

Title: A cell atlas of human thymic development defines T cell repertoire formation

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Abstract: The thymus provides a nurturing environment for the differentiation and selection of T cells, a process orchestrated by their interaction with multiple thymic cell types. We used single-cell RNA-sequencing (scRNA-seq) to create a cell census of the human thymus across the lifespan and to reconstruct T-cell differentiation trajectories and T-cell receptor (TCR) recombination kinetics. Using this approach, we identified and located *in situ* CD8 $\alpha\alpha^+$ T-cell populations, thymic fibroblast subtypes and activated dendritic cell (aDC) states. In addition, we reveal a bias in TCR recombination and selection, which is attributed to genomic position and the kinetics of lineage commitment. Taken together, our data provide a comprehensive atlas of the human thymus across the lifespan with new insights into human T-cell development.

One Sentence Summary: We profiled human thymus using single cell RNA-sequencing across development and aging, revealing the diversity and dynamics of human thymic cell types and the kinetics of T-cell receptor recombination.

Main Text:

Introduction

The thymus plays an essential role in the establishment of adaptive immunity and central tolerance as it mediates the maturation and selection of T cells. This organ degenerates early during life and the resulting reduction in T-cell output has been linked to age-related incidence of cancer, infection and autoimmunity (1, 2). T-cell precursors from fetal liver or bone marrow migrate into the thymus, where they differentiate into diverse types of mature T cells (3, 4). The thymic microenvironment cooperatively supports T-cell differentiation (5, 6). While thymic epithelial cells (TECs) provide critical cues to promote T-cell fate (7), other cell types are also involved in this process, such as dendritic cells (DC) that undertake antigen presentation, and mesenchymal cells, which support TEC differentiation and maintenance (8–11). Seminal experiments in animal models have provided major insights into the function and cellular composition of the thymus (12, 13). More recently, scRNA-seq has revealed new aspects of thymus organogenesis and new types of thymic epithelial cells (TECs) in mouse (14–16). However, the human organ matures in a mode and tempo that is unique to our species (17–19), calling for a comprehensive genome-wide study for human thymus.

T-cell development involves a parallel process of staged T-cell lymphocyte differentiation accompanied by acquisition of a diverse TCR repertoire for antigen recognition (20). This is achieved by the genomic recombination process that selects one V, (D) and J segments from the array of gene segments. Interestingly, this VDJ gene recombination can preferentially include certain gene segments, leading to the skewing of the repertoire (21–23). To date, most of our knowledge of VDJ recombination and repertoire biases, has come from animal models and human peripheral blood analysis, with little comprehensive data on the human thymic TCR repertoire (22, 24, 25).

Here, we applied scRNA-seq to generate a comprehensive transcriptomic profile of the diverse cell populations present in embryonic, fetal, paediatric and adult stages of the human

thymus and we combined this with detailed TCR repertoire analysis to reconstruct the T-cell differentiation process.

Cellular composition of the human thymus across life

We performed scRNA-seq on 15 fetal thymi beginning from 7 post-conception weeks (PCW), when the thymic rudiment can be dissected, to 17 PCW, when thymic development is completed (**Fig. 1, A and B**). We also analysed 9 postnatal samples, covering the entire period of active thymic function. Isolated single cells were sorted based on CD45, CD3 or EPCAM expression to sample thymocytes and enrich for non-thymocytes, prior to single-cell transcriptomic analysis coupled with TCR $\alpha\beta$ profiling. After quality control including doublet removal, we obtained a total of 138,397 cells from the developing thymus and 117,504 cells from postnatal thymus (**Table S1**). If available, other relevant organs were collected from the same donor. We performed batch correction using the BBKNN algorithm combined with linear regression (**fig. S1**) (26).

We have annotated cell clusters into more than 40 different cell types or cell states (**Fig. 1, C and D and Table S2, 3**), which can be clearly identified by the expression of specific marker genes (**fig. S2 and Table S4**). Differentiating T cells are well represented in the dataset, including double negative (DN), double positive (DP), CD4⁺ single positive (CD4⁺T), CD8⁺ single positive (CD8⁺T), FOXP3⁺ regulatory (Treg), CD8 $\alpha\alpha$ ⁺ and $\gamma\delta$ T cells. We also identified other immune cells including B cells, NK cells, innate lymphoid cells (ILCs), macrophages, monocytes and dendritic cells (DCs).

Our dataset also featured diverse non-immune cell types, which constitute the thymic microenvironment. We further classified them into subtypes including thymic epithelial cells (TECs), fibroblasts, vascular smooth muscle cells (VSMCs), endothelial cells and lymphatic endothelial cells (**Fig. 1E**). Thymic fibroblasts were further divided into two subtypes, neither of which has been previously described: Fibroblast type 1 (Fb1) cells (*COLEC11*, *C7*, *GDF10*) and Fibroblast type 2 (Fb2) cells (*PII6*, *FNI*, *FBNI*) (**Fig. 1E**). Fb1 cells uniquely express *COLEC11*, which plays an important role in innate immunity (27) and *ALDH1A2*, an enzyme responsible for the production of retinoic acid, which regulates epithelial growth (28). In contrast, extracellular matrix (ECM) genes and Semaphorins which regulate vascular development (29), are specifically detected in Fb2 (**fig. S3A**). To explore the localisation pattern of these fibroblast subtypes, we performed *in situ* smFISH targeting Fb1 and Fb2 markers (*COLEC11* and *FBNI*) together with general fibroblast (*PDGFRA*), endothelial (*CDH5*) and VSMC (*ACTA2*) markers (**Fig. 1F**). The results show that Fb1 cells were peri-lobular, while Fb2 cells were interlobular, often associated with large blood vessels lined with VSMCs, consistent with their transcriptomic profile of genes regulating vascular development. We confirmed the expression of *GDF10* and *ALDH1A2* localised in the peri-lobular area (**Fig. 1F**).

In addition to fibroblasts, we also identified subpopulations of human TECs (**Fig. 1E and fig. S4**). To maximise the coverage of epithelial cells, we enriched for EPCAM positive cells across several time points (**Fig. 1B**). To annotate human TECs, we compared our human dataset to the published mouse TEC dataset (15) (**figs. S5, S6, and S7**). We were able to identify conserved TEC populations across species, including *PSMB11*-positive cTECs, *KRT14*-positive mTEC(I), *AIRE*-expressing mTEC(II), and *KRT1*-expressing mTEC(III) (**Figs. 1E and S4**). Interestingly, cTECs were more abundant during early development (7-8 PCW), and an intermediate population (mcTEC), which are marked by expression of *DLK2*, was evident in late

fetal and paediatric human thymi (**fig. S4B**). We identified a very rare population of mTEC(IV) cells in humans, which are similar to tuft-like mTEC(IV) cells described in the mouse thymus. However, *DCLK1* or *POU2F3*, the markers used to define mTEC(IV) cells in the mouse (15, 16), were enriched but not specific to this population in human (**figs. S4B, S5 and S6**). We noted two EPCAM⁺ cell types which are specific to human: *MYOD1* and *MYOG*-expressing myoid cells (TEC(myo)s), and *NEUROD1*, *NEUROG1*, *CHGA*-expressing TEC(neuro)s (**Fig. 1E and figs. S6 and S7**). Notably, *CHRNA1*, which has been associated with the autoimmune disease myasthenia gravis (30), was specifically expressed by both of these cell types in addition to mTEC(II) cells (**Fig. 1E**), expanding the candidate cell types which may be involved in tolerance induction in myasthenia gravis (31, 32). Supporting this possibility, we detected *MYOD1* and *NEUROG1* expressing cells preferentially located in thymic medulla (**Fig. 1F**).

Lastly, we analysed the expression pattern of genes known to cause congenital T-cell immunodeficiencies to provide insight into when and where these rare disease genes may play a role during thymic development (**fig. S8**).

Coordinated development of thymic stroma and T cells

Next, we investigated the dynamics of the different thymic cell types across development (**Fig. 1G**). In the early fetal samples (7-8 PCW), the lymphoid compartment contained NK cells, $\gamma\delta$ T cells and ILC3s, with very few differentiating $\alpha\beta$ T cells (**Fig. 1G**). Differentiating T cells are mostly found at DN stage in 7 PCW sample, which gradually progress through DP to SP stages thereafter, reaching equilibrium at around 12 PCW (**Fig. 1G**). Conversely, the proportion of innate lymphocytes decreased (**Fig. 1G**).

Of note, the adult sample showed morphological evidence of thymic degeneration (**fig. S9**). Comparison with spleen and lymph nodes taken from the same donor showed the presence of terminally differentiated T cells in the thymus, suggesting re-entry into thymus or contamination with circulating cells (**Fig. 1G and fig. S10**). Notably, cytotoxic CD4⁺T lymphocytes (CD4⁺CTL) expressing *IL10*, perforin and granzymes were enriched in the degenerated thymus sample (33) (**fig. S10C**). The trend of increased memory T cells and B cells are also confirmed in other samples (**Fig. 1G**, p-value: 9.3×10^{-6} for memory T cells and 0.0096 for memory B cells).

The trend in T cell development was mirrored by corresponding changes in thymic stromal cells. We observed temporal changes in TEC populations starting from enriched cTECs towards the balanced representation of cTECs and mTECs (**Fig. 1G**, p-value: 0.0054), aligned with the onset of T-cell maturation. This supports the notion of ‘thymic crosstalk’ in which epithelial cells and mature T cells interact synergistically to support their mutual differentiation (34).

Moreover, fibroblast composition also changed during development. The Fb1 population mentioned in the previous section dominated early development, with similar numbers of Fb1 and Fb2 cells observed at later developmental timepoints (p-value: 0.014), and a reduction in the number of cycling cells (**Fig. 1G**). This is also confirmed by thymic fibroblast explant cultures, which showed an increase in Fb2 cell marker PI16 by FACS analysis (**fig. S3, B and C**).

Finally, other immune cells also change dynamically over gestation and in postnatal life. Macrophages were abundant during early gestation, while DCs increased throughout development (**Fig. 1G**). DC1 was dominant after 12 PCW, and pDCs increased in frequency in postnatal life (p-values: 2.7×10^{-8} for macrophage, 1.05×10^{-3} for DC1, 4.86×10^{-5} for DC2)

To further investigate the factors mediating the coordinated development of thymic stroma and T cells, we systematically investigated cellular interactions using our public database CellPhoneDB.org (35) to predict the ligand-receptor pairs specifically expressed across them (**Table S5**). Among the predicted interactions, we checked the expression pattern of signaling factors known to be involved in thymic development across different cell types and developmental stages (**fig. S11**) (36–41). Lymphotoxin signaling (*LTB:LTBR*) comes from diverse immune cells and is received by most of the stromal cell states. In contrast, RANKL-RANK (*TNFRSF11:TNFRSF11A*) signaling is confined between ILC3 and mTEC(II) cells/lymphatic endothelial cells. FGF signaling (*FGF7:FGFR2*) comes from Fibroblasts signaling to TECs, with decreasing expression of *FGFR2* in adult thymus. For Notch signaling, while *NOTCH1* is the the main receptor expressed in ETPs, diverse Notch ligands are expressed by different cell types: cTECs and endothelial cells expressed both *JAG2* and *DLL4*, and other TECs broadly expressed *JAG1* (42, 43).

Conventional T cell differentiation trajectory

As fetal liver is the main haematopoietic organ and source of HSC/MPP when the thymic rudiment develops, we analysed paired thymus and liver samples from the same fetus (44), similarly to what has been described for early hematopoietic organs (45). We merged the thymus and liver data, and selected clusters including liver HSC/MPP, thymic ETPs and DN thymocytes for data analysis and visualisation (**Fig. 2A, 2B and fig. S12**). This positioned thymic ETPs at the isthmus between fetal liver HSC/MPP and pre/pro B cells. We integrated our liver/thymic hematopoietic progenitor subset with the single-cell transcriptomes of human hematopoietic progenitors sorted from bone marrow using defined markers (46) (**Fig. S13**). This analysis positions the ETPs next to the multi-lymphoid progenitor (MLP) from bone marrow and early lymphoid progenitor in fetal liver.

To investigate the downstream T cell differentiation trajectory, we selected the T cell populations and projected them using UMAP and force-directed graph analysis (**Fig. 2C, fig. S14A and Data S1**), which showed a continuous trajectory of differentiating T cells. To confirm the validity of this trajectory, we overlaid hallmark genes of T-cell differentiation: CD4/CD8A/CD8B genes (**Fig. 2D**), cell cycle (*CDK1*) and recombination (*RAG1*) genes (**Fig. 2E**) and fully recombined TCR α /TCR β (**Fig. 2F**) (47). The trajectory started from CD4⁻CD8⁻ DN cells, which gradually express CD4 and CD8 to become CD4⁺CD8⁺ DP cells, and then transitions through a CCR9^{high} T $\alpha\beta$ (entry) stage to diverge into mature CD4⁺ or CD8⁺ SP cells (**Fig. 2D**). We also noted a separate lineage of cells diverging from the DN-DP junction corresponding to $\gamma\delta$ T-cell differentiation. Additional T-cell lineages identified in this analysis will be discussed in the following section (**Fig. 2C, grey**). DN and DP cells were separated into two phases by the expression of cell cycle genes (**Fig. 2E**). We designated the early population with strong cell cycle signature as proliferating (P) and the later population quiescent (Q), respectively (**Fig. 2C**). Expression of VDJ recombination genes (*RAG1* and *RAG2*) increased from the late proliferative phase, and peaked at the quiescent phases. This pattern reflects the proliferation of T cells which precedes each round of recombination (48, 49).

Next, we aligned the TCR recombination data to this trajectory (**Fig. 2F**). In the DN stage, recombined TCR β sequences were detected from the late P phase, which coincides with an increase in recombination signature and the expression of pre-TCR-alpha (*PTCRA*) (**Fig. 2G and fig. S15**). The ratio of non-productive to productive recombination events (non-productivity

score) for TCR β was relatively higher in DN stages, and dropped to a basal level as cells entered DP stages, demonstrating the impact of beta-selection (**Fig. 2H**). Notably, the non-productivity score for TCR β was highest in the DN(Q) stage, suggesting that cells failing to secure a productive TCR β recombination for the first allele undergo recombination of the other allele. In the DP stage, recombined TCRA chains were detected from P stage onwards. In contrast to TCR β , non-productive TCRA chains were not enriched in the DP(Q) cells, but were rather depleted (**Fig. 2H**).

To match the transcriptome-based clustering from this study to a published protein-marker based sorting strategy, we compared our data with repository data from FACS-sorted thymocytes analysed by microarray (50) (**fig. S16**). Based on the cell cycle gene signature and marker gene expression, DN(P), DN(Q), DP(P) stages are closely matched to CD34+CD1A+, ISP CD4+, and DP CD3- populations respectively. Both our DP(Q) and T $\alpha\beta$ (entry) stage cell signatures are enriched in the bulk transcriptome data from the DP CD3+ FACS-sorted cells. The enrichment of pre-beta selection cells in DN(Q) cells matches well with the characteristics of ISP CD4+ serving as a checkpoint for beta-selection (**Fig. 2F and fig. S15**).

To model the development of conventional $\alpha\beta$ T cells in more detail, we performed pseudo-time analysis, which resulted in an ordering of cells highly consistent with known marker genes and transcription factors (**Fig. 2G**). In addition, we identified T-cell developmental markers, including *ST18* for early DN, *AQP3* for DP and *TOX2* for DP to SP transition. To derive further insights into transcription factors that specify T-cell stages and lineages, we created a correlation-based transcription factor network, after imputing gene expression (see Methods), which demonstrated modules of transcription factors specific for lineage commitment (**Fig. 2I**).

Development of Tregs and unconventional T cells

In addition to conventional CD4⁺ or CD8⁺ T cells, which comprise the majority of T cells in the developing thymus, our data identified multiple unconventional T cell types, which were grouped by the expression of signature marker genes (**Fig. 3, A, B and Fig. 2I**). Unconventional T cells have been suggested to require agonist selection for development (3). In support of this, we observed a lower ratio of non-productive TCR chains for these cells, implying that they reside longer in the thymus compared to conventional T cells (**Fig. 3C**).

Next, we investigated whether development of these unconventional T cells was dependent on the thymus. We reasoned that if a population is thymus-dependent, it would accumulate after thymic maturation (~10 PCW) and be enriched in the thymus compared to other hematopoietic organs. Consistent with this, all unconventional T cells were enriched in the thymus, particularly post-thymic maturation, suggesting that they are thymus-derived (**Fig. 3D**).

Tregs were the most abundant unconventional T cells in the thymus. There was a clear differentiation trajectory connecting $\alpha\beta$ T cells and Tregs. We defined the connecting population as differentiating Tregs (Treg(diff)) (**Fig. 3A**). Compared to canonical Tregs, Treg(diff) cells had lower *FOXP3* and *IL2RA* expression, and higher expression of *IKZF4*, *GNG8* and *PTGIR* (**Fig. 3B**). These genes have been associated with autoimmunity and Treg differentiation (51).

We also noted another population which shares expression modules with Treg(diff) cells, but not with terminally differentiated Treg cells. We named this population as T(agonist) defined by the expression of a non-coding RNA, MIR155HG (**Figs. 3, A and B**). Interestingly, this population expressed *IL2RA* but has low *FOXP3* mRNA. These features are similar to a

previously described mouse CD25⁺FOXP3⁻ Treg progenitor (52) (**fig. S17**). Further analysis showed that the signature of two Treg progenitors (CD25⁺ and FOXP3^{lo} Treg progenitors) defined in previous studies are expressed at a higher level in T(agonist) and Treg(diff) populations, respectively (**fig. S17B**). The UMAP and force-directed graph showed that both of these populations are linked to mature Tregs (**fig. S17A**), suggesting the possibility of two Treg progenitors in the human thymus.

Other unconventional T cell populations included CD8 $\alpha\alpha$ ⁺T cells, NKT-like cells and Th17-like cells (**Fig. 3B**). There were three distinct populations of CD8 $\alpha\alpha$ ⁺T cells: *GNG4*⁺CD8 $\alpha\alpha$ ⁺T(I) cells, *ZNF683*⁺CD8 $\alpha\alpha$ ⁺T(II) and a CD8 $\alpha\alpha$ ⁺ NKT-like population marked by *EOMES* (**Fig. 3E**). *GNG4*⁺CD8 $\alpha\alpha$ ⁺T(I) and *ZNF683*⁺CD8 $\alpha\alpha$ ⁺T(II) both shared *PDCD1* expression at an early stage, which decreased in their terminally differentiated state (**fig. S14B**). While *GNG4*⁺CD8 $\alpha\alpha$ ⁺T(I) displayed a clear trajectory diverging from late DP stage ($\alpha\beta$ T SP entry cells), *ZNF683*⁺CD8 $\alpha\alpha$ ⁺T(II) cells have a mixed $\alpha\beta$ and $\gamma\delta$ T cell signatures, and sit next to both *GNG4*⁺CD8 $\alpha\alpha$ ⁺T(I) cells and $\gamma\delta$ T cells (**Fig. 3A and fig. S14B**).

EOMES⁺ NKT-like cells have a shared gene expression profile with NK cells (*NKG7*, *IFNG*, *TBX21*) and are enriched in $\gamma\delta$ T cells, i.e. their TCRs are $\gamma\delta$ rather than $\alpha\beta$ (**Fig. 3B and fig. S14B**). Interestingly, previously described gene sets from bulk RNA sequencing of human thymic or cord blood CD8 $\alpha\alpha$ ⁺T cells can now be deconvoluted into our three CD8 $\alpha\alpha$ ⁺T cell populations using signature genes. These results suggest that our three CD8 $\alpha\alpha$ ⁺T cell populations are present in these previously published thymic and cord blood samples at different frequencies, as shown in (**fig. S18**) (53).

Finally, we found another fetal specific cell cluster which we named as “Th17-like cells”, based on *CD4*, *CD40LG*, *RORC* and *CCR6* expression (**Fig. 3B**). Th17-like cells and NKT-like cells expressed *KLRB1* and *ZBTB16*, which are hallmarks of innate lymphocytes (54, 55) (**Fig. 3F**).

As described above, many cell clusters contained a mixed signature of $\alpha\beta$ and $\gamma\delta$ T cells, meaning that a single cluster contained some cells with $\alpha\beta$ TCR expression and others with $\gamma\delta$ TCR. To classify cells into $\alpha\beta$ and $\gamma\delta$ T cells, we analysed the TCR α/δ loci, where recombination of TCR α excises TCR δ , making the two mutually exclusive (**Fig. 3G**). This clearly showed that $\gamma\delta$ T cells diverging between the DN and DP populations are pure $\gamma\delta$ T cells. In contrast, CD8 $\alpha\alpha$ ⁺T(II), NKT-like and Th17-like cells include both $\alpha\beta$ and $\gamma\delta$ T cell populations, suggesting transcriptomic convergence of some $\alpha\beta$ and $\gamma\delta$ T cells.

Interestingly, *TRDV1* and *TRDV2*, the two most frequently used TCR δ V genes in human, displayed clear usage bias: *TRDV2* was used at an earlier stage (DN), while *TRDV1* was exclusively utilised in later T-cell development (DP(Q) and $\alpha\beta$ T entry) (**Fig. 3H**). Based on this pattern, we can attribute the stage of origin of $\gamma\delta$ T-cell populations, which suggests that CD8 $\alpha\alpha$ ⁺T(II) are derived from the late DP stage, while NKT-like/Th17-like cells arise from earlier stages (**Fig. 3H**).

Discovery and characterisation of *GNG4*⁺ CD8 $\alpha\alpha$ T cells in the thymic medulla

Having identified unconventional T cells and their trajectory of origin within thymic T-cell development, we focused on our newly discovered *GNG4*⁺CD8 $\alpha\alpha$ ⁺T(I) cells, as they have a unique gene expression profile (*GNG4*, *CREB3L3* and *CD72*). This is in contrast to CD8 $\alpha\alpha$ ⁺T(II) cells, which express known markers of CD8 $\alpha\alpha$ ⁺T cells such as *ZNF683* and *MME* (53). Moreover, the expression level of *KLF2*, a regulator of thymic emigration, was extremely low in

CD8 α^+ T(I) cells, suggesting that they may be thymic-resident (**Fig. 3B**). To locate and validate CD8 α^+ T(I) cells *in situ*, we performed RNA smFISH targeting *GNG4* in fetal thymus tissue sections. The *GNG4* RNA probe identified a distinct group of cells enriched in the thymic medulla, and co-localised with *CD8A* RNA (**Fig. 3I**). *TNFRSF9* (CD137), is a marker shared between CD8 α^+ T(I) cells and Tregs. When tested *in situ*, GNG4 $^+$ cells were a subset of TNFRSF9 $^+$ cells, further confirming the validity of the localisation pattern.

As CD137 is a surface marker of both CD8 α^+ T(I) cells and Tregs, we enriched these cells using this marker (**fig. S19**). Further refinement using CD3 $^+$ CD137 $^+$ CD4 $^-$ FACS-sorting allowed us to specifically enrich for CD8 α^+ T(I) cells, and confirm their identity by Smart-seq2 scRNA sequencing, providing additional transcriptomic phenotyping of these cells (**Fig. 3J**).

To compare our findings in human thymus to mouse thymus, we generated a comprehensive mouse thymus single cell atlas of postnatal murine samples (4, 8, 24 weeks old) and combined this data with a published prenatal mouse thymus scRNA-seq dataset (14) (**fig. S20**). Integrative analysis of mature T cells from human and mouse shows that cell states are well mixed across species (**fig. S21**). This analysis showed that GNG4 $^+$ CD8 α^+ T(I) cells in humans are most similar to the mouse intraepithelial lymphocytes precursor type A (IELpA) cells (56) (**fig. S21**), sharing expression of *HIVEP3*, *NR4A3*, *PDCD1* and *TNFRSF9* (**fig. S22**). However, there were also highly differentially expressed genes between them, including *GNG4* and *XCL1* in human, and *ZEB2* and *CLDN10* in mouse, suggesting a potential difference in function (**fig. S23**). Moreover, human CD8 α^+ T(I) fully mature into a CD8A $^{[high]}$ /CD8B $^{[low]}$ phenotype whereas mouse IELpA cells become triple negative (CD8A $^{[low]}$ CD8B $^{[low]}$ CD4 $^{[low]}$) cells (**fig. S23**). This shows that human and mouse TNFRSF9 high agonist selected cells in the thymus take on distinct transcriptional characteristics.

Recruitment and activation of DCs for thymocyte selection

Selection of T cells is coordinated by specialised TECs and DCs. We identified three previously well-characterised thymic DC subtypes: DC1 (XCR1 $^+$ CLEC9A $^+$), DC2 (SIRPA $^+$ CLEC10A $^+$), pDC (IL3RA $^+$ CLEC4C $^+$) (6, 57, 58). We also identified a population that was previously incompletely described, which we term as “activated DCs” (aDCs), characterised by *LAMP3* and *CCR7* expression (**Fig. 4, A and B**) (59, 60). aDCs expressed high level of chemokines and co-stimulatory molecules, together with transcription factors like *AIRE* and *FOXD4*, which we validated *in situ* (**Fig. 4B and fig. S24**), suggesting that they may correspond to the previously described AIRE $^+$ CCR7 $^+$ DCs in human tonsils and thymus (61).

Interestingly, our single-cell data revealed three subsets within the aDC group, identified by distinct gene expression profiles: aDC1, aDC2 and aDC3 (**Fig. 4, A and B**). aDC1 and aDC2 subtypes shared several marker genes with DC1 and DC2, respectively. To systematically compare aDC subtypes to canonical DCs, we calculated an identity score for each DC population by summarising marker gene expression. This demonstrated a clear relationship between aDC1-DC1 and aDC2-DC2 pairs, suggesting that each aDC subtype derives from a distinct DC population (**fig S25**). Interestingly, aDC1 and aDC2 displayed distinct patterns of chemokine expression, suggesting functional diversification of these aDCs (**Fig. 4B**). Moreover, aDC3 cells had decreased MHC class II and co-stimulatory molecule expression compared to other aDC subsets, which may reflect a post-activation DC state.

Having identified two canonical TECs and a variety of DC subsets, we used CellPhoneDB analysis to identify specific interactions between these antigen-presenting cells

and differentiating T cells (35). We focused on interactions mediated by chemokines, which enable cell migration and anatomical co-localisation (**Fig. 4C**). This demonstrated the relay of differentiating T cells from the cortex to the medulla, which is orchestrated by *CCL25:CCR9* and *CCL19/21:CCR7* interactions between cTEC/mTEC and DP/SP T cells, respectively (62). Interestingly, aDC expressed *CCR7*, together with *CCL19*, enabling attraction to and recruitment of T cells into the thymic medulla. Moreover, they strongly expressed the chemokines *CCL17* and *CCL22*, whose receptor *CCR4* was enriched in CD4⁺ T cells and particularly Tregs. aDCs also potentially recruit other DCs and mature Tregs via *CXCL9/10: CXCR3* interactions and are able to provide a strong co-stimulatory signal, which suggests a role in Treg generation. We also noted that GNG4⁺CD8α⁺T(I) T cells expressed XCL1, which may be involved in the recruitment of XCR1-expressing DC1 cells (63). Our analysis shows that XCL1 is expressed most highly by CD8α⁺T(I) cells and at a lower level by NK cells (**fig. S26**). The location of CD8α⁺T(I) in the peri-medullary region suggests a potential relay of signals from CD8α⁺T(I) to recruit XCR1⁺DC1s into the medulla, where these cells are activated and upregulate *CCR7*. (**Fig. 4D**).

To confirm our *in-silico* predictions, we performed smFISH to identify the anatomical location of CD8α⁺T(I) cells (*GNG4*), DC1s (*XCR1*), aDCs (*LAMP3*, *CD80*) and Tregs (*FOXP3*). A generic marker of non-activated DCs (*ITGAX*) and mTECs (*AIRE*) was also used to provide a reference for the organ structure. Imaging of consecutive sections of fetal thymus (15 PCW) revealed the zonation of CD8α⁺T(I)/DC1/non-activated DCs located in the peri-medullary region and aDC/Tregs enriched in the center of the medulla (**Fig. 4E-4H**). All localisation patterns are supportive of our *in-silico* model, demonstrating the power of single-cell transcriptomics coupled with CellPhoneDB predictions.

Bias in human TCR repertoire formation and selection

As our data featured detailed T-cell trajectories combined with single-cell resolution TCR sequences, it provided an opportunity to investigate the kinetics of TCR recombination. TCR chains detected from the TCR-enriched 5' sequencing libraries were filtered for full-length recombinants, and were associated with our cell type annotation. This allowed us to analyse patterns in TCR repertoire formation and selection (**Fig. 5, A and B**).

For TCRβ, we observed a strong bias in VDJ gene usage which persisted from the initiation of recombination (DN cells) to the mature T-cell stage (**Fig. 5A**). This bias is not explained by recombination signal sequence (RSS) score (**fig. S27**). The bias does correlate well with genomic position (**fig. S27**), and this is consistent with a looping structure of the locus, which has been observed in the mouse (**Fig. 5C**) (64). However, the V gene usage bias that we observe in human is not found in mouse (25). We also observed a preferential association of D2 genes with J2 genes, while D1 genes can recombine with J1 and J2 genes with similar frequency (**fig. S28**). There was no clear association between TCRβ V-D or V-J pairs (**fig. S28A**).

While the initial recombination pattern largely shapes the repertoire, selection also contributes to the preference in TCRβ repertoire. We observed that several TRBV genes were depleted or enriched after beta-selection compared (DP cells) to before beta-selection (DN cells). This suggests that there are germline-encoded differences between the different Vβ gene's ability to respond to peptide-MHC (pMHC) stimulation (**fig. S29A**). This result is in line with the molecular finding that Vβ makes the most contacts with pMHC molecule *versus* DJ (and also Va) (65).

For the TCR α locus, we found a clear association between developmental timing and V-J pairing as described before (66): Proximal pairs were recombined first, followed by recombination of distal pairs (**Fig. 5B**), which in turn restricts the pairing between V and J genes (**fig. S28B**). This provides direct evidence for progressive recombination of the TCR α locus (**Fig. 5D**). Notably, proximal pairs were relatively depleted in mature T cells compared to DP cells, showing a further bias in the positive selection step (**fig. S28B**).

To investigate whether differential TCR repertoire bias exists between cell types, we compared the TCR repertoire of different cell types by running a principal component analysis (**Fig. 5E**). Notably, we observed a clear separation of CD8⁺ T cells and other cell types. The trend was consistent in all individual donor samples. Statistical testing of the difference in odds ratios identified several TCR genes responsible for this phenomenon (**fig. S29B**). The observed trend was largely similar to that seen in naive CD4⁺/CD8⁺ T cells isolated from peripheral blood (22, 23). Notably, the TRAV-TRAJ repertoire of CD8⁺ T cell was biased towards distal V-J pairs compared to other cell types (**Fig. 5F**). Considering that distal repertoires are generated at a later stage of progressive TCR α recombination, this might be due to slower or less efficient commitment towards the CD8⁺ T lineage (**Fig. 5D**). There was also a slight bias towards proximal V-J pairs for CD8 α ⁺ T(I) cells that was much more evident in the postnatal thymic sample compared to fetal samples (**fig. S29C**) (53).

DISCUSSION

Here we generated a single-cell atlas of the human thymus throughout development *in utero* and in postnatal life alongside complementary *in situ* imaging to provide spatial context for our atlas. We reconstructed the trajectory of human conventional and unconventional T-cell differentiation combined with TCR repertoire information, which revealed a bias in the TCR repertoire of mature conventional T cells. As TCR repertoire bias predisposes our reactivity to diverse pMHC combinations, this may have profound implications for how we respond to antigenic challenges.

Our analysis of the thymic microenvironment revealed the complexity of cell types constituting the thymus, and the breadth of interactions between stromal cells and innate immune cells to coordinate thymic development to support T cell differentiation. The intercellular communication network that we describe between thymocytes and supporting cells can be used to enhance *in vitro* culture systems to generate T cells, as well as future T-cell therapeutic engineering strategies.

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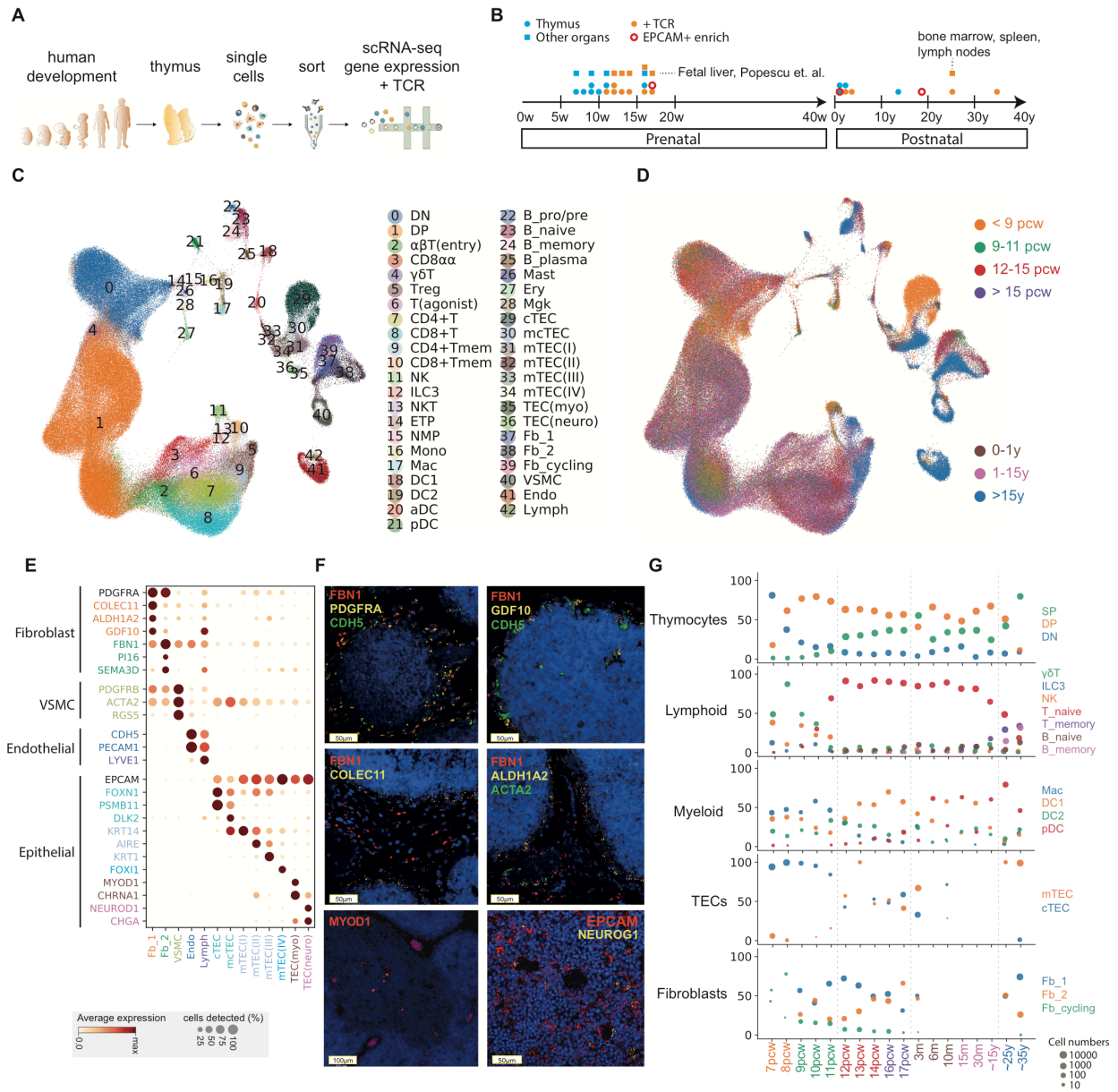


Fig. 1. Cellular composition of the developing human thymus

(A) Schematic of single-cell transcriptome profiling of the developing human thymus.

(B) Summary of gestational stage/age of samples, organs (circle: thymus, rectangle: fetal liver, adult bone marrow, adult spleen and lymph nodes) and 10x Genomics chemistry (colours).

(C) UMAP visualisation of the cellular composition of the human thymus colored by cell type (DN: double-negative T cells, DP: double-positive T cells, ETP: Early thymic progenitor, aDC: activated dendritic cells, pDC: plasmacytoid dendritic cells, Mono: monocyte, Mac: macrophage, Mkg: megakaryocyte, Endo: endothelial cells, VSMC: vesicular smooth muscle cells, Epi: epithelial cells, Fb: fibroblasts, Ery: erythrocytes).

(D) Same UMAP plot coloured by age groups, indicated by post-conception weeks (PCW) or postnatal years (y).

(E) Dot plot for marker gene expressions in thymic stromal cell types. Color represents maximum-normalised mean expression of marker genes in each cell group, and size indicates the proportion of cells expressing marker genes. (This scheme is consistently used throughout the manuscript.)

(F) RNA single-molecule FISH in human fetal thymus slides with probes targeting stromal cell populations. Top left: Fb2 population marker *FBNI* (red), general fibroblast markers *PDGFRA* (yellow) and *CDH5* (green). Top right: Fb1 marker *GDF10* (yellow), *FBNI* (red) and *CDH5* (green). Middle left: Fb1 marker *COLEC11* (yellow), *FBNI* (red), Middle right: Fb1 marker *ALDH1A2* (yellow), VSMC marker *ACTA2* (green), *FBNI* (red), Bottom left: TEC(myo) marker *MYOD1* (red). Bottom right: Epithelial cell marker *EPCAM* (red) and TEC(neuro) marker *NEUROG1* (yellow). Data representative of n=2.

(G) Relative proportion of cell types throughout different age groups. Dot size are proportional to absolute cell numbers detected in the dataset. Statistical testing for population dynamics was performed by t-testing using proportions between stage groups. X-axis shows age of samples, which are coloured in the same scheme as Fig. 1D.

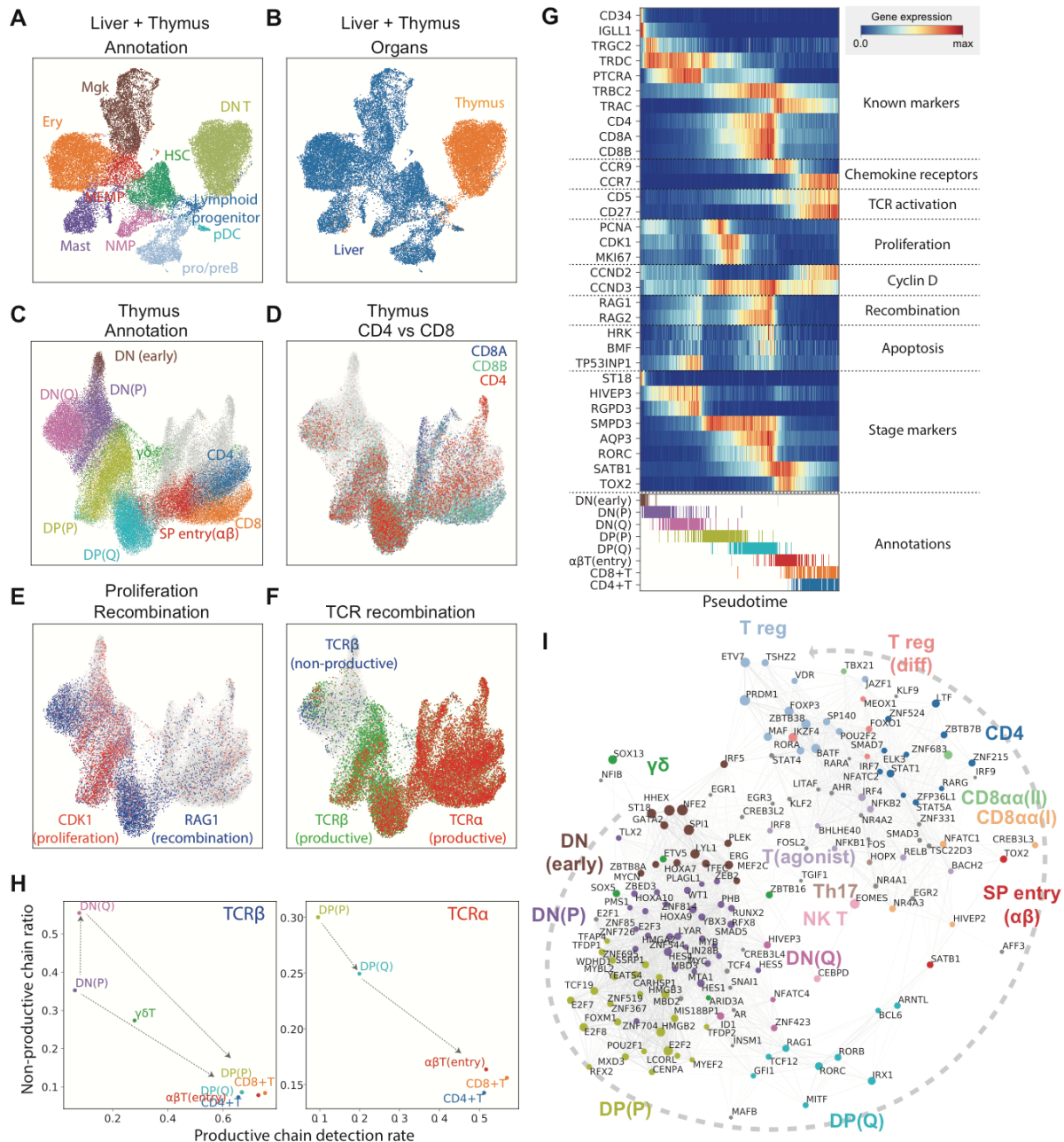


Fig. 2. Thymic seeding of early thymic progenitors (ETPs) and T cell differentiation trajectory

(A) UMAP visualisation of ETP and fetal liver hematopoietic stem cells/early progenitors. (HSC: Hematopoietic stem cells, NMP: Neutrophil-Myeloid progenitors, MEMP: Megakaryocyte-Erythrocyte-Mast cell progenitors). The same UMAP coloured by (B) organ (liver in blue and thymus in yellow/red). (C) UMAP visualisation of developing thymocytes after batch correction. (DN: double negative T cells, DP: double positive T cells, SP: single positive T cells, P: proliferating, Q: quiescent). The data contains cells from all sampled developmental stages. Cells from abundant clusters are down-sampled for better visualisation. The reproducibility of structure is confirmed across individual sample. Unconventional T cells are marked as grey.

(D-F) The same UMAP plot showing *CD4* (red), *CD8A* (blue) and *CD8B* (turquoise) gene expression (D), *CDK1* (red) cell cycle and *RAG1* (blue) recombination gene expression (E), and TCR α (red) and TCR β (green = productive and blue = non-productive) VDJ genes (F).

(G) Heatmap showing differentially expressed genes across T cell differentiation pseudotime. Upper panel: X-axis represents pseudo-temporal ordering. Gene expression levels across pseudotime axis are maximum-normalised and smoothed. Genes are grouped by their functional categories and expression patterns. Lower panel: Cell type annotation of cells aligned along the pseudotime axis. The same colour schemes are used as (C).

(H) Scatter plot showing the rate of productive chain detection within cells in specific cell types (x-axis) and the ratio between the number of non-productive/productive TCR chains detected in specific cell types (y-axis); TCR β (left panel) and TCR α (right panel).

(I) Graph showing correlation-based network of transcription factors expressed by thymocytes. Nodes represent transcription factors, and edge widths are proportional to the correlation coefficient between two transcription factors. TFs with significant association to specific cell types depicted in colour. Node size is proportional to the significance of association to specific cell types.

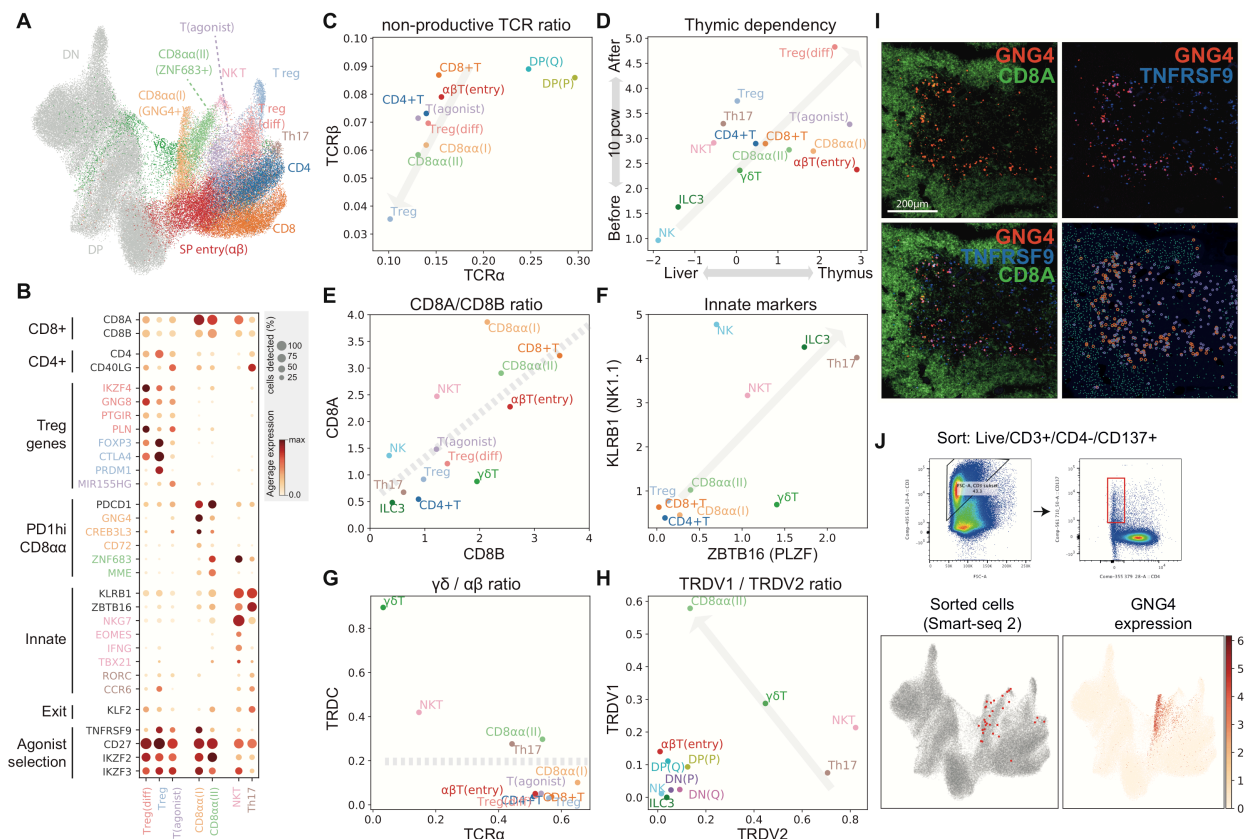


Fig. 3. Identification of GNG4+ CD8aa T cells in the thymic medulla

(A) UMAP visualisation of mature T cell populations in the thymus. Axes and coordinates are as Fig. 2C. (The cell annotation colour scheme used here is maintained throughout this figure.)

(B) Dot plot showing marker gene expression for the mature T cell types. Genes are stratified according to associated cell types or functional relationship.

(C) Scatter plot showing the ratio between the number of non-productive/productive TCR chains detected in specific cell types in TCR α chain (x-axis) and TCR β chain (y-axis). Same colour schemes apply as in (A). The grey arrow indicates a trendline for decreasing non-productive TCR chain ratio in unconventional *versus* conventional T cells.

(D) Scatter plot showing the relative abundance of each cell type between fetal liver and thymus (x-axis) and before and after thymic maturation (delimited at 10 PCW) (y-axis). Grey arrow indicates trendline for increasing thymic dependency.

(E-H) Scatter plot comparing the characteristics of unconventional T cells based on CD8A vs CD8B expression levels (E), KLRB1 vs ZBTB16 expression levels (F), TCR α productive chain vs TRDC detection ratio (G) and TRDV1 vs TRDV2 expression levels (H). Grey arrows or lines are used to set boundaries between groups (E, G, H) or indicate the trend of innate marker gene expression (F).

(I) single-molecule RNA FISH showing GNG4 (red), TNFRSF9 (blue) and CD8A (green) in a 15 PCW thymus. Right bottom panel shows detected spots from the image on top of the tissue structure based on DAPI signal. Colour scheme for spots are the same as in the image.

(J) FACS gating strategy to isolate CD8aa(I) cells (live/CD3+/CD4-/CD137+) and Smart-seq2 validation of FACS-isolated cells projected to the UMAP presentation of total mature T cells from discovery dataset (bottom left panel). GNG4 expression pattern is overlaid onto the same UMAP plot (bottom right panel).

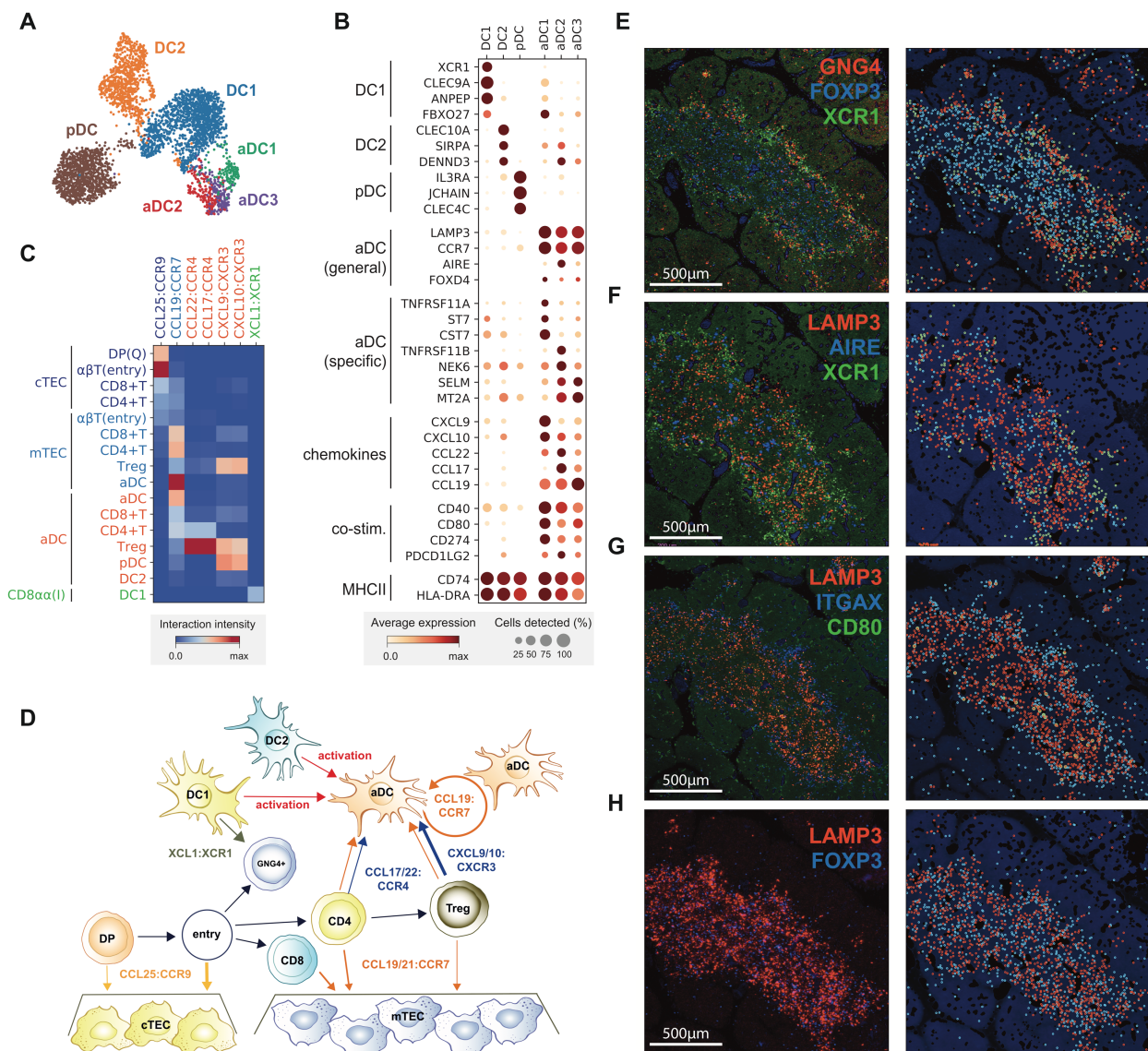


Fig. 4. Recruitment and activation of dendritic cells for thymocyte selection

(A) UMAP visualisation of thymic DC populations and (B) dot plot of their marker genes.

(C) Heat map of chemokine interactions between T cells, DCs and TECs, where the chemokine is expressed by the outside cell type and the cognate receptor by the inside cell type.

(D) Schematic model summarising the interactions between thymic epithelial cells (TECs), dendritic cells (DCs) and T cells. The ligand is secreted by the cell at the beginning of the arrow, and the receptor is expressed by the cell at the end of the arrow.

(E) Left-hand panels: single molecule RNA FISH detection of *GNG4* (red), *XCR1* (green) and *FOXP3* (blue) in 15 PCW thymus. Right-hand panels: Computationally detected spots are presented as a solid circle over the tissue structure based on DAPI signal. Colour schemes for circles are the same as in the image.

(F-H) Sequential slide sections from the same sample are stained for the detection of *LAMP3* (red), *AIRE* (blue) and *XCR1* (green) (F), *LAMP3* (red), *ITGAX* (blue) and *CD80* (green) (G), *LAMP3* (red), *FOXP3* (blue) (H). Spot detection and representation as in (E). Data representative of n = 2.

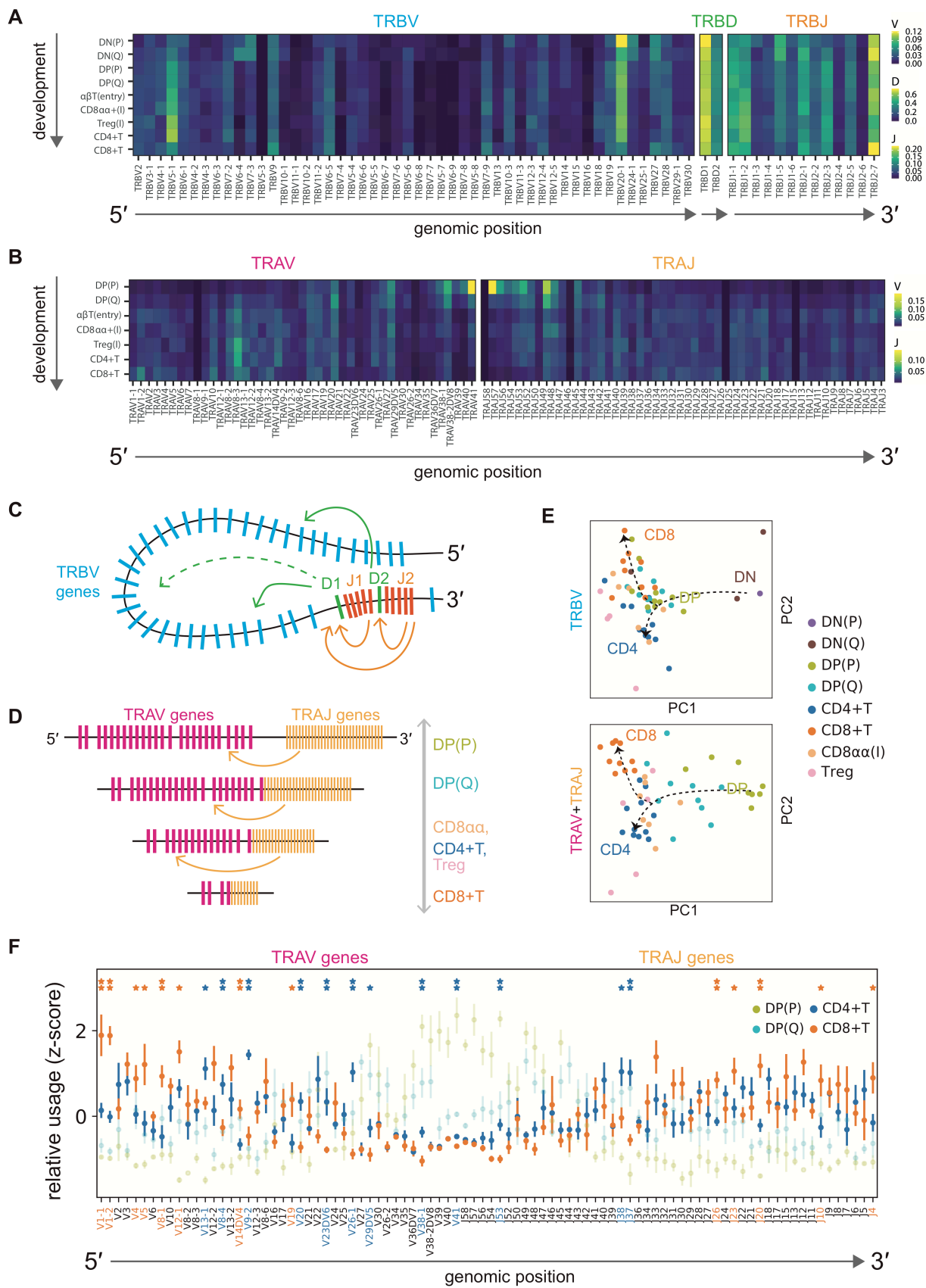


Fig. 5. Intrinsic bias in human TCR repertoire formation and selection

(A) Heatmap showing the proportion of each TCR β V, D, J gene segment present at progressive stages of T cell development. Gene segments are positioned according to genomic location.

(B) Same scheme as in (A) applied to TCR α V and J gene segments. While there is a usage bias of segments at the beginning of development, segments are evenly used by the late developmental stages, indicating progressive recombination leading to even usage of segments.

(C-D) Schematics illustrating a hypothetical chromatin loop that may explain genomic location bias in recombination of TCR β locus (C) and the mechanism of progressive recombination of TCR α locus leading to even usage of segments (D).

(E) PCA plots showing TRBV or TRAV and TRAJ gene usage pattern in different T cell types. Arrows depict T cell developmental order. For TRBV, there is a strong effect from beta selection, after which point the CD4+ and CD8+ repertoires diverge. The development for TRAV+TRAJ is more progressive, with stepwise divergence into the CD4+ and CD8+ repertoires.

(F) Relative usage of TCR α V and J gene segments according to cell type. The Z-score for each segment is calculated from the distribution of normalised proportions stratified by the cell type and sample. *P*-value is calculated by comparing z-scores in CD4+T and CD8+T cells using t-test, and FDR is calculated using Benjamini-Hochberg correction. (*: *p*-value < 0.05, **: FDR < 10%). Gene names on the x-axis and asterisks are coloured by significant enrichment in CD4+T cells (blue) or CD8+T cells (orange).

Supplementary Materials for

A cell atlas of human thymic development defines T cell repertoire formation

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Captions for Data S1

Other Supplementary Materials for this manuscript include the following:

Table S1 to S5
Data S1

Materials and Methods

Tissue Acquisition

All tissue samples used for this study were obtained with written informed consent from all participants in accordance with the guidelines in The Declaration of Helsinki 2000 from multiple centres. Human fetal tissues were obtained from the MRC/Wellcome Trust-funded Human Developmental Biology Resource (HDBR, <http://www.hdbr.org>) with appropriate maternal written consent and approval from the Newcastle and North Tyneside NHS Health Authority Joint Ethics Committee (08/H0906/21+5). HDBR is regulated by the UK Human Tissue Authority (HTA; www.hta.gov.uk) and operates in accordance with the relevant HTA Codes of Practice. Some human embryonic thymic tissues were also obtained from Wellcome-MRC Cambridge Stem Cell Institute and Department of Clinical Neurosciences with appropriate maternal written consent and approval from Research Ethics Committee (REC No: 96/085). Human paediatric samples were obtained from Ghent University Hospital and Newcastle Hospitals NHS Trust with appropriate written consent and approval from the Ghent University Hospital Ethics Committee (B670201319452) and the East Midlands-Derby Research Ethics Committee (REC No: 18/EM/0314) respectively. The human adult deceased donor sample was obtained from the Cambridge Biorepository for Translational Medicine (CBTM) with appropriate written consent and approval from the Cambridge University Ethics Committee (reference 15/EE/0152, East of England Cambridge South Research Ethics Committee).

Tissue Processing

All tissues were processed immediately after isolation using consistent protocols with variation in enzymatic digestion strength. Tissue was transferred to a sterile 10mm² tissue culture dish and cut into <1mm² segments before being transferred to a 50mL conical tube. For mild digestion, tissues were digested with 1.6mg/mL collagenase type IV (Worthington) in RPMI (Sigma-Aldrich) supplemented with 10%(v/v) heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum (FBS; Gibco), 100U/mL penicillin (Sigma-Aldrich), 0.1mg/mL

streptomycin (Sigma-Aldrich), and 2mM L-glutamine (Sigma-Aldrich) for 30 minutes at 37°C with intermittent shaking. For stringent digestion, tissue was digested with 0.2 mg/ml Liberase™ (Roche)/0.125 KU DNase1 (Sigma-Aldrich)/10mM HEPES in RPMI for 30 minutes at 37°C with intermittent shaking. The dissociated cells were separated and remaining undigested tissue were digested again with fresh media. This procedure was repeated until the tissue was completely dissociated. Digested tissue was passed through a 100µm filter, and cells collected by centrifugation (500g for 5 minutes at 4°C). Cells were treated with 1X red blood cell (RBC lysis buffer (eBioscience) for 5 minutes at room temperature and washed once with flow buffer (PBS containing 5%(v/v) FBS and 2mM EDTA) prior to cell counting.

Fetal developmental stage assignment and chromosomal assessment

Embryos up to 8 post conception weeks (PCW) were staged using the Carnegie staging method (67). After 8 PCW, developmental age was estimated from measurements of foot length and heel to knee length and compared against a standard growth chart (68). A piece of skin, or where this was not possible, chorionic villi tissue, was collected from every sample for Quantitative Fluorescence-Polymerase Chain Reaction analysis using markers for the sex chromosomes and the following autosomes: 13, 15, 16, 18, 21, 22. All samples analysed were of normal karyotype.

Flow cytometry and FACS for Single-cell RNA Sequencing

Isolated thymus cells were stained with a panel of antibodies prior to sorting based on CD45 or CD3 expression gate. The anti-human monoclonal antibodies used for flow cytometry based immunophenotyping and FAC sorting are listed in Table S6. An antibody cocktail was freshly prepared by adding 3µL of each antibody in 50µL Brilliant Stain Buffer (BD) per tissue. Cells ($\leq 10 \times 10^6$) were resuspended in 50-100µL flow buffer and an equal volume of antibody mix was added to cells from each tissue. Cells were stained for 30 minutes on ice, washed with flow buffer and resuspended at 10×10^6 cells/mL. Immediately prior to sorting, DAPI (Sigma-Aldrich) was added to a final concentration of 3µM and cells

strained through a 35µm filter. Flow sorting was performed on a BD FACSAria™ Fusion instrument using DIVA V8, and data analysed using FlowJo V10.4.1. Cells were gated to remove dead cells and doublets, and then sorted for 10X or SS2 scRNAseq analysis. For 10X droplet microfluidic analysis, cells were sorted into chilled FACS tubes coated with FBS and prefilled with 500µL sterile PBS. Paediatric samples were sorted into 50% FCS and 50% IMDM medium (supplemented with 1% L-glutamine, 1% Penicillin/Streptomycin and 10% FCS). For SS2 scRNAseq analysis, single cells were index-sorted into 96-well lo-bind plates (Eppendorf) containing 10µL lysis buffer (TCL 858 (Qiagen) + 1% (v/v) 2-mercaptoethanol) per well.

MACS for Single-cell RNA Sequencing

Enrichment of EPCAM positive cells were performed using CD326 (EPCAM) microbeads (Miltenyi Biotec., 130-061-101) according to manufacturer's protocol. CD45 depleted cells were obtained using CD45 microbeads (Miltenyi Biotec., 130-045-801) according to manufacturer's protocol. Cell number and viability were checked after the enrichment to ensure that no significant cell death has been caused by the process.

Coverage of cells per sample

From each sample, we obtained 1,000-20,000 cells which varies due to the size of the tissue/sample obtained. If roughly estimated by comparing this number to the total number of cells obtained after dissociation (**Data S1**), we have profiled 1 out of 10 cells for 7-8 wks fetus, 1 out of 100 cells for 9-11 wks fetus, 1 out of 5,000 cells for 12-13 wks fetus, 1 out of 10,000 cells for 16-17 wks fetus, 1 out of 500,000 cells for paediatric thymus and 1 out of 10,000 cells from adult thymus. The difference in sampling depth is caused by the rapid increase in thymic size throughout development, and decrease in cellularity in the aging process. The CD45+ population accounts for 90% of cells in thymus, most of them being thymocytes. To increase the coverage of CD45- stromal cells, we sampled the same number of cells from both

CD45+/CD45- sorting gate from fetal and adult samples, which increased the coverage of stromal cells by ~10 fold. We also specifically enriched for EPCAM+ epithelial cells from one fetal, paediatric and adult samples, to ensure higher coverage of epithelial cells. Thus, our sampling strategy was most extensive on CD45- stromal cells from fetus and adult, thymocytes and epithelial cells.

Single molecule RNA FISH

Samples were fixed in 10% NBF, dehydrated through an ethanol series and embedded in paraffin wax. Five-micrometre samples were cut, baked at 60 °C for 1 h and processed using standard pre-treatment conditions, as per the RNAscope multiplex fluorescent reagent kit version 2 assay protocol (manual) or the RNAscope 2.5 LS fluorescent multiplex assay (automated). The RNAscope probes used for this study are listed in Table S7. TSA-plus fluorescein, Cy3 and Cy5 fluorophores were used at 1:1500 dilution for the manual assay, or 1:300 dilution for the automated assay. Slides were imaged on different microscopes: Hamamatsu Nanozoomer S60 or 3DHistech Panoramic MIDI. Filter details were as follows: DAPI: excitation 370–400, BS 394, emission 460–500; FITC: excitation 450–488, BS 490, emission 500–550; Cy3: excitation 540–570, BS 573, emission 540–570; Cy5: excitation 615–648, BS 691, emission 662–756. Stained sections were also imaged with a Perkin Elmer Opera® Phenix™ High-Content Screening System, in confocal mode with 1 µm z-step size, using 20× (NA 0.16, 0.299 µm/pixel) and 40× (NA 1.1, 0.149 µm/pixel) water-immersion objectives

Thymic fibroblasts culture derivation and phenotypic characterisation

Thymic explants were derived from foetal biopsies at different thymic stages (HDBR Newcastle University - Newcastle Upon Tyne, REC reference: 19/NE/0290 and HDBR University College of London - London, REC reference: 18/LO/0822) and cultured on a precoated Matrigel (Corning) 6mm dish in DMEM (Life Technologies) supplemented with 15% heat-inactivated FBS (Life Technologies) + 1% Penicillin/Streptomycin (Sigma-Aldrich), 1% L-glutamine (Life Technologies), 1% Non-Essential

Aminoacids (Life Technologies) and 100mM beta-Mercaptoethanol (Life Technologies). Fibroblast cells come out of explants at around 7 days of culture and are left on the plate until outgrowths are confluent enough to pass. The culture is therefore kept for 5-6 passages and phenotypic analysis was performed at multiple passages. Fibroblasts were detached with trypsin 1X (Sigma-Aldrich) for 3 minutes at 37°C and subsequently resuspended in completed media before collection. Cells are harvested and phenotypic analysis is performed on 500,000 cells per sample. Cells were stained at 4°C for 30 min in Hanks Balanced Salt Solution-2% FBS with the following markers: anti-THY1 AF700 1:100 (Biolegend), anti-PDGFRalpha PE 1:100 (Biolegend) and PI-16 (BD) 1:50. Cells are washed in an excess of HBSS + 2% FBS and are resuspended in HBSS + 2% FBS with DAPI (Sigma-Aldrich) to discriminate live from dead cells.

Library Preparation and Sequencing

For the droplet-encapsulation scRNA-seq experiments, 8000 live, single, CD45⁻ or CD45⁺ FACS-isolated cells or MACS-enriched cells were loaded on to each of the Chromium Controller (10x Genomics). Single cell cDNA synthesis, amplification and sequencing libraries were generated using the Single Cell 3' and 5' Reagent Kit following the manufacturer's instructions. The libraries from up to eight loaded channels were multiplexed together and sequenced on an Illumina HiSeq 4000. The libraries were distributed over eight lanes per flow cell and sequenced using the following parameters: Read1: 26 cycles, i7: 8 cycles, i5: 0 cycles; Read2: 98 cycles to generate 75bp paired end reads.

For the plate-based scRNA-seq experiments, a slightly modified Smart-Seq2 protocol was used as previously described (56). After cDNA generation, libraries were prepared (384 cells per library) using the Illumina Nextera XT kit. Index v2 sets A, B, C and D were used per library to barcode each cell for multiplexing. Each library was sequenced (384 cells) per lane at a sequencing depth of 1-2 million reads per cell on HiSeq 4000 using v4 SBS chemistry to create 75bp paired end reads.

Alignment, quantification and quality control of single cell RNA sequencing data

Droplet-based sequencing data was aligned and quantified using the Cell Ranger Single-Cell Software Suite (version 2.0.2 for 3' chemistry and version 2.1.0 for 5' chemistry, 10x Genomics Inc) using the GRCh38 human reference genome (official Cell Ranger reference, version 1.2.0). Cells with fewer than 2000 UMI counts and 500 detected genes were considered as empty droplets and removed from the dataset. Cells with more than 7000 detected genes were considered as potential doublets and removed from the dataset. Smart-seq2 sequencing data was aligned with *STAR* (version 2.5.1b), using the STAR index and annotation from the same reference as the 10x data. Gene-specific read counts were calculated using *htseq-count* (version 0.10.0). Scanpy (version 1.3.4) python package was used to load the cell-gene count matrix and perform downstream analysis.

Doublet detection

To exclude doublets from single-cell RNA sequencing data, we applied scrublet (<https://github.com/AllonKleinLab/scrublet>, (69)) algorithm per sample to calculate scrublet-predicted doublet score per cell with following parameters: `sim_doublet_ratio = 2`; `n_neighbors=30`; `expected_doublet_rate= 0.1`. Any cell with scrublet score > 0.7 was flagged as doublet. To propagate the doublet detection into potential false-negatives from scrublet analysis, we over-clustered the dataset (*sc.tl.louvain* function from scanpy package version 1.3.4; `resolution = 20`), and calculated the average doublet score within each cluster. Any cluster with averaged scrublet score > 0.6 was flagged as a doublet cluster. All remaining cell clusters were further examined to detect potential false-negatives from scrublet analysis according to the following criteria: (1) Expression of marker genes from two distinct cell types which are unlikely according to prior knowledge (i.e. *CD3* for T cells and *CD19* for B cells), (2) Higher number of UMI counts and (3) Lack of unique marker gene defining the cluster. All clusters flagged as doublets were removed from further downstream biological analysis.

Defining contaminating populations from other tissues

We noticed that embryonic thymus can be contaminated with thyroid or parathyroid derived tissue, which is annotated as Epi_PAX8 (marked by PAX8, HHEX, TG, NKX2.1) and Epi_GCM2 (marked by PTH, GCM2, GATA3, CHGA). We removed cell clusters defined by these markers and removed entire dataset if it has larger cell cluster belonging to these contaminating populations compared to thymic epithelial cells.

Clustering and annotation of scRNA-seq data

Downstream analysis included data normalisation (*scanpy.api.pp.normalize_per_cell* method, scaling factor 10000), log-transformation (*scanpy.api.pp.log1p*), variable gene detection (*scanpy.api.pp.filter_gene_dispersion*), data feature scaling (*scanpy.api.pp.scale*), PCA analysis (*scanpy.api.pp.pca*, from variable genes), batch-balanced neighbourhood graph building (*scanpy.api.pp.bbkn*) and Louvain graph-based clustering (*scanpy.api.tl.louvain*, clustering resolution manually tuned) performed using the python package scanpy (version 1.3.4). Custom defined cell cycle gene sets (**Table S8**) were removed from the list of variable genes to remove cell-cycle associated variation. Cluster cell identity was assigned by manual annotation using known marker genes as well as computed differentially expressed genes (DEGs) using custom python function. Clusters with clear and uniform identity were annotated first, and a logistic regression model was trained based on this annotation. This model was used to predict the identity of cells in a cluster with a mixture of different cell types, which can be computationally clustered together due to transcriptional similarity. To achieve a high-resolution annotation, we separated broadly annotated cells (e.g. Epithelial cells, single positive T cells) and repeated the procedure of variable gene selection, which allowed the annotation of smaller and fine-grained cell subsets (e.g. mTECs, regulatory T cells).

Alignment of data across different batches

Batches for batch alignment can come from different chemistries used on the same set of cells, e.g. 10X chemistry (5' and 3'), or from cells from different donors analysed using the same chemistry. In other words, there can be technical or biological differences between batches. We performed iterative batch correction, first by roughly aligning batches across similar samples (e.g. all foetal samples or paediatric samples) using *scanpy.api.pp.bbkmn* function. We used this batch-aligned manifold to annotate cell types. After achieving a coarse-grained cell type annotation, we fitted a L2-regularised linear model using batches (e.g. 10X chemistry, donors) or cell type annotation as a categorical variable. Then we regressed out variations explained by batch variables, and kept residuals, which contain biological information. After this, we aligned batches again using the *scanpy.api.pp.bbkmn* function to achieve a high-resolution and batch-mixed manifold, which is used for refining annotation, visualisation and trajectory analysis.

Estimating cellular composition per sample

To estimate the relative proportion of each cell type in different samples, we defined broad categories of cell types (e.g. lymphocytes, myeloid cells, total cells), and calculated the proportions of each cell type within selected group of cells. If all cell types used for a comparison come from the same sorting gate, we simply calculated the proportion as: number of cells in specific cell type / total number of cells in comparison set. When cell types used for comparison are derived from multiple sorting gates, we calculated a normalisation factor for each sorting gate as: number of cells sorted in a specific sorting gate / total number of sorted cells across multiple sorting gates, and multiplied this normalisation factor to the number of cells in each sorting gate. These normalised numbers are used to calculate proportions, which eliminates bias caused by sorting different number of cells into different gates. The significance of changes in cellular proportions are tested by t-test on cell proportions.

Trajectory analysis

To model differentiation trajectories, a combination of linear regression and batch-alignment algorithms were applied as described above to generate a neighbourhood graph. The robustness and accuracy of batch-alignment was tested by comparing multiple batch-alignment methods. Among the resulting manifolds, we selected the one with the best fit to well-known sequential events in T-cell differentiation such as TCR recombination. We then calculated diffusion pseudotime (70) using the *scanpy.api.tl.dpt* function in scanpy, which starts from the manually selected progenitor cell. The progenitor cell is selected from the extremities of diffusion components. Cells are binned based on the pseudotime ordering, and differentially expressed genes are identified as genes whose expression is significantly different from the randomly permuted background in any of the bins.

Visualisation of the transcription factor network

Transcription factor network analysis was performed as previously described (71). First, gene expression levels were imputed by taking an average of 30-nearest neighbors in three-dimensional UMAP space. An annotation score for each cell type was calculated by measuring the frequency of cell types amongst the 30-nearest neighbors which are used for imputation. To remove redundant information, cells were randomly sampled from each unit voxel from the three-dimensional UMAP space. The human transcription factors were selected from AnimalTFDB3 (72). Only highly-variable transcription factors were subject to calculation of the correlation matrix, which was subsequently used for graph building and visualisation using the force-directed graph function implemented in the scanpy package.

TCR VDJ sequence analysis

10X TCR-enriched libraries are mapped with the Cell Ranger Single-Cell Software Suite (version 2.1.0, 10x Genomics Inc) to the custom reference provided by the manufacturer (version 2.0.0 GRCh38 VDJ reference). VDJ sequence information was extracted from the output file “filtered_contig_annotations.csv.” The merged VDJ output dataset is available in our data repository (see Data and materials availability).

Chains which contained full-length recombinant sequence and supported by more than 2 UMI counts were selected, and linked to the cellular transcriptome data based on cell barcodes. These chains were considered as productive if a functional ORF covering the CDR3 region could be found. To compare V, D, J gene usage per cell type, each V, D, J gene count in each specific cell type was normalised by the sum of counts within that cell type, and then converted to a z-score per gene. Student's t-test was used to compare the z-scores between different cell types. Cochran–Mantel–Haenszel test was also used to compare profiles between CD4+T and CD8+T cells, which yielded comparable results.

Comparison to published dataset

Human liver dataset collected from the same donors which has been described in (44). were processed in the same way as the thymic cells. The human bone marrow-derived hematopoietic progenitors dataset has been downloaded from Gene Expression Omnibus (GSE117498) as processed count matrix. The dataset has been processed through the same pipeline and combined with human liver and thymus dataset. Batch alignment was performed across thymus, liver and bone marrow datasets using the BBKNN algorithm assisted by linear regression. The human sorted thymocytes microarray dataset has been downloaded from ArrayExpress (E-MEXP-337) as a processed expression matrix.

Mouse thymus cell atlas

The mouse stromal dataset has been collected from Gene Expression Omnibus (GSE103967) and mouse fetal thymus dataset has been downloaded from Gene Expression Omnibus (GSE107910). Mouse postnatal thymus dataset has been generated for C57BL/6J mice (4, 8, 24 weeks old). Dissected thymi were dissociated with Liberase TH protocol and two 10X 3' v3 lanes were loaded for each sample. All data has been processed in the same way as the human thymic cells. The mouse stromal dataset has been re-annotated following the original description by authors. We noted some minor cell populations which were not defined in the original study. Mouse fetal and postnatal cells are integrated into the same dataset and

annotated altogether. A logistic model trained from the annotated human data was applied to assist the annotation process to achieve coherent annotation between human and mouse.

Cross-species comparison

The alignment of the mouse dataset to the human dataset has been achieved by two methods: (1) Bi-directional prediction based on logistic models trained from each dataset. The prediction probability from human to mouse and mouse to human cell pairs are multiplied to derive the final similarity score. (2) Batch alignment using BBKNN algorithm assisted by linear regression to remove species-specific variations while keeping the biological structure. For this, an initial round of BBKNN integration has been performed across all samples to produce a graph structure with connections between nearest neighbors across batches. Low-resolution graph-based clustering was performed on this to obtain a clustering structure based on biological variation. Then L2-regularised linear regression was performed using this cluster structure as biological variables and species/sample structure as batch variable. The variation explained by batch structure was regressed out from the data, and this corrected matrix is used for the second round of BBKNN integration. This resulted in a manifold that is well-mixed across species. Of note, we confined this approach to subsets of cells (e.g. mature T cells), to achieve better alignment by reducing complexity.

Cell-cell interaction analysis

Specific interactions between cells are modeled using CellPhoneDB (www.CellPhoneDB.org) as previously described (35). To minimise computational burden and equally represent different cell types, we downsampled the dataset by randomly sampling 1000 cells from each cell type. We modified cell-cell interaction scores by multiplying average expression level of each ligand and receptor gene within cell-cell pairs, and maximum-normalising this score. The list of chemokines was retrieved from the HUGO Gene Nomenclature Committee. To visualise the interactions, we first selected interaction pairs based on significance of specificity from CellPhoneDB and calculated normalised interaction score for each cell pairs.

This normalised interaction score has been calculated by multiplying the average expression level of ligand and receptors for all cell pairs, and maximum normalising these values.

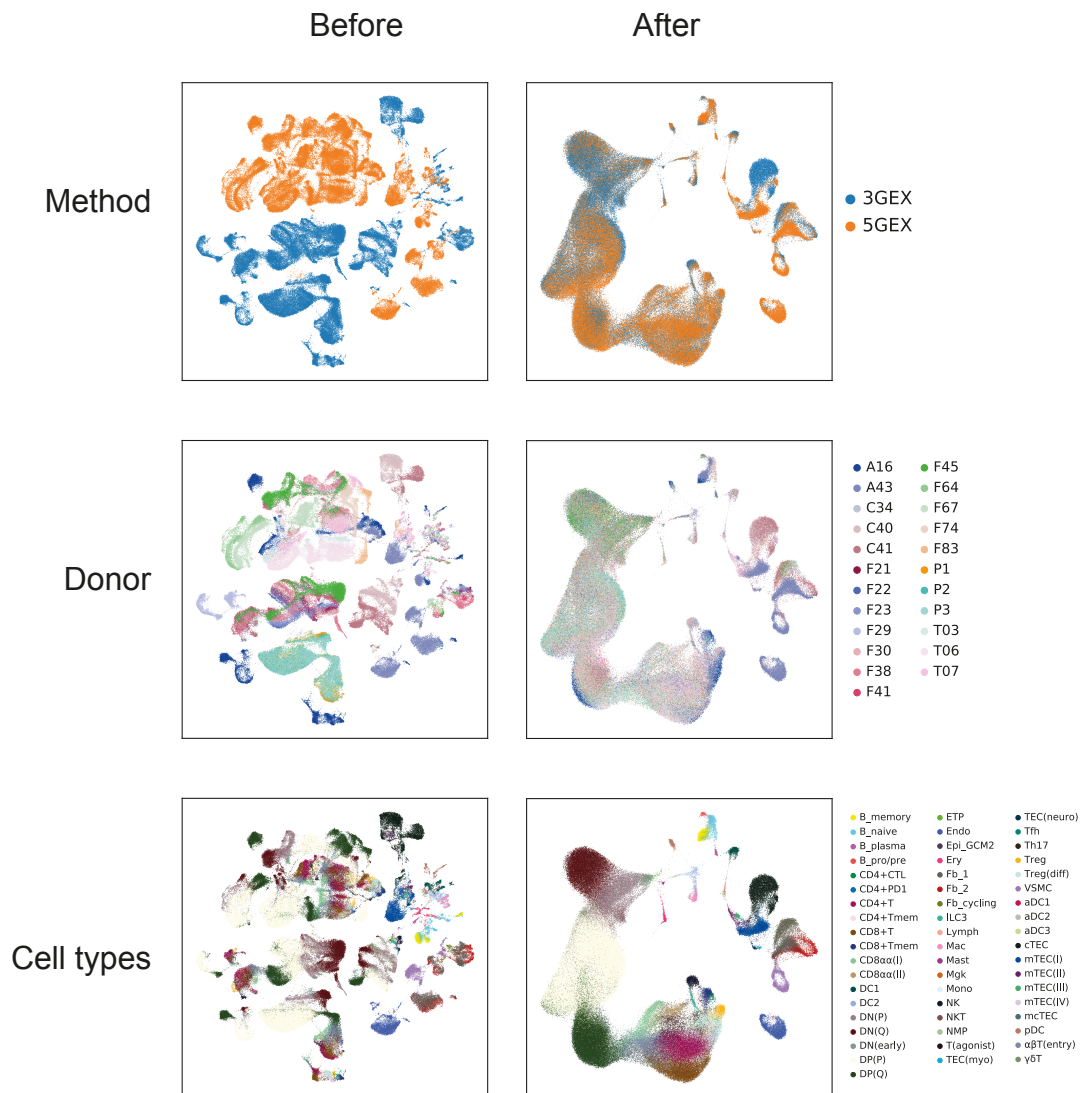


Fig. S1.

UMAP visualisation of the entire dataset before (left) and after (right) batch alignment. Cells are coloured by methods (top), donors (middle) and cell types (bottom).

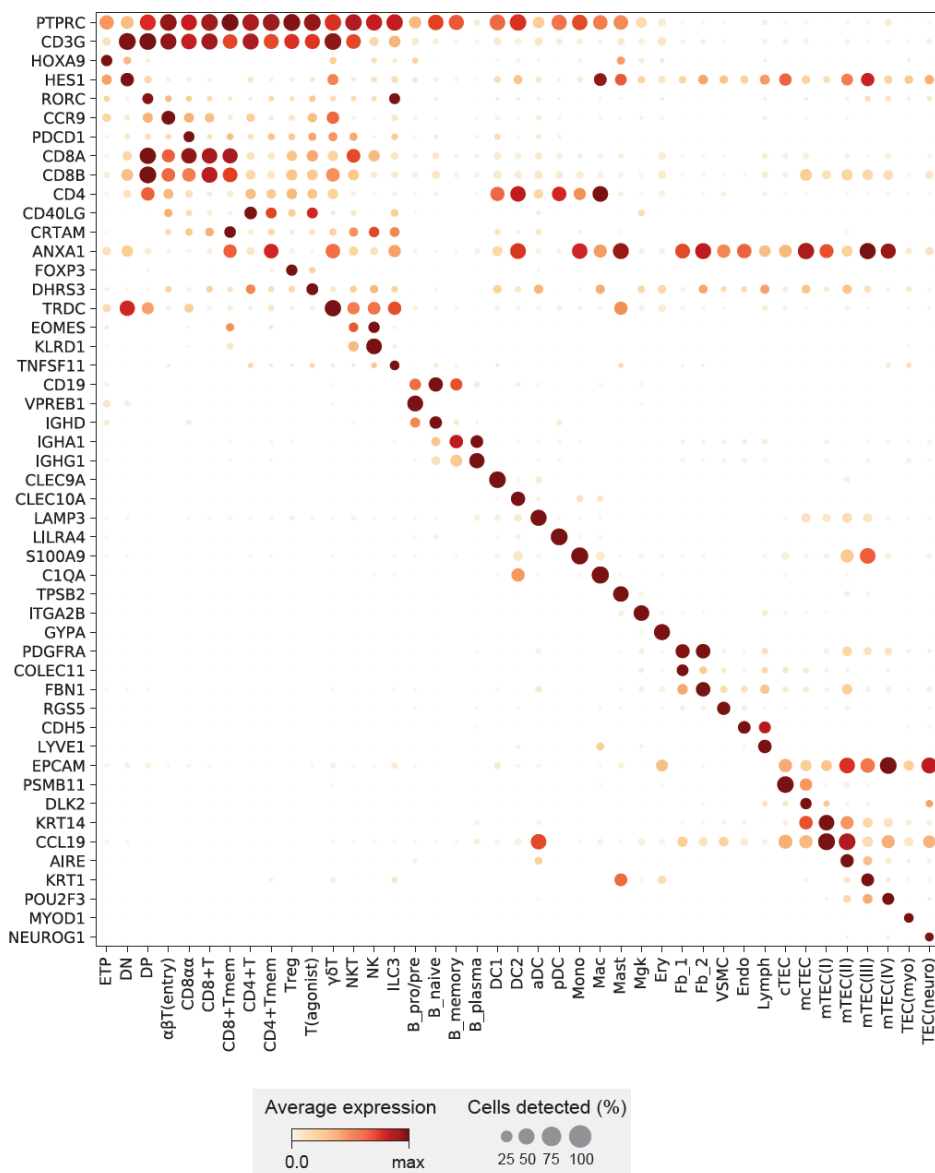


Fig. S2.

Dot plot showing marker gene expression for annotated cell types. Color represents maximum-normalised mean expression of marker genes in each cell group, and size indicates the proportion of cells expressing marker gene. ETP: early thymic progenitors, DN: double negative T cells, DP: double positive T cells, Treg: regulatory T cells, ILC3: innate lymphoid cell type 3, B_pro/pre: pro-B cells and pre-B cells, DC1: conventional dendritic cell type 1, DC2: conventional dendritic cell type 2, aDC: activated dendritic cells, pDC: plasmacytoid dendritic cells, Mono: monocytes, Mac: macrophage, Mast: mast cells, Mglk: megakaryocytes, Ery: erythrocytes, Endo: endothelial cells, VSMC: vesicular smooth muscle cells, Fb_1, Fb_2: fibroblasts type 1 and 2

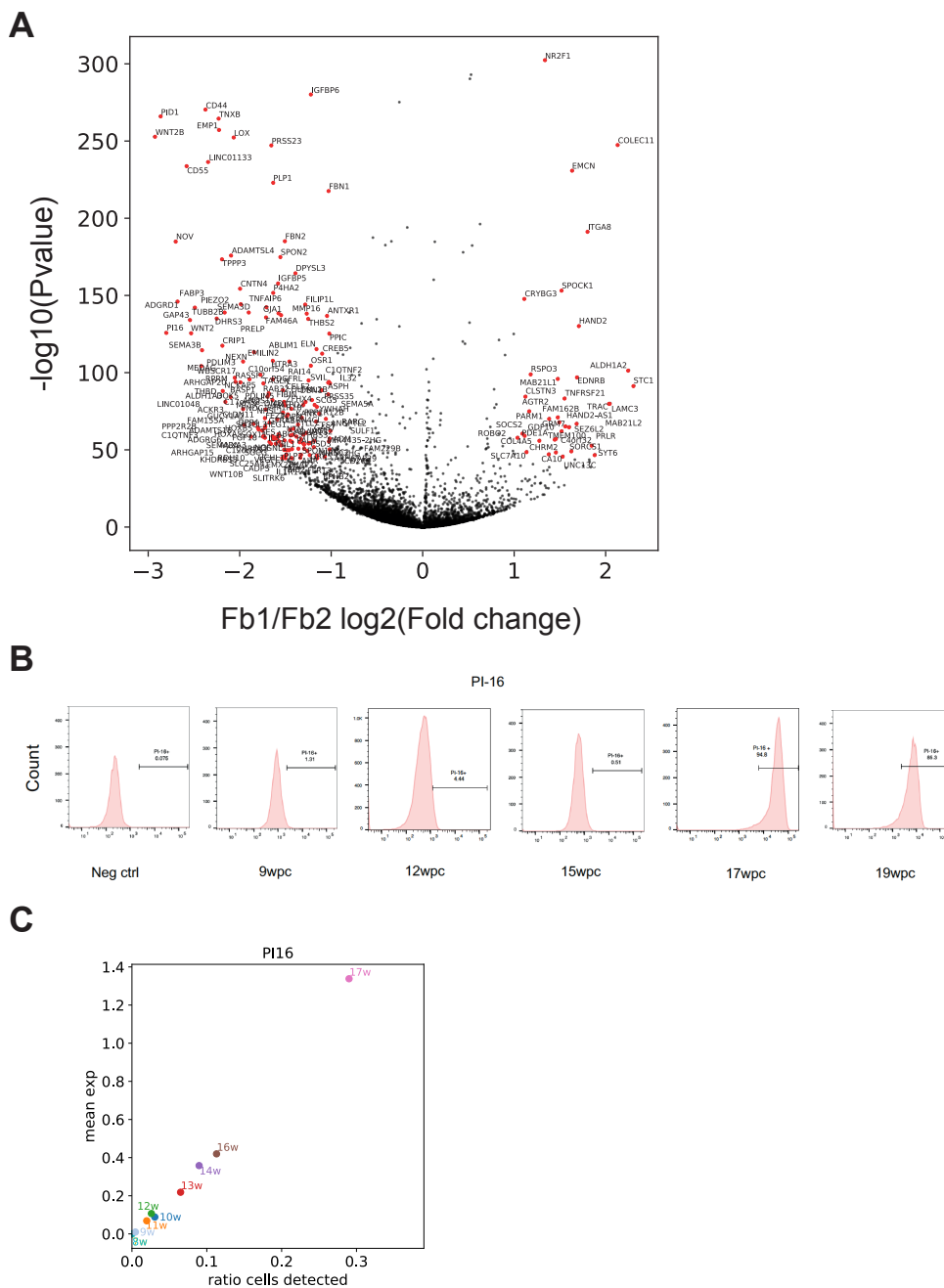


Fig. S3.

(A) Volcano plot showing differentially expressed genes between fb1 and fb2 type of thymic fibroblasts. X-axis and y-axis represent $\log_2(\text{fold change})$ and $-\log_{10}(\text{p-value})$ respectively. (B) FACS analysis of PI16 protein level in thymic fibroblast explant culture from different stages of human fetal thymus. (C) Expression level of PI16 mRNA level in single-cell RNA sequencing data from different stages of human fetal thymus

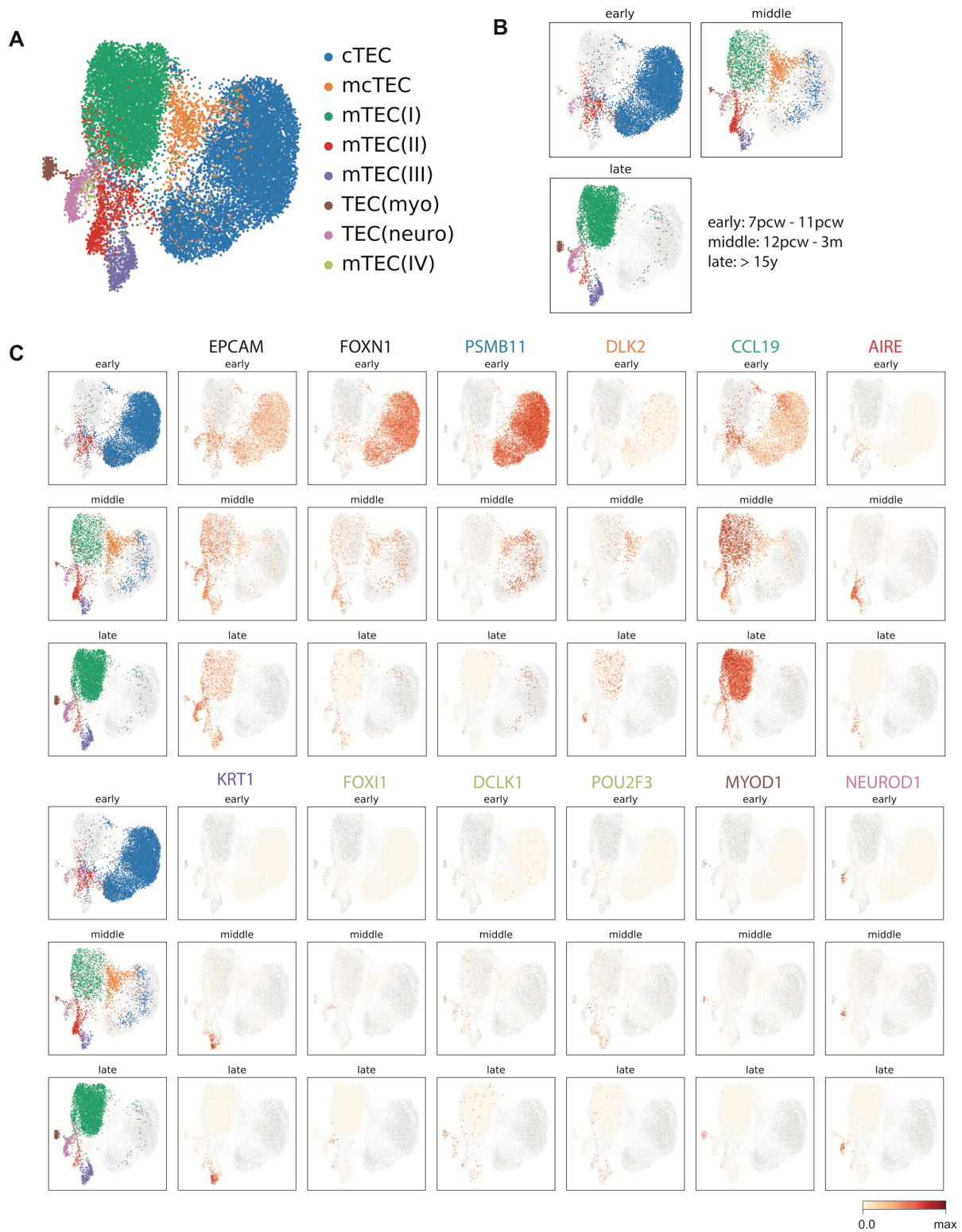


Fig. S4.

(A) UMAP plot showing human thymic epithelial cell (TEC) populations **(B)** UMAP plot showing the human TECs stratified into three different stages (early: 7 pcw -11 pcw fetal, middle: 12 wks pcw – 3 months postnatal, late: more than 15 years old). The grey shaded data points correspond to the other two stages. **(C)** UMAP plot showing the expression pattern of marker genes for each epithelial cell type (same colour scheme as applied in (A)) stratified into early, middle, late stages. The shaded data points correspond to the other two stages.

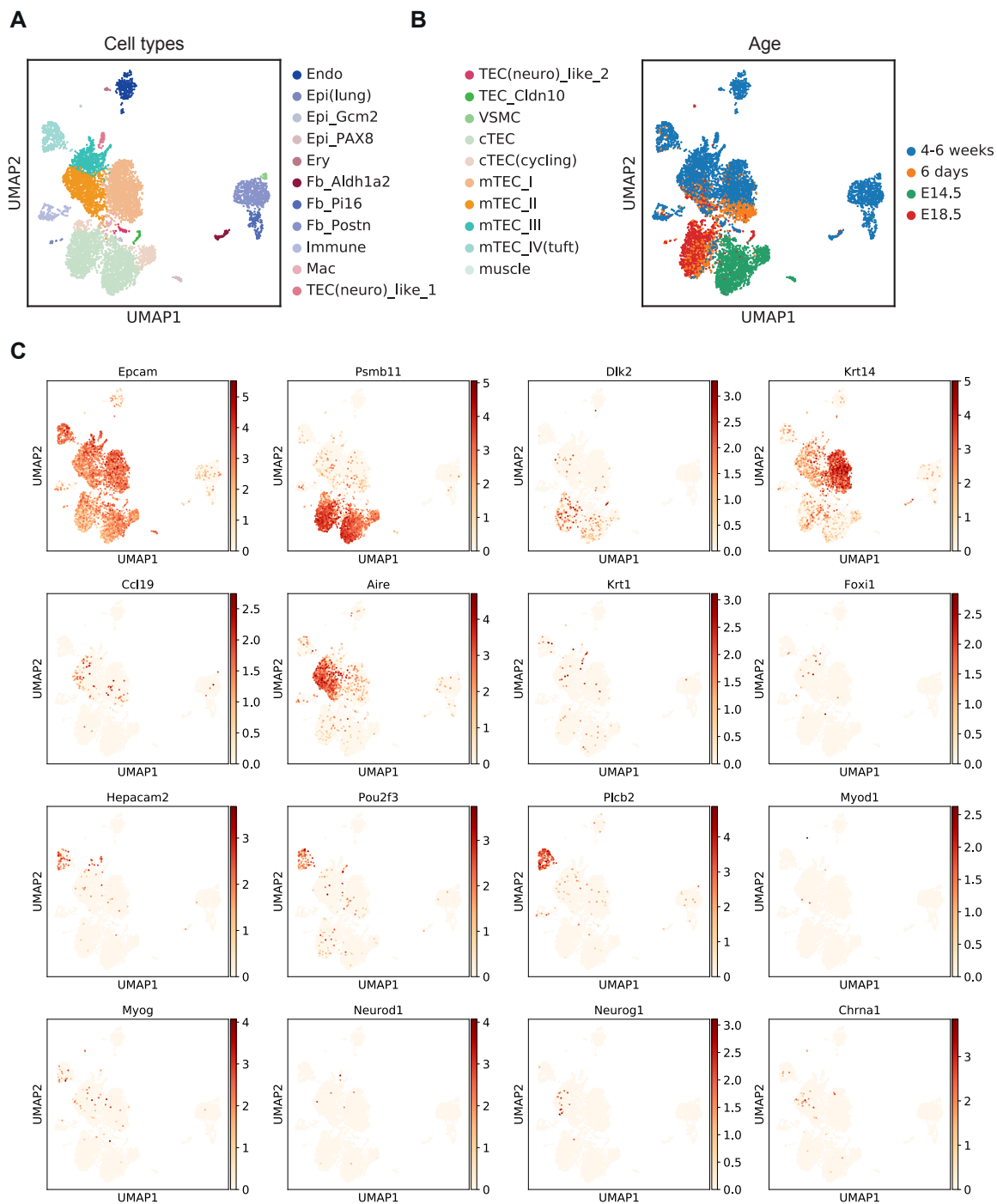


Fig. S5.

(A) UMAP plot showing mouse thymic stromal cell populations (15) stratified by cell type and (B) by age. (C) UMAP plots showing the expression pattern of marker genes for each epithelial cell type in mouse thymic stromal cell population.

cross-species projection

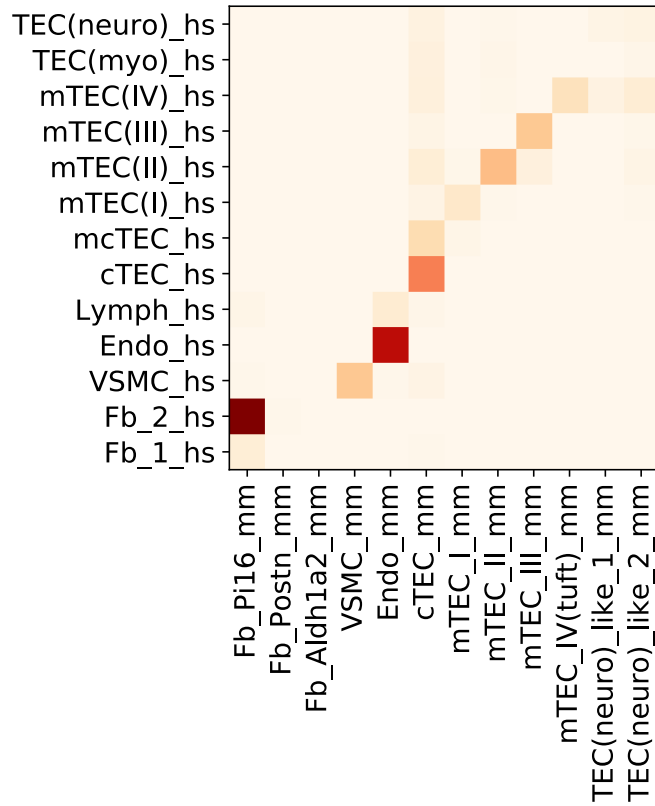


Fig. S6.

Projection score between human and mouse thymic epithelial cell types calculated by multiplying the cross-species predicted projection probability of logistic models trained on each species data.

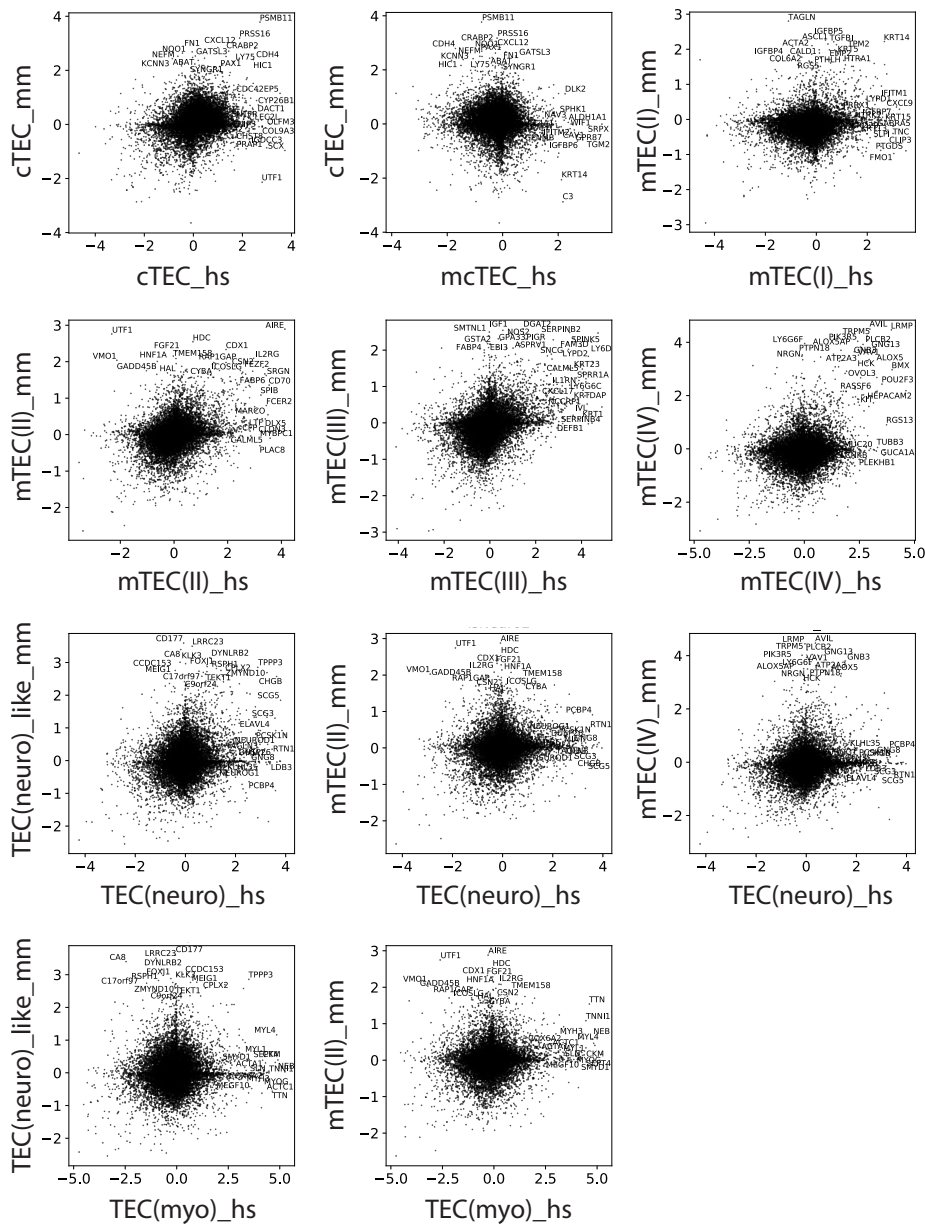


Fig. S7.

Comparison of markers for thymic epithelial cell types from human and mouse. X-axis is gene expression log₂-fold change for the designated human cell types against all other human thymic epithelial cells. Y-axis is gene expression log₂-fold change for the designated mouse cell types against all mouse thymic epithelial cells. Comparison sets are determined based on the cross-species projection score (fig. S6)

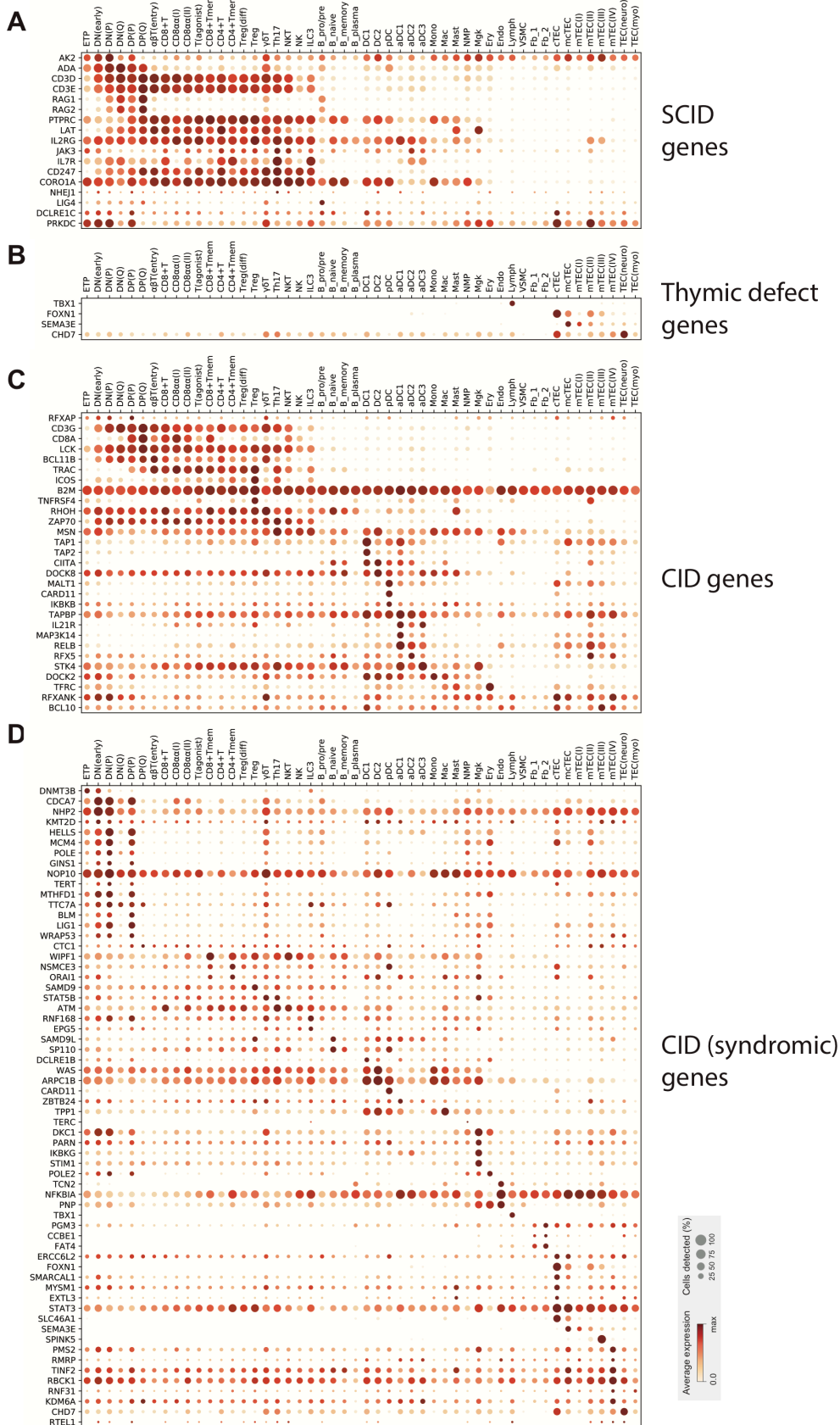


Fig. S8.

Dot plot showing the expression of genes causing Severe Combined Immunodeficiency (SCID) (A), thymic defects (B), Combined Immunodeficiency (CID) (C), and syndromic CID (D).

Genes are taken from the IUIS Classification of Inborn Errors of immunity (February 2018).

Color represents maximum-normalised mean expression of marker genes in each cell group, and size indicates the proportion of cells expressing marker gene.

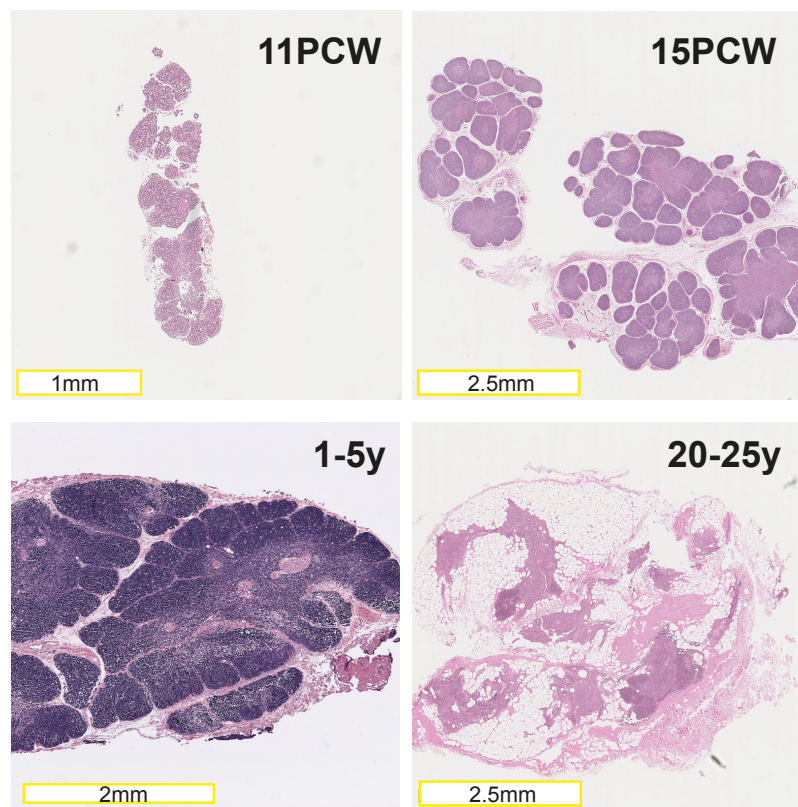


Fig. S9.

H&E staining of cross-sectioned thymic tissue at different developmental and postnatal ages.

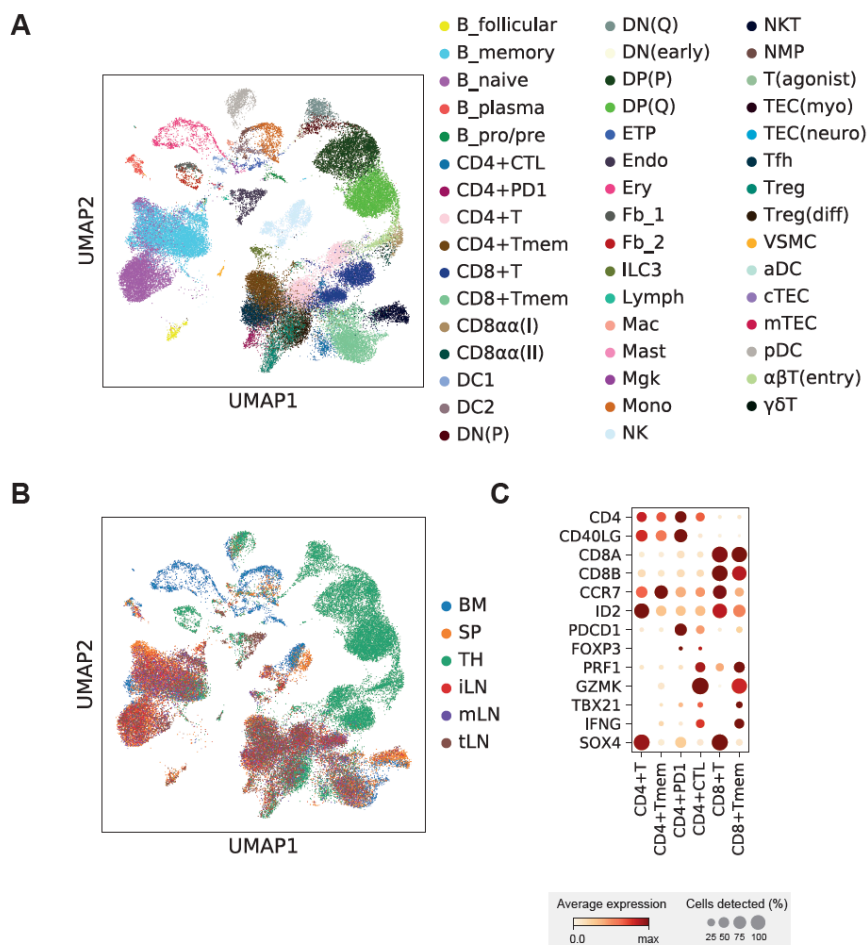


Fig. S10.

(A) UMAP plot showing cell type annotations for the young adult sample (20-25 years old). (B) Organ composition for UMAP plot shown in (A). (C) Dot plot showing marker gene expression for mature T cells found in young adult sample. Abbreviations are as defined from Fig. S2. BM: bone marrow; SP: spleen; TH: thymus; iLN: inguinal lymph node; mLN: mesenteric lymph node; tLN: thoracic lymph node.

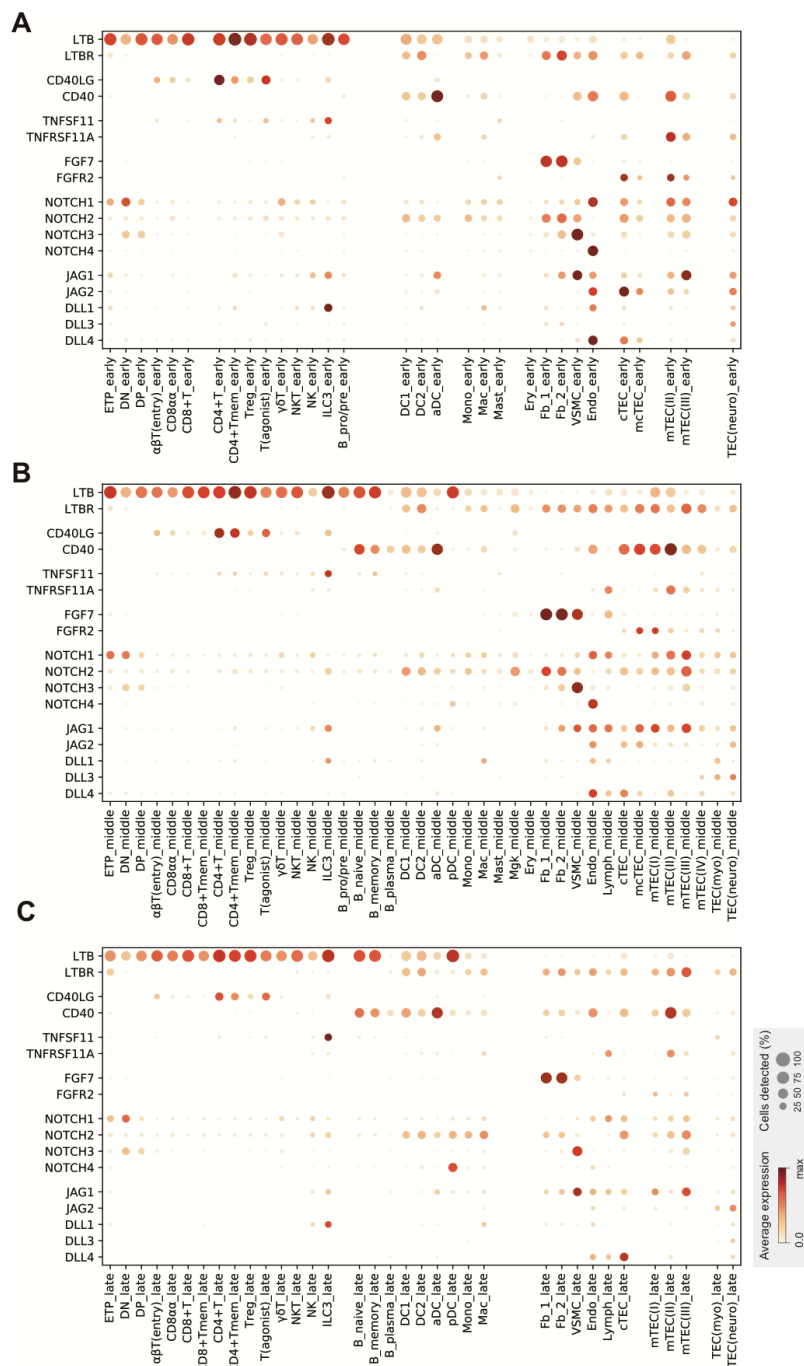


Fig. S11.

Dot plot showing cell type specific expression of signalling pathways which are known to regulate thymic development. Dataset is separated according to developmental stages as indicated in Fig. S4B. Cell types with less than 50 cells detected per stages are omitted from the plot.

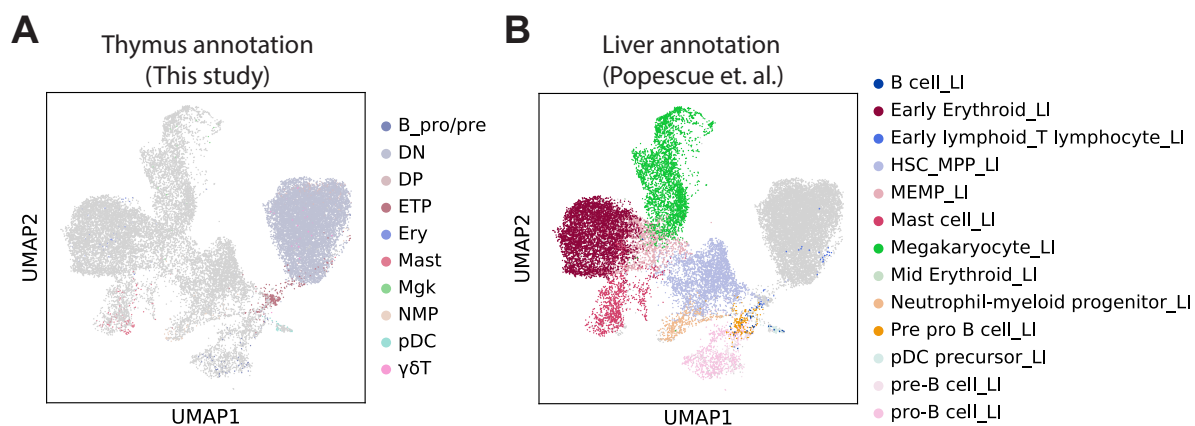


Fig. S12.

UMAP plot displayed in Figs. 2A and B coloured according to the original annotation on thymus cells from this study (left panel) and liver cells sampled from same donors (44). (right panel)

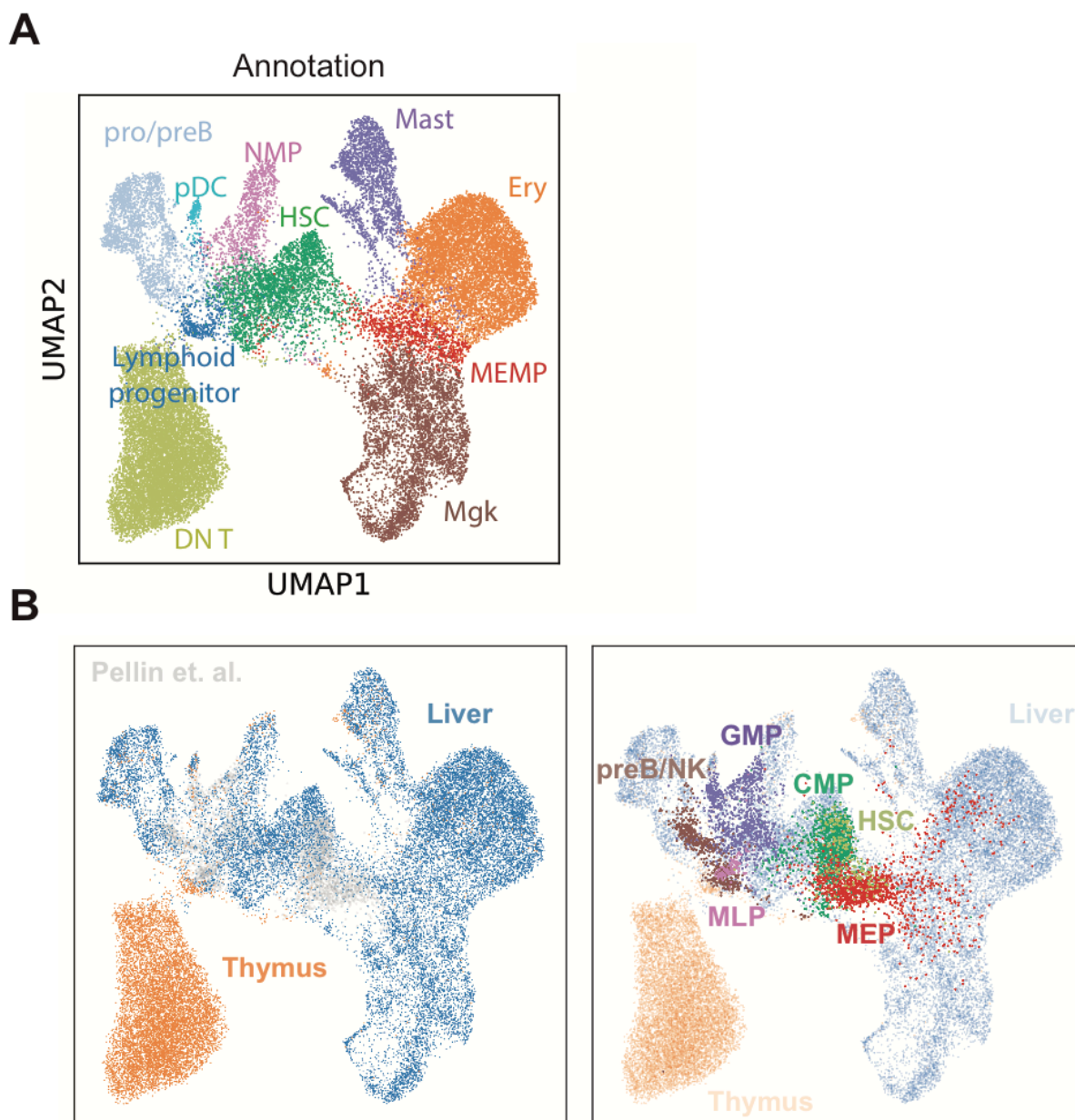
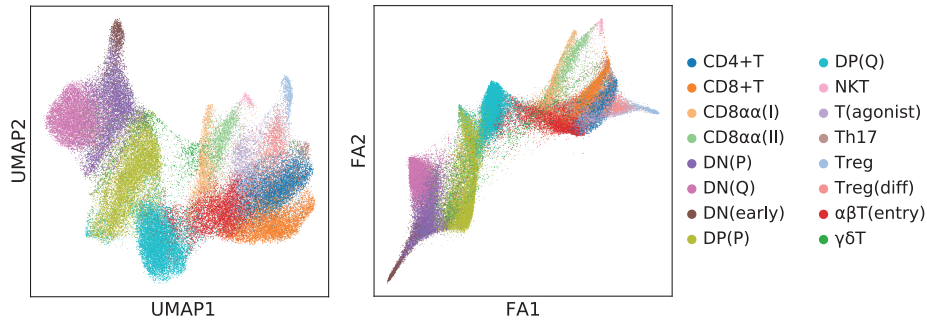


Fig. S13.

UMAP plot showing the integrative analysis between hematopoietic progenitors from thymus and liver and sorted human hematopoietic progenitors from bone marrow (46). Cells are labeled based on (A) annotation described in Fig 2A, (B) derived organs (left panel, shown for thymus and liver cells) or sorting scheme (right panel). MLP: multi-lymphoid progenitors. MEP: megakaryocyte-erythrocyte progenitors. HSC: hematopoietic stem cells. GMP: granulocyte-macrophage progenitors. CMP: common-myeloid progenitors.

A



B

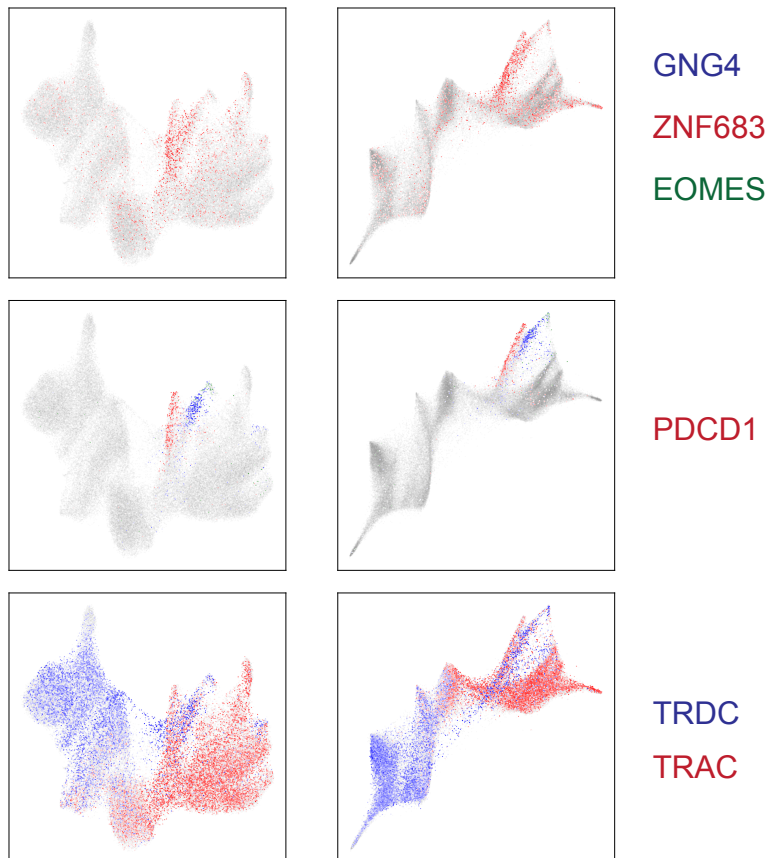


Fig. S14.

(A) UMAP plot (left, same one as shown in Fig. 2C) and force directed graph plot (right) showing T cell development trajectory. (B) UMAP plot (left) and force directed graph plot (right) showing marker gene expression for CD8αα⁺ T subtypes found in human thymus.

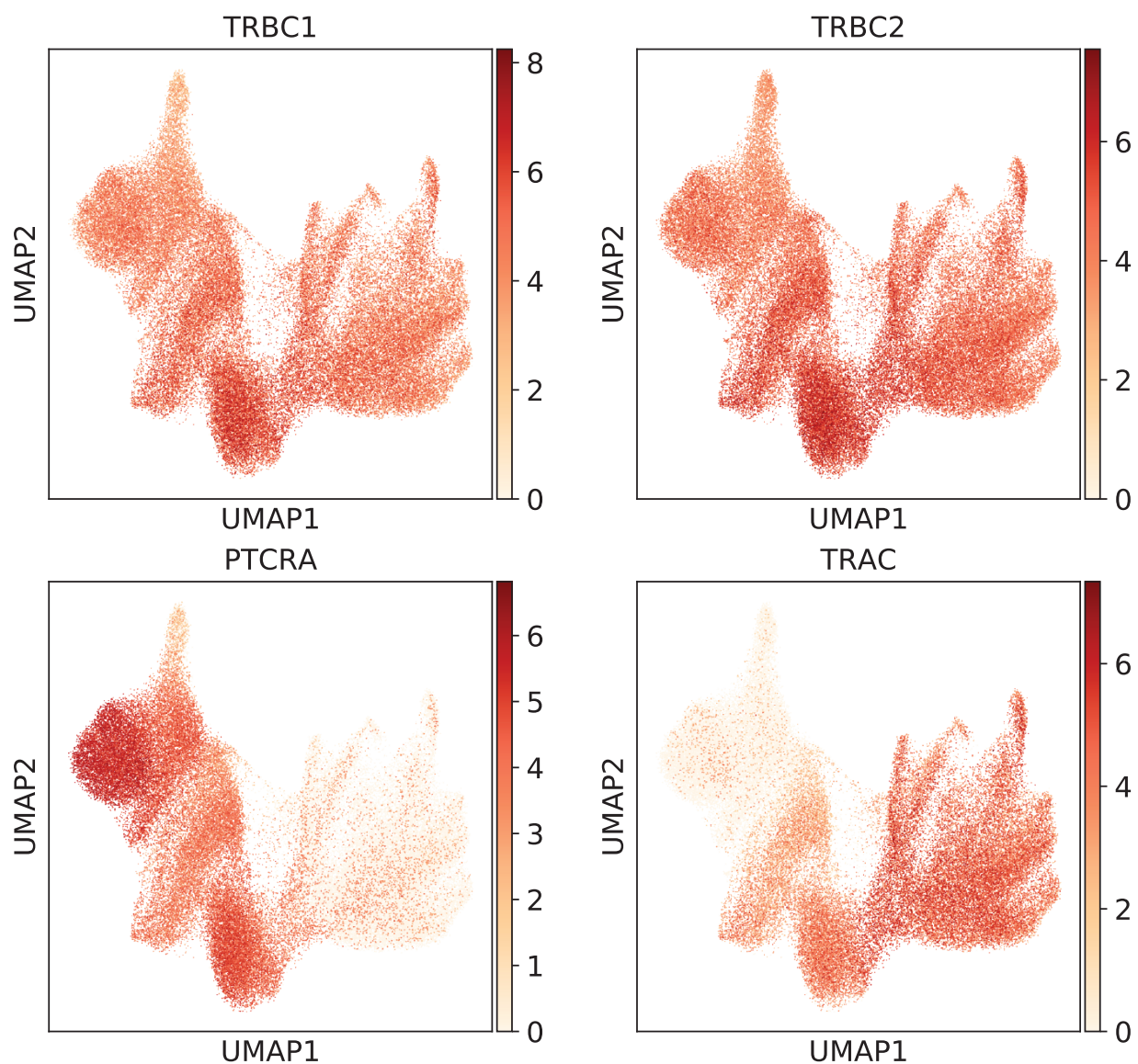


Fig. S15.

UMAP plot (same as used in Fig. 2C) displaying expression pattern of TRBC1, TRBC2, PTCRA (pre-TCR complex) and TRAC genes. Peak expression of PTCRA is found in DN(Q) cells.

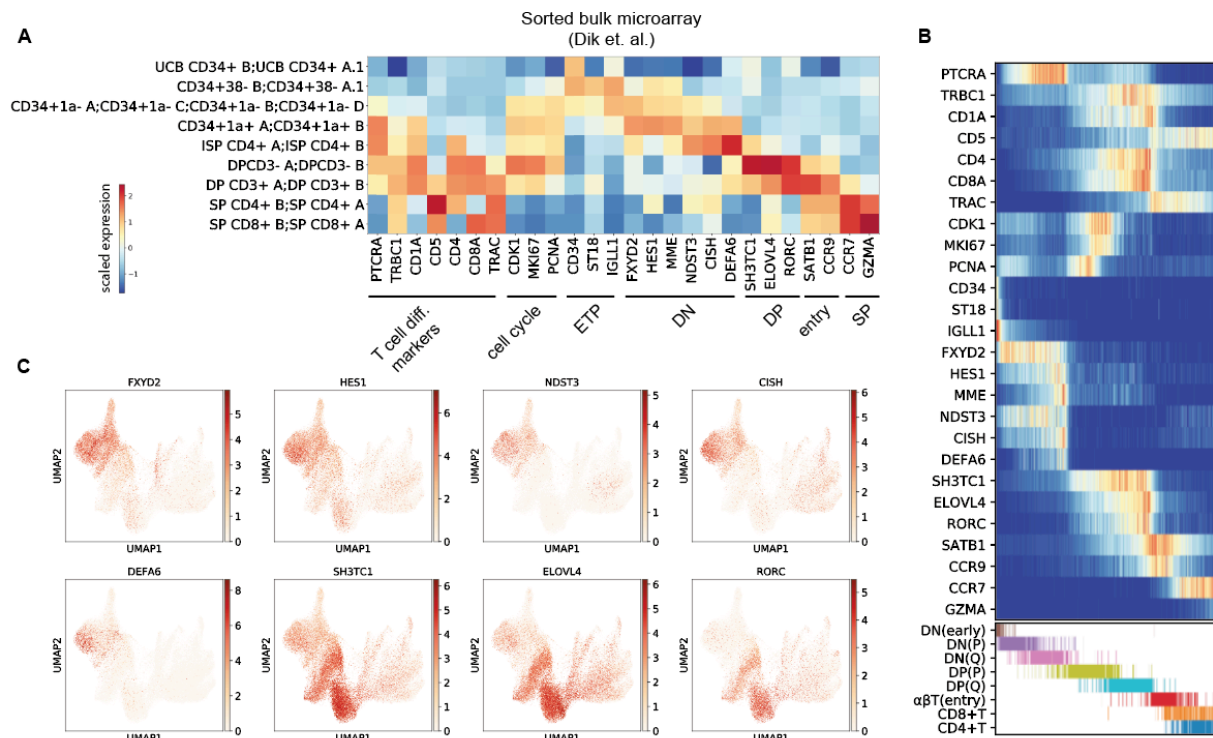


Fig. S16.

(A) Heatmap showing expression pattern of T cell differentiation marker genes (x-axis) from sorted cell populations (y-axis) (50). (B) Heatmap showing the expression pattern of T cell differentiation marker genes (same set used in (A)) across modelled pseudotime. Distribution of cell types are depicted in the lower panel. (C) Umap plot (same as Fig. 2C) showing expressing pattern of selected marker genes. *DEFA6* is marker gene for ISP CD4+ population (Fig. S16A), which overlaps largely with DN(Q) cells (Fig. 2C).

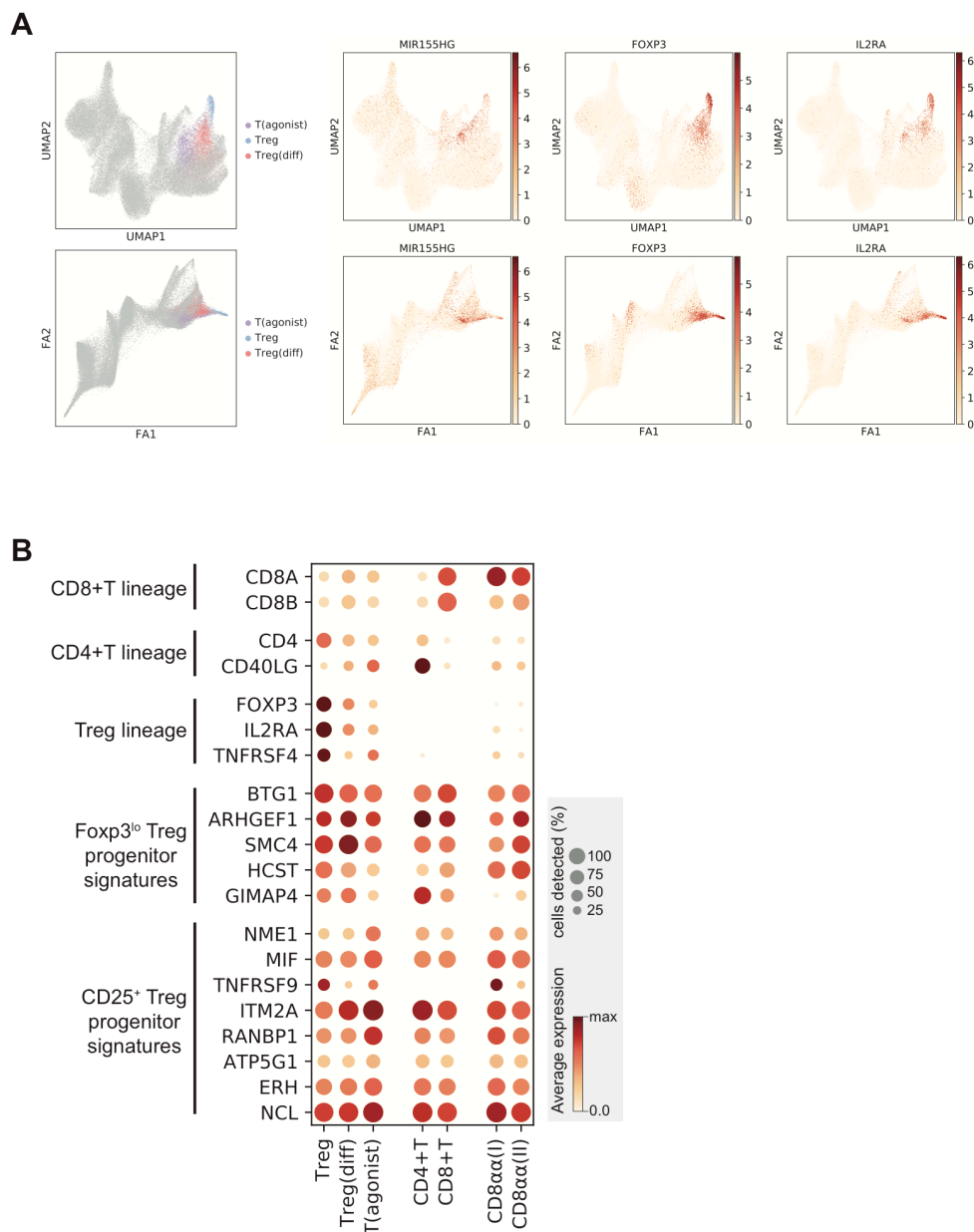


Fig. S17.

(A) UMAP and force directed graph for T cell trajectory (Same as displayed in fig. S14), highlighting Treg lineage cell types. (left panel). Right panel shows marker for T(agonist) cells (MIR155HG), Tregs and Treg(diif) cells (FOXP3), and IL2RA expression is shared among all three cell types. (B) Dot plot showing the expression of lineage markers and signatures for two Treg progenitors defined in (52).

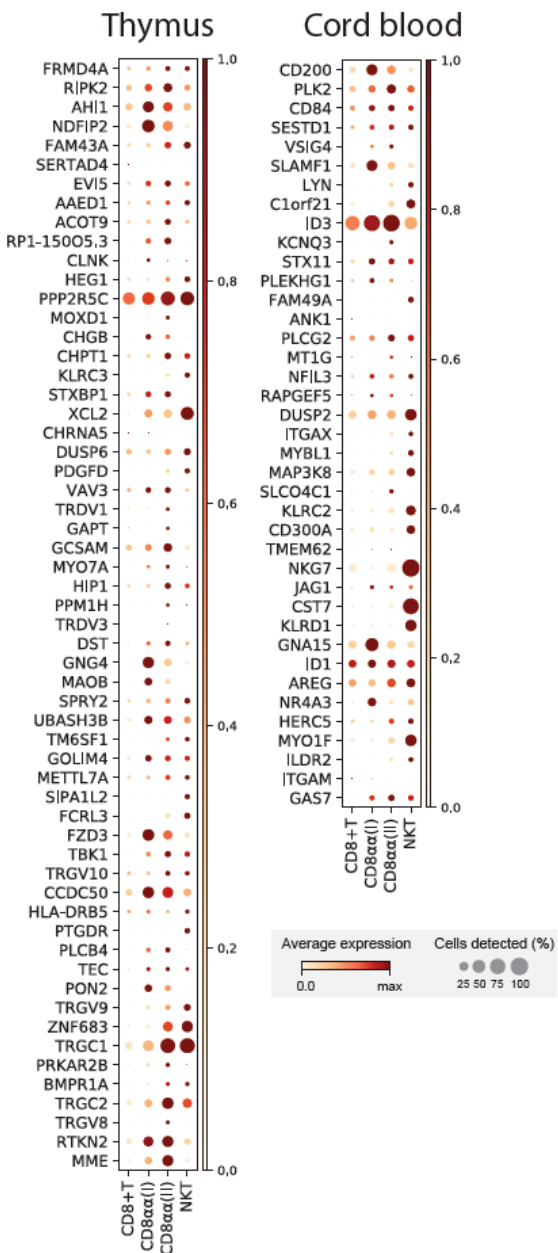


Fig. S18.

Dot plot showing the expression level of CD8α⁺T marker genes enriched in thymus (left) or cord blood (right) across conventional CD8⁺T cells and three CD8α⁺T types found in thymus.

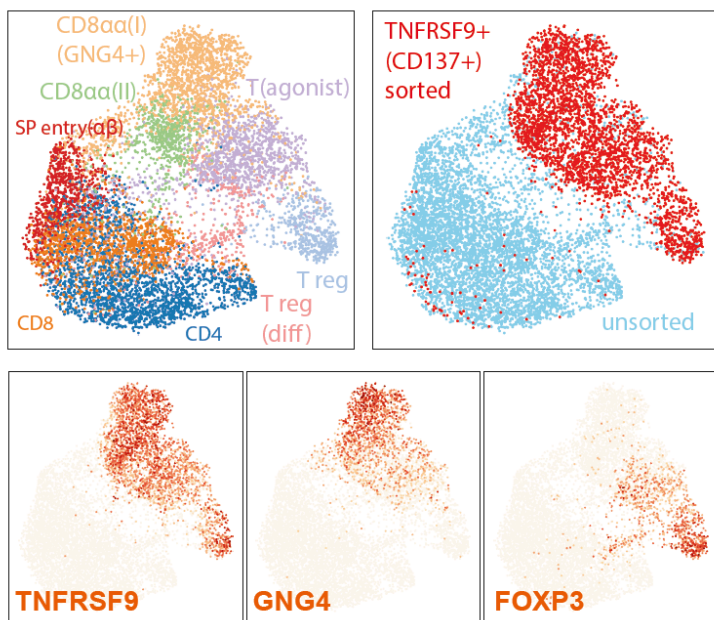


Fig. S19.

UMAP plot showing CD3+CD137+ sorted population from 12 PCW fetal thymus. Sorted cells (top right, red) were compared to unsorted mature T cells (top right, skyblue) from the same sample. Gene expression of CD8α+T(I) marker (*GNG4*), Treg marker (*FOXP3*) and marker shared between these two groups (*TNFRSF9/CD137*) are shown.

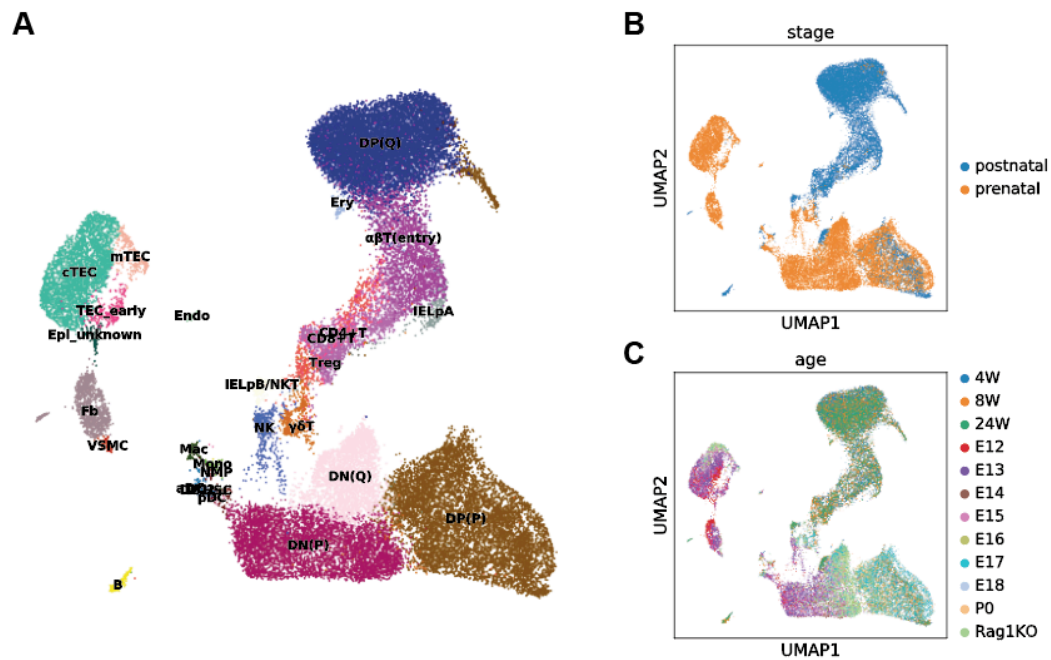


Fig. S20.

UMAP plot showing single-cell atlas of mouse thymic cells coloured by (A) cell types, (B) developmental stages and (C) age. E: embryonic day, W: weeks of postnatal age, Rag1KO: Rag1 knockout mouse.

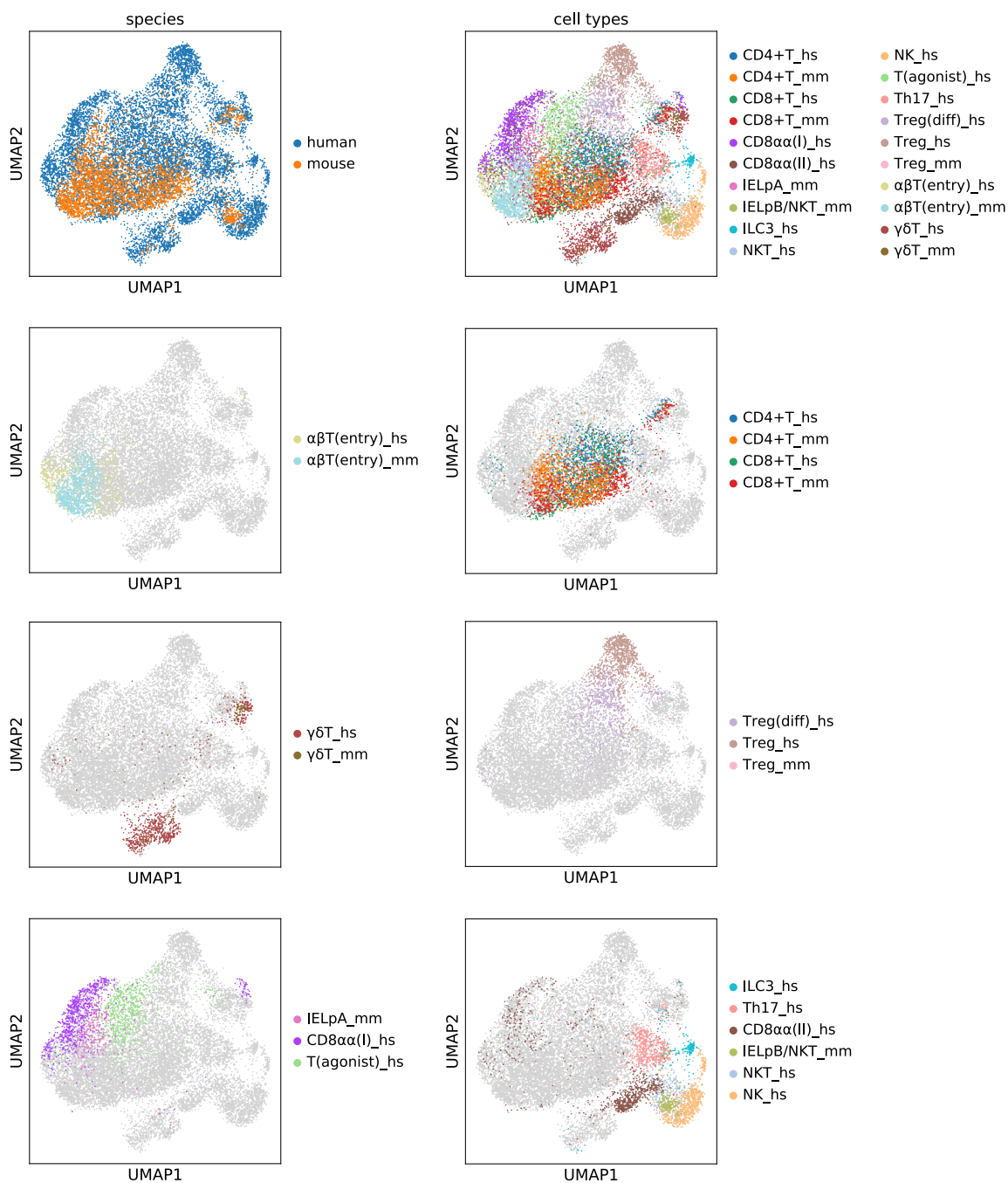


Fig. S21.

UMAP plot showing the integrative data analysis of mature T cell populations from human and mouse. Human cell types are annotated by 'hs' and mouse cell types are marked with 'mm'. Matching cell groups are shown together.

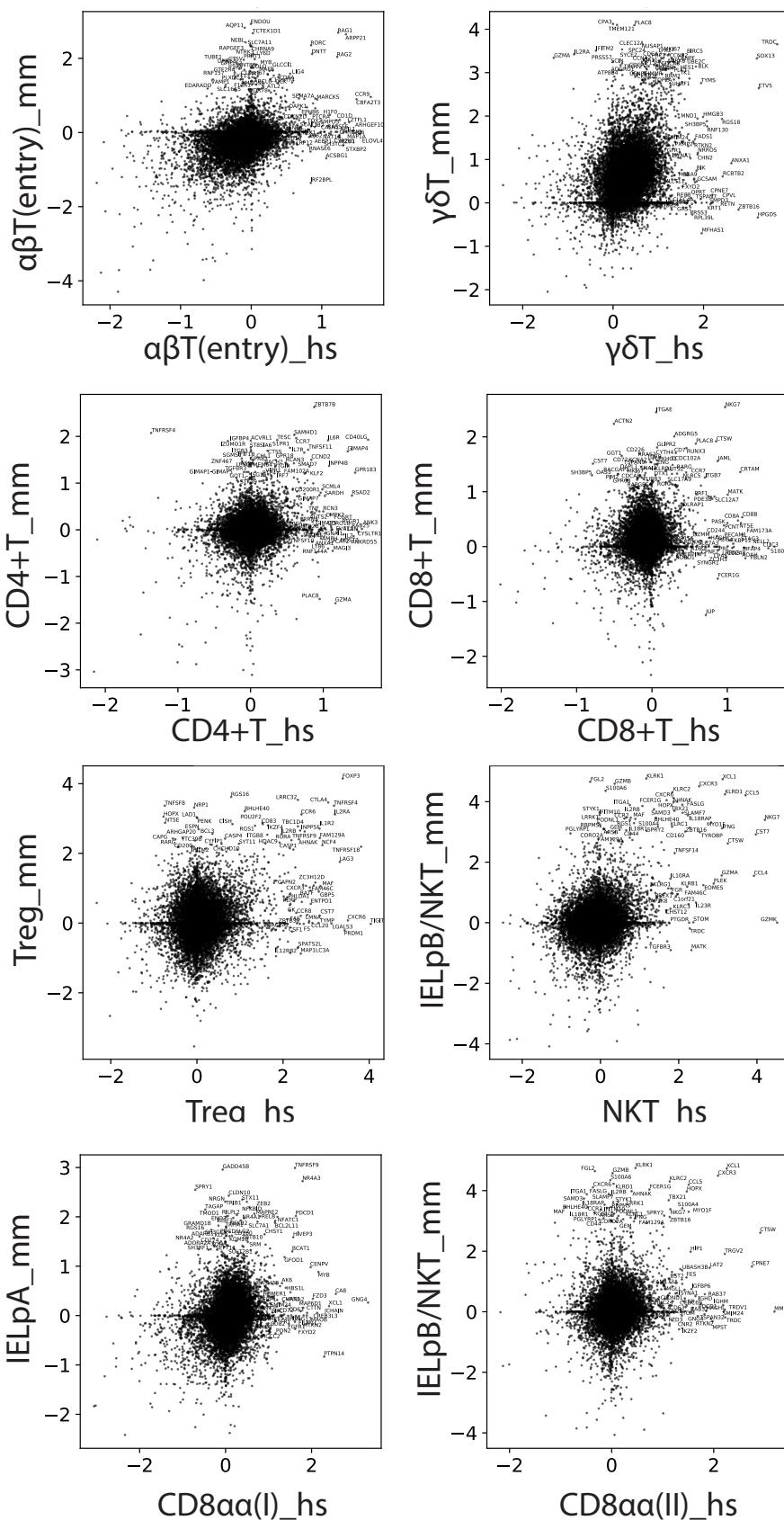


Fig. S22.

Comparison of markers for mature T cell types from human and mouse thymus. X-axis is gene expression log₂-fold change for the designated human cell types against all other human epithelial cells. Y-axis is gene expression log₂-fold change for the designated mouse cell types against all mouse epithelial cells. Comparison sets are determined based on the data integration (Fig. S21)

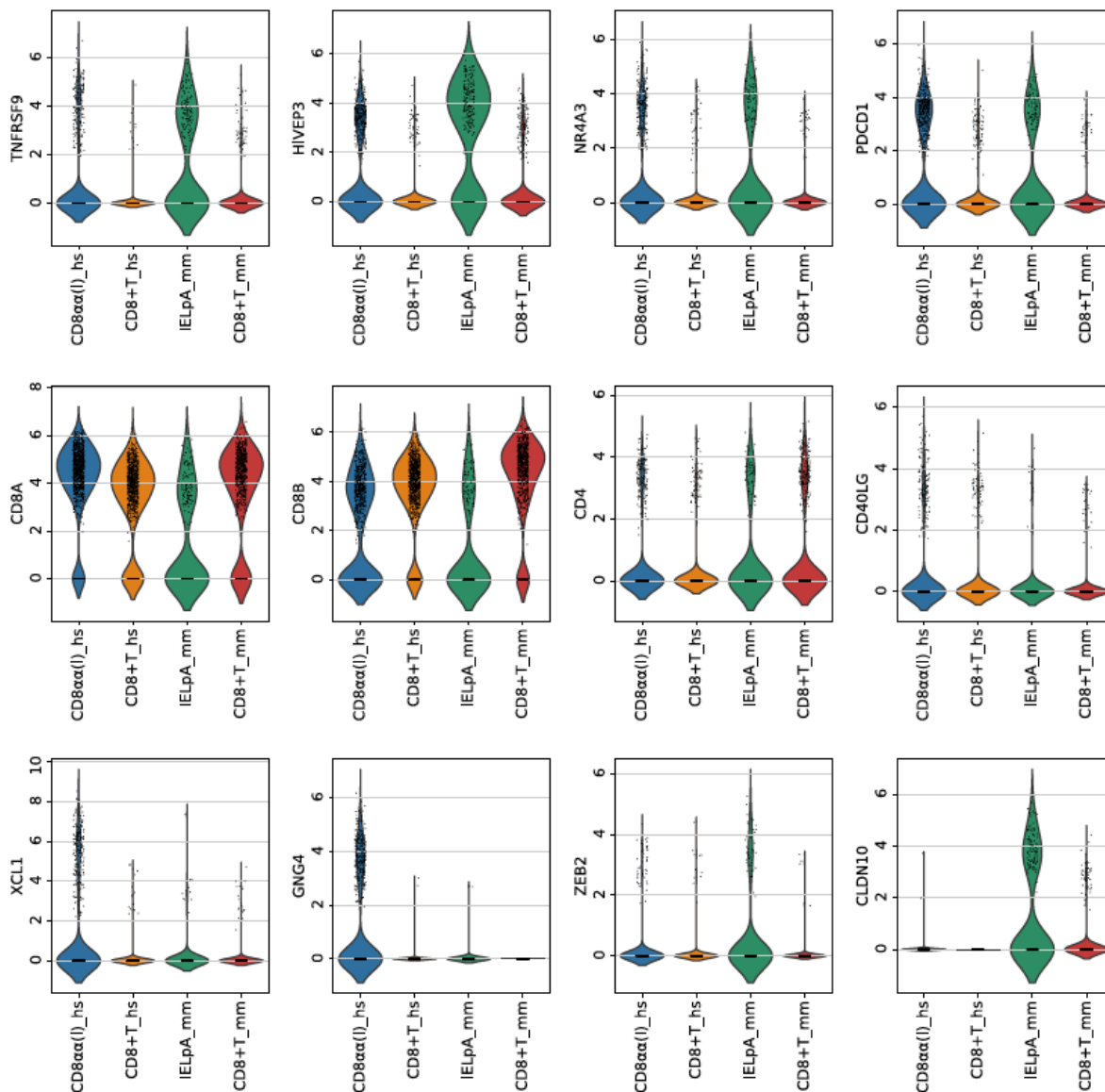


Fig. S23.

Violin plots showing the gene expression level (normalised to total reads per cell, log-transformed) across CD8αα+T(I) (human), IELpA (mouse) and CD8+T cells from both species. ‘hs’ and ‘mm’ suffix is used to identify cells from human and mouse, respectively. Gene names are designated in the y-axis.

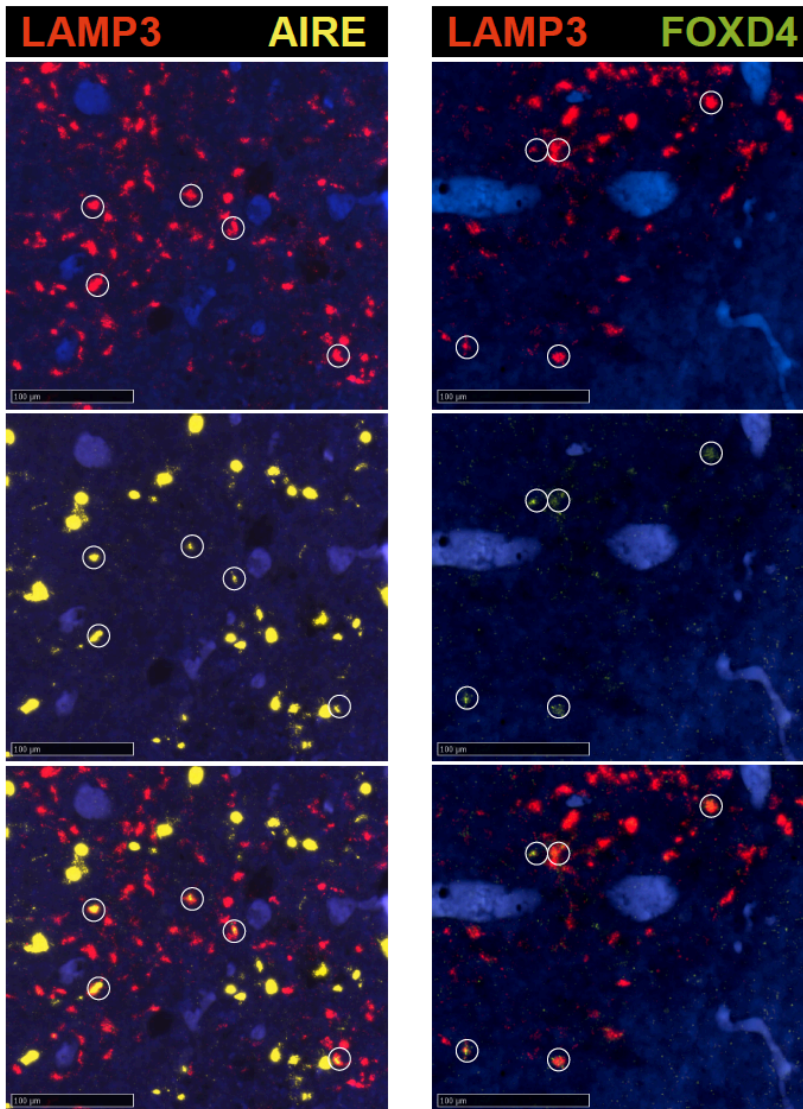


Fig. S24.

RNA single-molecule FISH detection of various genes expressed in aDCs (*LAMP3*, *AIRE*, *FOXD4*) on 15 PCW fetal thymus tissue section. Cells with expression of both genes are marked with a circle.

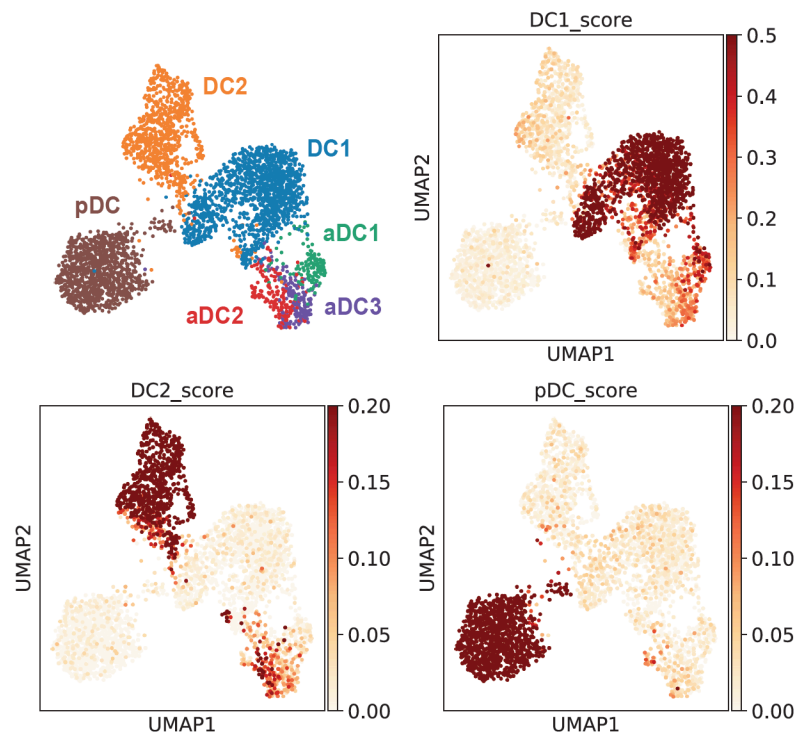


Fig. S25.

UMAP plot showing DC subtypes found in human thymus (top left). The same UMAP plot is used to show the cells with high DC1, DC2 and pDC scores, which are calculated by taking the average of expression level for lineage-specific genes.

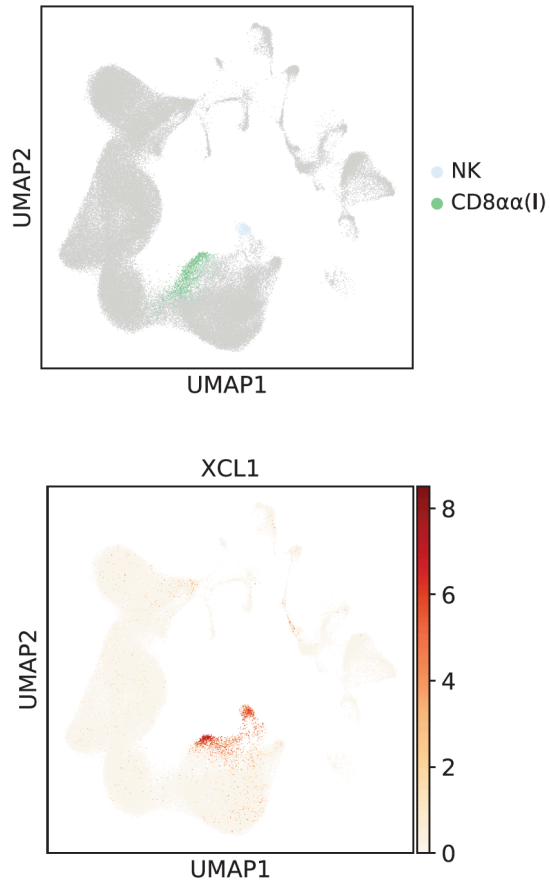
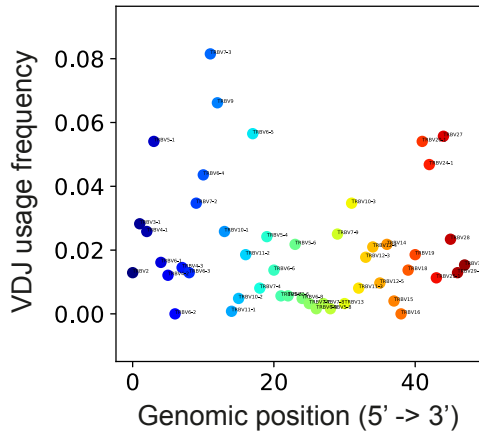


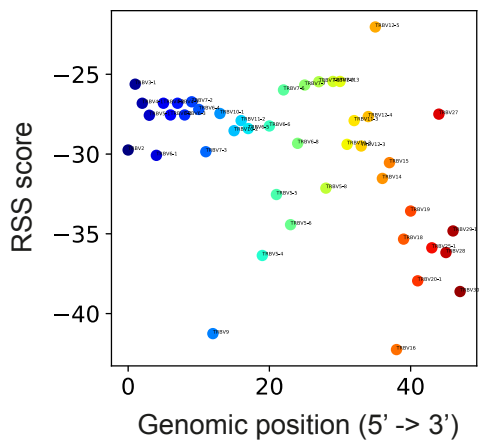
Fig. S26.

UMAP plot showing cell types expressing XCL1 (top) and XCL1 expression level in fetal thymus (bottom)

A



B



C

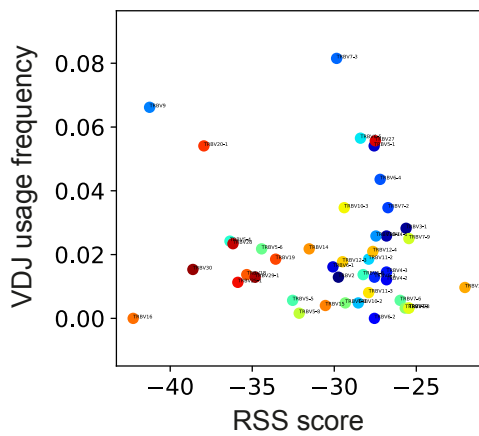
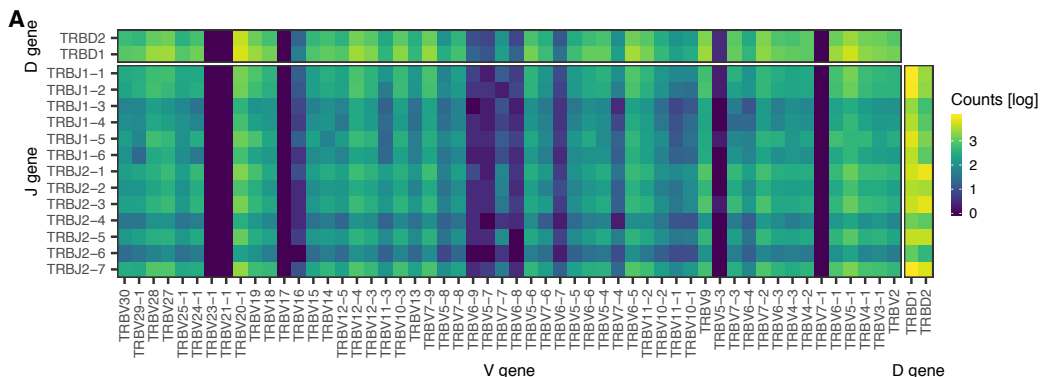


Fig. S27.

(A) Scatter plot comparing genomic position (x-axis) and relative usage (y-axis) for TCR β V genes. Genes are coloured based on genomic position. The same colour scheme is applied for following figures. **(B)** Scatter plot comparing genomic position (x-axis) and RSS score (y-axis) for TCR β V genes. **(C)** Scatter plot comparing RSS score (x-axis) and relative usage (y-axis) for TCR β V genes.

A



B

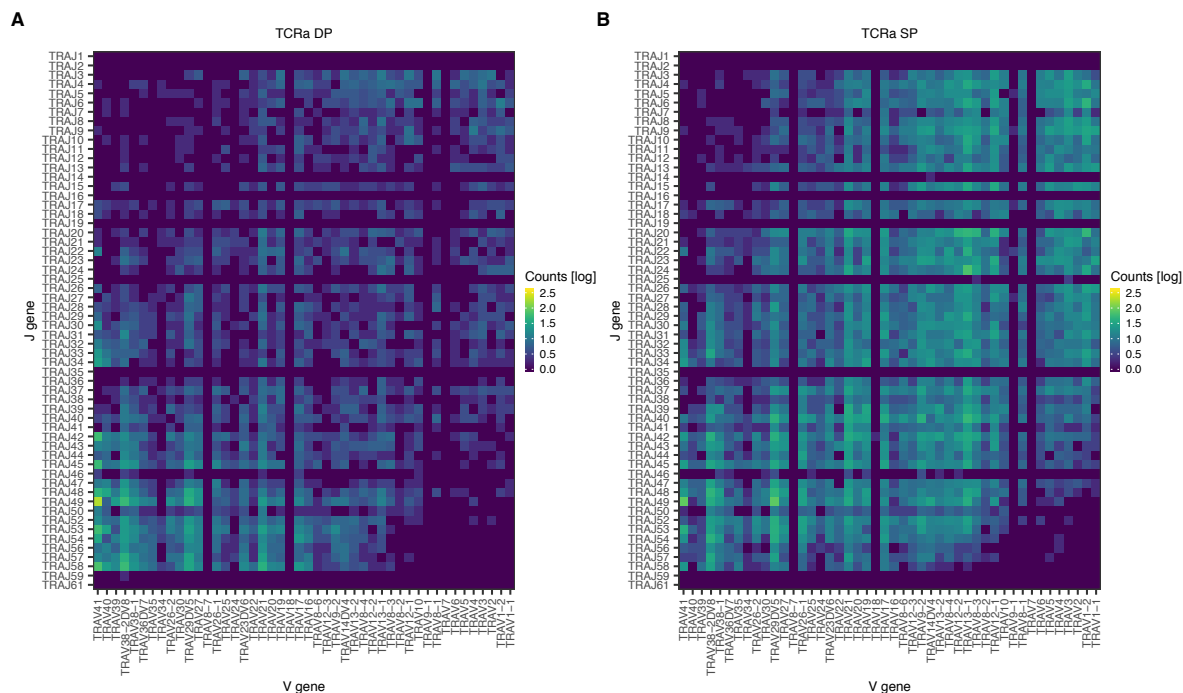


Fig. S28.

(A) Relative frequency (log scale) of V-J, V-D, J-D gene pairs in TCR β locus. (B) Relative frequency (log scale) of V-J gene pairs in TCR α locus. Dataset is divided into DP and SP stages to highlight the enrichment of proximal pairs in DP stage.

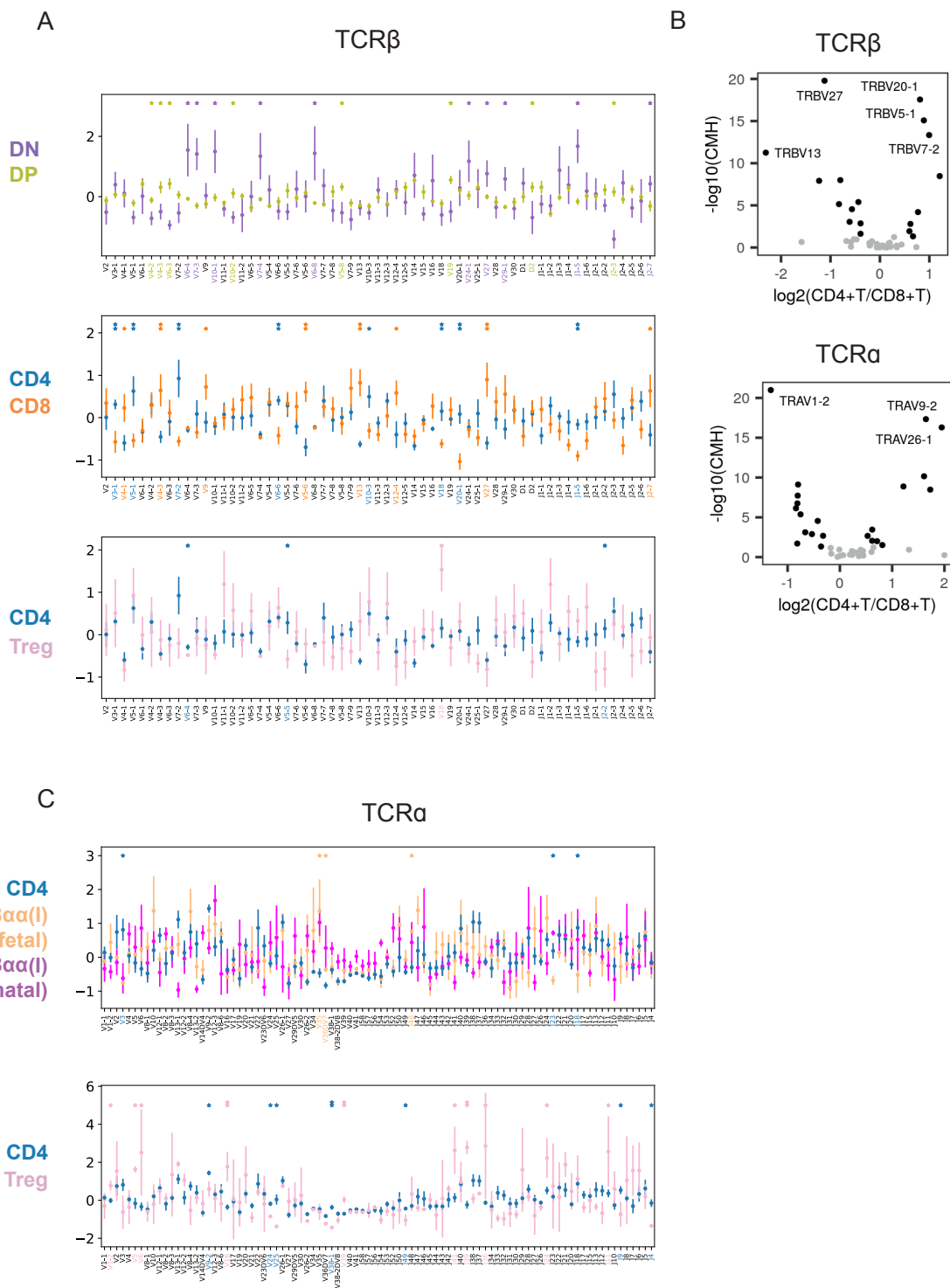


Fig. S29.

(A, B) Relative usage of V, D and J gene segments according to cell types for TCR β locus (A) or TCR α locus (B). Z-score for each segment is calculated from the distribution of normalised proportions stratified by the cell type and sample. P-value is calculated by comparing z-scores using t-test, and FDR is calculated using Benjamini-Hochberg correction. (*: p -value < 0.05, **: FDR < 10%) Gene names on the x-axis and asterisks are coloured by significant enrichment. For CD4 vs CD8 α +T (I) comparison, CD8 α +T (I) data points are separated into fetal samples (n=4) and post-natal sample (n=1, young adult) to highlight differences between fetal samples and young adult sample. All other comparisons are inclusive of both fetal and post-natal samples. Consistency between fetal and post-natal samples are separately confirmed (data not shown).

(C) Volcano plot showing $\log_2(\text{fold change})$ of V, D, J gene frequencies between CD4+T and CD8+T cells (x-axis) and $-\log_{10}(\text{p-value})$ calculated by Cochran–Mantel–Haenszel test. Genes with most significant changes are annotated.

Table S1. Table_S1.xlsx (separate file)

Excel file containing metadata for sequenced samples.

[FileName]	Prefix for raw sequencing files
[SampleID]	Sample description (DonorID-Organ-Sort-Method)
[Organ]	TH: thymus, SP: spleen, LI: liver, BM: bone marrow, iLN: iliac lymph node, tLN: thoracic lymph node, mLN: mesenteric lymph node
[DonorID]	Unique ID assigned for each donor
[Sort]	Sorting scheme used for each sample. 45P: CD45+, 45N: CD45-, CD3P: CD3+, CD3N: CD3-, CD137: CD137, 45NM: CD45 depletion by MACS, EPCAM: EPCAM enrichment by MACS
[Method]	3GEX: 10X 3' chemistry gene expression profiling, 5GEX: 10X 5' chemistry gene expression profiling
[VDJ_file]	File names for TCR enrichment sequencing if available
[Enzyme]	Protocols used for dissociation

Table S2. Table_S2.xlsx (separate file)

Excel file containing absolute cell numbers for each cell type in each sample.

Table S3. Table_S3.xlsx (separate file)

Excel file containing hierarchy of cell type annotations used in the study

Table S4. Table_S4.csv (separate file)

CSV file containing top 20 marker genes for each cell type.

Table S5. Table_S5_cpdb_means.csv (separate file)

CellPhoneDB analysis output file containing means calculated for each ligand-receptor pair within each cell-cell pair. The output has been selected for the ligand-receptor pairs which are specific to at least one cell-cell pair. Please refer to CellPhoneDB manual for details.

Table S6.
Antibodies used for FACS staining

Marker	Fluorochrome	Clone	Isotype	Supplier
CD123	BUV395	7G3	Mouse IgG2a κ	BD Biosciences
CD11c	APC-Cy7	Bu15	Mouse IgG1 κ	Biolegend
CD14	PE CF594	M ϕ P9	Mouse IgG2b κ	BD Biosciences
CD137	PE-Cy5	4B4-1	Mouse IgG1 κ	Biolegend
CD141	PerCP-Cy5.5	M80	Mouse IgG1 κ	Biolegend
CD19	FITC	4G7	Mouse IgG1 κ	BD Biosciences
CD20	FITC	L27	Mouse IgG1 κ	BD Biosciences
CD3	BV605	SK7	Mouse IgG1 κ	Biolegend
CD4	BV711	RPA-T4	Mouse IgG1 κ	Biolegend
CD8A	AF700	HIT8a	Mouse IgG1 κ	Biolegend
CD8B	FITC	REA715	Human IgG1	Miltenyi Biotec
HLA-DR	BV785	L243	Mouse IgG2a κ	Biolegend
EpCAM	Vioblue	HEA125	Mouse IgG1 κ	Miltenyi Biotec
CD45	APC	HI30	Mouse IgG1 κ	BD Biosciences
CCR7	PerCP-Cy5.5	G043H7	Mouse IgG2a κ	Biolegend
CD56	PE	NCAM16.2	IgG2b, κ	BD Biosciences
CD34	PE-Cy7	581	Mouse IgG1 κ	Biolegend
CD3	APC	SK7	Mouse IgG1 κ	Biolegend
THY1	Af700	5E10	Mouse IgG1 κ	Biolegend
PEGFRa	PE	16A1	Mouse IgG1 κ	Biolegend
PI16	BV605	RUO	Mouse IgG1 κ	BD Biosciences

Table S7.

Probes used for smRNA FISH

Gene ID	Cat. Number	Channel
CSF2RA	409341	C1
CCR7	410721	C1
LAMP3	468761-C2	C2
CD80	421471-C3	C3
CD8A	560391-C3	C3
FOXP3	418471	C1
TNFRSF9	415171	C1
ITGAX	419151	C1
FBN1	482478-C2	C2
COLEC11	542438	C1
ACTA2	311818-C3	C3
PDGFRA	604488	C1
CDH5	437458-C3	C3
XCR1	custom	C3
FOXD4	custom	C3
GNG4	custom	C2
AIRE	custom	C1
GDF10	506168	
NEUROG1	444398-C2	C2
MYOD1	562728-C2	C2
EPCAM	310288-C4	C4
ALDH1A2	528748	

Table S8.

List of cell cycle genes (559 genes) defined and used in this study

AC004381.6, ACAT2, ACOT7, ACSL3, ACTL6A, ACYP1, ADK, AIFM1, ALYREF, ANKRD36C, ANLN, ANP32B, ANP32E, AP000251.3, ARHGAP11A, ARHGAP11B, ARHGAP33, ARHGEP39, ASF1B, ASPM, ASRGL1, ATAD2, ATAD5, ATP5G1, ATP8B3, AURKA, AURKB, BAG2, BARD1, BAZ1B, BCL2L12, BIRC5, BLM, BLMH, BOP1, BORA, BRCA1, BRCA2, BRD7, BRD8, BRIP1, BUB1, BUB1B, BUB3, BUD13, C16orf91, C19orf91, C1QBP, C1orf112, C1orf35, C21orf58, C4orf27, C4orf46, C5orf34, C8orf88, C9orf40, CARHSP1, CASC5, CASP8AP2, CBX2, CBX5, CCDC14, CCDC15, CCDC167, CCDC18, CCDC34, CCDC58, CCDC86, CCNA2, CCNB1, CCNB2, CCNE2, CCNF, CCP110, CCSAP, CDC20, CDC25A, CDC25B, CDC25C, CDC27, CDC45, CDC6, CDC7, CDCA2, CDCA3, CDCA4, CDCA5, CDCA7, CDCA8, CDK1, CDK2, CDK5RAP2, CDKN2AIP, CDKN3, CDT1, CENPA, CENPE, CENPF, CENPH, CENPJ, CENPK, CENPL, CENPM, CENPN, CENPO, CENPP, CENPQ, CENPU, CENPV, CENPW, CEP152, CEP55, CEP57L1, CEP76, CEP78, CEP97, CHAC2, CHAF1A, CHAF1B, CHEK1, CISD1, CIT, CKAP2, CKAP2L, CKAP5, CKLF, CKS1B, CKS2, CLGN, CLSPN, CMSS1, CNP, CRNDE, CSE1L, CTC-260E6.6, CTCF, CTDSPL2, CTNNA1, CTPS1, DAZAP1, DBF4, DCAF12, DDB2, DDX11, DDX39A, DEK, DEPDC1, DEPDC1B, DHCR24, DHFR, DIAPH3, DLEU2, DLGAP5, DNA2, DNAJC9, DNMT1, DNMT1, DSSC1, DSG2, DSN1, DTL, DTYMK, DUT, E2F2, E2F7, E2F8, EBNA1BP2, ECT2, EIF1AY, ELP5, EMC9, ENO2, ENOSF1, EPCAM, ERCC6L, ERH, ERI2, ESCO2, ESPL1, EXO1, EXOC5, EXOSC5, EXOSC8, EXOSC9, EZH2, FAIM, FAM111A, FAM111B, FAM122B, FAM221A, FAM64A, FAM72B, FAM76B, FAM83D, FANCA, FANCD2, FANCG, FANCI, FBXO5, FEN1, FH, FHL2, FKBP5, FOXM1, G2E3, GALK1, GAPDH, GAR1, GARS, GEN1, GGH, GINS1, GINS2, GINS4, GKAP1, GLRX5, GMCL1, GMNN, GMPPB, GOT2, GPANK1, GPATCH4, GPN3, GPSM2, GSG2, GTF3A, GTF3C5, GTSE1, H1FX, H2AFV, H2AFX, H2AFY, H2AFZ, HADH, HAT1, HAUS6, HELLS, HIRIP3, HIST1H1A, HIST1H1B, HIST1H1D, HIST1H1E, HIST1H2AH, HIST1H2AM, HIST1H3G, HIST1H4C, HIST2H2AC, HIST3H2A, HJURP, HLTf, HMGA2, HMGB1, HMGB2, HMGB3, HMGCS1, HMGN2, HMGN5, HMGXB4, HMMR, HN1, HNRNPLL, HNRNPR, HPRT1, HSPA14, HSPB11, IARS, IDH2, IFRD2, IGF2BP1, ILF2, IMMP1L, INCENP, ING2, ITGB3BP, JAM3, KCTD9, KDM1A, KIAA0101, KIAA1524, KIF11, KIF14, KIF15, KIF18A, KIF18B, KIF20A, KIF20B, KIF22, KIF23, KIF2C, KIF4A, KIFC1, KLHL23, KMT5A, KNSTRN, KNTC1, KPNA2, LDHA, LDLR, LEO1, LIG1, LIN9, LMNB1, LMNB2, LRR1, LRRC42, LRRCC1, LSM4, MAD2L1, MAD2L2, MAGOHB, MASTL, MCM10, MCM2, MCM3, MCM4, MCM5, MCM6, MCM7, MCM8, MELK, MGME1, MIS18A, MIS18BP1, MKI67, MLH1, MMS22L, MND1, MNS1, MRPS2, MRPS23, MRTO4, MSH2, MSH6, MTHFD1, MTHFD2, MXD3, MYBL2, MYEF2, MZT1, NAE1, NASP, NCAPD2, NCAPD3, NCAPG, NCAPG2, NCAPH, NCAPH2, NCBP2-AS2, NDC80, NEDD1, NEIL3, NEK2, NFYB, NOP14, NOP16, NRM, NTPCR, NUCKS1, NUDT1, NUDT15, NUDT8, NUF2, NUP107, NUP155, NUP37, NUP50, NUP93, NUSAP1, ODF2, OIP5, ORC1, ORC6, OXCT1, PAICS, PARPBP, PAWR, PBK, PCNA, PDCD2, PGAM1, PGP, PHF19, PHGDH, PIDD1, PIF1, PKMYT1, PLCB4, PLK1, PLK4, PM20D2, POC1A, POLA1, POLA2, POLD1, POLD3, POLE, POLE2, POLQ, POLR2D, POLR3K, POP7, PPA1, PPL1, PRC1, PRDX2, PRIM1, PRIM2, PRKDC, PRPS1, PRR11, PRSS21, PSIP1, PSMC3IP, PSMG1, PSMG3, PSRC1, PTMA, PTTG1, PUM3, PXMP2, RACGAP1, RAD18, RAD21, RAD51, RAD51AP1, RAD51C, RAD54L, RAN, RANBP1, RANGAP1, RBBP8, RBL1, RCC1, RDM1, RFC2, RFC3, RFC4, RFC5, RFWD3, RHEB, RHNO1, RMI1, RMI2, RNASEH2A, RNF168, RP11-196G18.23, RPA1, RPA3, RPL39L, RPS4Y1, RRM1, RRM2, RTKN2, RUVBL1, SAAL1, SAC3D1, SAE1, SAMD1, SASS6, SEH1L, SFXN4, SGOL1, SGOL2, SGTA, SHCBP1, SHMT1, SIVA1, SKA1, SKA2, SKA3, SKP2, SLC16A1, SLC2A1, SLC39A8, SLC43A3, SLC7A3, SLF1, SLFN13, SMC1A, SMC2, SMC3, SMC4, SNRNP48, SNRPD1, SPAG5, SPC24, SPC25, SPD1L, SRD5A3, SRM, SSRP1, STIL, STMN1, SUV39H2, SVIP, TACC3, TCF19, TCOF1, TDP1, TEX30, TFDP1, THOC3, THOC6, THOP1, TICRR, TIMELESS, TK1, TM7SF3, TMEM106C, TMEM237, TMEM97, TMPO, TOMM40, TOMM5, TOP2A, TOPBP1, TPGS2, TPX2, TRAIIP, TRAP1, TRIP13, TROAP, TTF2, TTK, TUBA1B, TUBB, TUBB4B, TUBG1, TXN, TXNRD1, TYMS, UBE2C, UBE2S, UBE2T, UBR7, UCHL5, UCK2, UHRF1, UNG, USP1, USP39, VRK1, WDHD1, WDR34, WDR43, WDR62, WDR76, WDR77, WEE1, WHSC1, XRCC6BP1, YBX1, YDJC, YEATS4, ZGRF1, ZNF714, ZNF738, ZWILCH, ZWINT

Data S1. T_cell_development_3D_umap.html (separate file)

HTML file containing 3D umap structure for T cell developmental trajectory.