A role for Hmga2 in the early-stage transition of neural stem-progenitor cell

properties during mouse neocortical development

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Abstract

During the early stage of mammalian neural development, neuroepithelial cells (NECs) proliferate and increase their pool size before switching their fate to become neurogenic radial glial cells (RGCs). The timing of this expansion-to-neurogenic phase transition is strictly regulated so as to determine the proper number of progenitors and differentiated cell types that constitute the brain. The molecular mechanism underlying this switch has remained poorly understood, however. We have now performed a transcriptomic analysis of NECs and RGCs and found that the expression of *Hmga2* gene, which encodes a chromatin-associated protein, peaks at the expansion-to-neurogenic phase transition. By the use of our newly established method to manipulate NECs before neural tube closure, we found that knockdown of Hmga2 in NECs delayed the change in their transcriptomic profile and suppressed the onset of neurogenesis in the neocortex. Our study thus uncovers a key molecular player in the generation of neurogenic progenitors in the developing mouse neocortex.

Introduction

The neocortex is the seat of higher cognitive function and has undergone evolutionary expansion in mammals. It originates from a pseudostratified sheet of neuroepithelium present at the anterior end of the neural plate before formation of the neural tube. In the course of neocortical development, neural progenitors undergo sequential waves of expansion, neurogenic and gliogenic phases (Gotz and Huttner, 2005; Hirabayashi and Gotoh, 2010; Kriegstein and Alvarez-Buylla, 2009; Mukhtar and Taylor, 2018). During the expansion phase, neural progenitors, also known as neuroepithelial cells (NECs), divide symmetrically to give rise to two progenitors per division (Rakic, 1995). This symmetric division increases the progenitor pool and results in lateral expansion of the neocortex. At the onset of neurogenesis in the mouse neocortex, NECs transform into neurogenic radial glial cells (RGCs), which mainly divide asymmetrically to give rise to one progenitor and one neuron or neuron-committed intermediate progenitor cell per division (Gao et al., 2014; Gotz and Huttner, 2005; Hartfuss et al., 2001; Miyata et al., 2002; Noctor et al., 2001). The elongated basal (radial) processes of RGCs also support the migration of newborn neurons to the pial surface, which results in radial expansion of the neocortex (Rakic, 1972). Clonal analysis of the mouse neocortex has revealed that a neurogenic RGC typically produces 8~9 cortical excitatory neurons through asymmetric division and then transforms into a gliogenic RGC (Gao et al., 2014). To avoid confusion, we will hereafter use the term neural stem-progenitor cells (NPCs) for both NECs and RGCs, given that many, if not all, of these cells are neural stem cells that self-renew and eventually produce both neurons and glial cells and that various nomenclatures are currently in use in the field.

The expansion-to-neurogenic phase (E-to-N) transition of NPC fate takes place at around embryonic day (E) 10 in the mouse neocortex. The timing of this E-to-N transition is key to determination of the number of neurons generated and the size of the cortex, given that the duration of the expansion phase determines the size of the founder NPC pool for corticogenesis. With regard to the mechanism of this transition, certain secreted (extrinsic) factors have been found to play a role, with one such factor being all-*trans* retinoic acid (atRA) released from the meninges. In mice, a reticulum of meningeal cells covers the neocortex between E9 and E10 (McLone and Bondareff, 1975) and secretes atRA, which promotes the onset of neurogenesis while suppressing

neuroepithelial elongation (Siegenthaler et al., 2009). Fibroblast growth factor (FGF) 10

is transiently expressed in anterior NPCs from E9.5 to E11.5 and, together with its

receptor FGFR2, also promotes the E-to-N transition in the anterior portion of the

neocortex (Sahara and O'Leary, 2009; Yoon et al., 2004). Moreover, an increase in

oxygen concentration as a result of periventricular ingrowth of blood vessels from E10.5

to E12.5 also appears to be associated with the E-to-N transition (Lange et al., 2016). A

recent report also suggests a role of $GABA_AR$ ligands, GABA and taurine, in the E-to-N

transition (Tochitani et al., 2021). In addition to these extrinsic factors, cell-intrinsic

programs likely regulate the E-to-N transition, given that in vitro cultures of mouse

cortical NPCs as well as of human embryonic stem (ES) cell– or primate induced

pluripotent stem (iPS) cell–derived NPCs undergo a directional transition from

proliferative (symmetric) to differentiating (asymmetric) divisions (Eiraku et al., 2008;

Gaspard et al., 2008; Otani et al., 2016; Qian et al., 1998; Shen et al., 2006; Shi et al.,

2012). The molecular basis of cell-intrinsic programs that regulate the E-to-N transition

of NPC fate (in particular, the timing of this transition) has remained largely unclear,

however. Only a few candidate intracellular mechanisms, such as those involving Notch-

Hes signaling, the BAF chromatin-remodeling complex and ZEB2, a regulator for

epithelial-mesenchymal transition (Anthony et al., 2005; Benito-Kwiecinski et al., 2021;

Gaiano et al., 2000; Hatakeyama et al., 2004; Nguyen et al., 2018), have been proposed

to date.

One possible reason that the molecular basis of the E-to-N transition has

remained relatively unexplored compared with that of neurogenesis or gliogenesis later

in development is the difficulty of gene manipulation at this early stage of brain

development. At late embryonic stages (from ~E12), a gene of interest can be readily

introduced into neocortical NPCs by in utero electroporation of plasmids (Tabata and

Nakajima, 2001) or by injection of recombinant viruses into the ventricles. However,

these methods cannot be applied to earlier stages before the E-to-N transition (such as at

E8.0) because neural tube closure does not take place until E8.5 to E9.5 in the mouse

forebrain (so there is no ventricle at E8.0) and the presumptive neocortex is too small to

manipulate. In this study, we therefore established a simple method for the introduction

of a gene of interest into ectodermal (and endodermal) cells of mouse embryos as early

as E7.0 or E8.0. This method is based on in utero injection of viral vectors directly into

amniotic fluid, given that the neural tube is still open at this early stage. This method,

which is simpler than a similar and recently-published method (Mangold et al., 2021),
thus enabled us to examine possible roles of candidate genes related to the E-to-N
transition.

107   A hallmark of NPCs in the neurogenic phase is their neurogenic potential—that
is, they maintain an undifferentiated state but are able to differentiate into neurons in
response to appropriate cues. The chromatin state of NPCs underlies this neurogenic
potential (Kishi and Gotoh, 2018; Nakagawa et al., 2020; Tsuboi et al., 2019). For
instance, Polycomb group (PcG) proteins underlie temporary and more persistent
repression of neurogenic genes in NPCs during the neurogenic phase and the gliogenic
phase, respectively, through distinct molecular mechanisms (Hirabayashi et al., 2009;
Tsuboi et al., 2018). High mobility group A (Hmga) proteins 1 and 2 are also chromatin
modifiers that contribute to neurogenic potential by regulating the expression of
neurogenesis-related genes in NPCs during the neurogenic phase (Fujii et al., 2013; Kishi
et al., 2012; Sakai et al., 2019). The levels of Hmga proteins in NPCs are high in the
neurogenic phase but gradually decrease during later neocortical development (Kishi et
al., 2012; Nishino et al., 2008; Sanosaka et al., 2008), with this decline accounting in part
for the loss of neurogenic potential in gliogenic NPCs (Kishi et al., 2012). However, it
has remained unknown whether Hmga proteins play a role in the E-to-N transition of
NPC fate in the early embryonic mouse neocortex.

123   In this study, we have identified Hmga2 as a key regulator of the E-to-N
transition in the early stage of neocortical development. We found that *Hmga2* expression
in neocortical NPCs peaks at around the E-to-N transition (at E10), and that knockdown
of Hmga2 from E8.0 with the use of our newly established method delayed the onset of
neurogenesis and shifted the transcriptional profile of NPCs at this transition closer to
that in the expansion phase. Our results suggest that an increase in Hmga2 expression
helps the transition of NPC properties at the onset of the neurogenic phase.
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Results

Development of a simple and efficient method for manipulation of gene expression

in mouse embryos before neural tube closure

To investigate the E-to-N transition in the mouse neocortex, we set out to develop a simple

and efficient method for the introduction of a gene of interest before neural tube closure,

ideally before E8.5. To this end, instead of the ultrasound microscopy system adopted in

previously reported methods (Gaiano et al., 1999; Mangold et al., 2021), we used an

optical fiber to visualize the inner structure of the uterus including the amnion and embryo

(Figure 1a-d). Optical fiber–based visualization of the ventricles of embryos from E9.5

was previously described for targeted DNA injection and electroporation after neural tube

closure (Matsui et al., 2011). We found that lighting with this system was sufficient to

allow injection of a dye inside the amnion, although it was not possible to directly see the

amnion within the uterus. We first injected carboxyfluorescein succinimidyl ester (CFSE),

a cell-permeable dye that becomes fluorescent after reaction with intracellular proteins

(Quah and Parish, 2010; Telley et al., 2016), into the uterus at E8.0 (Figure 1e and f) To

minimize possible damage caused by the injection, we inserted a sharpened capillary at

the center of the uterus at an angle perpendicular to the uterine wall while it was

positioned as shown in Figure 1d. We injected a small volume (~0.5 µl) of solution at a

depth of 1 to 2 mm below the uterine wall, which reproducibly resulted in transfer of the

solution into the amniotic fluid. The time of surgery is relatively short (~20 min) because

of the simplicity of the method, which may contribute to the minimal damage caused to

embryos. After 3 days (at E11.0), fluorescence microscopy without sectioning revealed

that 77% of injected embryos were labeled with CFSE (Figure 1e and f). About 80% of

embryos survived without gross developmental malformations at E11.0. We also injected

CFSE into amniotic fluid at E7.0, which again yielded a high rate of embryo labeling

(64%) and a high rate of survival without gross developmental malformation (89%) at

E9.0 (Figure 1f).

159   We next performed gene introduction via retroviral vectors with this method.

We first injected a concentrated suspension of a retrovirus encoding green fluorescent

protein (GFP) into the uterus at E8.0, and we found that 89% of embryos survived without

gross abnormalities and that 74% of embryos expressed GFP at E11.0 (Figure 2a and c).

Injection of the retrovirus at E7.0 also yielded GFP-expressing embryos at E9.0 (Figure

2b and c). Flow cytometric analysis of cortical tissue obtained from E12.0 embryos that

had been injected with the retrovirus for GFP at E8.0 showed that ~70% of the cortical

cells were positive for GFP in successful cases (Figure 2d). Immunohistofluorescence

analysis of sagittal sections of E10.0 embryos that had been injected with the retrovirus

encoding GFP at E8.0 revealed that most tissues exposed to amniotic fluid expressed GFP

(Figure 2e–g). The labeled tissues thus included the central nervous system (forebrain,

midbrain, hindbrain, and spinal cord) as well as the epidermis and endodermal tissues

such as those of digestive and respiratory organs. These results suggested that our method

is also suitable for gene introduction into such ectodermal and endodermal tissues at this

early stage of mouse development.

Given that in utero electroporation of plasmids is in general superior to

retroviral infection as a means of gene introduction with regard to efficiency and

expression level, we next injected a plasmid encoding mCherry with our new method and

performed in utero electroporation with the use of electrodes (disc size, 2.5 by 4 mm)

positioned on each side of the uterus at E7.0 or E8.0. The fraction of mCherry-expressing

embryos at E9.0 and E10.0 was 19% and 40% among those electroporated at E7.0 and

E8.0, respectively (Figure 2h and i). The expression pattern of mCherry differed among

embryos, likely because of differences in the orientation of the electrodes relative to the

embryo during electroporation. Most embryos expressed mCherry in somites (Figure 2h),

whereas another manifested mCherry expression in the midbrain and hindbrain (data not

shown). No embryo examined to date was found to express mCherry in the forebrain.

These results showed that it was possible to perform gene introduction by in utero

electroporation in mouse embryos at E7.0 or E8.0 with our method for plasmid injection,

although further improvements will be necessary to allow targeting of a specific tissue

with this method.

Transcriptional profiling of NPCs in the mouse telencephalon during early

development

To investigate the molecular basis of the E-to-N transition, we first examined changes in

the transcriptional profile of NPCs around this developmental stage by RNA-sequencing

(RNA-seq) analysis. Given that the E-to-N transition takes place at ~E10 in mice, we

isolated NPCs as cells expressing the NPC marker CD133 (also known as prominin-1) at

a high level (CD133^{high} cells) from the entire telencephalon at E8.0 and E9.0 and from the

neocortex at E10.0, E11.0, and E12.0 by fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS)

(Figure 3a). Hierarchical clustering analysis of differentially expressed genes (defined by

maSigPro of the *R* package) revealed five clusters based on the pattern of the expression

changes (Figure 3b–f, Supplemental Data 1). The genes in cluster 1 showed a decline in

expression level, most prominently from E8.0 to E10.0 (Figure 3b), whereas those in

cluster 3 showed an increase in expression level, most prominently from E10.0 to E12.0

(Figure 3d). Gene ontology (GO) analysis showed that the genes in cluster 1 were

enriched in those related to tissue morphogenesis and embryo development (Figure 3b),

whereas the genes in cluster 3 were enriched in those related to nervous system

development and generation of neurons (Figure 3d). These findings confirmed the proper

isolation of NPCs at each stage. The genes in clusters 2 and 4 were potentially associated

with the E-to-N transition (~E10), given that their expression levels decreased and

increased, respectively, predominantly from E9.0 to E11.0 (Figure 3c and e). The genes

in cluster 2 were enriched in those related to ribosome biogenesis and RNA processing

(Figure 3c), suggesting that these processes might be regulated differentially in the

expansion versus neurogenic phase. Ribosome biogenesis has indeed been found to be

attenuated in NPCs at around this stage (Chau et al., 2018), again providing support for

the proper isolation of NPCs for this analysis. The enrichment of genes related to RNA

processing in cluster 2 is of interest, given the pivotal role of such processing in the

control of NPC differentiation (Yoon et al., 2017; Zahr et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2016).

The genes in cluster 4 were enriched in those related to cell projection and cell

morphogenesis (Figure 3e), possibly reflecting the dynamic morphological changes of

NPCs as they transition from NECs to RGCs.

The genes in cluster 5 may be particularly relevant to the E-to-N transition,

given that their expression peaks at E10.0 (Figure 3f). We therefore hypothesized that this

cluster includes genes that promote the E-to-N transition. The top five highly expressed

genes of cluster 5 at E10.0 are shown in Figure 3g. Among them, we focused on *Hmga2*,

given that Hmga proteins have been shown to confer neurogenic potential on mouse

neocortical NPCs at late developmental stages (Kishi et al., 2012). However, the possible

role of Hmga2 at early developmental stages—in particular, at the E-to-N transition—has

remained unknown.

Hmga2 promotes the onset of neurogenesis in the mouse neocortex

We first confirmed the temporal expression pattern of *Hmga2* in NPCs by RT-qPCR

analysis, which again showed a peak at E10.0 (Figure 2h), whereas those of the early-

stage NEC marker *Lin28b* and the RGP marker *Glast* showed an increase and a decrease

from E8.0 to E12.0, respectively (Supplementary Figure 1a). To investigate the relevance

of the increase in the level of *Hmga2* expression in neocortical NPCs at this particular

embryonic stage, we knocked down Hmga2 with the use of a specific short hairpin RNA

(shRNA) from E8.0 with our method for early embryo manipulation. We introduced

retroviruses encoding GFP and shRNAs specific either for Hmga2 or for luciferase

(control) into NPCs at E8.0 and analyzed the embryos at E10.0 and E11.0 (Figure 4a).

RT-qPCR and immunohistofluorescence analyses confirmed the depletion of *Hmga2*

mRNA and Hmga2 protein in NPCs at these stages for embryos infected with the

retrovirus for Hmga2 shRNA at E8.0 (Figure 4b and c). We then examined the effect of

Hmga2 knockdown on neurogenesis by immunostaining for Tbr2, a marker of

intermediate neuronal progenitors and immature neurons (Englund et al., 2005). Whereas

Hmga2 knockdown from E8.0 did not affect the fraction of Tbr2-positive cells among

GFP-positive cells at E10.0, it significantly attenuated the increase in the fraction of such

cells apparent at E11.0 (Figure 4d and e). In contrast, Hmga2 knockdown from E8.0

slightly, but not significantly, increased the fraction of cells positive for Sox2, an NPC

marker (Ellis et al., 2004), among GFP-positive cells at E11.0 (Figure 4f and g). These

results suggested that Hmga2 promotes neurogenesis in neocortical NPCs at the onset of

the neurogenic phase. We further examined the role of Hmga2 by transcriptomic analysis.

We therefore introduced retroviruses encoding GFP and either control or Hmga2 shRNAs

into embryos at E8.0 and isolated GFP-expressing CD133^{high} neocortical NPCs by FACS

at E10.0 for RNA-seq analysis, which we performed with the Quartz-seq method for

analysis of a small number of cells (Sasagawa et al., 2013) (Figure 5a, b, and

Supplementary Figure 2a). The expression of *Hmga2* as well as that of *Igf2bp2*, a target

gene of Hmga2 in NPCs (Fujii et al., 2013), were found to be reduced in NPCs of embryos

infected with the retrovirus for Hmga2 shRNA (Figure 5b and c), thus confirming the

efficient knockdown of Hmga2 by this procedure. Then, we performed gene ontology

(GO) analysis with the differentially expressed genes between control and Hmga2-

depleted cells at E10.0 and E11.0 determined by the *edgeR* software (Supplementary Data

2). We found that the GO of downregulated genes in Hmga2-depleted cells than in control

cells included "nervous system development" ($p = 1.1 \times 10^{-2}$, FDR = 0.26 at E10 and $p =$

9.3×10^{-4}, FDR = 1.67 at E11) and "generation of neurons" ($p = 9.9 \times 10^{-4}$, FDR = 1.78

at E11) (Figure 5d). This also supports the notion that Hmga2 promotes neurogenesis at

this early stage.

There were at least two possible explanations for the attenuation of

neurogenesis by knockdown of Hmga2: Hmga2 might promote the E-to-N transition of

NPCs, in which case Hmga2 depletion would be expected to prolong the expansion phase

and delay the start of the neurogenic phase; or Hmga2 might promote neuronal

differentiation of NPCs during the neurogenic phase without affecting the E-to-N

transition of NPCs. To discriminate between these possibilities, we examined whether

Hmga2 knockdown might delay the developmental change in the transcriptional profile

of neocortical NPCs at the E-to-N transition. We performed gene set enrichment analysis

(GSEA) to compare the expression levels of signature genes of NPCs that change from

E8.0 to E12.0 between control and Hmga2-depleted NPCs at E10.0. We examined genes

in clusters identified in Figure 3 as such signature genes and found that the expression

level of genes in cluster 2, which showed the prominent decline from E9.0 to E11.0, was

significantly higher (enriched) in Hmga2-depleted NPCs than in control NPCs (Figure 5e,

Supplementary Figure 2b-e). This finding suggested that Hmga2 knockdown shifts the

transcriptional profile of NPCs closer to that apparent in the expansion phase, providing

support for the notion that the observed increase in Hmga2 expression promotes the E-

to-N transition of NPC fate in the neocortex. We previously showed that Hmga2

knockdown during the late neurogenic phase did not promote premature neuronal

differentiation (Kishi et al., 2012), which further supports the notion that Hmga2

promotes the E-to-N transition of NPC fate rather than neuronal differentiation of NPCs

per se.

Of interest, the genes which showed increased expression at both E10.0 and

E11.0 by Hmga2 knockdown from E8.0 included *Hist1h2bn*, that encodes histone H2B,

and *Mki67*, that encodes Ki67, both of which being related to proliferation

(Supplementary Figure 2f). This may suggest a possibility that Hmga2 contributes to

some aspects of cell division, although Hmga2 knockdown from E8.0 did not overtly

increase the fraction of NPCs positive for phosphorylated histone H3 at E11.0 (data not

shown). Together, our results thus implicated Hmga2 in changes in some (including the

acquisition of neurogenic potential) but not all properties of NPCs related to this transition.

Discussion

A directional transition of NPC fate from the expansion phase to the neurogenic phase takes place during the early stage of mammalian brain development, but the cell-intrinsic programs that govern this transition have remained largely unclear. Given that neurogenesis can be observed at least from E10 in the mouse neocortex, we assumed that this E-to-N transition takes place around E10 and identified gene sets that are specifically up- or down-regulated around the time of this transition. Among the highly expressed genes whose expression peaks around this transition, we focused on that for the chromatin-associated protein Hmga2 and examined the effects of its knockdown with the use of a method we developed in this study for the genetic manipulation of early-stage NPCs before neural tube closure. We thus found that forced depletion of Hmga2 in neocortical NPCs from E8.0 hindered the increase in neurogenesis apparent at the onset of the neurogenic phase (from E10.0 to E11.0). Moreover, we found that this effect of Hmga2 depletion was likely due to a delay in the E-to-N transition of NPC fate rather than to inhibition of neuronal differentiation per se within the neurogenic phase, given the delayed change in the transcriptional profile of NPCs induced by the loss of Hmga2. On the basis of our results, we propose that the increase in Hmga2 expression apparent at the E-to-N transition promotes this transition of NPC fate—in particular, by promoting the acquisition of neurogenic potential.

Investigation of the molecular mechanism underlying the E-to-N transition of NPC fate in any detail requires manipulation of gene expression before neural tube closure. However, existing (convenient and simple) methods such as injection into the ventricles of viruses or of plasmids for in utero electroporation (Tabata and Nakajima, 2001) can be applied only after neural tube closure. The method for gene introduction developed in the present study has several advantages over other methods that can be used before neural tube closure, such as whole-embryo genomic manipulation (gene targeting or transgene introduction) and ultrasound-guided injection of viruses into the mouse nervous system. Whereas genomic manipulation requires a specific Cre-expressing mouse line or knowledge of specific distal elements to control expression of a gene of interest in a temporally and spatially regulated manner, our method allows expression of a gene of interest in NPCs as well as in other ectodermal or endodermal cells before neural tube closure without such mouse lines or knowledge. Our method is

also less costly, less labor-intensive, and less time-consuming compared with existing

methods and is thus suitable for testing and screening a large number of genes for their

specific effects (Gaiano et al., 1999; Mangold et al., 2021). The relatively simple and

rapid nature of our procedure also appears to be beneficial in terms of minimizing

developmental abnormalities and maximizing the survival rate of manipulated embryos

compared with the ultrasound-guided injection of viruses (Gaiano et al., 1999). Given

that many recent studies based on brain organoids have implicated various molecules as

potential regulators of early brain development, a simple and efficient method for gene

introduction into early-stage mouse NPCs would be useful for rapid testing of the

functions of these molecules in the in vivo context.

Given the proposed function of Hmga2 as a trigger of the E-to-N transition, the

timing of the increase in Hmga2 abundance may play an important role in determining

that of the E-to-N transition. We indeed found that the amount of *Hmga2* mRNA peaks at

around the time of this transition (at ~E10) in mouse neocortical NPCs. Then, what

upstream pathways (mechanisms) might regulate this increase of *Hmga2* expression? It

is possible that extrinsic factors implicated in the E-to-N transition in the mouse neocortex,

such as FGF10 and atRA, contribute to the regulation of *Hmga2* expression. Of note, the

promoter of the mouse *Hmga2* gene contains putative retinoic acid–responsive elements

that are able to bind retinoic acid receptors (data not shown). Myc proteins as well as the

Lin28–*let7* microRNA axis have also been shown to promote the expression of *Hmga2*

in other cell types (Chang et al., 2009; Copley et al., 2013; Lee and Dutta, 2007; Mayr et

al., 2007). Although we did not detect an increase in the expression of Myc-family

proteins around E9 to E11, we found that the level of *Lin28b* mRNA increases in

neocortical NPCs before that of *Hmga2* mRNA at around this time of development (data

not shown). It will therefore be of interest to examine the relevance of Lin28 to the

regulation of *Hmga2* expression in the context of the E-to-N transition in the mouse

neocortex.

Then, how does Hmga2 regulate the E-to-N transition? Previous reports have

shown the regulation of certain genes (such as *CcnA2*, *Igf2bp2*, and *Plag1*) through direct

association of Hmga2 with their promoters (Cleynen et al., 2007; Li et al., 2012; Sakai et

al., 2019; Tessari et al., 2003; Vignali and Marracci, 2020). To investigate the target genes

of Hmga2 during the E-to-N transition, we determined differentially expressed genes

between control and Hmga2-depleted NPCs in Figure 5 using the *edgeR* software

(Supplementary Data 2). The differentially expressed genes (the genes upregulated by

Hmga2 knockdown) included *Igf2bp2*, *Wnt7b* and *Jag1*. *Igf2bp2* is a well-known target

of Hmga2 and contributes to the neurogenic potential of NPCs (Fujii et al., 2013). *Wnt7b*

is expressed in the developing neocortex (Kim et al., 2001) where the Wnt signaling

pathway promotes both neurogenesis and proliferation of NPCs (Chenn and Walsh, 2002;

Hirabayashi et al., 2004; Israsena et al., 2004; Muroyama et al., 2004; Woodhead et al.,

2006; Wrobel et al., 2007; Zhou et al., 2006). The Notch ligand Jag1 is also expressed in

neocortical NPCs (Blackwood, 2019; Cárdenas et al., 2018) where Notch signaling plays

a crucial role in the E-to-N transition (Gaiano et al., 2000; Hatakeyama et al., 2004).

Importantly, by performing a ChIP-seq analysis of Hmga2 with E11 neocortices, we

found deposition of Hmga2 protein peaks around the *Igf2bp2*, *Wnt7b* and *Jag1* gene loci

(Supplementary Figure 3). Therefore, Hmga2 may promote the E-to-N transition of NPCs

in part by enhancing the expression of these genes. In addition, we found a slight tendency

that genes expressed higher at E11.0 by Hgma2 depletion from E8.0 are enriched with

genes whose expression is derepressed by deletion of Ring1B (in 9 days in vitro NPC

culture from E11) (Hirabayashi et al., 2009) or Ring1A/B (in neocortical NPCs at E18),

the central component of Polycomb group proteins (PcG) (Supplementary Figure 4a and

b). Given the role of PcG in suppressing neurogenic genes in the developing neocortex

(Hirabayashi et al., 2009; Morimoto-Suzki et al., 2014; Pereira et al., 2010; Tsuboi et al.,

2018), these results may suggest that Hmga2 positively regulates expression of some

neurogenic genes by antagonizing PcG-mediated suppression.

The search for the "timer" of the E-to-N transition is especially relevant to our

understanding of the evolutionary enlargement of the brain, given that the duration of the

expansion phase (or the number of symmetric NPC divisions) is expected to positively

correlate with the size of the founder NPC pool. Indeed, the enlargement of the neocortex

in primates as compared with rodents appears to be related to lengthening of the

expansion phase from a few days to several weeks (Dehay et al., 2015; Kornack and Rakic,

1998; Rakic, 1995; Rakic, 2009) in addition to the emergence of additional proliferative

NPC populations (such as outer/basal RGCs) (Betizeau et al., 2013; Fietz et al., 2010;

Hansen et al., 2010) and the continuation of proliferative NPC divisions even after the

onset of neurogenesis (Otani et al., 2016). Even among primates, the cell-autonomous

timing of the E-to-N transition in cultured NPCs is delayed in humans compared with

nonhuman primates (Otani et al., 2016). Of interest, the level of *HMGA2* mRNA also

seems to be high in neocortical NPCs at around the onset of neurogenesis (gestation week
7 to 8) during early human development (Nowakowski et al., 2017). Moreover, *HMGA2*
was found to be one of the genes that most markedly influence the velocity stream
associated with timing of NPC fate transition at the early stage of human neocortical
development (Eze et al., 2021), suggesting the possibility that HMGA2 plays a conserved
role in the onset of the neurogenic phase in humans. If this is the case, the difference in
the regulation of Hmga2 gene expression between mouse and human may provide insight
into the timing of this transition.

The size of the neocortex is strictly regulated during mammalian development,
with disorders that result from defects in such regulation in humans, such as
macrocephaly and microcephaly, being associated with pathological or psychiatric
conditions such as epilepsy, autism spectrum disorder, and schizophrenia (Sun and
Hevner, 2014). A single-cell transcriptomic analysis of human neocortical progenitors
indicated that genes that drive the early-stage transition of NPC fate are enriched in those
associated with neurodevelopmental or psychiatric disorders (Eze et al., 2021). It will
thus be of interest to investigate the impact of Hmga2 and its related molecules on
neocortical size and, ultimately, neocortical function.

Materials and Methods

Mouse maintenance

All animals were studied according to protocols approved by the Animal Care and Use Committee of The University of Tokyo. *Ring1a*^{–/–};*Ring1b*^{flox/flox} mice (Calés et al., 2008; Endoh et al., 2008) were crossed with *Rosa26-CreERT2* mice (Taconic), in which expression of *CreERT2* is driven by the endogenous *Rosa26* promoter. All mice were maintained in a temperature- and relative humidity–controlled (23° ± 3°C and 50 ± 15%, respectively) environment with a normal 12-h-light, 12-h-dark cycle. Two to six mice were housed per sterile cage (Innocage, Innovive; or Micro BARRIER Systems, Edstrom Japan) containing bedding chips (PALSOFT, Oriental Yeast; or PaperClean, SLC Japan), and they were provided with irradiated food (CE-2, CLEA Japan) and filtered water ad libitum. For in utero injection before neural tube closure, mice were allowed to mate for 2 h and the female was then checked for a vaginal plug. The time of plug confirmation was defined as E0.0. For induction of CreERT2 activity, pregnant mice were injected intraperitoneally with 150 μl of tamoxifen (Sigma) dissolved in sunflower oil (Nacalai) at a concentration of 10 mg/ml.

In utero injection and electroporation before neural tube closure

Jcl:ICR (CLEA Japan) or Slc:ICR (SLC Japan) mice were used for in utero injection experiments. Pregnant mice were injected intraperitoneally with a sodium pentobarbital–based anesthetic, and the uterine horn was exposed and pinched between a flexible fiber-optic cable and a finger (Matsui et al., 2011). Lighting from the fiber-optic cable allowed visualization of the internal uterine structure but did not allow the embryo to be distinguished from the amnion. A small volume (~0.5 μl) of CFSE (1 mM, Sigma), plasmid DNA (1 μg/μl), or retroviruses, each mixed with FastGreen (Chroma Gesellschaft), was injected with a sharpened capillary at an angle perpendicular to the center of the uterus. An injection depth of 1 to 2 mm below the uterine wall allowed the reproducible introduction of the capillary contents into amniotic fluid. For electroporation, the uterus was held between the tweezer-type electrodes (CUY652P2.5x4, Nepa Gene) and electroporated with a NEPA21 system (Nepa Gene) according to the following program: three poring pulses of 30 V with a 15-ms pulse width and 450-ms pulse interval and 10% decay (+ pulse orientation), and two transfer pulses of 10 V with a 50-ms pulse

447 width and 450-ms pulse interval and 10% decay (± pulse orientation). After the injection
448 and electroporation were completed, the uterine horn was placed back into its original
449 location. Embryos were imaged with a fluorescence stereo microscope (2.0× lens, Nikon
450 SMZ18).
451

Plasmid construction

453 The cDNA for mCherry was cloned by PCR, and its coding sequence was verified by
454 DNA sequencing. The cDNA was subcloned into pCAGEN (a kind gift from C. L. Cepko)
455 to generate the pCAGEN-mCherry plasmid.
456

Retrovirus production and concentration

Retroviruses were produced by transfection of PLAT-GP cells (a kind gift from T.
Kitamura) with the previously validated retroviral vectors pSIREN-siLuc (for control
shRNA, Addgene #122287) or pSIREN-siHmga2 (for Hmga2 shRNA, Addgene
#122290) (Kishi et al., 2012) and with a VSVG plasmid (a kind gift from H. Song).
Conditioned medium collected 72 h after the onset of transfection was cleared of debris
by centrifugation at $2500 \times g$ for 5 min, passed through a 0.45-μm filter, and centrifuged
at $250,000 \times g$ for 90 min at 4°C and then at $20,000 \times g$ for >12 h at 4°C. The resulting
virus pellet was suspended in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS). For in utero injection, 10
ml of conditioned medium from PLAT-GP cells in a 10-cm dish was concentrated into 10
μl of PBS.
468

Flow cytometry and FACS

The telencephalon or neocortex of ICR embryos was dissected and subjected to enzymatic
digestion with a papain-based solution (Sumitomo Bakelite). For quantification of the
efficiency of gene introduction, the cells were directly subjected to flow cytometric
analysis with a FACS Aria instrument (Becton Dickinson). For isolation of NPCs, the
cells were stained with allophycocyanin-conjugated antibodies to CD133 (1:400 dilution,
BioLegend 141210) and sorted with a FACS Aria instrument (Becton Dickinson). The
threshold of CD133 intensity for selection of NPCs was set as follows: E8.0, top 80%;
E9.0, top 70%; E10.0, top 60%; E11.0, top 50%; and E12.0, top 50%.
478

Immunohistofluorescence analysis

Immunohistofluorescence staining was performed as previously described (Morimoto-
Suzki et al., 2014), with minor modifications including fixation for 3 h without perfusion
and the use of a blocking buffer comprising 0.1% Triton X-100 and 3% bovine serum
albumin. Primary antibodies and dilutions for immunostaining were as follows: anti-
Hmga2, 1:500 (Cell Signaling); anti-Sox2, 1:500 (Cell Signaling); anti-Tbr2, 1:500
(chick, Millipore); anti–phospho-histone H3, 1:500 (Cell Signaling); and anti-GFP,
1:2000 (Abcam) or 1:1000 (Nakalai). Images were acquired with a laser-scanning
confocal microscope (TSC-SP5, Leica) and ImageJ software (NIH). For quantification,
the average value of multiple sections of the telencephalon along the rostrocaudal axis
was determined for each embryo. We quantified following number of sections and GFP-
positive cells. For Figure 4e, 18 or 12 sections for control and 20 or 11 sections for Hmga2
KD at E10 or E11, respectively, and 2068 or 1385 cells for control and 3448 or 789, cells
for Hmga2 KD at E10 or E11, respectively. For Figure 4g, 10 sections for control and 8
sections for Hmga2 KD and 764 cells for control and 493 cells for Hmga2 KD.
494

RT-qPCR analysis
Total RNA was isolated from cells with the use of RNAiso plus (Takara), and up to 0.5
µg of the RNA was subjected to RT with the use of ReverTra Ace qPCR RT Master Mix
with gDNA remover (Toyobo). The resulting cDNA was subjected to real-time PCR
analysis in a LightCycler 480 instrument (Roche) with either KAPA SYBR FAST for
LightCycler 480 (Kapa Biosystems) or Thunderbird SYBR qPCR Mix (Toyobo). The
amount of each target mRNA was normalized by that of *Actb* mRNA. Primer sequences
(5' to 3'; forward and reverse, respectively) were as follows: *Actb*, AATAGT
CATTCCAAGTATCCATGAAA and GCGACCATCCTCCTCTTAG; *Hmga2*,
CCTGTGAGCCCTCTCCTA and CTTTCTTCTGGGCTGCTT; *Igf2bp2*,
CTCTCGGGTAAAGTGGAATTG and CGAATCTGGATTCTTCTGCTC; *Lin28b*,
ACCTATGACTCATTGTTGACC and TATCCTGACACTTTCTCGTCG; *GLAST*,
CAAGTTCTGCCACCCTAC and CACAAATCTGGTGATGCGT (Sakai et al., 2019).
508

RNA-seq analysis
Libraries for RNA-seq analysis were constructed from total RNA isolated as for RT-qPCR
analysis. An Illumina TruSeq RNA sample preparation kit was used for template
preparation, which was followed by deep sequencing on the Illumina HiSeq platform to

obtain 36-base single-end reads. Approximately 20 million sequences were obtained.

Sequenced reads of NPCs isolated from wild-type embryos or from Ring1A/B knockout

embryos were mapped to the reference mouse genome mm10 or mm9 with the use of

Hisat2 (Kim et al., 2019) or ELAND (Illumina), respectively. Only uniquely mapped and

"deduplicated" reads with no base mismatch were used. Expression information was

obtained as RPKM based on the RefSeq gene models and with the use of featureCounts

(Liao et al., 2014). Gene clustering analysis based on expression patterns was performed

with *maSigPro* (Conesa et al., 2006). GO analysis for functional annotation was

conducted with DAVID software (Huang et al., 2009).

Quartz-seq analysis

Both cDNA synthesis and amplification were performed with total RNA from 1000 cells

as described previously (Sasagawa et al., 2013). The amplified cDNA was prepared for

sequencing with the use of a Nextera XT DNA Sample Prep Kit (Illumina) and was

subjected to deep sequencing analysis on the Illumina HiSeq platform to yield 36-base

single-end reads. Approximately 2 million sequences were obtained from each sample.

Sequences were mapped to the reference mouse genome (mm10) with Hisat2 (Kim et al.,

2019). Only uniquely mapped and "deduplicated" reads with no base mismatch were used.

Gene expression was quantitated as RPKM on the basis of RefSeq gene models (mm10)

with the use of featureCounts (Liao et al., 2014).

GSEA

Enrichment of signature genes was assessed with GSEA software (Subramanian et al.,

2005). Each gene set was determined as follows. Expansion-phase genes: genes expressed

in cluster 2 at $\geq$50 RPKM at E9.0. Ring1B target genes in cultured NPCs: Ring1B

knockout (KO)/control $\geq$ 1.5, expression in control $\geq$ 3.0 RPKM (Hirabayashi et al., 2009).

Ring1B target genes in NPCs in vivo: Ring1A/B KO/Ring1A KO $\geq$ 3.0, expression in

control (Ring1A KO) $\geq$ 1.0 RPKM.

ChIP-seq analysis

ChIP analysis was performed as previously described (Sakai et al., 2019) with antibodies

to Hmga2 (Cell Signaling). Two million cells directly isolated from the neocortex of

embryos at E11.0 were used for ChIP-seq of Hmga2. An Illumina TruSeq DNA sample

preparation kit was used for template preparation, which was followed by deep

sequencing analysis on the Illumina HiSeq platform to obtain 36-base single-end reads.

Sequences were mapped to the reference mouse genome (mm10) with bowtie software

(Langmead et al., 2009). Only uniquely mapped reads without blacklist regions

determined by the ENCODE project (Amemiya et al., 2019) were used.

Statistical analysis

Data presented as means + SEM were compared with the two-tailed Student's paired or

Welch's *t* test or by one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by the Bonferroni-

Holm multiple-comparison test. A *p* value of <0.05 was considered statistically

significant.

Data availability statement

The sequence data have been deposited in the DNA Data Bank of Japan (DDBJ) Sequence

Read Archive under the following IDs: DRA008425 (RNA-seq of WT NPCs),

DRA010293 (Quartz-seq of Hmga2 KD NPCs), DRA008363, DRA010295 (Hmga2

ChIP-seq) and DRA010297 (H3K27me3 ChIP-seq).

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Author Contributions

N.K., Y.K., Y.H. and Y.G. designed the study and wrote the manuscript. N.K., Y.K., Y.M.,

Y.N., and Y.H. performed the experiments and analyzed the data. Y.S. performed high-

throughput sequencing analysis. H.K. generated *Ring1a*$^{-/-}$;*Ring1b*$^{\text{flox/flox}}$ mice. Y.K., Y.H.,

and Y.G. supervised the study.

Declaration of Interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

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  Figure Legends

Figure 1. In utero injection of mouse embryos before neural tube closure. (**a** and **b**)
The uterine horn of an anesthetized pregnant mouse was exposed at E7.0 or E8.0. (**c** and
d) The uterus was pinched between an optical fiber and finger (**c**) for injection via a
sharpened glass capillary of a solution colored with a dye (FastGreen) and containing
either CFSE, a retrovirus, or a plasmid (**d**). (**e**) Embryos at E7.0 (left) or E8.0 (right) were
injected with CFSE, dissected out from the uterus at E9.0 or E11.0, respectively, and fixed
for visualization of CFSE fluorescence with a fluorescence stereo microscope. Scale bars,
0.5 mm (left) or 1 mm (right). (**f**) The survival and labeling rates after in utero introduction
of CFSE into mouse embryos as in (**e**).

Figure 2. In utero gene introduction by retroviral infection in embryos before neural
tube closure. (**a**) Mouse embryos in the same uterus were injected or not with a retrovirus
encoding GFP together with an shRNA targeted to luciferase mRNA at E8.0. The embryos
were dissected out from the uterus at E11.0, fixed, and examined for GFP fluorescence
with a fluorescence stereo microscope. The posterior half of the control embryo was
excised for the purpose of identification. Scale bars, 1 mm. (**b**) An embryo at E7.0 was
injected as in (**a**) and examined for GFP fluorescence at E11.0. Scale bar, 1 mm. (**c**)
Survival rate and labeling rate for embryos injected as in (**a**) and (**b**). (**d**) Flow cytometric
analysis of the efficiency of gene introduction. Neocortical cells dissociated from E12.0
embryos that had been injected with a retrovirus for GFP at E8.0 were subjected to flow
cytometric analysis of GFP expression. (**e**) A sagittal section of an E10.0 embryo injected
at E8.0 as in (**a**) was subjected to immunohistofluorescence staining with antibodies to
GFP. Nuclei were counterstained with Hoechst 33342. Representative infected tissues are
indicated. Scale bar, 1 mm. (**f** and **g**) Higher magnification images of the bronchus (**f**) and
spinal cord (**g**) in the section shown in (**e**). Scale bars, 100 μm. (**h**) Embryos at E7.0 (left)
or E8.0 (right) were injected with a plasmid for mCherry and subjected to in utero
electroporation. They were dissected out from the uterus at E9.0 or E10.0, respectively,
fixed, and examined for mCherry fluorescence with a fluorescence stereo microscope.
Scale bars, 0.5 mm (left) or 1 mm (right). (**i**) The survival and labeling rates after in utero
electroporation of embryos as in (**h**).

Figure 3. Hierarchical clustering of differentially expressed genes in NPCs at early developmental stages. (a) CD133^{high} cells were isolated as NPCs from the telencephalon at E8.0 and E9.0 and from the neocortex at E10.0, E11.0, and E12.0 by FACS and were subjected to RNA-seq analysis. (**b**–**f**) Differentially expressed genes in NPCs at the various developmental stages isolated as in (**a**) were categorized into five clusters (clusters 1–5) on the basis of the pattern of expression changes with the use of hierarchical clustering analysis. The expression levels of the genes in each gene cluster are shown as box plots, with the boxes representing the median and upper and lower quartiles and the whiskers indicating the range (left). Enriched GO terms and their *p* values determined by functional annotation of each gene cluster with DAVID software are also shown (right). RPKM, reads per kilobase of mRNA per million total reads. (**g**) The five genes expressed at the highest levels in cluster 5 at E10.0. (**h**) NPCs isolated as in (**a**) from embryos at E9.0, E10.0, E11.0, and E12.0 were subjected to RT-qPCR analysis of *Hmga2* mRNA. Data were normalized by *Actb* mRNA abundance and are means + SEM from five independent experiments. *$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$ (one-way ANOVA followed by the Bonferroni-Holm multiple-comparison test).

Figure 4. Hmga2 promotes the onset of neurogenesis in the mouse neocortex. (a) Mouse embryos at E8.0 were subjected to in utero infection with retroviruses encoding GFP and either control or Hmga2 shRNAs, and the brain was isolated from the embryos at E10.0 or E11.0 for isolation of CD133^{high}, GFP$^+$ NPCs by FACS. (**b**) NPCs isolated from control and Hmga2–knockdown (KD) embryos as in (**a**) were subjected to RT-qPCR analysis of *Hmga2* mRNA. Data are expressed relative to the corresponding control value and are means + SEM from five independent experiments. *$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$ versus corresponding control value (two-tailed Student's paired *t* test). (**c**–**g**) The brain of embryos treated as in (**a**) was subjected to immunohistofluorescence analysis with antibodies to GFP and to Hmga2 at E10.0 (**c**), with those to GFP and to Tbr2 at E11.0 (**d**), and with those to GFP and to Sox2 at E11.0 (**f**). Nuclei were counterstained with Hoechst 33342. Scale bars, 20 μm (**c**) or 50 μm (**d** and **f**). Arrowheads indicate GFP$^+$ cells (**c**). The percentages of Tbr2$^+$ cells at E10.0 or E11.0 (**e**) or of Sox2$^+$ cells at E11.0 (**g**) among GFP$^+$ cells were also determined. Data are means + SEM from six (Tbr2) or three (Sox2) independent experiments (total of 12 control and nine Hmga2-knockdown embryos for

Tbr2, and eight control and seven Hmga2-knockdown embryos for Sox2). *$p < 0.05$

versus corresponding control value (two-tailed Welch's *t* test).

Figure 5. Hmga2 promotes the change in transcriptional profile of NPCs at the E-

to-N transition. (**a**) Embryos were subjected to in utero infection with retroviruses

encoding GFP and either control or Hmga2 shRNAs at E8.0, and the brain was isolated

at E10.0 or E11.0 for isolation of GFP^{+}, CD133^{high} NPCs by FACS and subsequent RNA

(Quartz)-seq analysis. Three or four independent experiments were performed with cells

isolated at E10.0 or E11.0, respectively. (**b**) A scatter plot shows the expression levels of

Hmga2 and *Igf2bp2* (red dots) as well as other genes (gray dots) indicated as expression

lavels (RPKM) in control and Hmga2–knockdown (KD) NPCs. (**c**) Expression levels

(RPKM) of *Hmga2* and *Igf2bp2* in control and Hmga2 KD NPCs were determined. Data

are means + SEM and are expressed relative to the corresponding control value. *$p < 0.05$,

$p < 0.01$ versus corresponding control value (two-tailed Student's paired *t* test). (d**)

Enriched GO terms among genes downregulated and upregulated by Hmga2 KD were

determined by GO analysis. *p* values were determined with DAVID Bioinformatic

Resources. (**e**) The Quartz-seq data for control and Hmga2 KD NPCs isolated at E10.0 as

in (**a**) were subjected to GSEA for signature genes of the expansion phase (those in cluster

2 with an RPKM of ≥50 at E9.0) (Figure 3c). The family-wise error rate (FWER) *p* value

and false discovery rate (FDR) *q* value are shown.

Supplementary figure legends

Supplementary Figure 1. Expression levels of *Lin28b* and *GLAST* in NPCs from

E9.0 to E12.0. (**a**) CD133^{high} cells were isolated as NPCs from the telencephalon at E9.0

and from the neocortex at E10.0, E11.0, and E12.0 by FACS as in Figure 3 and were

subjected to RT-qPCR analysis for *Lin28b* and *GLAST* mRNAs. Data were normalized

by *Actb* mRNA abundance and are means + SEM from five independent experiments.

Supplementary Figure 2. The effects of Hmga2 knockdown in NPCs on gene

expression patterns (**a**) Sorting strategy of control and Hmga2 KD NPCs in Figure 5.

Left panels, distribution GFP signals of cells obtained from the GFP-introduced

neocortices; right panels: distribution of CD133 signals of GFP-positive and -negative

cells. (**b–e**) The Quartz-seq data for control and Hmga2 KD NPCs isolated at E10.0 as in

Figure 5 were subjected to GSEA for the gene sets of clusters 1, 3, 4, and 5 in Figure 3b

and 3d–f. The family-wise error rate (FWER) *p* value and false discovery rate (FDR) *q*

value are shown. (**f**) The list for upregulated genes by Hmga2 knockdown in NPCs both

at E10.0 and E11.0 determined by *edgeR* software are shown.

Supplementary Figure 3. Hmga2 deposition at the *Igf2bp2*, *Wnt7b*, and *Lef1* gene

loci. (**a–c**) Neocortical cells at E11 were subjected to ChIP-seq analysis with antibodies

to Hmga2. The Hmga2 signals around the *Igf2bp2* (**a**), *Wnt7b* (**b**), and *Lef1* (**c**) gene loci

of two representative results from four independent experiments are shown.

Supplementary Figure 4. Hmga2 knockdown increases the expression of PcG target

genes in NPCs. (**a**) The Quartz-seq data for control and Hmga2 KD NPCs at E11.0 in

Figure 5 were subjected to GSEA of PcG target genes previously identified by Ring1B

knockout (KO) in an NPC culture (Hirabayashi et al., 2009). The FWER *p* value and FDR

q value are shown. (**b**) The Quartz-seq data for NPCs at E11.0 in Figure 5 were subjected

to GSEA of PcG target genes that we identified by RNA-seq analysis of NPCs isolated

by FACS at E18 from the neocortex of *Ring1a*^{−/−};*Ring1b*[flox/flox];*Rosa-CreERT2*[−/− or +/−]

mouse embryos that had been treated with tamoxifen at E15 (see Materials and Methods).

The FWER *p* value and FDR *q* value are shown.

Fig. 1

a Anesthetized pregnant mouse (E7.0 or E8.0)

b Exposed uterine horn

c A uterus pinched between an optical fiber and finger

d
Sharpened glass capillary
1-2 mm
Center of the uterus
Uterine horn
Injected embryos
Injection of CFSE, retroviruses, or plasmids

e
E7.0 injection → E9.0   E8.0 injection → E11.0
CFSE

f

	Injected embryos	Survival rate (% of injected)	CFSE-positive (% of injected)
E7.0 injection → E9.0	28	25 (89%)	18 (64%)
E8.0 injection → E10.0	30	24 (80%)	23 (77%)

Fig. 2

a E8.0 injection → E11.0

Control (no injection) GFP-expressing virus

GFP

b E7.0 injection → E11.0

GFP

c

	Injected embryos	Survival rate (% of injected)	GFP-positive (% of injected)
E7.0 injection → E9.0	28	27 (96%)	2 (7%)
E8.0 injection → E10.0	19	17 (89%)	14 (74%)

d E8.0 injection → E12.0

Control (no injection)

Cell number

0%

GFP

GFP-expressing virus

Cell number

70%

GFP

e E8.0 injection → E10.0

Fourth ventricle

Epidermis

Spinal cord

g

f

GFP/Hoechst

Lateral ventricle

Endodermal tissues

f Bronchus

g Spinal cord

h E7.0 IUE → E9.0   E8.0 IUE → E10.0

mCherry

i

	Injected embryos	Survival rate (% of injected)	mCherry-positive (% of injected)
E7.0 → E9.0	36	26 (72%)	7 (19%)
E8.0 → E10.0	20	11 (55%)	8 (40%)

Fig. 3

a

E8.0 whole brain
E9.0 whole brain
E10.0 neocortex → FACS (CD133high),
E11.0 neocortex   RNA-seq
E12.0 neocortex

b Cluster 1 (1175 genes)

Tissue morphogenesis
Embryo development
Anatomical structure formation involved in morphogenesis
Circulatory system development
Cardiovascular system development

c Cluster 2 (1552 genes)

Ribosome biogenesis
ncRNA metabolic process
Ribonucleoprotein complex biogenesis
ncRNA processing
rRNA processing

d Cluster 3 (1736 genes)

Nervous system development
Generation of neurons
Neurogenesis
Regulation of nervous system development
Neuron differentiation

e Cluster 4 (1597 genes)

Cell projection morphogenesis
Cell part morphogenesis
Cell projection organization
Cell morphogenesis
Regulation of cell morphogenesis

f Cluster 5 (284 genes)

Cell surface receptor signaling pathway
Chondrocyte differentiation
Connective tissue development
Negative regulation of response to stimulus
Regulation of cell communication

g

Gene symbol	Expression level (RPKM)
Atp5a1	339
Hmga2	279
Lrrn1	217
Calm3	129
Ccnd1	127

h

Hmga2/Actb mRNA ratio (arbitrary units)

Fig. 4

a *In utero* injection

E8.0 embryo WT → 2 or 3 days → FACS (GFP⁺, CD133ʰⁱᵍʰ), RT-qPCR Immunostaining

b Control / Hmga2 KD

Hmga2/Actb mRNA ratio (arbitrary units)

E10.0 E11.0

c Control / Hmga2 KD

Hmga2/GFP/Hoechst Hmga2 Hmga2/GFP/Hoechst Hmga2

d E11.0

Control / Hmga2 KD

Tbr2/GFP/Hoechst Tbr2 Tbr2/GFP/Hoechst Tbr2

e Control / Hmga2 KD

Tbr2⁺ cells (% of GFP⁺ cells)

E10.0 E11.0

f Control / Hmga2 KD

Sox2/GFP/Hoechst Sox2 Sox2/GFP/Hoechst Sox2

g Sox2⁺ cells (% of GFP⁺ cells)

Control Hmga2 KD

Fig. 5

Supplementary Fig. 1

a

Supplementary Fig. 2

f Upregulated genes in both E10 and E11

Ensembl gene ID	Gene symbol
ENSMUSG00000053070	*9230110C19Rik*
ENSMUSG00000098112	*Bin2*
ENSMUSG00000026815	*Gfi1b*
ENSMUSG00000095217	***Hist1h2bn***
ENSMUSG00000028678	*Kif2c*
ENSMUSG00000049382	*Krt8*
ENSMUSG00000028581	*Laptm5*
ENSMUSG00000031004	***Mki67***
ENSMUSG00000056234	*Ncoa4*
ENSMUSG00000020120	*Plek*
ENSMUSG00000027074	*Slc43a3*
ENSMUSG00000027500	*Stmn2*
ENSMUSG00000033685	*Ucp2*

Supplementary Fig. 3

a Hmga2 (CPM; 0-3.0)

10 kbp

b Hmga2 (CPM; 0-2.0)

10 kbp

c Hmga2 (CPM; 0-2.0)

10 kbp

Supplementary Fig. 4

a Derepressed genes by Ring1B KO in cultured NPCs

$p = 0.023$, $q = 0.069$

b Derepressed genes by Ring1A/B dKO in NPCs *in vivo*

$p = 0.0$, $q = 0.0$