell spatial distribution was performed via 867 analysis of genes described in (Xu et al. 2019). To identify genes differentially expressed 868 between samples, the FindMarkers() function was used on a cluster-by-cluster basis to make 869 pairwise comparisons between samples, with a minimum of 10% of cells expressing a gene and 870 log fold change greater than 0.10.

871

872 Gene ontology and pathway analysis

For lists of genes of interest, gProfiler g:GOSt functional enrichment analysis was used to obtain
GO, KEGG, and other functional characterization in R3.6.1 using gprofiler2 version 0.1.9 with a
statistical significance threshold of p < 0.05. Further information on gProfiler methodology is
described in (Raudvere et al. 2019).

877

878 In situ hybridization

879 Mouse embryos homozygous for the *a2KO* mutation and WT littermates were collected at

E10.5 and fixed overnight in 4% paraformaldehyde in PBS. Probe generation and hybridization

- performed as previously described (Ariza-McNaughton and Krumlauf 2002). Primers used to
- generate probes for *Hoxa2* targets from cDNA as follows:

Gene	Forward Primer	Reverse Primer
Prrx1	CGGCACAAGCAGACGAAAG	AGTAGCCATGGCGCTGTACG
Nr2f1	AACGGGGATCCTCTCAATGG	TGAAACTGCTCCCTGACAGC
Tshz1	GTAGAGAAGGTCACGGGCAA	GCCCGTGAACTTGGAGATG

- 883 Each gene was assayed in 4-10 embryos of each genotype and only those with consistent
- 884 patterns were considered significant. Z-stack images were acquired with a Leica MZ16
- steromicroscope and subsequently processed with Helicon Focus 6.8.0 software (Helicon Soft
- Ltd.) to create a projection of all imagines into a single high-focus photo.
- 887

888 Skeletal staining

- 889 Mouse embryos heterozygous or homozygous for the *a2KO* allele along with WT littermates
- were collected at E18.5, euthanized in PBS on ice for 1 hour, and then fixed and stored in ice
- cold 100% ethanol. Staining with Alcian Blue and Alizarin Red was performed as previously
- described (Rigueur and Lyons 2014).

893

894 Data Availability

- 895 The bulk and single-cell RNAseq data generated as part of this manuscript have been deposited
- into the National Center for Biotechnology Information Gene Expression Omnibus (NCBI GEO)
- 897 database accession number GSE164111. Files generated during analysis have been included
- as Supplementary Tables where deemed appropriate. Original data underlying this manuscript
- 899 can be accessed from the Stowers Original Data Repository at
- 900 <u>http://www.stowers.org/research/publications/libpb-1598</u>.

901 Supplementary Table Legends

- Table S1. Summary table of genes differentially expressed in bRNAseq data between WT PA1
- 903 and WT PA2 across timepoints.
- 904 <u>Table S2.</u> Results of differential expression analysis from bRNAseq data between WT PA1 and
- 905 WT PA2 at E9.0 including adjusted p-value and log(fold change).
- 906 <u>Table S3.</u> Results of differential expression analysis from bRNAseq data between WT PA1 and
- 907 WT PA2 at E9.5 including adjusted p-value and log(fold change).
- 908 <u>Table S4.</u> Results of differential expression analysis from bRNAseq data between WT PA1 and
- 909 WT PA2 at E10.0 including adjusted p-value and log(fold change).
- 910 <u>Table S5.</u> Results of differential expression analysis from bRNAseq data between WT PA1 and
- 911 WT PA2 at E10.5 including adjusted p-value and log(fold change).
- 912 <u>Table S6.</u> Summary table of genes differentially expressed in bRNAseq data between WT PA2
- 913 and *a2KO* PA2 across timepoints.
- <u>1914</u> <u>Table S7.</u> Results of differential expression analysis from bRNAseq data between WT PA2 and
- 915 *a2KO* PA2 at E9.0 including adjusted p-value and log(fold change).
- 916 <u>Table S8.</u> Results of differential expression analysis from bRNAseq data between WT PA2 and
- 917 *a2KO* PA2 at E9.5 including adjusted p-value and log(fold change).
- 918 <u>Table S9.</u> Results of differential expression analysis from bRNAseq data between WT PA2 and
- 919 *a2KO* PA2 at E10.0 including adjusted p-value and log(fold change).
- 920 <u>Table S10.</u> Results of differential expression analysis from bRNAseq data between WT PA2 and
- 921 *a2KO* PA2 at E10.5 including adjusted p-value and log(fold change).
- <u>Table S11.</u> Marker genes for all clusters in scRNAseq dataset at E10.5.
- 923 <u>Table S12.</u> Genes corresponding to PA1 and PA2 transcriptional signatures based on WT PA1 vs.
- 924 WT PA2 differential expression analysis.

- 925 <u>Table S13.</u> Putative Hoxa2-repressed PA1 specifiers. Genes identified from bRNAseq, as well as
- 926 scRNAseq clusters 1-4. For each gene, 1 corresponds to being statistically significant in a given
- 927 dataset, 0 indicates not significant. In the last column, B indicates it is the nearest gene to a
- 928 HOXA2 binding site from (Donaldson et al. 2012), N indicates that it is not.
- 929 <u>Table S14.</u> Putative *Hoxa2*-activated PA2 specifiers. Genes identified from bRNAseq, as well as
- 930 scRNAseq clusters 1-4. For each gene, 1 corresponds to being statistically significant in a given
- 931 dataset, 0 indicates not significant. In the last column, B indicates it is the nearest gene to a
- HOXA2 binding site from (Donaldson et al. 2012), N indicates that it is not.
- 933 <u>Table S15.</u> GO terms for putative *Hoxa2*-repressed PA1 specifiers.
- 934 <u>Table S16.</u> GO terms for putative *Hoxa2*-activated PA2 specifiers.
- <u>Table S17.</u> Summary table of genes differentially expressed in bRNAseq data between WT PA1
 and *a2KO* PA1 across timepoints.
- - <u>Table S18.</u> Results of differential expression analysis from bRNAseq data between WT PA1 and
 a2KO PA1 at E9.0 including adjusted p-value and log(fold change).
 - 939 <u>Table S19.</u> Results of differential expression analysis from bRNAseq data between WT PA1 and
 - 940 *a2KO* PA1 at E9.5 including adjusted p-value and log(fold change).
 - 941 <u>Table S20.</u> Results of differential expression analysis from bRNAseq data between WT PA1 and
 - 942 *a2KO* PA1 at E10.0 including adjusted p-value and log(fold change).
 - 943 <u>Table S21.</u> Results of differential expression analysis from bRNAseq data between WT PA1 and
 - 944 *a2KO* PA1 at E10.5 including adjusted p-value and log(fold change).

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969

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