Short Article

**Developmental Cell**

**Plasticity in airway smooth muscle differentiation during mouse lung development**

**Graphical abstract**

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**Highlights**

- Contractile smooth muscle marker genes require mesenchymal Srf in the embryonic lung
- Srf-mutant mesenchyme exhibits normal patterning and mechanical properties
- Mutant “smooth muscle” wraps the airways and expresses wild-type smooth muscle genes
- Srf deletion leads to the formation of synthetic smooth muscle rather than contractile smooth muscle

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**In brief**
Deletion of myogenic transcription factors leads to loss of contractile smooth muscle markers without affecting branching of the embryonic mouse lung. Goodwin et al. show that these mutant lungs contain a smooth muscle population that expresses synthetic smooth muscle markers, wraps the airways, and is sufficient to support branching morphogenesis.
Plasticity in airway smooth muscle differentiation during mouse lung development

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SUMMARY

It has been proposed that smooth muscle differentiation may physically sculpt airway epithelial branches in mammalian lungs. Serum response factor (SRF) acts with its co-factor myocardin to activate the expression of contractile smooth muscle markers. In the adult, however, smooth muscle exhibits a variety of phenotypes beyond contractile, and these are independent of SRF/myocardin-induced transcription. To determine whether a similar phenotypic plasticity is exhibited during development, we deleted Srf from the mouse embryonic pulmonary mesenchyme. Srf-null lungs branch normally, and the mesenchyme displays mechanical properties indistinguishable from controls. scRNA-seq identified an Srf-null smooth muscle cluster, wrapping the airways of mutant lungs, which lacks contractile smooth muscle markers but retains many features of control smooth muscle. Srf-null embryonic airway smooth muscle exhibits a synthetic phenotype, compared with the contractile phenotype of mature wild-type airway smooth muscle. Our findings identify plasticity in embryonic airway smooth muscle and demonstrate that a synthetic smooth muscle layer promotes airway branching morphogenesis.

INTRODUCTION

Vascular and visceral smooth muscle cells are present throughout the body, and their differentiation is key for development and homeostasis. In the adult, smooth muscle takes on contractile or synthetic/proliferative phenotypes in response to local signals. For vascular smooth muscle, scRNA-seq analysis has identified at least six phenotypes. Studies using cultured cells have implicated myocardin (Myocd), acting with its required co-factor, serum response factor (Srf, SRF), as a key transcriptional activator of contractile smooth muscle markers, including α-smooth muscle actin (Acta2), α-SMA, transgelin (Tagln), SM22α, and calponin-1 (Cnn1). Changes in Myocd expression are associated with cardiovascular disease, and downregulation of Myocd can cause an osteogenic phenotype in vascular smooth muscle and subsequent arterial calcification in patients with type 2 diabetes.

SRF-deficient embryos die at embryonic day 6.5 (E6.5) from a defect in gastrulation due to a complete loss of mesenchymal cells. Myocd−/− animals die at E10.5 because of vascular abnormalities. Injecting Myocd−/− embryonic stem cells into wild-type blastocysts showed that wild-type cells can outcompete myocardin-null cells in visceral smooth muscle, but less so in vascular smooth muscle. SRF/myocardin signaling was therefore concluded to be essential for visceral smooth muscle differentiation. Nonetheless, mice deficient in Acta2, Tagln, or Cnn1 are all viable, suggesting that these SRF/myocardin targets are dispensable for smooth muscle differentiation.

The airway smooth muscle differentiation program is just beginning to be defined. Multiple signaling pathways affect each step of the process, from regulating the pool of smooth muscle progenitors, to specifying nascent smooth muscle cells, to inducing their differentiation and maturation. Importantly, cytoskeletal and adhesion genes are expressed before contractile smooth muscle markers, suggesting early changes to the mechanical properties of the mesenchyme as it begins to differentiate into smooth muscle. Disrupting the smooth muscle differentiation program leads to defective branching morphogenesis of the epithelium, with a loss of smooth muscle differentiation associated with cystic branches and a gain associated with stunted branches. These observations have led to a conceptual model wherein the pulmonary mesenchyme sculpts the morphology and positions of branches that form in the growing airway epithelium.

However, recent work in which Myocd was deleted from the embryonic pulmonary mesenchyme appears to cast doubt on this model. Myocd−/− mutants fail to express markers of contractile smooth muscle but branch normally. That study did not determine whether loss of Myocd affects the entire smooth muscle differentiation program, raising the possibility that early stages of smooth muscle differentiation (which sculpt new epithelial branches and occur prior to robust Myocd expression)
are unaffected by loss of Myocd, and/or that Myocd-independent aspects of the smooth muscle transcriptome are sufficient to support epithelial morphogenesis. Here, we sought to resolve these seemingly contradictory observations and to define precisely the role of SRF/myocardin-induced transcription in the embryonic pulmonary mesenchyme.

RESULTS

Deleting Srf from the embryonic pulmonary mesenchyme permits airway branching

To understand the role of SRF/myocardin-induced transcription in airway smooth muscle differentiation and morphogenesis in the embryonic mouse lung, we deleted Srf from the pulmonary mesenchyme using Tbx4-rtTA;tet-O-Cre. This strategy allows for doxycycline-induced activation of Cre recombinase exclusively in the pulmonary mesenchyme by using a tissue-specific enhancer of Tbx4. Immunofluorescence analysis for E-cadherin (Ecad) and αSMA showed that deleting Srf from the pulmonary mesenchyme results in a normally branched airway epithelial tree devoid of αSMA+ cells at E12.5 (Figures 1A and 1B). The number of terminal branches is similar in Srf−mutant and littermate control lungs (Figure 1C), as is the size of the lungs (Figures S1A–S1D). However, Srf−mutant lungs have significantly smaller caliber airways than controls (Figure 1D).

We used time-lapse imaging of lungs cultured ex vivo to visualize the dynamics of branching morphogenesis and airway smooth muscle contractions (Figure 1E). Bifurcation of the airway epithelium proceeds at the same rate in Srf–mutants as in controls (Figure 1F), consistent with their ability to form a normal number of branches. However, Srf–mutant airways lack spontaneous contractile behaviors (Figure 1G; Video S1). These observations are

Figure 1. Deleting Srf from the embryonic pulmonary mesenchyme leads to loss of αSMA but does not affect epithelial branching (A and B) E12.5 Tbx4-rtTA;tet-O-Cre;Srffl/fl and littermate control lungs immunostained for Ecad and αSMA. Scale bars, 100 μm. (C) Number of branches in E12.5 Tbx4-rtTA;tet-O-Cre;Srffl/fl and littermate control lungs, connected by gray lines and compared using a t test. Inset shows branch number in mutant lungs divided by that of littermate controls, compared with a hypothetical mean of 1, using a one sample t test. Error bars show SD. (D) Airway diameter measured between the first two domain branches of the left lobe of E12.5 Tbx4-rtTA;tet-O-Cre;Srffl/fl lungs and controls (n = 12 controls, 9 mutants). (E) Bright-field images of E12.5 Tbx4-rtTA;tet-O-Cre;Srffl/fl and littermate control lungs cultured ex vivo. Scale bars, 200 μm. (F) Contours of the epithelium showing dynamic changes in the morphology of terminal bifurcations in mutants and controls. Scale bars, 50 μm. (G) Number of spontaneous smooth muscle contractions per 5-min time lapse in Tbx4-rtTA;tet-O-Cre;Srffl/fl and littermate control lungs (n = 3 controls, 5 mutants). Error bars show SD. Groups were compared using two-sided t test.
Figure 2. Srf-mutant lungs exhibit normal mesenchymal patterning

(A) Schematic illustrating the expected patterns of cytoskeletal elements, tissue mechanical properties, and markers of patterning in the mesenchyme around epithelial tips.

(B and C) E12.5 control and Tbx4-rtTA;tet-O-Cre;Srf

mutant lungs immunostained for Lef1 and counterstained with Hoechst and quantification of Lef1 intensity profiles around epithelial buds (n = 3 controls, 3 mutants). Mean and SD are plotted, and curves were compared using two-way ANOVA. Schematic shows lines and direction along which intensity profiles were measured. Scale bars indicate 50 μm.

(D) RNAscope analysis of Acta2 and Bmp4 on sections of E12.5 control and Tbx4-rtTA;tet-O-Cre;Srf

mutant lungs. Filled arrowheads indicate Bmp4

sub-epithelial mesenchyme, and empty arrowheads indicate Bmp4

epithelial tips. Scale bars indicate 50 μm.

(E and F) E12.5 control and Tbx4-rtTA;tet-O-Cre;Srf

mutant lungs immunostained for Tbx3 and counterstained with Hoechst, and quantification of Tbx3 intensity profiles around epithelial tips (n = 3 controls, 3 mutants). Mean and SD are plotted, and curves were compared using two-way ANOVA. Scale bars indicate 50 μm.

(G–J) E12.5 control and Tbx4-rtTA;tet-O-Cre;Srf

mutant lungs immunostained for αSMA and F-actin or pMLC, and quantification of F-actin and pMLC intensity profiles around epithelial tips (n = 9 controls, 11 mutants for F-actin; n = 4 controls, 6 mutants for pMLC). Arrowhead indicates enrichment of mesenchymal F-actin and pMLC near the branching epithelium. Scale bars indicate 50 μm.

(K) Single confocal slices and reconstructed optical cross-sections through E12.5 control and Tbx4-rtTA;tet-O-Cre;Srf

mutant lungs immunostained for αSMA and F-actin. Dashed line indicates location of the cross-section. Scale bars indicate 50 μm.
similar to previous descriptions of lungs from mice in which the SRF co-factor Myocd had been deleted from the embryonic pulmonary mesenchyme. Combined with that work, our data suggest that SRF/myocardin-dependent genes are not required in the pulmonary mesenchyme for airway epithelial branching.

**Srf-mutant lungs have normal mesenchymal patterning and mechanical properties**

Given that deleting Srf from the mesenchyme has no effect on epithelial morphogenesis, we next focused our attention on the mesenchyme itself to characterize the phenotype of this mutant. Specifically, we evaluated the patterning and mechanical properties of the mesenchyme in $E_{12.5}$ Srf-mutant lungs. In wild-type lungs, the branching epithelium is surrounded by sub-epithelial mesenchymal cells that express lymphoid enhancer binding factor 1 (Lef1) and bone morphogenetic protein 4 (Bmp4) (Figure 2A). Immunofluorescence and RNAscope analysis showed that Lef1 and Bmp4 are expressed in similar patterns in Srf-mutant lungs and controls (Figures 2B–2D), indicating that Srf is dispensable for patterning the sub-epithelial mesenchyme. In wild-type lungs, nascent smooth muscle cells immediately adjacent to the epithelium express T-box transcription factor 3 (Tbx3). Immunofluorescence analysis showed that Tbx3 is also expressed in the mesenchyme adjacent to the epithelium in Srf mutants (Figures 2E and 2F), suggesting that Srf is similarly dispensable for specifying the earliest stages of airway smooth muscle differentiation.

Deposition of the extracellular matrix protein fibronectin has been proposed to play a role in cleft formation during bifurcation of the airway epithelium. We examined the distribution of fibronectin in Srf mutants and controls at $E_{12.5}$ and found no differences at epithelial bifurcation points (Figures S1E and S1F), showing that loss of Srf has no effect on fibronectin deposition in the mouse lung. These data suggest that alterations in fibronectin do not provide a compensatory mechanism to drive branching in the absence of contractile smooth muscle proteins.

Filamentous actin (F-actin) and phosphorylated myosin light chain (pMLC) are molecular markers associated with the mechanical properties of airway smooth muscle—specifically, enhanced stiffness and mechanical tone. Consistently, the levels of F-actin and pMLC are enriched in the mesenchyme immediately adjacent to epithelial tips, sites of active branching morphogenesis, and decrease farther from the epithelium (Figures 2G–2J). We observed similar patterns of F-actin and pMLC in Srf mutants (Figures 2G–2J). The highest levels of F-actin are concentrated in the mesenchyme wrapping around epithelial branches in both controls and mutants (Figures 2K and 2L), despite loss of αSMA in the latter (Figure 2M). These patterns of F-actin and pMLC correlate with levels of cortical tension in the embryonic pulmonary mesenchyme previously inferred using a FRET-based tension sensor. Therefore, loss of SRF does not reduce the stiffness or mechanical tone of the pulmonary mesenchyme.

Based on the normal patterning of these molecular markers of mechanical stiffness and tone, we hypothesized that the Srf-null mesenchyme remains capable of mechanically sculpting the airway epithelium. To test this hypothesis, we compared the morphology of epithelial bifurcations before and after surgically removing the surrounding mesenchyme. In both mutants and controls, the depth of the cleft at bifurcations significantly decreases following removal of the mesenchyme (Figures S1G and S1H). Importantly, cleft depths in Srf mutants are initially indistinguishable from those in controls, and they decrease to identical levels after removing the mesenchyme. We also carried out atomic force microscopy (AFM) measurements and found similar patterns of elastic moduli in the mesenchyme of Srf-mutant and control lungs (Figures 2N and S1I–S1K). Based on these data, we conclude that Srf is not required for patterning the molecular or passive mechanical features of the embryonic pulmonary mesenchyme. Consequently, mesenchymal sculpting of the epithelium is independent of Srf-induced transcription.

**scRNA-seq of Srf-mutant lungs identifies a “smooth muscle-like” population of cells**

Given that deleting Srf does not affect mesenchymal patterning around the airway epithelium, we used single-cell transcriptomics to broadly characterize the changes induced by loss of Srf. We generated scRNA-seq datasets from whole $Tbx4$-rtTA;tet-O-Cre;Srfl/fl lungs and $Srf^{+/−}$ lungs isolated at $E_{12.5}$ (Figure 3A). Both datasets contained the expected populations of cells, including mesenchyme, epithelium, vascular endothelium, mesothelium, neurons, and immune cells (Figures 3A and S2A). Consistent with our immunofluorescence analysis, the SRF-induced contractile smooth muscle markers Acta2 and Tagln were detected in the smooth muscle cluster of the control dataset (cluster 7) and were absent from the mutant dataset (Figure 3B). Srf was detected throughout the control mesenchyme and absent from the mutant mesenchyme, confirming that mesenchymal expression of Cre resulted in the expected knockout (Figure 3C). Myocd was present in the smooth muscle cluster in the control dataset, as expected, but was also expressed at high levels in cluster 9 of the mutant dataset (Figure 3C). As compared with the smooth muscle cluster in the control, cells in mutant cluster 9 expressed significantly lower levels of canonical markers of contractile smooth muscle, including Acta2, Tagln, Cnn1, Myl9, and Myh11 (Figures S2B–S2F). This Myocd cluster also did not contain Srf expressing cells (Figures 3C and S2G), ruling out the possibility of a failure in Cre-mediated recombination. As an alternate approach, we integrated the control and Srf-mutant datasets and visualized the resultant clusters (Figure S2H). Both control and Srf-mutant cells were present in the integrated clusters (Figure S2I), including a Myocd-enriched population that also contained Acta2+ and Tagln+ cells (Figures S2J–S2L). This analysis suggests that Srf-mutant lungs contain cells that are transcriptionally similar to wild-type smooth muscle, albeit lacking the expression of contractile markers.

To map the locations of the Myocd+ clusters, we carried out RNAscope analysis of Acta2 and Myocd. In control lungs, Acta2 and Myocd expression showed close spatial overlap in...
Figure 3. scRNA-seq identifies a smooth muscle-like population in Srf−mutant lungs

(A) UMAPs of cells isolated from E12.5 Tbx4-rtTA;tet-O-Cre;Srf+/− and littermate control lungs color-coded according to cluster (n = 6 controls, 7 mutants).

(B and C) Expression levels of Acta2, Tagln, Srf, and Myocd in mutants and controls.

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cells adjacent to the epithelium, as expected for markers of airway smooth muscle (Figure 3D). By contrast, Srf-mutant lungs lacked Acta2 expression, in agreement with our immunofluorescence and scRNA-seq analyses. Nonetheless, the mutants exhibited clear Myocd expression in the same pattern as controls. Srf-mutant lungs thus contain Myocd+ cells that wrap the airways in a pattern indistinguishable from that of airway smooth muscle. Therefore, a “smooth muscle” cluster persists in lungs lacking mesenchymal Srf. Consistent with this conclusion, our scRNA-seq data showed that many Srf-independent smooth muscle markers are expressed in the smooth muscle clusters of both control and Srf-mutant lungs (Figure 3E).

To define the extent to which Srf-null smooth muscle is functionally similar to control smooth muscle, we carried out KEGG pathway enrichment analysis on marker genes for each smooth muscle cluster. Signaling pathways related to cell mechanical properties and cell signaling were similarly enriched in both control and Srf-null smooth muscle (Figures 3F and S3). Among the pathways unique to control smooth muscle were “vascular smooth muscle contraction” and “gap junctions,” suggesting that smooth muscle maturation may be impaired in Srf mutants (Figures 3F and S3), in agreement with the loss of spontaneous contractions (Figure 1G). Consistently, we found that genes under the KEGG term “signaling pathways regulating the pluripotency of stem cells” were enriched in only the mutant smooth muscle cluster (Figures 3F and S3). These data show that deleting Srf from the embryonic pulmonary mesenchyme is not sufficient to eliminate airway smooth muscle per se. Instead, SRF-induced signaling appears to affect a minor subset of genes, including contractile smooth muscle markers.

**Srf-null embryonic airway smooth muscle cells are phenotypically similar to adult synthetic smooth muscle**

Pearson correlation analysis of each pair of clusters shows a high degree of similarity between the mesenchyme of control and Srf-mutant lungs, with strong correlations observed between undifferentiated mesenchymal cells, smooth muscle cells, and cartilage precursors of both genotypes (Figure S4A). This analysis also identified similarities between mutant smooth muscle and control cartilage precursors (asterisks in Figure S4A). Alcian blue staining showed no ectopic cartilage around the airways of Srf-mutant lungs at E18.5 (Figures S4B and S4C), demonstrating that Srf-null smooth muscle does not differentiate into cartilage. This analysis also identified stronger correlations between undifferentiated mesenchyme and mutant smooth muscle compared with control smooth muscle (dashed boxes in Figure S4A). We therefore asked whether Srf-null smooth muscle cells resemble nascent (immature) control smooth muscle, or whether they differentiate down a different trajectory. We carried out diffusion analysis8 of control mesenchymal cells, which showed that the trajectory of undifferentiated mesenchymal fibroblasts into either smooth muscle or cartilage precursors (Figure 4A, left). Diffusion analysis of mutant cells showed separation of the smooth muscle cluster from the rest of the mesenchyme (Figure S4D), but the separation was less pronounced than that observed in the control dataset, consistent with our hypothesis that Srf-null smooth muscle remains immature. We then projected the Srf-null smooth muscle cells onto the control diffusion map (Figure 4A, right). Mutant smooth muscle cells clustered among the undifferentiated mesenchymal cells near the bifurcation point between the smooth muscle and cartilage precursor branches. These results suggest that Srf-null smooth muscle may be trapped in the earliest stages of smooth muscle differentiation and prevented from maturing into a contractile phenotype.

To test the plausibility of this hypothesis, we compiled a list of genes that serve as markers for contractile and synthetic adult smooth muscle1,5,6,32–34 and clustered Srf-mutant and control embryonic airway smooth muscle cells based on their expression of these genes (Figures 4B and S4E; Table S1). Contractile and synthetic markers tend to cluster together, as do mutant and control smooth muscle. Consistent with our hypothesis, contractile markers are strongly enriched in control smooth muscle (Figures 4B and S4E). By contrast, some synthetic markers are strongly enriched in Srf-null smooth muscle (Col2a1, Sox9, and Vcan), whereas others show a more modest enrichment (Bgn, Fn1, Sox5, Sox6, Tgfbs3, Dcn, Runx2, and Sorbs3). These data suggest that wild-type (mature) embryonic airway smooth muscle exhibits a classical contractile phenotype. By contrast, the gene-expression program of Srf-null (immature) embryonic airway smooth muscle is more consistent with a classical synthetic phenotype.

We confirmed these observations using immunofluorescence and RNAscope analysis for markers of synthetic smooth muscle (Sox9 and Col2a1) and cell proliferation [Ki67 and 5-ethyl-2'-deoxyuridine (EdU) incorporation]. We observed dense accumulation of Sox9+ cells in the mesenchyme around the epithelium of Srf-mutant lungs but not controls (Figures 4C and 4D). Additionally, the Sox9+ cell layer in mutants is significantly thicker than the αSMA+ cell layer in controls (Figure 4E). Col2a1 is present in the epithelium and in cartilage precursors lining the lateral side of the upper primary bronchi in both controls and mutants (Figure 4F), as expected, given its known gene-expression patterns.35,36 Additionally, we found that Col2a1 is expressed in Acta2 Myocd+ mutant smooth muscle cells but not in Acta2 Myocd+ controls (Figure 4F). Ki67 expression and EdU incorporation are higher in the smooth muscle cells of the mutant compared with the control, suggesting that more Srf-null smooth muscle cells are actively proliferating (Figures 4G–4J). Consistently, cell-cycle scoring of our scRNA-seq data showed that more cells of the control are in G1 phase, whereas more cells of the mutant are in S phase (Figure 4K). Given that Srf-null smooth muscle expresses Sox9 and Col2a1 and is highly proliferative, we conclude that the loss of SRF arrests this population in a synthetic smooth muscle state. Therefore, we conclude that Srf promotes the contractile phenotype in embryonic airway smooth muscle.

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(D) RNAscope analysis of Acta2 and Myocd in E12.5 Tbx4-rtTA;tet-O-Cre;Srffl/fl and littermate control lungs. Dashed lines outline the epithelium. Filled arrowheads point to branch tips, and empty arrowheads point to branch stalks. Scale bars, 50 μm.

(E) Expression levels of Hhip, IGF1, Smoc2, and Tgfb1 in mutants and controls.

(F) KEGG pathway enrichment analysis for marker genes of the smooth muscle clusters from control and Tbx4-rtTA;tet-O-Cre;Srffl/fl lungs.
Figure 4. Srf-null airway smooth muscle cells display a phenotype consistent with synthetic smooth muscle

(A) Diffusion analysis of mesenchymal cells from the control dataset and projection of Tbx4-rtTA;tet-O-Cre;Srffl/fl mutant smooth muscle cells onto the diffusion map. Left plot is color-coded according to clusters from Figure 3A; right plot is color-coded to emphasize control and mutant smooth muscle and cartilage precursors.

(B) Clustering of mutant and control smooth muscle cells, based on expression of genes associated with contractile or synthetic smooth muscle phenotype.

(C) Single confocal slices and reconstructed optical cross-sections through E12.5 control and Tbx4-rtTA;tet-O-Cre;Srfl/fl lungs immunostained for Ecad, αSMA, and Sox9. Dashed line indicates location of the reconstructed cross-section. Scale bars indicate 50 μm.

(D) Polar plots showing Sox9 intensity around the airways, based on angle from the center of the bronchus of E12.5 control and Tbx4-rtTA;tet-O-Cre;Srfl/fl lungs (n = 5 controls, 2 mutants). Line shows mean, and shaded area shows SD. p value is for the comparison of mean intensities using two-sided t test.

(E) Thickness of αSMA+ cell layer in controls and Sox9+ cell layer in mutants, compared by t test (n = 7 controls, 4 mutants).

(F) RNAscope analysis of Acta2, Myocd, and Col2a1 on sections of E12.5 control and Tbx4-rtTA;tet-O-Cre;Srfl/fl lungs. Arrowheads indicate Col2a1+ cartilage precursors along lateral side of the primary bronchus. Dashed boxes indicate zoomed-in regions shown to the right. Gray dashed line indicates border between the mesenchyme (mes) and epithelium (ep). Scale bars indicate 50 μm.

(G) Single confocal slices of E12.5 control and Tbx4-rtTA;tet-O-Cre;Srfl/fl lungs immunostained for Ecad and Ki67. Arrowheads point to smooth muscle cells with high Ki67 intensity. Scale bars indicate 50 μm.

(H) Quantification of nuclear Ki67 intensity in smooth muscle cells of mutants and controls, compared by t test (n = 3).

(I) Single confocal slices of E12.5 control and Tbx4-rtTA;tet-O-Cre;Srfl/fl lungs immunostained for αSMA and Sox9 after a 15-min EdU pulse, focused on the primary bronchus between L.L1 and L.L2. White dashed line indicates border of the epithelium. Arrowheads point to smooth muscle cells with high EdU intensity. Scale bars indicate 50 μm.

(J) Quantification of EdU intensity in smooth muscle cells of mutants and controls, compared by t test (n = 3–4).

(K) Percentages of control and Tbx4-rtTA;tet-O-Cre;Srfl/fl smooth muscle cells at each phase of the cell cycle, based on scRNA-seq data.
DISCUSSION

The airway epithelium branches normally in embryos lacking Srf in the pulmonary mesenchyme. Consistently, Srf-null mesenchyme displays normal patterning and passive mechanical properties during the early stages of lung development. Close inspection uncovered that Srf-mutant lungs contain a population of smooth muscle cells that lacks classical markers of contractile smooth muscle but that is otherwise transcriptionally and functionally similar to control smooth muscle. This Srf-null population resembles immature smooth muscle and displays markers of the classical synthetic/proliferative smooth muscle phenotype described in adult tissues, suggesting that embryonic airway smooth muscle matures along a continuum from synthetic to contractile states. Phenotyping switching of smooth muscle in the adult might therefore represent a reactivation/reversal of normal embryonic programming.

Our findings demonstrate that SRF-independent aspects of airway smooth muscle differentiation are sufficient to support epithelial branching. Since these early stages are the important sculptors of the airway epithelium (and not the later stages of smooth muscle maturation), it is unsurprising that SRF/myocardin-induced transcription is dispensable for branching morphogenesis in the lung. Srf (or Myocd) deletion leads to only a subtle change in epithelial morphology: a narrowing of branch stalks, despite loss of the contractile smooth muscle phenotype (Figure 1D). Our results provide an explanation for this seemingly contradictory observation. Accumulation of proliferative synthetic smooth muscle may constrain the airways simply by wrapping the epithelium with a larger number of cells with elevated stiffness and mechanical tone, without the need for contractile smooth muscle machinery. This concept is illustrated by reconstructed cross-sections through the airways, which show that a dense layer of Sox9+ cells (twice as thick as the layer of αSMA+ cells in the control) encircles the epithelium in the mutant (Figures 4C and 4E).

The physical mechanisms of branching of the mammalian lung, particularly the role of mechanical forces from smooth muscle, have been debated due to seemingly contradictory findings. Our results suggest that synthetic smooth muscle provides its adjacent epithelium with a similar mechanical constraint as contractile smooth muscle. As a result, this phenotypic switch in smooth muscle has no consequence for branching morphogenesis in the embryonic mouse lung. The conceptual model wherein localized smooth muscle differentiation from the embryonic pulmonary mesenchyme sculpts epithelial branches therefore holds. Future studies are needed to determine whether a synthetic smooth muscle phenotype is conserved during the development of other embryonic organs.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Our analysis was based on the expression of marker genes compiled from datasets of adult smooth muscle. The nature of embryonic smooth muscle and whether it exhibits contractile and synthetic phenotypes in other contexts warrant further investigation.

STAR METHODS

Detailed methods are provided in the online version of this paper and include the following:

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SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

Supplemental information can be found online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.devcel.2023.02.002.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

K.G. and C.M.N. conceptualized the study, designed the experiments, interpreted the data, and wrote the manuscript. K.G., B.L., A.B., and P.Z. performed the experiments and collected the data. All authors provided input on the final manuscript.

DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interests.

REFERENCES


# STAR METHODS

## KEY RESOURCES TABLE

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<td>RNAScope Multiplex Fluorescent V2 Assay</td>
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<td>RNAScope Probe Mm-Acta2</td>
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<td>Alcian blue stain kit</td>
<td>Vector Laboratories</td>
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<td>Deposited data</td>
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<td>Raw and analyzed scRNA-seq data of E12.5 Tbx4-rtTA;tet-O-Cre;SRF&lt;sup&gt;fl/fl&lt;/sup&gt; mutant and SRF&lt;sup&gt;fl/fl&lt;/sup&gt; litter mate controls lungs</td>
<td>This paper</td>
<td>GEO: GSE203171</td>
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<td>Experimental models: Organisms/strains</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mouse: Srf&lt;sup&gt;tm1Rmn/J&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>The Jackson Laboratory</td>
<td>JAX: 006658</td>
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<td>Mouse: Tbx4-rtTA</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mouse: tet-O-Cre</td>
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<td>Primer: Cre, Forward: GCTTTACCGTGTCATGCAAAGATGATGAG</td>
<td>Devenport Lab (Princeton University)</td>
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<td>Primer: Tbx4, Forward: CGGCCCGAATTCAACGATCTAGA</td>
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</table>

(Continued on next page)
Resource availability

Lead contact

- Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will be fulfilled by the lead contact, Celeste M. Nelson (celesten@princeton.edu).

MATERIALS AVAILABILITY

- This study did not generate new unique reagents.

DATA AND CODE AVAILABILITY

- Single-cell RNA-seq data have been deposited at GEO. Accession numbers are listed in the key resources table.
- This paper does not report original code.
- Any additional information required to reanalyze the data reported in this paper is available from the lead contact upon request.

Experimental model and subject details

Mice

All procedures involving animals were approved by Princeton University’s Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee. Mice were housed in an AAALAC-accredited facility in accordance with the NIH Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals. This study was compliant with all relevant ethical regulations regarding animal research. Srf-flox (Jackson Laboratory Stock 006658), Rosa26mTmG (Jackson Laboratory Stock 007676), and Tbx4-rtTA;tet-O-Cre25 (gift of Dr. Wei Shi) mice were used to generate Srf-flox;mTmG embryos and to delete Srf from the embryonic pulmonary mesenchyme. Doxycycline was administered in drinking water at 0.5 mg/ml starting at E5.5 or E6.5. Genotyping was carried out by isolating DNA from ear punches of pups or from the head of each embryo, followed by PCR and gel electrophoresis. In experiments using Srf-flox;mTmG mice, Cre and Tbx4 genotype was determined by the presence of GFP. The primer sequences for Cre were GCATTACCGGTCGATGCAACGAGTGATGG and GAGTGAACGAACCTGGTCGAAATCAGTGCG, and the primer sequences for Tbx4-rtTA were GGAAGGCGAGTCATGGCAAGAGGCA and AGGTCAAGTGCAGGCCAGGC. The primer sequences for Srf-flox and mTmG are all provided on the Jackson Laboratory website.
Method details

**Wholemount immunofluorescence staining and imaging**

Isolated lungs were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde in PBS for 30 min at 4°C. Lungs were washed four times for 15 min with PBST (0.1% Triton X-100 in PBS) and then blocked with 5% goat serum and 0.1% BSA for 1 h. Samples were then incubated with primary antibodies against αSMA (Sigma a5228, 1:400 or Abcam ab5694, 1:200), E-cadherin (Cell Signaling 3195, 1:200 or Invitrogen 13-1900, 1:200), fibronectin (Invitrogen PA5-29578, 1:200), Lef1 (Cell Signaling 2230, 1:200), Ki67 (Abcam ab15580, 1:200), pMLC2 (Cell Signaling 3671, 1:200), RFP (Abcam ab62341, 1:400), Sox9 (Sigma AB5535, 1:1000), or Tbx3 (Invitrogen 42-4800, 1:200), followed by incubation with Alexa Fluor-conjugated secondary antibodies (1:400; Thermo Fisher Scientific A11007, A21244, A11012, A21240 and A11006) or Alexa Fluor-conjugated phalloidin (1:400, Thermo Fisher Scientific A12380 or A12379) and then counter-stained with Hoechst (1:1000). Lungs were dehydrated in a methanol or isopropanol (for phalloidin-stained samples) series and cleared with Murray’s clear (1:2 ratio of benzyl alcohol to benzyl benzoate). Samples were imaged using a spinning disk confocal (BioVision X-Light V2) fitted to an inverted microscope.

**Fluorescence in situ hybridization**

Isolated lungs were immediately placed in freshly prepared 4% paraformaldehyde in PBS for 24 h at 4°C. Lungs were then washed in PBS, followed by 20% sucrose and then 30% sucrose in PBS at 4°C until they sank (less than 24 h). All reagents were prepared using autoclaved and RNaseZAP-treated (Sigma R2020) water. Lungs were then embedded in OCT (Tissue Tek), frozen on dry ice, and stored at -80°C. Sectioning was performed on a Leica CM3050S cryostat. Sample blocks were equilibrated at -20°C in the cryostat for 1 h and then sliced into 10-μm-thick sections onto Superfrost Plus slides (Fisherbrand). Fluorescence in situ hybridization was performed using the standard RNAscope Multiplex Fluorescent V2 Assay (ACD) protocol for fixed-frozen samples. Probes used were for *Mus musculus Myod* (channel 1, 581051), Col2a1 (channel 2, 407221), Bmp4 (channel 2, 401301), and Acta2 (channel 3, 319531). Fluorophores were Opal Polaris 488, Opal 520, and Opal 620 (Akeya Biosciences FP1500001KT, FP1487001KT, and FP1495001KT). Sections were imaged on a Nikon A1RSi confocal microscope or a spinning disk confocal (BioVision X-Light V2) fitted to an inverted microscope.

**Organ culture and live imaging of contractions**

Lung explants were cultured *ex vivo* following established protocols. Lungs were dissected in cold PBS supplemented with antibiotics (50 units/ml of penicillin and streptomycin) and cultured on porous membranes (nucleopore polycarbonate track-etch membrane, 8 μm pore size, 25 mm diameter; Whatman) floating on DMEM/F12 medium (without HEPES) supplemented with 5% fetal bovine serum (FBS, heat inactivated;Atlanta Biologicals) and antibiotics (50 units/ml of penicillin and streptomycin) within a glass-bottom dish. Lungs were cultured within a stage-top incubator (Pathology Devices) on an inverted microscope (Nikon Ti) and imaged under brightfield (1-2 ms exposure). Every hour for 12 h, a 5 min time lapse was taken with frames acquired every three seconds. Time lapses from hours 6 to 12 were analyzed for the presence of spontaneous smooth muscle contractions, visible by deformations of the epithelium, and compared using a two-sided t-test in GraphPad Prism. For EdU incorporation experiments, we first cultured E12.5 lungs on porous membranes for 1 h and then added EdU to the culture medium for 15 min prior to fixation and subsequent reactions using the Click-it EdU Alexa Fluor 488 Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific).

**scRNA-seq experiments**

Lungs isolated at E12.5 from two litters of Tbx4-rtTA;tet-O-Cre;Srffl/fl mutants (7 lungs) and Srffl/fl littermate controls (6 lungs) were filtered using the Illumina sequencer control software. The 10x CellRanger software version 3.0.2 was used to run the count reactions using the Click-iT EdU Alexa Fluor 488 Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific).

**Alcian blue staining**

Lungs isolated at E18.5 were dissected, fixed in 4% PFA in PBS for 1 h, and then taken through a sucrose gradient prior to embedding and freezing in OCT (Tissue Tek) using dry ice. 10-μm-thick sections were obtained using a Leica CM3050S cryostat. Alcian blue staining and nuclear fast red counterstaining (Vector Laboratories H-3501) were carried out according to the manufacturer’s protocol.

**AFM**

All AFM data were acquired with a JPK Nanowizard 3 Atomic Force Microscope driven by JPK Data Processing Software. We used Novascan probes consisting of a triangle-shaped silicon nitride cantilever and a silicon dioxide sphere with a radius of 2.5 μm. As reported by the manufacturer, the nominal specifications of the cantilever are a spring constant of 0.06 N/m, a length of 205 μm, a width of 25 μm, and a thickness of 0.6 μm. Lungs were dissected, embedded in OCT, frozen on dry ice, and cut into 10-μm-thick slices on a Leica CM3050S cryostat. Slices were immediately immersed in a chamber of PBS and put under the AFM. The spring constant of each probe was measured in PBS with the JPK software using the thermal noise method.
Quantification and statistical analyses

**scRNA-seq analysis**

scRNA-seq data were imported into R and processed using the Seurat package following the recommended pipeline. Clusters and expression levels of genes of interest were visualized using the uniform manifold approximation and projection (UMAP) dimensional reduction. Datasets from control and mutant lungs were processed first separately and then together, using the Seurat integration tools. KEGG enrichment analysis was performed on markers for smooth muscle clusters from mutants and controls using the clusterProfiler package in R. To compare clusters between datasets, we carried out Pearson correlation analysis on gene expression profiles for pairs of clusters, then performed unsupervised hierarchical clustering. Diffusion analyses were carried out using the Destiny package in R. First, we computationally isolated mesenchymal cells from the control dataset and merged them with the smooth muscle cells of the mutant dataset. The resultant Seurat object was passed through the FindVariableFeatures and ScaleData functions. Diffusion analysis was performed on only the control cells, followed by projection of the mutant cells onto the existing diffusion map. Diffusion analysis was also separately carried out on the mesenchymal and smooth muscle cells of the mutant dataset.

**Image and statistical analyses**

Quantifications of airway diameter, projected epithelial and whole lung areas, and number of terminal branches were made manually in Image J and compared using a two-sided t-test in GraphPad Prism. For immunofluorescence analysis, intensity profiles were measured either around the airways and plotted in polar coordinates or along lines emanating from the epithelium using simple MATLAB pipelines. Images were first background subtracted and then average pixel intensities in 16 by 16 pixel (5.76 by 5.76 \text{mm}) windows were measured along contours or lines. For intensities measured around the airway epithelium, we compared the mean intensity along the contour of mutants and controls using a two-sided t-test in MATLAB. Fibronectin intensity was measured manually at branch tips in Fiji and normalized to background. For intensities measured along a line emanating from the epithelium, we compared mutants and controls by two-way ANOVA in GraphPad Prism. For Ki67 immunofluorescence and EdU analysis, we measured the nuclear intensity of Ki67 or EdU in the mesenchyme adjacent to the primary bronchus between L.L1 and L.L2 or, for EdU experiments, in \(\alpha\)-SMA+ cells (in controls) and \(\alpha\)-SMA- Sox9+ cells (in mutants) around the primary bronchus between L.L1 and L.L2. Background intensity was subtracted, and 20 nuclei were measured per lung.

**AFM analysis**

Force curves were acquired with 0.5-nm resolution over a maximum distance of 2500 nm or force of 5 nN. Data points from the first 250 nm of each curve were fit in Matlab using the Hertz model,

\[ F = \frac{4}{3} \frac{E}{1 - \mu^2} R^{3/2} \delta^{3/2} + C \]

where \(F\) is the measured force, \(R\) the radius of the probe, \(\delta\) the sample indentation, \(\mu = 0.5\) the Poisson ratio, \(E\) the elastic modulus, and \(C\) a constant to appropriately shift the fit to the data. The limited fit range was applied because the Hertz model is valid for sample indentations significantly smaller than the sample thickness (10 \text{\mu m}) or the probe radius (2.5 \text{\mu m}).