A Notch-dependent transcriptional mechanism controls expression of temporal

patterning factors in *Drosophila* medulla

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Abstract

Temporal patterning is an important mechanism for generating a great diversity of neuron

subtypes from a seemingly homogenous progenitor pool in both vertebrates and invertebrates.

Drosophila neuroblasts have been shown to be temporally patterned by sequentially expressed

Temporal Transcription Factors (TTFs). These TTFs are proposed to form a transcriptional

cascade based on mutant phenotypes, although direct transcriptional regulation between TTFs

has not been verified in most cases. Furthermore, it is not known how the temporal transitions

are coupled with generation of the appropriate number of neurons at each stage. We use

neuroblasts of the *Drosophila* optic lobe medulla to address these questions, and show that the

expression of TTFs Sloppy-paired 1/ 2 (Slp1/2) is regulated at transcriptional level directly by

two other TTFs and the cell-cycle dependent Notch signaling through two cis-regulatory

elements.   We also show that supplying transcriptional active Notch can rescue the delayed

transition into the Slp stage in cell cycle arrested neuroblasts. Our findings reveal a novel

Notch-pathway dependent mechanism through which the cell cycle progression regulates the

timing of a temporal transition within a TTF transcriptional cascade.

Introduction

Generation of a great diversity of neurons from a small pool of neural progenitors is critical for

constructing functional nervous systems. This is achieved in part by integration of temporal

patterning and spatial patterning of neural progenitors [reviewed in [1-4]]. Temporal patterning of

neural progenitors refers to the generation of differently fated progeny in a birth-order

dependent manner, and this is observed in both invertebrates and vertebrates [reviewed in [5-7]

]. The central nervous system in *Drosophila melanogaster* has been an excellent model to study

temporal patterning. Neural progenitors called neuroblasts (NBs) have been shown to

sequentially express series of temporal transcription factors (TTFs), which are each required to

specify subsets of neuron fates [reviewed in [8,9]]. For example, neuroblasts in the embryonic

ventral nerve cord (vnc) are temporally patterned by a TTF cascade Hunchback (Hb), Kruppel

(Kr), Nubbin/Pdm2 (Pdm), Castor (Cas) and Grainy head (Grh) [10-13], while *Drosophila* optic lobe

medulla neuroblasts utilize a different TTF cascade composed of Homothorax (Hth), SoxNeuro

(SoxN), Doublesex-Mab related 99B (Dmrt99B), Odd paired (Opa), Eyeless (Ey), Earmuff (Erm),

Homeobrain (Hbn), Sloppy-paired (Slp1,Slp2), Scarecrow (Scro), Dichaete (D), BarH1/2, Tailless

(Tll), and Glial cell missing (Gcm)[14-19]. In these TTF cascades, cross-regulations were identified

among TTF genes based on loss and gain of function phenotypes, and they were proposed to

form a transcriptional cascade [11-13, 14-19,20] that can in theory self-propagate [21]. However, with a

few exceptions [22], the cis-regulatory elements of these TTF genes haven't been characterized,

and thus it is not known whether these cross-regulations are indeed direct transcriptional

regulations. Moreover, in the embryonic TTF cascade, although mis-expression of one TTF is

sufficient to activate the next TTF and repress the "next plus one" TTF, loss of one TTF often

does not block temporal progression, but only causes the corresponding fates to be skipped [11].

In the medulla TTF cascade, one TTF is required but not sufficient to promote the TTF cascade

progression [19]. These studies suggest that additional mechanisms in addition to cross-

regulations among TTFs might function to regulate TTF progression.

As the neural progenitors go through the TTF cascade, they need to generate a certain number

of postmitotic progeny as each temporal stage. Therefore, it has been questioned whether cell

cycle progression is required for the TTF cascade progression. In the embryonic VNC TTF

cascade, cytokinesis is required for the first transition (Hb to Kr) by promoting the nuclear

export of seven-up (*svp)* mRNA encoding a switching factor, but all later temporal transitions

progress normally in G2-arrested neuroblasts [11,23,24]. In larval VNC NBs, timely transition from

the Imp /Castor/Chinmo to Syncrip/Broad stage also requires cell cycle progression [25]. These

results suggest that the requirement of cell-cycle progression varies depending on the specific

temporal transition. In vertebrate cortical progenitors, the temporal transition from generating

deep layer neurons to generating upper layer neurons is not affected by blocking cell cycle

progression when constitutively active Notch signaling is provided [26]. However, it is still

possible that Notch signaling might be promoting the temporal transition in the absence of cell

cycle progression.

Notch signaling plays pleiotropic roles in neurogenesis and neural development in both

vertebrates and invertebrates [reviewed in [27]]. Upon binding to a ligand from a neighboring

cell, the Notch receptor is cleaved to release the Notch intracellular domain (NICD), which then

enters the nucleus and associates with the DNA-binding protein CSL (CBF1/RBPjκ/Su(H)/Lag-1).

The NICD-CSL then recruits transcriptional coactivator Mastermind (MAM) to activate

transcription of Notch target genes, mainly the bHLH transcriptional repressors of the HES

(hairy and enhancer of split) /HEY families [reviewed in [28-30]]. Drosophila NBs divide

asymmetrically multiple times and at each division generate a self-renewed neuroblast and a

more differentiated progeny, that is either an intermediate progenitor [Ganglion Mother Cell

(GMC) for type I NBs, or Intermediate Neural Progenitor (INP) for type II NBs], or a postmitotic

progeny (type 0 NBs) [reviewed in [31]]. During the asymmetric division of Drosophila

neuroblasts, Numb, a negative regulator of Notch signaling, is asymmetrically localized to the

intermediate progenitor, resulting in unidirectional Delta-Notch signaling from the intermediate

progenitor to the neuroblast [32-35]. Ectopic activation of Notch signaling in the progeny causes

them to revert back into neuroblasts and over-proliferate, while inhibition of Notch signaling in

type II NBs eliminated the whole lineage [36-39]. In contrast, in most type I NB lineages, loss of N

signaling does not affect neuroblast maintenance, and it was shown that E(spl) complex

proteins and Deadpan act redundantly to maintain the un-differentiated state (stemness) of

neuroblasts by repressing differentiation genes [39-41]. Notch signaling is also involved in

controlling the daughter cell proliferation modes specifically the type I to type 0 switch in

embryonic VNC NBs [42,43]. Work in vertebrate central nervous system suggest that during the

asymmetric division of neural progenitors, the more differentiated progeny expresses Delta and

activates Notch signaling in the sister cell to maintain the neural progenitor fate [reviewed in

[27]]. In addition, Notch signaling show cell cycle dependent activation and the expression of

Notch target Hes genes oscillates during the cell cycle in neural progenitors [reviewed in [44]].

Although Notch signaling has been shown to play many important roles in neural lineage

development, whether Notch signaling also has a role in temporal transitions between TTFs has

not been investigated.

Here, we use *Drosophila* medulla neuroblasts to address these questions. In the larval optic

lobe, a neurogenesis wave spreads in a medial to lateral direction to sequentially convert

neuroepithelial cells into neuroblasts. As a result, medulla neuroblasts of different ages are

orderly aligned on the lateral to medial spatial axis with the youngest on the lateral side (Fig.

1A). Medulla neuroblasts divide asymmetrically multiple times to self-renew and to generate a

series of GMCs and at the same time they transit through the TTF sequence (Fig. 1A). Among

the TTFs, Slp1 and Slp2 are two homologous fork-head family transcription factors expressed in

the same temporal pattern in medulla neuroblasts (Fig. 1B-B''). In this work, we identified two

cis-regulatory enhancer elements that regulate the temporal expression pattern of Slp1/2, and

showed that the previous TTF Ey, another TTF Scro, and the Notch signaling pathway directly

regulate the transcription of *slp* through these two enhancers. Slp1/2 expression is delayed

when N signaling is lost or when cell cycle progression is blocked which also causes loss of N

signaling. Furthermore, we show that supplying transcriptionally active Notch can rescue the

timely Ey to Slp transition in cell-cycle arrested neuroblasts. Thus, our work demonstrates that

cell-cycle dependent Notch signaling cooperates with TTFs to promote the progression of the

TTF transcriptional cascade.

Results

Expression of Slp1 and Slp2 in medulla neuroblasts is regulated at the level of transcription by

coordinated function of at least two enhancers.

The observed distribution of temporal patterning transcription factors may be regulated at

either the transcriptional or post-transcriptional level, and the protein expression pattern is not

necessarily the same as that of the mRNA transcripts. A case in point is the expression pattern

of the SoxN protein recently reported to function alongside Dmrt99B and Hth to specify

identities of early-born neurons in the medulla; while mRNA transcripts of soxN gene are widely

distributed in neuroblasts, SoxN protein is only expressed in the youngest neuroblasts,

suggesting that post-transcriptional mechanisms are at work to confine the actual domain of

SoxN protein expression[17]. To examine whether the expression of Slp1/2 in medulla

neuroblasts is regulated at transcription, we observed the distributions of *slp1* and *slp2* mRNA

transcripts by fluorescence *in situ*-hybridization (Fig. 1C-C'''). The observed patterns of *slp1* and

slp2 mRNA expression closely parallel the expression of Slp1 and Slp2 proteins (Fig. 1B-B'''), and

are also corroborated by scRNA-seq data[17], indicating that the expression of *slp1* and *slp2* is

directly regulated at transcription.

We then sought to identify transcriptional enhancers that enable expression of the *slp* genes in

the characteristic pattern observed in medulla neuroblasts. From our examination of expression

patterns of GFP in third instar larval brains driven by Gal4 lines under the regulation of putative

enhancer elements [45-47] (available from the Janelia FlyLight image database

https://flweb.janelia.org/cgi-bin/flew.cgi), we identified the GMR35H02 Gal4 line as containing a

candidate enhancer driving Slp1/2 expression in medulla neuroblasts. We then verified the

expression of UAS-GFP driven by GMR35H02-Gal4 and found that indeed the GFP expression in

medulla neuroblasts was initiated at the same time as endogenous Slp1 and Slp2

(Supplementary Fig. S1A-B'). Subsequently, we cloned the 3.75 kbp element corresponding to

the GMR35H02 Gal4 regulatory sequence upstream of a EGFP reporter gene with a basal hsp70

promoter in the vector pJR12[48] and constructed transgenic lines. In these lines GFP was

expressed in the same pattern as the GMR35H02Gal4 driving UASGFP. Through successive

iterations of enhancer-bashing experiments whereby we cloned progressively smaller segments

of the initial 3.75 kbp element (See Supplementary Table 1 for primer sequences used) in the

above-described vector and observed GFP reporter expression in transgenic flies, we identified

a 220 bp fragment within the larger GMR35H02 regulatory DNA which preserved the expression

pattern of the GFP reporter (Fig. 1E-E''') as that of UAS-GFP driven by the GMR35H02 -Gal4.

This we reasoned is a minimal enhancer driving expression of Slp genes in medulla neuroblasts.

Deletion of this element by CRISPR-Cas9 however failed to completely eliminate the expression

of Slp1 and Slp2 in neuroblasts (Supplementary Fig. S1C-C'''), though it noticeably reduced the

expression domain of Slp1 (Supplementary Fig. S1E). Given the likelihood of developmentally

regulated gene expression being controlled by multiple enhancers [49,50] and the importance of

enhancer redundancy to achieving robust developmental outcomes [49,51,52], this hinted that

other enhancers may act redundantly to regulate Slp1/2 expression in medulla neuroblasts. We

identified other potential enhancers of Slp1/2 expression from the REDfly database[53,54] and

tested their roles in driving Slp1/2 expression in the context of medulla neuroblasts. We

screened available transgenic lines expressing GFP or lacZ reporters driven by putative

enhancer elements (kind gifts from Dr. Miki Fujioka and Dr. James B. Jaynes) and cloned other

candidate regulatory segments in the pJR12 GFP-reporter vector to compare GFP transgene

expression to endogenous Slp1/2 expression. Through this screen we identified a second

regulatory segment corresponding to the REDfly enhancer d5778 (Fig. 1D) that can drive GFP

expression in medulla neuroblasts within the endogenous Slp1/2 expression domain.

Subsequently we found that an 850 bp segment within the d5778 enhancer is sufficient to

initiate GFP expression in this pattern (Fig. 1F-F'''). Reporter expression driven by this second

enhancer (henceforth referred to as d5778 850bp enhancer) is initiated at a slightly later time

compared to the first identified enhancer, in older Slp expressing neuroblasts and also in glial

cells at the junction of the medulla and the central brain. Our analysis of the REDfly enhancers

that supposedly regulate expression of Slp1/2 also revealed that the earlier identified 220 bp

enhancer segment is contained within another REDfly enhancer named u8772 (Fig. 1D). Thus,

we refer to the first identified enhancer henceforth as u8772 220bp. As in case of the u8772

220bp enhancer deletion, sole deletion of d5778 enhancer by CRISPR-Cas9 again did not abolish

Slp1/2 expression(Supplementary Fig. S1D-D'''), suggesting that these enhancers function

redundantly and may make additive contributions to attaining the observed levels of Slp1 and

Slp2 expression.

Bioinformatic analyses of the sequences of our identified enhancers (see Methods) identified

binding sites for the previous TTF Ey, the CSL transcription factor Su(H), Slp1 itself, and a Nk2-

class homeodomain transcription factor ventral nervous system defective (vnd) (Supplementary

Table 2). The previous TTF Ey has been shown to be required but not sufficient for activating Slp

genes' expression in medulla neuroblasts, but it was not known whether this regulation is

direct. Vnd is not expressed in medulla neuroblasts according to our single-cell RNA-sequencing

data[17], but a related homologous NK-2 homeobox transcription factor Scarecrow[55] (Scro) is

expressed around the same time as Slp, and loss of Scro leads to significantly reduced Slp

expression level[17]. The CSL transcription factor Su(H) is the *Drosophila* homolog of RBP-J[56,57],

and the key DNA-binding component of the active Notch transcriptional complex. The Notch

signaling pathway plays an overarching role as a master regulator of development and

differentiation in neuroblasts, but it hasn't been shown to regulate the expression of temporal

patterning genes in neural progenitors. Therefore, we next tested whether Slp1/2 expression is

regulated by Notch signaling.

The Notch pathway regulates Slp1 and Slp2 expression in medulla neuroblasts

We observed expression of Slp1 and Slp2 in RNAi knockdown clones of key Notch pathway

components induced by *ayGal4* (*actin>FRT-y⁺-STOP-FRT-Gal4*, in which *actin* promoter drives

Gal4 expression only after a STOP cassette is excised by the action of heat shock activated

Flippase[58]). Since Slp1 and Slp2 are two homologous genes located in proximity [59] and

expressed in patterns very similar to one another with the timing of Slp1 expression slightly

preceding that of Slp2 expression (Fig. 1B-B'''), in all subsequent figures we have shown data for

Slp2 only with the assumption that Slp1 expression reflects the same pattern. On inducing RNAi

knockdowns of the critical Notch pathway components Notch and Su(H) – which are part of the

tripartite core of the active Notch transcriptional complex [60], it is seen that Slp2 expression is

delayed within the RNAi knockdown clones marked by GFP expression (Fig. 2A-A''', B-B'''

respectively) compared to wild type neuroblasts of the same age (i.e., in the same vertical

'stripe'). A similar effect is seen when dominant negative variant of the third core component of

the Notch transcriptional complex mastermind (mam) is expressed under the control ayGal4

(Fig. 2C-C'''). These data suggest that timing of Slp1/2 expression in medulla neuroblasts is

regulated by the Notch pathway.

To identify the cognate ligand of Notch that functions in activating the Notch signaling in

medulla neuroblasts, we examined expression of known Notch ligands- Delta [61], Serrate[62,63] and

Weary[64] in medulla neuroblasts (data not shown). Of these only UAS-GFP driven by Delta-Gal4

was seen to be expressed in medulla neuroblasts and in their progeny GMCs. We then

examined whether loss of Dl recapitulates the effects we observe on Slp1/2 expression with

loss of function of core Notch transcription complex components, if indeed Dl is required for

activating Notch signaling in these cells. RNAi knockdown of Dl resulted in a similar delay in

initiating Slp2 expression as with loss of function of other key actors in the Notch pathway (Fig.

2D-D''') confirming this expectation.

Notch pathway and Ey regulate the activity of _slp_ enhancers.

Since Su(H) and Ey are required for Slp expression, we next tested whether these regulations

are mediated through the identified enhancers. We tested whether knockdown of each factor

would affect GFP reporter expression driven by these enhancers. We reasoned that if any of the

factors we had identified binding sites for bound to the enhancers and enabled them to initiate

Slp1/2 transcription, GFP reporter expression driven by these enhancers would be lost in loss of

function clones of these transcription factors. We induced RNAi knockdown clones for Ey and

Su(H) using ayGal4 in transgenic flies expressing wild type GFP reporters driven by these two

enhancers and compared the expression of GFP in wild type neuroblasts and in neuroblasts

where each of these TFs had been individually knocked down.

For both enhancers, GFP reporter expression was lost in *eyRNAi* clones (Fig 3A-B') confirming an

earlier observation that Ey was required for initiating Slp1/2 expression. It also strengthened

the evidence that these two were indeed bona-fide enhancers activating Slp1/2 expression.

Similarly, GFP reporter expression was lost or delayed in s*u(H) RNAi* clones for both enhancers

(Fig 3C-D'), confirming that Su(H)/N pathway regulates Slp1/2 expression through these two

enhancers. Since Slp binding sites were also identified in the *slp* enhancers, we next tested the

effect of loss of Slp1/2 function on the expression of our GFP reporters. To this end we induced

slp1/2 loss of function (LOF) mutant clones in flies carrying the *GFP reporter and UbiRFP*

FRT40A. In Fig. 3E-F' *slp* LOF clones are visible as dark regions devoid of RFP whereas wild type

neuroblasts are marked by RFP expression from the Ubiquitin promoter. Reporter expression

driven by both enhancers within *slp* LOF neuroblasts is normal as in wild type neuroblasts.

Though this suggests that Slp1/2 are not required to initiate their own expression, it does not

preclude a possible role of Slp1/2 in sustaining their own expression in older Slp1/2 stage

neuroblasts or progeny, but the perdurance of the GFP reporter prevents us from testing this

possible role. In summary, our genetic experiments confirmed that identified enhancers of

slp1/2 respond to activation by Ey and Su(H).

Mutations of potential binding sites for Ey, Su(H) and Scro in *slp1/2* enhancers impair

expression of the reporters

To further test whether the regulators we identified indeed regulate Slp1/2 expression directly

through binding to the enhancers, we set out to mutate all possible binding sites for each of the

regulators- Ey, Su(H), Scro and Slp1, on each enhancer. We identified all potential matches to

consensus binding motifs for these factors using the DNA Pattern Recognition Tool within the

Sequence Manipulation Suite[65].   Custom-designed gene blocks containing the mutated

enhancer sequences were cloned upstream of the GFP reporter in pJR12 vector as before, and

transgenic flies expressing these reporter constructs were then made (Supplementary Table1).

We next compared the expression patterns and intensities of GFP reporters with mutated TF

binding sites against GFP reporter expression driven by the 'wild type' version of that same

enhancer (Fig. 4A-A''', Fig. 5A-A'''). To compare GFP reporter intensities between wild type and

mutated variants of an enhancer, identical microscope illumination and imaging settings were

used for all variants of the same enhancer.

Mutation of all potential Ey binding sites nearly eliminated GFP expression for both enhancers

(Fig. 4B-B''', F and Fig. 5C-C''',F), as did the mutation of all possible Su(H) binding sites (Fig. 4C-

C''', F and Fig. 5D-D''',F). For the d5778 850 bp enhancer, the expression of GFP in glial cells is

still present and likely intensified when Su(H) binding sites are mutated. Since it is impossible to

avoid contributions to the GFP signal intensity from surface-glial cells in neuroblast stacks we

have quantified, the GFP signal intensity reflected in our measurements for the d5778 Su(H)

site mutant reporter seems high and also very variable (Fig. 4F). However, GFP expression from

the d5778 Su(H) site mutated reporter in neuroblasts alone is dramatically reduced compared

to the wild type. Mutation of scro sites in the u8772 220bp enhancer also led to a loss of GFP

expression (Fig. 4D-D''',F), whereas GFP expression was considerably weakened in the d5778

850bp scro site mutant enhancer (Fig. 5B-B''',F). In contrast, mutation of Slp1 binding sites did

not significantly affect the reporter expression (Fig. 4E-E''', F, and Fig. 5E-E'''). In summary, our

results provided strong evidence that Ey, Su(H) and Scro directly regulate Slp1/2 expression

through binding to its two enhancers.

DamID-sequencing confirms binding of Ey and Su(H) to identified enhancers of Slp1/2.

DamID-sequencing can be used to profile genome-wide binding patterns for transcription

factors and chromatin proteins [66,67]. We used a *SoxN*Gal4 that is expressed in all medulla

neuroblasts[17] to drive the expression of UAS-DamSu(H) or UAS-DamEy fusion proteins, and

inferred the genome-wide binding patterns of Ey and Su(H) through DamID-sequencing. For

each transcription factor two biological replicates were sequenced. Reproducible peaks of Ey

and Su(H) binding were observed in both replicates in the genomic region corresponding to the

identified enhancers of Slp1/2 transcription (Fig. 6A). Additionally, we also observed peaks of Ey

and Su(H) binding in the genomic region of *scro* gene (Supplementary Fig. S2A). It has been

reported that Scro expression is initiated in medulla neuroblasts at about the same time as

Slp1/2. This raises the possibility that Scro expression may also be initiated by either Ey, Su(H)

or both. In another temporal gene *homeobrain* (*hbn*) that is turned on in the Ey stage [16,18], Ey

and Su(H) binding peaks were also observed (Supplementary Fig. S2B). Genome-wide about

62.78% of all Su(H) bound genes and 60.3% of all Ey bound genes were bound by both Ey and

Su(H) (Fig. 6B). Enriched GO terms for these co-bound genes include: neuroblast fate

determination, cell division, asymmetric cell division, apical cell polarity, Notch signaling

pathway and axon guidance (Fig 6C-H). Taken together these data support evidence from our

genetics studies and together they suggest that Ey and Su(H)/N pathway activate Slp1/2

transcription by direct binding to Slp1/2 enhancers.

Notch signaling is dependent on cell-cycle progression.

Although it has been well-established that GMCs generated by the asymmetric division of

neuroblasts signal to their sister neuroblasts to provide the Notch signaling[32,33], it hasn't been

demonstrated whether Notch signaling is lost in cell-cycle arrested medulla neuroblasts since

they fail to generate GMCs. We used a regional Gal4, *vsxGal4* that is expressed in the center

domain of the medulla crescent starting in the neuroepithelium[68], to drive UAS-DCR2 and a

RNAi line against Proliferating Cell Nuclear Antigen (PCNA),which is essential for DNA

replication and S phase progression[69]. Blocking cell cycle progression caused premature

transformation of neuroepithelial cells to neuroblasts, as has been previously reported [70]. These

neuroblasts express the normal neuroblast marker Deadpan (Dpn) (Fig. 7A-A''), but produce

few progeny, and some neuroblasts are present in the deep layers which would normally be

occupied by neuronal progeny. A large fraction of these neuroblasts in the central domain don't

express E(spl)mγGFP, a Notch signaling reporter [61], while all neuroblasts in the control regions

express E(spl)mγGFP (Fig. 7A-A''). Thus, Notch signaling is largely lost in cell-cycle arrested

neuroblasts.

The role of cell cycle progression in the medulla TTF cascade.

Next, we tested whether blocking cell-cycle progression also affected the medulla TTF cascade

progression. In *vsxGal4>PCNA RNAi* brains, neuroblasts in the affected region do not express

either Ey or Slp1/2, but keep expressing SoxN (Fig. 7B-C''). This suggests that an earlier

temporal transition step is blocked which is required for Ey expression, and this prevents us

from examining whether the Ey to Slp transition also requires cell cycle progression. To

circumvent this problem, we used the *ay*Gal4 to drive *UAS-DCR2* and PCNA RNAi. By adjusting

heat shock timing to induce clones, we were able to obtain a condition where Ey expression is

minimally affected, and at this condition we observed that Slp2 expression is still severely

delayed (Fig. 7E-E'''). In addition to the timing of clone induction, the *ayGal4* is also likely to be

weaker than VsxGal4 at inducing RNAi, and the cell cycle is likely only slowed down rather than

arrested when using *ayGal4*, because there are still some progeny produced in such clones.

Furthermore, Slp1/2 expression is also delayed when we knock down String /Cdc25 required for

the G2 to M phase transition[71], or overexpress Dacapo (Dap, a Cyclin-dependent kinase

inhibitor in the CIP/KIP family)[72] using *ayGal4* (Supplementary Figure S3A-B''). Thus, cell cycle

progression is also required for the precise timing of Ey to Slp1/2 transition.

Notch signaling can rescue Slp expression delay caused by cell cycle defects.

Finally, we tested if supplying Notch signaling to cell-cycle arrested or delayed neuroblasts can

rescue the timing of Slp expression initiation. We supplied active Notch in neuroblasts using a

dpn>FRT-stop-FRT3-FRT-NICD transgene (which drives the expression of NICD from the *dpn*

enhancer in presence of heat shock activated Flippase; see Methods), while simultaneously

inducing knockdown of PCNA using ayGal4 under the same heat shock condition that leaves Ey

expression largely unaffected. Supplying NICD was sufficient to rescue Slp2 expression in PCNA

RNAi clones (Fig. 7E-E'''). This suggests that for the Ey to Slp transition, the presence of active

Notch signaling can substitute for the requirement for the cell-cycle progression.

Discussion

Evidence of direct transcriptional activation in the medulla TTF cascade.

Drosophila neuroblasts are temporally patterned by sequentially expressed TTFs. Although the

expression pattern and mutant phenotypes suggest that TTFs form a transcriptional cascade,

direct transcriptional regulation between TTFs has not been demonstrated in most cases. This

work has characterized two enhancers of the *slp* genes that enable the expression of Slp1 and

Slp2 in medulla neuroblasts. The u8772 220bp enhancer is activated at an earlier stage relative

to the d5778 850bp enhancer. The d5778 850bp enhancer also seems to drive Slp2 expression

in surface glial cells ensheathing the medulla neuroblasts. In these two enhancers, we identified

sites for the previous TTF -Ey and Scro-a TTF expressed at around the same time as Slp1[16,17].

Deleting either enhancer alone did not eliminate the expression of endogenous Slp1 and Slp2,

suggesting that they act redundantly with one another and possibly with other enhancers active

in this context. Using GFP reporter assays, we have shown that mutation of Ey binding sites in

these enhancers abolishes reporter expression similar to genetic experiments where we

observe a loss of GFP reporter within *ey* RNAi clones. Our results are also consistent with

previous studies that showed a complete loss of endogenous Slp1/2 expression in *UAS-ey-RNAi*

expressing neuroblasts [19]. We also confirmed the *in vivo* binding of Ey to the identified

enhancers of Slp by Dam-ID sequencing. The expression of the TTF Scro is initiated

simultaneously as Slp1/2, and it has been shown that loss of Scro significantly reduces Slp

expression level[17]. Mutation of most probable Scro binding sites on the u8772 220bp enhancer

led to a complete loss of GFP reporter expression. In contrast, a similar manipulation of the

d5778 850bp enhancer led to a decreased intensity of GFP reporter expression but did not

eliminate it. Thus the combined effect of mutating Scro binding sites on both enhancers

recapitulates the observed impact of Scro knock-down on endogenous Slp1/2 expression, which

is reduced expression of Slp1/2 in neuroblasts expressing *UAS scro-RNAi* and a consequent loss

of neural fates specified by Slp1/2 in their progeny. The observed differences in effects of Scro

binding site mutation on the two enhancers also highlights a general feature of enhancer

redundancy in fine-tuning expression of developmentally regulated genes- that different

enhancers are often sensitive to different environmental signals [49], which ultimately helps in

ensuring robust gene expression if an important regulator is absent or is present but at

insufficient concentrations for enhancer activation. It is also interesting to note that our

observation of multiple enhancers regulating Slp1/2 expression is consistent with regulation of

Slp1/2 in other developmental contexts. Previous studies have noted the presence of multiple

enhancers of Slp1/2 expression in the vicinity of the *slp1* and *slp2* coding loci . Many of these

regulatory DNA segments function as stripe enhancers enabling Slp1/2 to function as pair-rule

genes during embryonic segmentation[50]. Though these enhancers share some overlapping

functions and domains of activation, a full complement of stripe enhancers is required for

maintaining parasegment boundaries and wingless expression [74, 50].

<u>Notch signaling directly regulates transcription of a temporal patterning factor</u>

It was previously demonstrated that although Ey is necessary for activating Slp1/2 expression it

is not sufficient [19]. There is always a time delay after the start of Ey expression to the start of Slp

expression to ensure the sufficient duration of the Ey window. How is the timing controlled?

From our analyses of the *slp1/2* enhancer sequences we found several binding sites for the CSL

transcription factor Su(H), most prominently known as a central component of the ternary

Notch transcription complex and the primary DNA binding component. To confirm the

involvement of the Notch pathway in regulating Slp1/2, we observed effects of knocking down

key Notch pathway components on endogenous Slp1/2 expression. In all cases we observed a

delay in expression of Slp1/2 in neuroblasts expressing the RNAi knockdowns compared to the

time of Slp1/2 initiation in wild type neuroblasts. Mutating Su(H) binding sites in the u8772

220bp and the d5778 850bp enhancers led to a loss or delay of GFP reporter expression in

neuroblasts. These results suggest that the u8772 220bp and the d5778 850bp enhancers are

sensitive to Su(H) and further support the role of the Notch pathway in regulating the timing of

Slp1/2 expression. However, Ey may still play a more central role in activating Slp1/2 expression

than the Notch pathway since Slp1/2 are still expressed albeit later in the absence of Su(H) and

other Notch components. As with Ey, we confirmed Su(H) binding to our enhancers of interest

using DamID-seq. Thus, our work provided strong evidence that N signaling, a general signaling

pathway involved in neuroblast development, regulates the timing of activation of a TTF gene.

This might be part of mechanisms to promote TTF cascade progression specifically in

neuroblasts, where Notch signaling is active.

Cooperative regulation of target genes including *slp* by the TTF Ey and Notch signaling

What might explain the delay in Slp1/2 expression in the absence of Notch function? Recent

developments of single-molecule Fluorescence In Situ Hybridization (smFISH) technology and

live imaging techniques using the MS2-MCP system have enabled studying the transcription

process in molecular detail. Imaging transcription driven by Notch responsive enhancers in

native contexts has shown this process to be inherently 'bursty', i.e., episodes of transcription

(enhancer 'On' state) are punctuated with gaps in activity (enhancer in 'Off' state) [75,76]. The

dosage of NICD modulates the duration of the 'On' phase in one context studied by live imaging

[75,76]. Additionally, binding of tissue-specific regional factors to these Notch responsive

enhancers may prime these enhancers and help synchronize transcription and sustain a steady

transcriptional output upon Notch binding to enhancers; this helps integrate important

positional cues and the perception of context [75]. Applying these insights to our system, we

suggest that the delay observed may correspond to an increased number of abortive

transcription events in the absence of Su(H) and Notch and in the presence of Ey alone. Ey may

also act by priming our Notch responsive enhancers providing crucial contextual information

before robust levels of Slp1/2 can be transcribed, in addition to its independent role in helping

initiate Slp1/2 expression. The possible role of Ey in providing specificity to Notch mediated

regulation is supported by observations from our DamID data that 62.78% of Su(H) bound

genes and 60.3% of Ey bound genes were also bound by the other transcription factor. Enriched

GO terms within genes bound by both Ey and Su(H) included 'Notch signaling', 'asymmetric cell

division', 'cell division', 'apical cell polarity', 'axon guidance' etc (Fig 6C-H).

The role of cell cycle progression and Notch signaling in the medulla TTF cascade

Notch targeting genes and Dpn are transcriptional repressors that act partially redundant to

maintain neuroblast identity. In type II NBs, Dpn is dependent on Notch signaling, and loss of

Dpn causes premature differentiation[37,77]. However, in type I NBs, Dpn is not lost when N

signaling is lost, and N signaling seems dispensable for the self-renewing abilities of NBs[39-41]. In

the medulla neuroblasts, we also observed that in *Su(H)* mutant clones, the clone size and

neuroblast prolifeation is not significantly affected. On the other hand, we observed that N

signaling is dependent on cell-cycle progression, and N target gene is lost when cell cycle

progression is blocked.

In the medulla, blocking cell cycle progression in neuroepithelial cells prematurely transform

them into neuroblasts, and these neuroblasts seem to be arrested in the TTF cascade at the

SoxN stage. The expression of Ey and Slp are never turned on in such neuroblasts. When we

arrested or slowed down the cell cycle later in neuroblasts to preserve Ey expression, we

observed Slp expression is still delayed. Therefore, cell cycle progression also has a role in the

Ey to Slp transition. Further we showed that supplying Notch signaling is sufficient to rescue the

delay in the Ey to Slp transition caused by cell cycle defect. Thus at the Ey to Slp transition, the

cell cycle effect is mediated through the direct regulation of Slp transcription by Notch

signaling. Taken together, our results suggest that in Ey stage neuroblasts, Ey is required to

initiate Slp expression but not sufficient to activate it to a strong level right away, and after

each asymmetric division, activation of Notch signaling in the neuroblast enhances Slp

expression, until Slp expression reaches a certain level to repress Ey expression and make the

transition. This can be part of a mechanism to coordinate the TTF temporal transition with the

cell cycle progression in order to generate the appropriate number of neural progeny at a given

temporal stage.

Methods

Fly stocks and genetics

Flies were reared on yeast food at 25°C unless otherwise stated.

Enhancer identification- Flies carrying the *GMR35H02-Gal4* insertion (BDSC 49923) were

crossed with transgenic flies expressing *UAS GFPnls* (BDSC 4776). GFP driven by the *GMR35H02-*

Gal4 was then compared to endogenous Slp1 and Slp2 expression. Procedure for making

transgenic constructs and strains is described separately.

RNAi experiments- The following RNAi lines were used for RNAi knockdown experiments (In Fig

2); *UAS-ey-RNAi* (BDSC 32486), *UAS-scro^{RNAi}* (BDSC 33890), *UAS-N-RNAi* (BDSC 7078), *UAS-*

Su(H)-RNAi (VDRC 103597), *UAS-Dl-RNAi* (VDRC 32788), *UAS-PCNA-RNAi* (VDRC 51253), *UAS-*

stg-RNAi (VDRC 17760).

ayGal4 (*actin*>FRT-y$^+$-STOP-FRT-Gal4, in which *actin* promoter drives Gal4 expression after a

STOP cassette is excised by the action of heat shock activated Flippase) was used to drive RNAi

of *ey*, *scro* and *su(h)*. Flies of genotype *ywhsFlp; ayGal4>UAS GFP; UAS Dcr2/Tm6B* were crossed

to the RNAi lines. Larvae were heat shocked at 37°C for 10 minutes 48 hours after egg laying

and then raised at 29°C, until brains of third instar larvae were dissected and stained.

For observing effect of *ey RNAi* on the GFP reporter expression (Fig 3) flies of genotype *ywhsFlp;*

ayGal4>UAS lacZ; eyRNAi (made by combining *ayGal4>UAS lacZ* on chromosome II (BDSC 4410)

with *UAS-ey RNAi* on chromosome III) were crossed to flies with genotype *ywhsFlp; Sp/CyO;*

u8772 220bp>GFP (enhancer1) or *ywhsFlp; Sp/CyO; d5778 870bp>GFP* (enhancer2).

For studying effects of *Su(H) RNAi* on GFP reporter expression, flies of genotype *ywhsFlp;*

ayGal4>lacZ; Tm2/Tm6B were crossed to flies of genotype *Dcr2; Su(H) RNAi; u8772 220>GFP*

(enhancer 1) or *Dcr2; Su(H) RNAi; d5778 870> GFP* (enhancer 2).

Heat shock protocols for RNAi experiments driven by *ayGal4* in presence of GFP reporters were

the same as described above for *ayGal4* driven RNAi by themselves (i.e., without GFP

reporters).

Cell cycle arrest experiments- For some experiments examining effect of cell cycle arrest on

Slp1/2 expression and on expression of the Notch reporter E(spl)-mγ::GFP, *VsxGal4* was used to

drive the expression of *UAS PCNA RNAi* and *UAS Dcr2* in neuroblasts. Flies of genotype *VsxG4;*

E(spl)-mγGFP;UAS Dcr2/Tm6B were crossed to those with genotype *ywhsFlp; UAS-PCNA RNAi*.

Larvae were shifted to 29°C 48 hours after egg laying. Brains of third instar larvae were

observed. For other experiments, flies of genotype *ywhsFlp; UAS-PCNA RNAi* were crossed to

flies of genotype *ywhsFlp; ayGal4>UAS GFP; UAS Dcr2/Tm6B*. Larvae with genotype *ywhsFLP;*

ayGal4UASGFP /UAS-PCNARNAi; UASDCR2/+ were heat shocked for 8 minutes at 37°C 50 hours

after egg laying (70 hours before they develop into climbing third instar larvae) and were then

dissected. For rescuing Notch expression in cell cycle arrested neuroblasts flies of genotype

ywhsFlp; ayGal4>UAS GFP; UAS Dcr2/Tm6B were crossed to those with genotype *ywhsFlp; UAS*

PCNA RNAi; dpn>hsNICD. Larvae of genotype *ywhsFLP; ayGal4UASGFP /UAS-PCNARNAi;*

UASDCR2/dpn>hsNICD were then heat shocked for 8 minutes at 37°C 50 hours after egg laying

(70 hours before the third instar stage) as before and then dissected.

Negative labeling of *slp* loss of function clones- *UbiFRT40ARFP/CyO* flies (BDSC 34500) were

crossed with flies of genotype *ywhsFlp;Sp/CyO; u8772 220bp>GFP* (enhancer1) and *ywhsFlp*

;Sp/CyO; d5778 870bp>GFP (enhancer2) to create strains with genotypes *ywhsFlp;*

Ubi>RFPFRT40A; u8772 220bp>GFP and *ywhsFlp; Ubi>RFPFRT40A; d5778 870bp>GFP*

respectively. Flies of genotype *ywhsFlp; SlpS37A/Sm6-Tm6B* flies (a kind gift from Dr. Andrew

Tomlinson) were then crossed to *ywhsFlp; Ubi>RFPFRT40A; u8772 220bp>GFP* and *ywhsFlp;*

Ubi>RFPFRT40A; d5778 870bp>GFP and larvae were heat shocked for 45 minutes 48 hours after

egg laying. Third instar larvae were then dissected. The *ywhsFlp; SlpS37A/Sm6-Tm6B* strain

carries a deletion on chromosome II that spans both Slp1 and Slp2 genes. Clones carrying two

copies of this deficiency are seen as dark regions amidst Ubi>RFP marked wild type neuroblasts.

Bioinformatic identification of TFBS

Initially, to identify a list of possible candidate TFs with binding sites within our enhancers we

analyzed our enhancer sequences using the MEME suite tools[78] and TOMTOM[79] and the also by

an analytic tool developed at EPFL (https://biss.epfl.ch) that uses FIMO[80] to identify motifs on a

sequence (Michael Frochaux, Dr.Bart Deplancke personal communication) to complement our

findings from TOMTOM. However mutating sites identified by this initial round of analysis did

not always result in GFP reporter expression patterns that were consistent with our

observations from the genetic experiments (data not shown). We suspected this could be

because these analyses may have not exhaustively identified all potential binding sites for our

regulators. To this end we employed a slightly different strategy to identify all possible binding

sites of Ey, Su(H), and Scro whose knockdown had affected the expression of GFP reporters in

genetic experiments. We searched for consensus motifs of transcription factor binding sites for

Ey, Su(H), Slp1 in JASPAR[81,82] and Fly Factor Survey[83] and then searched for potential matches to

these consensus sequences in our enhancers using the DNA Pattern Recognition program in

Sequence Manipulation Tool[65]. Since consensus motifs for Scro binding sites were not

annotated in either JASPAR or Fly Factor Survey we instead picked 20 related transcription

factors of the NK-domain TF family whose consensus binding motifs were annotated (listed in

Supplementary Table 2). We looked for potential matches to these motifs within our enhancers

using the Pattern Recognition Tool of the Sequence Manipulation Suite. Sequences that were

most shared between the 20 NK domain containing TFs we examined were scored as the most

likely motifs for Scro binding in the d5778 870bp enhancer. Given the smaller size of the u8772

220bp enhancer, only motifs corresponding to Vnd binding sites were mutated since Scro has

been suggested to share the greatest homology to vnd of all other NK domain containing TFs[55].

Plasmids constructs and making transgenic fly stocks

Primer sequences for all cloning are provided in a supplementary table (Supplementary Table

2).

For making all constructs DNA was amplified from template using Expand High-Fidelity

Polymerase (Roche) unless stated otherwise and all constructs were verified by sequencing. All

fly embryo injections for making transgenic flies were carried out by Bestgene Inc, Chino Hills,

CA.

Generating constructs for reporter assays and enhancer bashing and making transgenic

reporter expressing stocks- Sequences corresponding to the fragments of regulatory DNA

encoded in GMR35H02 and the d5778 REDfly enhancer were cloned from the BAC clone CH321-

94O18[84] (BACPAC resources). Sequences were PCR amplified from this BAC and cloned into

pJR12 vector (a kind gift from Dr. Jens Rister) between *AscI* and *NotI* sites. Transgenes were

inserted at the landing site VK00027 on the third chromosome (BL9744) by φC31 integrase

mediated transgenesis[85] and positive transformants were screened using the w+ marker

originally present in the pJR12 plasmid. Mutated enhancers were custom synthesized as gene

blocks (gBlocks,IDT DNA) and cloned as stated above. Split gBlocks were custom made for

making the d5778 ey site mutant and the d5778 su(h) site mutants. These split gBlocks were

then PCR spliced and cloned between NotI and AscI sites of the pJR12 vector. A custom-made

gBlock was used for making the d5778 scro mutant reporter. All reporters were integrated at

the same genomic site to ensure comparability across constructs and experiments.

Generation of CRISPR enhancer deletion constructs and transgenic stocks- CRISPR gRNAs were

designed by entering sequences of genomic DNA of the target +/- 20 kbp into the CRISPR

Optimal Target Finder web utility [86] (https://www.targtfinder.flycrispr.neuro.brown.edu). Four

gRNAs-two upstream and two downstream of the target region to be deleted were then

selected. All four gRNAs were then cloned into the vector pCFD5[87] (Addgene plasmid #73914 a

kind gift from Dr. Simon Bullock) using NEB-Builder HiFi DNA Assembly master mix. Constructs

were then injected into fly strain containing *M{nos-cas9}ZH-2A* (BL54591) along with a 120 bp

repair oligonucleotide that contained 60bp of wild type genome sequence flanking both ends of

the expected double-stranded break. After injection, the *nos-cas9* source was eliminated in the

subsequent generations by crossing individual G0 progeny flies to a double balancer of

genotype *ywhsFlp; Sp/CyO; Tm2/Tm6B* and selecting male G1 progeny. Individual G1 males

were then crossed to the same double balancer line to create stocks. The G1 males were then

genotyped by PCR to identify whether their genome had been edited, using RedExtract-n-Amp

tissue PCR kit (Sigma-Aldrich). G2 progeny of genome-edited males were then raised until

homozygous stocks were established.

Generation of the heat shock inducible NICD construct: We modified the pJR12 vector used in

enhancer bashing experiments to replace the GFP coding sequence with coding sequences of

our interest. First, we generated a DNA fragment that matched the sequences of the pJR12

vector flanking the eGFP sequence but that did not contain the eGFP sequence itself by PCR

splicing. We then cut-out the eGFP segment from the pJR12 vector and replaced it with our GFP

deleted fragment using *NsiI* and *XhoI*. Next, an *FRT-stop-FRT3-FRT* segment was cloned from

the CoinFlp plasmid[88] (Addgene plasmid # 52889, a kind gift from Dr. Iswar Hariharan) and PCR

spliced with a fragment of Notch Intracellular Domain (NICD). Sequences corresponding to the

Notch Intracellular Domain were PCR amplified from Notch cDNA LD34134 (DGRC). The *FRT-*

stop-FRT3-FRT-NICD fragment was then cloned into the modified pJR12 vector between the

PmeI and *AgeI* restriction sites. The deadpan enhancer sequence amplified from the BAC clone

CH321-86A18 (BACPAC resources) was then cloned into the modified pJR12 vector to drive the

heat shock inducible NICD expressing construct in presence of a heat shock activated Flippase

or *hsFlp* (this construct is abbreviated as *dpn> hsNICD*). Construct was inserted at the VK00027

landing site (BL 9744) by ɸC31 integrase mediated transgenesis. Positive transformants were

identified by the w+ eye color marker expression and stocks were created by crossing to a

double balancer of genotype *ywhsFlp; Sp/CyO; Tm2/Tm6B*.

Generation of DamID-fusion constructs (*UAS Dam-Ey* and *UAS-Dam-Su(H)*) and transgene

expressing stocks- Su(H) coding sequence was amplified from a cDNA clone GH10914 (DGRC) by

PCR. The amplified Su(H) coding sequence was cloned into the pUAST-Dam-attB vector[67] (a kind

gift from Dr. Andrea Brand) between the *NotI* and *XhoI* sites. A gBlock of Ey coding sequence

was ordered from IDT and cloned into the pUAST-Dam-attB vector. Constructs were then

incorporated at the VK00027 landing site (BL 9744) by ɸC31 mediated integration.

Transformants were identified by expression of the w+ marker gene. Final stocks were

established by crossing to a double balancer line of genotype *ywhsFlp; Sp/CyO; Tm2/Tm6B*.

Immunofluorescence staining

Antibody staining was carried out as described in [19] with a few modifications. The protocol is

described briefly as follows: brains from climbing third instar larvae were dissected in 1XPBS

and fixed in 4% Formaldehyde solution in 1X PBS for 30 minutes on ice. Brains were then

incubated in primary antibody solution overnight at 4°C, washed three times for 30 minutes

each at 4°C, then incubated in fluor conjugated- secondary antibody solution overnight at 4°C

and then washed again thrice at room temperature each time for 30 minutes. Samples were

mounted in Slowfade Gold antifade reagent (Invitrogen). Images are acquired using a Zeiss

LSM500 Confocal Microscope.

Antibodies used in the study are as follows: rabbit anti-Slp1, guinea-pig anti-Slp2, rabbit anti-Ey

(all used at 1:500) were kind gifts from Dr. Claude Desplan, guinea-pig anti-Dpn (1:500) (a kind

gift from Dr. Chris Doe). Commercially available antibodies include - sheep anti-GFP (1:500,

AbD Serotec, 4745-1051), Chicken anti-beta-gal (1:500, Abcam ab9361), Rat anti-Deadpan

[11D1BC7] (1:200, Abcam, ab195173) mouse anti-PCNA (1:50, Abcam ab29). These antibodies

are provided by the Developmental Studies Hybridoma Bank (DSHB): mouse anti-eyeless (1:10),

mouse anti-Pros (MR1A 1:20). Secondary antibodies are from Jackson or Invitrogen.

Fluorescence In situ hybridization (FISH)

FISH was carried out using custom made Stellaris probe sets as described in [89] except that

incubation with sodium borohydride was skipped. Probes were generated using the slp1 mRNA

and slp2 mRNA as templates. Concurrent FISH and immunofluorescence staining was carried

out as described in the same publication.

DamID-Seq

Flies of genotype *ywhsFlp; Sp/CyO; UAS-Dam/ Tm6B,   ywhsFlp; Sp/CyO; UAS-Ey-Dam/ Tm6B* or

ywhsFlp; Sp/CyO; UAS-Su(H)-Dam /Tm6B were crossed with *Dcr2; tubG80ts; SoxNGal4*. Mating

crosses were incubated at 25 °C. Eggs laid within an 8-hour window were then shifted to 18°C

for 3 days until they hatched. The expressions of the Dam-fusion proteins were then induced in

larval brains by shifting the larvae to 29°C for 72 hours. Climbing third instar larvae were then

dissected. Only the optic lobes were used for further sample preparation. For each sample

around 100 brains were dissected.

Dam-ID libraries were made as described in [90]. Briefly, fly brains were dissected in 1X PBS and

genomic DNA was isolated using QIAamp DNA Micro kit (Qiagen). Genomic DNA was then

digested with DpnI and purified using spin column purification (Qiagen PCR-purification kit). To

the DpnI digested DNA DamID-PCR adaptors were ligated. Subsequently the adaptor ligated

DNA fragments were digested with DpnII. The DpnII digested genomic DNA fragments were

then amplified by PCR to enrich for bound GATC fragments. To make sequencing libraries the

PCR enriched genomic DNA sample was sonicated using a Bioruptor bath sonicator

(Diagenode), purified using AMPure XP beads, end-repaired and 3'-adenylated. Illumina

sequencing indexes were then ligated to these fragments. Index-labeled DNA fragments were

then further enriched by PCR amplification, checked for quality and fragment size distribution

on an Agilent Bioanalyzer and by qPCR (Quality control of all libraries was carried out at the

Functional Genomics Unit of Roy J. Carver Biotechnology Center, UIUC). Libraries that were

deemed acceptable were then sequenced on a single SP100 lane of an Illumina NovaSeq

sequencer. Read lengths were 100bp. Two Biological replicates each of *Ey-Dam*, *Su(H)-Dam* and

Dam-only samples were sequenced, and each biological replicate is defined as one library

generated from ~100 dissected brains. Number of reads obtained were as follows: Dam

replicate1: 53745480 reads, Dam replicate 2: 85637355 reads, Ey-Dam replicate 1: 81121107

reads, Ey-Dam replicate 2: 82085708 reads, SuH-Dam replicate 1: 77448608 reads, replicate 2:

80015207 reads. All samples exhibited good QC scores.

DamID-Seq data analysis

DamID-seq data was analyzed using the damidseq-pipeline [91]. Duplicate samples of Ey-Dam and

Su(H)-Dam samples and Dam-only controls were aligned to the Drosophila reference genome

UCSC dm6. Alignment rate for individual samples were as follows:(Ey-Dam replicate 1- 97.04%,

Ey-Dam replicate 2 -97.82%, Su(H)-Dam replicate 1- 97.91% and Su(H)-Dam replicate 2 –

97.82%. The main utility- the damid-seqpipeline was used to align reads to the genome using

bowtie2, bin and count reads, normalize counts and generate log-2 ratio bedgraph files for each

DamID-sample and its corresponding Dam-only control. The provided gatc.track file was used

for running the script. Next, the findpeaks utility was used with an F.D.R. <0.01 to identify

peaks. We then used the provided peaks2genes utility to assign peaks to genes. To assess the

reproducibility of our data we also ran the findpeaks script using F.D.R <0.1 to discover peaks

with weaker statistical confidence and used this as input for the I.D.R. Python package

(https://github.com/nboley/idr). 984 of 1810 (54.4.%) Ey-Dam and 972 of 1996 (48.7%) of

Su(H)-Dam peaks passed an I.D.R. threshold of 0.05. Lists of genes bound reproducibly by both

Ey-Dam and by Su(H)-Dam were used in BioVenn[92] to visualize the overlap between these two

lists and estimate percentage of genes regulated by both transcription factors. Enriched gene

ontology terms in this list were identified using DAVID [93],[94]. All replicate tracks for Ey and for

Su(H) as well as reproducible peaks identified using I.D.R. were visualized in IGV [95].

Image quantification and statistical analysis.

No statistical method was used to predetermine sample size. Sample size /replicate numbers

were decided based on routine in the field and previous experience. All data were obtained

from at least two independent experiments. The numbers of animals or clones analyzed can be

found in figure legends or this section (see below). All data are highly reproducible. No outliers

are excluded. For specific quantification method and statistical analysis see below.

<u>Imaging and image analysis for comparison of wild type and mutant GFP reporter intensities</u>- All

images were acquired using a Zeiss LSM 500 confocal microscope. Samples were imaged at sub-

saturating illumination conditions, with stack intervals of 1 micron. Same laser settings and

imaging conditions were used across all variants of the same enhancers. Image analysis was

carried out using Fiji [96]. Signal intensities in the GFP and the Dpn channels were measured over

a small rectangular selection for all variants. For the same enhancer a 'scaling factor' was

calculated for each mutant by dividing the Dpn channel intensity for mutant reporter by the

channel intensity of the corresponding wild type reporter. The GFP channel intensities for each

variant was then multiplied by this scaling factor. Finally a ratio of the scaled GFP channel

intensity to the Dpn channel intensity was calculated for each GFP reporter variant. Ratios of

scaled GFP/Dpn intensities was then plotted using GraphPad Prism and for each enhancer RM

One-way ANOVA with Geisser-Greenhouse correction and Tukey's multiple comparisons were

carried out between reporter variants of the same enhancer. For the d5778 870bp enhancer

five sets of data from twenty different optic lobes were acquired for each enhancer (one set-

wild type and all mutant variations all imaged using the same conditions). For the u8772 220bp

enhancer six sets of data were used for quantification.

<u>Image analysis for CRISPR enhancer deletion experiments-</u> All images were acquired using a

Zeiss LSM 500 confocal microscope under sub-saturating illumination conditions. For each

sample width of Slp1, Slp2 and Dpn expression domains was measured in Fiji at five different

locations and averaged. The brain size of the sample was estimated by measuring the length of

the brain at its widest point perpendicular to the neuroblast division axis. The width of each

protein expression domain was divided by the brain size to normalize expression domain size

estimates to the brain size. For each protein Slp1, Slp2 and Dpn- these ratios were then plotted

in GraphPad Prism and ordinary one way ANOVA and Dunnett's multiple comparisons tests

were carried out between wild type and CRISPR enhancer deleted brains. Data from seven

brains of each genotype was analyzed and quantified.

All images were processed in Adobe Photoshop and assembled using Adobe Illustrator.

Data Availability

Acknowledgments

We thank the Functional Genomics Unit and the DNA-Sequencing Services Unit of the Roy J.

Carver Biotechnology Center at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign for assistance with

quality control and sequencing of Dam-ID sequencing libraries. We thank the fly community,

especially Claude Desplan, Andrea Brand, Chris Doe, Bruce Edgar, Kenneth Irvine, Miki Fujioka

and James B. Jaynes for generous gifts of antibodies and fly stocks. We are grateful to Bart

Deplancke' team for help with the YIH pipeline to predict transcription factor binding sites within

enhancers. We thank the Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center, the Vienna Drosophila RNAi

Center, the Developmental Studies Hybridoma Bank, and TriP at Harvard Medical School

(NIH/NIGMS R01-GM084947) for fly stocks and reagents. We thank members of the Li lab Dr. Yu

Zhang and Hailun Zhu for helpful discussions. This work was supported by the National Eye

Institute (Grant 1 R01 EY026965-01A1) and start-up funds from the University of Illinois at

Urbana-Champaign.

Competing interests.

The authors declare no competing or financial interests.

Materials & Correspondence. Publicly available fly lines (those from BDSC or VDRC) should be

requested directly from the corresponding stock centers: https://bdsc.indiana.edu/ or

https://stockcenter.vdrc.at/control/main. Fly lines generated in this study can be requested

without restriction. Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to Xin Li

(lixin@illinois.edu).

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A

Medulla neuroblasts

Young NBs → Old NBs

| Hth | Ey | Slp1/2 | Tll |

Neuroblast (NBs) → Ganglion Mother Cell (GMC) → Neurons

Terminal Differentiation

D

GMR35H02

u8772

d5778

slp1 slp2

Slp1 **Slp2** **Dpn** **Merge**

B **B'** **B''** **B'''**

slp1 mRNA **slp2 mRNA** **Dpn** **Merge**

C **C'** **C''** **C'''**

u8772 220bp > GFP reporter

Dpn **GFP** **Slp2** **Merge**

E **E'** **E''** **E'''**

d5778 850bp > GFP reporter

Dpn **GFP** **Slp2** **Merge**

F **F'** **F''** **F'''**

Figure 1. Expression of *slp1* and *slp2* genes in medulla neuroblasts is controlled at transcription and achieved by coordinated action of at least two transcriptional enhancers.
(A) Schematic of *Drosophila* brain at the third instar larval stage highlighting the location of the optic lobe medulla. Medulla NBs (shown as circles), located on the surface of the optic lobe, are transformed from neuroepithelial cells (NE) as a neurogenesis wave spreads in a medial to lateral direction. As a result, medulla NBs of different ages are aligned on the lateral (L) to medial (M) spatial axis. Schematic to the right shows part of the temporal patterning program of medulla NBs with a focus on the Ey to Slp1/2 transition. NBs undergo asymmetric divisions to self-renew and to produce intermediate progenitors called Ganglion Mother Cells that each divide once to produce two neurons. In the Ey stage, NBs undergo a few divisions while gradually turning on Slp expression, thus there is a significant overlap between Ey and Slp expression in NBs. After Slp level reaches a certain threshold, the transition occurs. Several such transitions later as indicated by the dashed arrow neuroblasts express TTF Tailless before entering the final stage to undergo terminal differentiation. The larval brain graphic was created using BioRender. (B) Expression patterns of Slp1 and Slp2 proteins in medulla neuroblasts identified by their expression of Deadpan (Dpn, a neuroblast marker). (C) Expression patterns of Slp1 and Slp2 mRNAs in Dpn expressing medulla neuroblast closely parallels the corresponding protein expression patterns. (D) Schematic of the relative locations of *slp1* and *slp2* genes and transcriptional enhancers identified as regulating their expression. Positions of slp1 coding locus (2L:3,825,675..3,827,099 [+]), slp2 coding locus (2L:3,836,840..3,839,185 [+]), GMR35H02 (2L:3,817,265..3,821,014) and the REDfly enhancers u8772 (2L:3,816,967..3,818,532) and d5778 (2L:3,842,530..3,844,660) are shown relative to one another. A 220 bp enhancer located within the genomic segment covered by GMR35H02 and an 850 base pair enhancer element within the REDFly enhancer d5778 were identified as potential cis-regulatory elements of *slp1* and *slp2* genes. The distance between the start of GMR35H02 and the end of d5778 is around 27.394 kbp. (E) Expression patterns of a GFP reporter expressing GFP driven by the 220 bp enhancer closely approximates endogenous expressions of Slp1 and Slp2 in medulla neuroblasts. (F) Expression pattern of GFP reporter driven by the 850 bp enhancer shown alongside endogenous Slp1/2 expressions. This enhancer initiates GFP expression at a slightly later stage compared to the 220 bp enhancer and likely also regulates Slp2 expression in surface glia. Scale bar: 20 microns.

Figure 2. The Notch pathway regulates expression of *slp* genes in medulla neuroblasts. (A) RNAi knockdown of Notch in GFP marked clones leads to a delay in expression of Slp2 compared to contemporaneous wild type neuroblasts outside the GFP marked clones. (B) RNAi knockdown of Su(H) shows a similar delay in Slp2 expression as for Notch-RNAi. (C) Expression of a dominant negative variant of Mastermind, third component of the Notch transcription complex shows a similar phenotype as *N RNAi* and *Su(H) RNAi* and delays Slp2 expression. (D) Knockdown of Dl, a Notch ligand, caused a similar delay in Slp2 expression. All clones are generated with *ayGal4 UAS GFP* and clone boundaries are shown in dotted lines. Arrows indicate that Slp2 expression is delayed in the clones. Scale bar 20 microns.

Figure 3. Eyeless and the Notch pathway act through the 220 bp and 850 bp enhancers to regulate expression of *slp* genes. (A-D') RNAi clones in which Ey or Su(H) is knocked down are marked by *Beta-galactosidase* (*bGal*) in blue, while regions unmarked by *bGal* are populated by wild type neuroblasts. (A,A') Observed expression of a GFP reporter driven by the 220 bp enhancer element in *Ey RNAi* clones and wild type neuroblasts. (B,B') Observed expression of a GFP reporter driven by the 850 bp enhancer element in *Ey RNAi* knockdown clones and in wild type neuroblasts. In case of both enhancers knockdown of Ey leads to a loss of GFP reporter expression. (C,C') The expression of the GFP reporter driven by 220bp enhancer in Su(H) RNAi clones and in wild type neuroblasts. (D,D') The expression of the GFP reporter driven by 850bp enhancer in Su(H) RNAi clones and in wild type neuroblasts. In case of both enhancers expression of the GFP reporter is lost or delayed. (E, E') Expression of the 220 bp GFP reporter in *slp1* and *slp2* loss of function mitotic clones ('dark' regions) and in wild type neuroblasts (marked by RFP). (F,F') Expression of the 850 bp enhancer GFP reporter in *slp* LOF clones and wild type neuroblasts similar to (E,E'). Slp1 binding sites were identified in both enhancer elements which indicate that Slp may auto-regulate their expression. However, GFP reporter expression driven by these two enhancers is not significantly affected within *slp* LOF neuroblasts, suggesting that Slp1/2 are not required to initiate their own expression in neuroblasts. Scale bar 20 microns.

u8772 220 bp enhancer

F   # u8772 220bp GFP reporters

Figure 4. Mutations of putative binding sites for Ey, Su(H) and Scro in u8772 220 bp enhancer confirm their requirement for activating expression of Slp1/2 genes. Expression of GFP reporter driven by the wild-type 220 bp enhancer (A-A''') was compared against GFP reporters driven by mutated versions of the 220 bp enhancer in which predicted binding sites for specific transcription factors had been mutated: (B-B''') with predicted Ey binding sites mutated, (C-C''') with predicted Su(H) binding sites mutated, (D-D'') with predicted Scro binding sites mutated, (E-E''') Slp1 binding sites mutated. Loss of binding sites for Ey, Su(H) and Scro in the 220 bp enhancer led to a loss of GFP reporter expression. Scale bar: 20 microns. F. Intensity comparisons of mutated and wild type GFP reporters of the u8772 220bp enhancer. The decrease in intensity of GFP expression for Ey , Scro, Su(H) and Slp1 binding site mutated reporters relative to wild type are all statistically significant (RM One-way ANOVA was performed with the Geisser-Greenhouse correction, p value 0.0001; this was statistically significant, since p <0.05. Adjusted p values from Tukey's multiple comparison test for mutants versus wild type are as follows: for Ey mutant p= 0.0013, for Su(H) mutant p=0.0032, for Scro site mutant p=0.0007, for Slp1 site mutant p = 0.0225. Six different sets of observations were used for quantification (n=6)). Graphs indicate mean and 95% C.I. and distributions of each data point about the mean.

d5778 850 bp enhancer

F. A comparison of d5778 850bp reporters

	Dpn	GFP	Slp2	Merge
wild type	A	A'	A''	A'''
scro site mutant	B	B'	B''	B'''
ey site mutant	C	C'	C''	C'''
su(H) site mutant	D	D'	D''	D'''
slp site mutant	E	E'	E''	E'''

Figure 5. Mutations of putative binding sites for Ey, Su(H) and Scro in d5778 850 bp enhancer confirm their requirement for activating expressions of Slp1/2 genes. A parallel comparison was made for GFP reporter expression driven by the wild type 850 bp enhancer (A-A''') to the GFP reporter expression driven by versions of the 850 bp enhancer with binding sites for specific transcription factors Scro, Ey, Su(H) and Slp1 mutated (B-B''', C-C''', D-D''', and E-E''' respectively). Loss of binding sites for Ey nearly obliterated GFP reporter expression in neuroblasts as did the loss of Su(H) binding sites. Additionally, in Su(H) site mutant expression of GFP reporter was up-regulated in surface glial cells. Loss of potential Scro binding sites also greatly reduced GFP reporter expression. Loss of Slp1 binding sites did not lead to a significant reduction in intensity (E-E'''). Scale bars: 20 microns. (F) Quantitation of d5778 850bp reporter intensities of the wild type and the factor binding site mutated variants shows that the reduction of GFP intensity compared to wild type for Ey binding site and Scro binding site mutated reporters is statistically significant (RM one-way ANOVA was performed with the Geisser-Greenhouse correction and p value was calculated to be 0.005; this was statistically significant as $p < 0.05$. Adjusted p values from Tukey's multiple comparison test between wild type and mutants are as follows: for Ey site mutant p= 0.0027, for Scro site mutant p= 0.0087, for Su(H) site mutant p= 0.1076. Five different sets of observations were used for quantification (n=5)). For the Su(H) site mutated variant, though GFP expression was visibly reduced in neuroblasts, the unavoidable contributions of GFP signals from surface glial cells has confounded our measurements of GFP reporter intensity, making GFP signals appear stronger and the intensity reduction relative to wild type statistically insignificant.

A.

C.GO Term: Asymmetric Cell Division

CG3779-RB(numb)
G protein alpha i subunit(Galphai)
Notch(N)
brain tumor(brat)
frizzled(fz)
neuralized(neur)
prospero(pros)

D. GO Term: Cell division

Cyclin A(CycA)
Cyclin E(CycE)
Cyclin G(CycG)
diaphanous(dia)
peanut(pnut)
pontin(pont)
string(stg)

E. GO Term:Apical Cell Polarity

Abl tyrosine kinase(Abl)
CG42684 gene product from transcript
CG42684-RB
G protein alpha i subunit(Galphai)
TNF-receptor-associated factor 4
(Traf4)
brain tumor(brat)
miranda(mira)
prospero(pros)

F. GO Term: Nuclear hormone receptor

Ecdysone receptor(EcR)
Ecdysone-induced protein 75B (Eip75B)
knirps-like(knrl)

B. Overlap between Ey-Dam and Su(H)-Dam bound genes

Ey-Dam

Su (H) –Dam

G. GO Term:Notch

Abl tyrosine kinase(Abl)
Beadex(Bx)
Bearded(Brd)
numb
E(spl)m8-HLH
E(spl)mbeta-HLH
E(spl)mdelta-HLH
E(spl)mgamma-HLH
Epidermal growth factor receptor
Neurotactin(Nrt)
Serrate(Ser)
Star(S)
atonal(ato)
big brain(bib)
canoe(cno)
enabled(ena)
extra macrochaetae(emc)
fringe(fng)
frizzled(fz)
longitudinals lacking(lola)
neuralized(neur)
patched(ptc)
plexus(px)
pointed(pnt)
polychaetoid(pyd)
prickle(pk)
string(stg)
tribbles(trbl)

H. GO Term: Axon guidance

Abl tyrosine kinase(Abl)   frizzled 2(fz2)
CG14662   longitudinals lacking(lola)
Sema-1a   misshapen(msn)
Unc-115a   multiple edematous wings(mew)
comm2   nervous fingers 1(nerfin-1)
unc-5   patched(ptc)
jing   pou domain motif 3(pdm3)
Cadherin-N(CadN)   prospero(pros)
Dscam1   roundabout 2(robo2)
GUK-holder(gukh)   scribbler(sbb)
Insulin-like receptor(InR)   single-minded(sim)
Neurotactin(Nrt)   slit(sli)
Notch(N)
Protein tyrosine phosphatase 61F(Ptp61F)
Trim9
apterous(ap)   tailup(tup)
brain tumor(brat)   target of Poxn(tap)
capricious(caps)   unzipped(uzip)
earmuff(erm)
enabled(ena)
eyes absent(eya)
frazzled(fra)

Figure 6. Genome-wide binding of Ey and Su(H) were examined by DamID-seq. (A) Prominent peaks of Ey and Su(H) binding are seen in neighborhood of the *slp1* and *slp2* gene loci including at the genomic locations of identified 220bp and 850 bp enhancers in both replicates of Ey-Dam and Su(H)-Dam experiments. Peaks at the u8772 220bp and the d5778 850bp enhancers have passed IDR< 0.05 cut-off supporting their reproducibility. (B) Output from BioVenn showing overlap between genes bound by EyDam and Su(H)Dam suggesting that Ey may act as a priming factor in recruiting Su(H) to enhancers of Notch-target genes in neuroblasts. (C-H) GO terms associated with genes that are bound by both Ey and Su(H) and thus may be co-regulated by Ey and the Notch pathway. Genes involved in a variety of processes relevant to neuroblasts and neural differentiation are seen.

Figure 7. Cell cycle progression is required for the precise timing of Slp expression and this is mediated in part through Notch signaling.

(A-A''') The expression of Dpn (red) and E(spl)mγGFP (cyan) in vsxGal4 driving UASDCR2 and UAS-PCNARNAi (VDRC51253) optic lobes (n=5). The affected domain is indicated by a bracket. (B-B''') The expression of Dpn (red) and SoxN (blue) in vsxGal4 driving UASDCR2 and UAS-PCNARNAi optic lobes (n=5). (C-C'') The expression of Dpn (red), Ey (blue) and Slp2 (green) in vsxGal4 driving UASDCR2 and UAS-PCNARNAi optic lobes (n=9). The affected domain is indicated by a bracket. Some glia express Slp2 but not Dpn are indicated by white arrows. (D-D'') The expression of Dpn (red), Ey (blue) and Slp2 (green) in vsxGal4; UASDCR2 control optic lobes. (E-E''') Larvae of genotype ywhsFLP; ayGal4UASGFP /UAS-PCNARNAi; UASDCR2/+ were heat shocked at 37C for 8min 70 hours before dissection at 3rd instar larval stage. Ey expression (blue) is minimally affected in clones marked by GFP (green), while Slp2 (red) expression is delayed (17 clones). (F-F''') Larvae of genotype ywhsFLP; ayGal4UASGFP /UAS-PCNARNAi; UASDCR2/dpn>FRT-STOP-FRT-NICD were heat shocked at 37C for 8min 70 hours before dissection at 3rd instar larval stage. Ey expression (blue) is minimally affected in clones marked by GFP (green), while Slp2 (red) expression initiation is rescued (10 clones). Scale bar 20 microns.

GMR35H02 >> UAS nls GFP

Dpn	Slp1	Dpn Slp1 GFP	Slp2	Slp2 GFP
A	A'	A''	B	B'

u8772 enhancer deletion

Dpn	Slp1	Slp2	Merge
C	C'	C''	C'''

d5778 enhancer deletion

D	D'	D''	D'''

E

Expression of Slp1 (normalized to brain size)

Slp1

Width of expression band (A.U.) vs. wild type, u8772 220bp deletion (**), d5778 850bp deletion (*)

F   **Expression of Slp2 (normalized to brain size)**

Slp2

Width of expression band (A.U.) vs. wild type, u8772 220bp deletion (ns), d5778 850bp deletion (ns)

G   **Expression of Dpn (normalized to brain size)**

Dpn

Width of expression band (A.U.) vs. wild type, u8772 220bp deletion (ns), d5778 850bp deletion (ns)

Supplementary Figure S1. Slp1/2 expression is regulated by at least two enhancers. (A-A''')
UAS-GFP driven by GMR35H02-Gal4 is initiated at the same time as endogenous Slp1 in
neuroblasts marked by Dpn. This is showing a cross-section view. (B-B') UAS-GFP driven by
GMR35H02-Gal4 perfectly overlaps with Slp2 expression. (C-D''') CRISPR-Cas9 deletions of the
u8772 enhancer (C-C''') and the d5778 enhancer (D-D''') individually do not abolish Slp1/2
expression suggesting possible redundancy. Scale bars: 20 microns. (E) Comparison of widths of
expression domains normalized to brain size for Slp1 in wild type and enhancer deleted brains.
P value of ordinary one way ANOVA is < 0.0001 and is statistically significant because p <0.05.
Adjusted p values from Dunnett's multiple comparison test between wild type and the u8772
220bp enhancer deletion is 0.0041, between wild type and d5778 850bp enhancer deletion is
0.0187. Both are statistically significant since p<0.05. Data from seven brains of each genotype
is quantified (n=7). (F) Expression domain width normalized to brain size for Slp2 compared
between wild type and enhancer deleted brains shows no statistically significant differences
relative to wild type (p value from ordinary one way ANOVA =0.0019, statistically significant
because p<0.05. Adjusted p values from Dunnett's multiple comparison test relative to wild
type are as follows: for u8772 220bp enhancer deletion p=0.0730, for d5778 850bp enhancer
deletion p= 0.0965. Neither are statistically significant since p>0.05). Data from seven brains of
each genotype is quantified (n=7). (G) Expression domain width normalized to brain size for
Dpn also shows no significant differences between wild type and enhancer deletion mutants (p
value from ordinary one-way ANOVA is 0.5277 and is >0.05, hence not statistically significant.
Adjusted p values from Dunnett's multiple comparisons test between enhancer deletion
mutants and the wild type are as follows: for the u8772 220bp enhancer deletion p=0.6310, for
the d5778 850bp enhancer deletion p=0.9414. Neither are statistically significant being >0.05.)
Data from seven brains of each genotype is quantified (n=7). This shows that deletion of the
enhancers doesn't affect Dpn expression.

Transcription Factor	Number of peaks	Number of peaks passing IDR <0.05	% of peaks passing IDR <0.05
Ey-Dam	1810	984	54.4%
Su(H)-Dam	1996	972	48.7 %

Supplementary Figure S2. DamID-sequencing reveals Ey and Su(H) binding to other TTF genes. (A,B) DamID-seq also confirms EyDam and Su(H)Dam binding to *scro* (A) and *hbn* (B) loci that have been suggested by other studies to function as TTFs in optic lobe medulla neuroblasts. (C,D) Scatter plots from I.D.R. analysis of Ey-Dam (C) and Su(H)-Dam peaks (D) show reproducible peaks. Peaks represented by black dots are better reproducible and pass the I.D.R <0.05 threshold. (E) Summarized table of results from IDR analysis of Ey-Dam and Su(H)-Dam.

Supplementary Figure S3. Cell cycle progression is required for the temporal cascade progression. (A-A''') Larvae of genotype ywhsFLP; ayGal4UASGFP /+; UASDCR2/UASstgRNAi (VDRC 17760) were heat shocked at 37C for 8min 70 hours before dissection at 3rd instar larval stage. Dpn expression (blue) is normal in clones marked by GFP (green), while Slp2 (red) expression is delayed (11 clones). (B-B''') Larvae of genotype ywhsFLP; ayGal4UASGFP /+; UASDCR2/UAS-Dap (BDSC 83338) were heat shocked at 37C for 8min 70 hours before dissection at 3rd instar larval stage. Dpn expression (blue) is normal in clones marked by GFP (green), while Slp2 (red) expression is delayed (8 clones).