Single cell transcriptomics of ferrets reveal a common temporal pattern of progenitors in brain development of gyrencephalic mammals

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SUMMARY

The diversity of neural stem cells is a hallmark of gyrencephalic brains, including that in
humans. Ferrets are an excellent model to study the complex brain development in
gyrencephalic mammals, but information on their neural progenitor subtypes is fragmentary.
Here, we investigated the temporal series of single-cell transcriptomes of progenitors in
developing cortices in ferrets for comparison with human datasets. We found that the diversity
and temporal trajectory of neural progenitors, termed radial glia (RG), are well conserved
between ferrets and humans. Truncated RG (tRG), a progenitor subtype previously described
in humans, and outer RG-like cells were assigned to ferret transcriptomes. *In vivo* and
transcriptome analyses indicated that ferret tRG are generated via asymmetric RG divisions
during late neurogenesis, and suggested that tRG is eventually fated to ependymal and glial
populations. Therefore, the combined analyses of human and ferret transcriptomes enable the
determination of progenitor fate sequences *in vivo*.

Keywords:

Single-cell transcriptome, neural stem cell, brain development, ferret, human,
neurogenesis, truncated radial glia

INTRODUCTION

A vast diversity of neurons and glia form functional neural circuits during the development of
the cerebral cortex to dictate its elaborated tasks in mammals. These cells are progressively
derived from multipotent neural stem cells, called radial glia (RG), which generate neurons of
the deep layers (DL) and upper layers (UL), and subsequently undergo gliogenesis to generate
astrocytes and/or oligodendrocytes (Figure 1A, Rowitch and Kriegstein, 2010). During this
process, RG division at the ventricular zone (VZ) generates terminally differentiated cells or
intermediate progenitor cells (IPC) that are mitotically active to generate differentiated cells in
the VZ or sub-VZ (SVZ). Therefore, the spatiotemporal patterns of neural progenitor cells
(NPC), including RG and IPC, are crucial for constructing the functional architecture of six
neuronal layers in the cerebral cortex (Rossi et al., 2017).

The cerebral cortex has undergone great expansion during mammalian evolution, often leading
to surface folding. One of the crucial factors is the SVZ expansion, specifically the emergence
of a new germinal layer, the outer SVZ (OSVZ), during cortical development (Smart et al.,
2002). The OSVZ contains outer RG (oRG) cells (Hansen et al., 2010; Fietz et al., 2010) which

contribute to the amplification of neuronal and glial outputs in the cortex (Figure 1A; Rash et

al., 2019). Unlike lissencephalic species, the OSVZ grows significantly in gyrencephalic

species, including primates and carnivores such as ferrets (Shitamukai et al., 2011; Wang et al.,

2011; Hansen et al., 2010; Fietz et al., 2010; Reillo et al., 2011). In contrast to bipolar RG cells

in the VZ (vRG), oRG cells are unipolar and have a basal fiber connected to the pial surface

without an apical endfoot (Figure 1A; Fietz et al., 2010; Hansen et al., 2010). A new subtype

of NPC in the VZ has been reported in humans and rhesus macaques (Figure 1A; Nowakowski

et al., 2016, deAzevedo et al., 2003; Sidman and Rakic, 1973), lacking the basal attachment

and is therefore termed truncated RG (tRG). However, whether tRG is formed in a wide range

of gyrencephalic mammals, mechanisms underlying their formation, and their descendants

remain unknown. As distinct subtypes of NPC possess different capacities to generate neuronal

and glial progenies (Rash et al., 2019; Huang and Bhaduri et al., 2020), characterizing their

molecular and cellular properties, mutual relationships during development, and terminal types

of cells they produce are crucial factors.

Genetic manipulation of individual cell types *in vivo* and single-cell transcriptome analysis are

two major and successful approaches in revealing the properties of cells, such as their

proliferation and differentiation. Single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq) of the human brain

during development has been extensively performed (Pollen and Nowakowski et al., 2015;

Johnson, Wang and Atabay et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2017; Nowakowski et al., 2017; Zhong and

Zhang et al., 2018; Polioudakis et al., 2019; Bhaduri et al., 2020; Huang et al., 2020; Bhaduri

and Sandoval-Espinosa et al., 2021). However, *in vivo* behavior of human NPC and the

underlying mechanisms remain less explored owing to limited experimental access of the

developing human cortex. Particularly, resources available for the late human embryonic brain

are extremely rare. Studies using brain organoids face issues in recapitulating the specification

and maturation of cell types during human brain development (Bhaduri et al., 2020). In this

context, the ferret (*Mustela putorius furo*) is highlighted as a suitable animal model to

compensate for the difficulties in studying human cortical development. The ferret is a

carnivore that develops common gyrencephalic features, such as the OSVZ and a folded brain,

and is experimentally available for *in vivo* gene manipulation and editing using *in utero*

electroporation (IUE; Kawasaki et al., 2012, Matsui et al., 2013, Tsunekawa et al., 2016).

Severe microcephalic phenotypes in *Aspm* (*Abnormal Spindle-like Microcephaly-associated*)

knockout ferrets with a similar degree to human cases have suggested the use of ferrets for

studying neurodevelopment and disorders of gyrencephalic species (Johnson et al., 2018; Kou

and Wu et al., 2015), in contrast to a minor phenotype in mouse *Aspm* mutants (Pulvers et al.,

2010; Fujimori et al., 2014; Capecchi et al., 2015; Jayaraman et al., 2016). Transcriptome

profiling of ferret cortical cells has been performed to reveal regional distinctions in germinal

layers and cell-type composition (de Juan Romera et al., 2015; Johnson et al. 2018). However,

the temporal pattern of molecular signatures of ferret NPC remains largely unexplored at

single-cell resolution. Comparison of progenitor subtypes and sequential events at single-cell

transcriptome levels along the developmental course in ferrets and between the ferrets and

humans will greatly help to recognize common and species-specific mechanisms underlying

the construction of the complex brain.

In this study, we aimed to comprehensively analyze the developmental dynamics of ferret

progenitor populations both *in vivo* and *in silico* to compare the cortical development between

ferrets and humans at molecular and cellular levels. Transcriptome profiles of ferret cortical

cells were analyzed from different developmental stages that cover the early to-late neurogenic

and gliogenic phases and diverse cell types were identified. The resultant ferret dataset and

published human datasets were integrated for a cross-species comparison that led us to assign

tRG- and oRG-like cells as transcriptionally distinct subpopulations in ferrets. Furthermore,

the combination of *in silico* comparison between ferrets and humans and *in vivo* analysis in

ferrets aided in determining the mode of tRG generation from RG and the fate of their

descendants. The results will promote our understanding of the roles of diverse NPCs in

gyrencephalic animals, emphasizing the values of the current single-cell ferret transcriptomes.

RESULTS

Temporal patterns of neurogenesis and gliogenesis in ferret cerebral cortex

To visualize the course of neurogenesis and gliogenesis in the developing ferret brain, we

performed immunohistochemistry of the somatosensory cortex at embryonic days E25, E32,

E36, and E40, and postnatal days P5 and P10, covering the developmental events (Figure 1B).

We explored the distribution of RG, IPC, and oligodendrocyte precursors (OPC) by co-staining

for their markers (PAX6, TBR2, and OLIG2, respectively, Figure 1B-G), and the distribution

of astrocytes and their progenitor cells by staining for glial fibrillary acidic protein (GFAP;

Figure S1B). The PAX6$^+$ RG and TBR2$^+$ IPC were virtually confined to the VZ and SVZ,

respectively, until E32 (Figure 1B, C). Neurogenesis already commenced at E25 (Figure S1A;

Poluch et al., 2015) and resulted in an enlargement of the TBR2$^+$ IPC-containing SVZ and

expansion of the cortical plate (CP) by E32 (Figure 1C). We confirmed the temporal pattern of

neuronal layer formation in the somatosensory cortex using two markers, CTIP2 (layer V;

Arlotta et al., 2005) and SATB2 (an upper-layer marker; Szemes M *et al*, 2006; Britanova and

Akopov *et al*., 2005; Figure S1A). During E32, a layer V/VI (CTIP2$^+$) was generated

(McConnell, 1988; Noctor et al., 1997). At E36, SATB2$^+$ neurons were detectable on both the

deeper and upper sides of the CTIP2$^+$ layer, suggesting the generation and migration of

SATB2$^+$ upper-layer neurons by E36. Subsequently, GFAP$^+$ RG with gliogenic potential

emerged by E40, whereas GFAP$^+$ maturating astrocytes with a typical astrocytic morphology

appeared outside the germinal layers at a much later stage around P5 onward (Figure S1B;

Reillo et al., 2012). The PAX6$^+$ progenitors started dispersing outside the VZ along the entire

cortex around E32 (Figure 1C), and then formed an OSVZ harboring oRG multipotent

progenitors by E36 (Figure 1D; Fietz et al., 2010; Reillo et al., 2011; Poluch et al., 2015). The

parietal OSVZ expanded the most around birth (Figure 1E) and gradually diminished by P10

(Figure 1F, G). OPCs are derived from RG on the ventral side and the dorsal RG in both mice

(Zheng et al., 2018) and humans (Rash et al., 2019; Huang et al., 2020; Kessaris and Fogarty

et al., 2006). We confirmed a similar phenomenon in ferrets (Figure S1C, see also STAR

Methods).

Single-cell RNA-seq reveals signatures of gene expression and subtypes of ferret cortical

cells

Despite several transcriptome studies on the ferret cortex (de Juan Romera et al., 2015; Johnson

et al., 2018), incomplete information on the ferret genome (specifically, poor information of

the 3'-untranslated region (UTR) of genes) has interfered with single-cell transcriptome

analysis at a high resolution. We improved the quality of ferret genomic annotation and

constructed new gene models using Chromium by tagging all fragments from a long genomic

DNA in a droplet (Table S1; STAR Methods). We then applied 10X Genomics scRNA-seq

technology to analyze the molecular signatures of neural progenitor subtypes covering early-

to-late neurogenesis and gliogenesis (E25, E34, E40, P1, P5, P10). Cell populations were

isolated by two ways to enrich the progenitor subtypes (Figure 2A): (1) FACS-based sorting

of fluorescent cells from tissues that had been electroporated at E30 or E34 with AzamiGreen

(AG) expression vector (Karasawa et. al. 2003) under the control of *Hes5* promoter with a d2

degradation signal (STAR Methods; Ohtsuka et al. 2006) and (2) collecting cells from the VZ,

SVZ, and intermediate zones (IZ, Figure 2A) of the cerebral cortex after discarding the CP to

decrease the abundance of mature neurons. These two cell populations were combined for

downstream analyses (STAR Methods). Unbiased clustering was employed based on the

shared nearest neighbors and projected cells in the Uniform Manifold Approximation and

Projection (UMAP) space using Seurat package (Figure 2B, C, Stuart and Butler et al., 2019).

After removing low-quality cells, we characterized 26 transcriptionally distinct clusters from

30,234 ferret cortical cells at different stages and detected up to 2600 median genes per cell

(Figure S2A, B; Table S1). Cell clusters were annotated according to their specific gene

expression patterns (Figure 2D, E, S2D, Table S1) and assigned 10 cell types: RG (early, mid,

and late), IPC, OPC, ependymal cells, excitatory cortical neurons (DL and UL), inhibitory

neurons (ITN), microglia, endothelial cells, mural cells, and a population of unknown cells

(Figure 2D, E). Early and late RG, and IPC were subdivided into three subclusters that

expressed different cell cycle markers (Figure S2C).

We assigned the early and late RG clusters by their collection stages and the expression of

temporally altered RG markers (hereafter temporal markers) previously reported (*Hmga2,*

Ldha, and *Lix1* for early RG, and *Ptn, Aldoc,* and *Fabp7* for late RG; Okamoto et al., 2016) as

shown in Figure 2D (see Figure S2D and Table S2). The "early RG" clusters comprised E25

cells; "mid RG" clusters, mostly of E34 cells, and "late RG" groups, with cells from E34 and

later stages (Figure S2E). Therefore, RG clusters were distinguished according to their

sequential transcriptional profiles rather than a sample batch. RG clusters (expressing *Vim*,

Pax6, and *Hes5*), IPC (expressing *Eomes*, *Neurod4*, and *Hes6*), and neuronal clusters

(expressing *Stmn2* and *Neurod6*) were aligned according to the neuronal differentiation process

in the UMAP plot (Figure 2C). These changes in the transcriptional profiles of RG along the

temporal and differentiation axes were consistent with the *in vivo* development.

Interestingly, we identified a small cluster (409 cells) of *Pax6*-expressing RG subtype, 69% of

which expressed *Cryab* (Figure 2F). *Cryab*, encoding a molecular chaperone (Yamamoto et al.,

2014), is a unique marker for human tRG (Figure 2F; Nowakowski et al., 2016); therefore, we

designated them as tRG-like cells in ferrets. In contrast, oRG cells were not identified as

distinct clusters from vRG cells in ferrets by unbiased clustering (Figure 2B, G). A typical *in*

vivo example is that HOPX, a good marker for oRG in human tissues (Pollen et al., 2015). is

expressed in both oRG and vRG (Figure 2H; Kawaue et al., 2019; Johnson et al., 2018).

The radial-glia subtypes in ferrets correlate with their human counterparts

Both ferrets and humans represent complex brain features of gyrencephalic mammals and are

located in distinct phylogenic branches. Therefore, comparing RG subtypes and their temporal

patterns of birth, transitions, and differentiation is beneficial to distinguish the developmental

processes specific to a particular species or common for complex brain formation. We

successfully compared them at the single-cell transcriptome level using our ferret dataset and

a previously published human dataset (Nowakowski *et al*., 2017).

We used a published package (Seurat) to integrate the ferret dataset with human dataset,

including all types of cells obtained from the somatosensory cortex. The two datasets were

merged using pairs of cells with the most similar biological states. Each pair containing one

human and one ferret cell, was identified by the mutual nearest neighbors (MNNs) after

Canonical Correlation Analysis (CCA) of two datasets (Stuart and Butler et al., 2019; See

STAR Methods).

This computation revealed that various cell types, including RG, IPC, OPC, neurons, mural

cells, endothelial cells, and microglial cells, were clustered together across datasets (Figure 3A,

S3A). The cell-type composition from both species was similar across ages; on the UMAP plot,

ferret E25 cells were closely distributed with their counterparts human GW8; ferret E34 with

human GW11-14; ferret E40-P1 with human GW15-16, and ferret P5-P10 with human GW17-

22 (Figure 3B), suggesting that these pairs corresponded to each other. Consistently with our

in vivo observations in ferrets (Figure 1, S1), gliogenic RG cells (a subtype of "late_RG" group

and OPC in Figure 2B) were first distinguished transcriptionally at E40 in the ferret and at

GW14 in human datasets (arrowheads in Figure 3B).

Next, we compared the similarities among RG subtypes in humans and ferrets. To quantify the

features of an RG subtype, we introduced a parameter, marker-gene score (Bhaduri et al., 2020),

which is used to describe the expression pattern (degree of abundance and specificity) of a

marker gene in a given cluster; the score for a marker gene is defined by multiplying the

average enrichment of expression level in the cluster (fold change) and the ratio of the number

of cells expressing the marker in the cluster to that in all other clusters (see STAR Methods).

We hypothesized that if two cell clusters from two different species belong to the same cell

type, they should share similar marker genes and each marker gene should have a similar score.

We evaluated the correlation between two arbitrary RG subtypes from humans and ferrets by

calculating the marker-gene scores for a set of cluster marker genes, the expression of which

was shared by the pair of RG subtypes of interest (Table S2).The early and late RG clusters

were found to be related across species with a significantly high similarity (Figure 3C, D); the

early RG clusters in ferrets were highly correlated with those of humans, and the late RG

clusters in ferrets were similar to human vRG, oRG, and tRG. The correlation of the

transcriptome profile between ferret tRG-like cells and human tRG was significantly high.

Ferret tRG-like clusters and human tRG clusters expressed *Cryab*, *Egr1*, *Cyr61,* and *Sparc* at

higher levels than did the other RG clusters (Figure 3E), confirming that these genes are the

global tRG markers shared by ferrets and humans.

Marker gene scores can also be used to determine the correlation between cell clusters of two

species (e.g., ferrets and humans) based on the assumption that cells belonging to a specific

subtype should highly and specifically express the marker genes. Therefore, we defined the

cluster score for a cell as a linear combination of the expression level of each marker gene in

the cell weighted by its marker-gene score in the human cluster of interest. We separately

calculated the tRG score for all RG cells in the ferret and human datasets. Expectedly, tRG-

like cells had a significantly higher tRG cluster score than any other cluster in the ferret and

human datasets (Figure 3F). Considering that the tRG score for ferret cells was calculated using

marker-gene scores of the human tRG cluster, we concluded that tRG-like cells in ferrets share

transcriptomic profiles similar with human tRG cells.

tRG emerge around birth during the development of somatosensory cortex in ferrets

Finding tRG-like clusters in ferret transcriptome suggests the presence of RG-like cells with

short fibers in the ferret cortex at late neurogenic stages, which is similar to the human brain.

We then investigated how and when such RG cells emerged in developing cortical tissues of

ferrets. To visualize tRG-like cell morphology, we sparsely electroporated late-embryonic and

newborn ferrets with an expression vector for enhanced green fluorescent protein (EGFP, see

STAR Methods). EGFP labeling at P0 revealed RG cells with a truncated basal fiber and apical

endfoot (Figure 4A), as previously reported in human tissues (Nowakowski et al., 2016).

tRG cells emerge and express CRYAB during late neurogenic and early gliogenic stages

(Nowakowski et al., 2016). Similarly, in ferret tRG-like cells *in vivo,* CRYAB expression

emerged shortly prior to birth, at the late neurogenic and early gliogenic stages (Figure S4F)

and became mostly restricted to tRG-shaped cells in the VZ and SVZ (Figure 4B, S4B-D).

These cells increased in number by P10 (Figure 4C). These histochemical observations were

in accordance with our transcriptome data; the population of ferret tRG-like cells increased

during late development (Figure 4D) with the majority becoming *Cryab*$^+$ (Figure S4E).

Meanwhile, only 5% of RG at the late stage expressed *Cryab* (Figure S4C). We further

analyzed the *in vivo* cellular properties of tRG by staining with cell fate markers from the late

neurogenic stage onward. The majority of CRYAB$^+$ cells in the VZ and SVZ expressed low

levels of TBR2, OLIG2, and KI67 at P5 and P10 (Figure 4E-G and 4E'–G'), suggesting that

these cells were mostly post-mitotic (KI67$^-$) and neither IPC (TBR2$^+$) nor OPC (OLIG2$^+$) at

P10. These histochemical data were again consistent with our single-cell transcriptome data

(Figure S4G). Concomitantly, the Gene Ontology (GO) term analysis of the ferret tRG cluster

showed gene expression related to negative regulation of neurogenesis, neuron differentiation,

and extracellular matrix organization (Figure S4H). Therefore, tRG-like cells in ferrets are

equivalent to human tRG cells, and are further defined as tRG cells in ferrets. We noted a

difference between humans and ferrets; conventional RG cells extending a radial fiber to the

laminar surface also coexisted with these tRG cells in the VZ during postnatal development

(Figure S4A), whereas the VZ became completely separated from the OSVZ in the

corresponding stages of the human cortex as conventional RG cells were absent in the VZ

(Nowakowski et al., 2016).

tRG are formed from the apical division of RG sibling cells with a short basal fiber

As predicted by pseudo-time trajectory analysis (Figure 5), tRG cells most likely originate from

the late RG population. However, single-cell transcriptome analysis does not tell us how tRG

are formed from the late RG, directly from RG by shortening their basal fiber, as a sibling from

asymmetric divisions of RG cells, or more indirectly as progeny cells through further divisions

of RG sibling cells. We addressed this question using time-lapse imaging of cortical slices of

ferrets. To follow the sequential pattern of cell divisions and the shape of progeny cells in RG

lineages, we introduced an EGFP-expressing vector using IUE at E35. 5-Ethynyl-2'-

deoxyuridine (EdU) labeling as early as E38 detected cells in the ependymal layer, the final

destination of majority of tRG cells (Figure S4I, and see the next section). Based on this

observation, we started time-lapse imaging of slices in culture at E38 or P0, and continued

imaging for three days, then fixed and stained slices for CRYAB and EGFP (STAR Methods).

Using this procedure, we reconstructed the process of tRG formation from mitotic progenitor

cells (four examples); in all these cases, vRG cells were not directly differentiated into tRG.

Instead, CRYAB$^+$ cells were produced as daughter cells of an apical division of mitotic

progenitor cells that bore both an apical endfoot and a short basal fiber (the deep blue cell in

Figure 4H). These non-vRG progenitor cells (the deep blue cell in Figure 4I) underwent

interkinetic nuclear migration within the VZ and asymmetrically divided (13:20 in Figure 4H)

into a CRYAB[+] daughter without the short fiber (the deep blue cell 13:20 onward in Figure

4H) and a non-CRYAB-expressing daughter that inherited the short basal fiber (the light blue

cell), as schematically drawn in Figure 4I. This CRYAB[+] cell extended a short basal process

to acquire the tRG form (14:00–60:00 in Figure 4H, J). In two of these four examples, the

mitotic mother cells of tRG (the deep blue cell in Figure 4K, L, see Supplementary movie 1)

were generated as the sibling cells of a dividing vRG with a full-length radial fiber (the pink

cell during 0:00–40:00 in Figure 4K, M). In the other two cases, we could not follow the birth

of the tRG mother cell because of technical issues. Altogether, our data suggest that tRG cells

are formed by apical asymmetric division(s) of unique apical IPCs with a short basal fiber

(Tsunekawa et al. in preparation). We note the possibility that these IPC, which asymmetrically

generated tRG, already expressed CRYAB. Indeed, a certain portion of CRYAB-expressing

tRG (approximately 20%) was mitotically active, whereas it was post-mitotically declined

(Figure 4E).

Temporal fates of RG cells are predicted by pseudo-time trajectory analysis

To understand the relationship between various cortical progenitors in the developing ferret

brain, particularly the origin and fate of ferret tRG, pseudo-time trajectory analysis was

performed using Monocle 2 (Trapnell and Cacchiarelli et al., 2014; Qiu and Mao et al., 2017).

All single cells that had been subjected to single-cell transcriptome analyses (from E25 to P10)

were unbiasedly ordered along a trajectory (Figure S5A, B) based on their transcriptome

profiles. To simplify our analysis, we first excluded interneurons, microglia, endothelial cells,

and excitatory neuronal clusters. Subsequently, 6,000 single cells were randomly selected from

the remaining cell population for further analysis (see STAR Methods). We confirmed that this

procedure successfully predicted the developmental trajectory of the somatosensory area, along

which the selected cells were arranged in order from the earlier to later stages (Figure 5B). The

pseudo-time analysis predicted a reasonable trajectory consisting of three branching points that

generated seven branches (Figure 5A, S5B). We assigned major cell types for each branch on

the basis of cell clusters defined by UMAP analysis (Figure 2, 5C, S5D; Table S3), naming

each branch after its dominant cell type (Figure 5A); the first branching point generated the

neuronally differentiated lineage (branch 2) and NPC 2 (branch 3); the second branching

produced the OPC lineage (branch 4) and NPC 3 (branch 5); and the final branching point

generated the ependymal (branch 6) and astroglial lineages (branch 7). This trajectory began

with progenitor cells from early embryonic stages (E25; Figure 5B), and RG cells between E34

and P1 gave rise to both neurogenic and gliogenic trajectories (Figure 5B, S5C, D). After birth,

neurogenesis gradually declined, whereas gliogenic processes progressed (Figure 5B). The

distribution of marker gene expression, and clusters along the pseudo-time trajectories

suggested that the final branching segregated the NPC type3 cells (*Ptn*) into ependymal (*Foxj1*)

and astroglial (*Aqp4*) fates (Figure 5C, S5C-D).

tRG cells possess ependymal and gliogenic potential during cortical development of

ferrets

Interestingly, tRG cell population was distributed into three branches along the trajectory in

the pseudo-time trajectory analysis (Figure 5D); NPC type3 (mainly during E40-P1),

astroglial (from P1-P10), and ependymal (from P5-P10; Figure 5E) branches. Therefore,

tRG prenatally arose as precursors of ependyma and astroglia in the ferret cortex. To test

this hypothesis, we first examined cells differentiating into ependymal cells by

immunostaining for a typical ependymal marker, FOXJ1, a master regulator of ciliogenesis,

along with staining for CRYAB. We observed that CRYAB$^+$ tRG cells gradually co-

expressed FOXJ1, reaching up to 90% of CRYAB$^+$ cells to be FOXJ1$^+$ by P10 (Figure 6A,

B). Similarly, our transcriptome data showed that the fraction of *Cryab-Foxj1* double-

positive cells increased in the tRG cluster from P1 to P10, whereas other RG clusters

maintained low *Cryab* expression (Figure 6C, D). We further confirmed that differentiating

ependymal cells resided within the VZ from P5 onwards (Figure 6A). These cells possessed

short basal fibers with a cell body that finally settled on the apical surface by P14 (Figure

6E). These data suggest that some tRG cells progressively upregulate *Foxj1* expression to

adopt an ependymal cell fate during post-natal development. Concomitantly, detectable

ADENINE CYCLASE III expression in both primary and multi-cilia cells indicated that

ciliogenesis progressed postnatally, forming multi-ciliated ependymal cells on the

ventricular surface of the ferret cortex by P35 (Figure 6F).

Transcriptional analysis of human tRG subtypes by integration with ferret tRG subtypes

We then performed transcriptome analysis to assess whether human tRG cells possess

ependymal and gliogenic potential, as observed in ferrets. We tried to upgrade the resolution

of our analysis considering two points: (1) choosing a recently published human dataset, which

include cells at GW25 and more tRG cells than do the previous datasets (Bhaduri et al., 2021),

and (2) focusing our comparison on NPC populations, excluding neurons and other cell types

from analysis. This approach identified respective clusters for tRG and oRG cells based on

shared nearest neighbor clustering using their marker gene expression (Figure 7A and Table

S4). We then merged human and ferret NPCs based on CCA-MNN (Figure 7B, C), a strategy

described before (Figure 3A). The correlation between two arbitrary RG subtypes from humans

and ferrets, which was calculated from marker-gene scores for the set of cluster marker genes,

indicated that tRG and oRG in humans shared similar transcriptomes with tRG and later RG in

ferrets, respectively (Figure S6A, B). We note that early RG in ferrets showed the highest

similarity with "OLIG1" in human data, and no cell type in human data corresponded to ferret

"midRG", likely because only GW25 cells were chosen for comparison (see Figure S6B

legend).

The integration of ferret and human datasets, as described above, showed that human and ferret

tRG were mainly distributed into three different clusters: 7, 21, and 28 (Figure S6C, 7D, F).

Cells in cluster 7 shared a transcriptomic expression pattern similar to that of the late RG cells,

which was characterized by high expression of RG marker genes (such as *APOE*, *FABP7*,

NOTCH2, and *DBI*; Figure S6D). Therefore, tRG cells in cluster 7 were in a late RG-like state

that was presumably uncommitted to astroglial or ependymal fates (corresponding to cells in

the NPC 3 branch in the pseudo-time trajectory; Figure 5A). In contrast, cells in clusters 21

and 28 highly expressed marker genes as observed in the astrocyte (GFAP and AQP4) and the

ependymal (FOXJ1 and CRYAB) clusters, respectively (Figure S6D and Table S4). To validate

this classification of tRG cells into three main clusters after integration, we compared the

clustering of ferret tRG cells in the merged dataset with the classification of ferret tRG cells in

the pseudo-time trajectory analysis (Figure 7G). Indeed, these two independent approaches

largely produced consistent results for classifying ferret tRG cells, suggesting that the

bifurcation of tRG fates was reliable; for example, most tRG cells in the astroglia branch were

assigned to cluster 21 (characterized by a strong expression of astrocyte markers) in the

integrated dataset (Figure 7G). As human and ferret tRG cells shared a similar clustering result

in the merged dataset, our results suggested that tRG cells in both humans and ferrets possessed

the potential to generate astrocytes and ependymal cells. The proportion of the three types of

tRG was different between human and ferret datasets, in which increased ependymal and

gliogenic tRG cells were observed in ferrets and elevated late RG-like tRG cells were observed

in the human GW25 dataset (Figure 7D-F). This difference may be ascribed to the difference

in developmental stages between the two datasets (see Discussion).

Prediction of oRG-like cells using human anchors

oRG could not be identified as a separate cluster in the ferret dataset. Attempts were made to

assign oRG-like cells in the ferret dataset using human oRG cells as anchors, as was done for

the tRG subtypes. During the integration of two datasets using Seurat, we already identified

the MNN after CCA of both datasets, which made a nearest neighbor-pair between a ferret and

a human cell, as described before (Figure 7B). These two cells had the most similar

transcriptome profiles compared with other cells in each dataset, suggesting that the ferret cell

which paired with a human oRG can be assigned as a ferret oRG-like cell. The assigned oRG-

like ferret cells were located near the human oRG cluster (Figure 7H). To assess the degree of

similarity to human oRG, we calculated the oRG score for each ferret oRG-like cell (Figure

3E). The oRG-like cells assigned by MNN had significantly higher oRG cluster score than that

of all other NPCs (Figure 7I). Because the cluster score successfully distinguished tRG cells

from other cell types (Figure 3), we hypothesized that these oRG-like cells would show a

transcriptome profile similar to that of authentic oRG in ferrets. A comparison between oRG-

like cells and other NPCs in the ferret dataset identified genes that were highly expressed in

oRG-like cells (Table S4). Consistent with the human dataset (Bhaduri et al., 2021), the

expression of HOPX, CLU, and CRYM was higher in oRG-like cells than in other NPCs

(Figure 7J, S6E). However, investigation in ferrets using *in situ* hybridization showed that

typical human oRG markers, such as HOPX and CLU, were expressed in vRG and tRG as well

as oRG (Figure S6F). Therefore, in ferrets, oRG can only be distinguished by a combination

of several markers or the whole transcriptome, instead of a few marker genes.

DISCUSSION

In this study, a dataset of single-cell transcriptomes was generated using an improved gene

model, which showed the developmental sequences and diversity of neural progenitor

populations during ferret cortical development. This dataset allowed us to compare the

progenitor subtypes and temporal patterns of their appearance between humans and ferrets at

a high resolution, using the accumulated information of human embryonic cortical single-cell

transcriptomes (Nowakowski et al., 2016, Bhaduri et al. 2020, Bhaduri et al., 2021). We found

that ferrets (carnivora) and humans (primates), representing two different orders of

gyrencephalic animals, shared a large proportion of progenitor variations and their temporal

sequences despite their extremely different temporal scales of neural development. This work

emphasizes the importance of ferrets as a model animal to study the neural development of

gyrencephalic animals. Information regarding the revised gene model is publicly available to

help in accelerating comparative studies and gene modification approaches using ferrets.

Temporal pattern of ferret progenitors

The temporal pattern and variation in ferret NPC were typically represented by a pseudo-time

lineage trajectory and confirmed by immunohistochemical analysis of the developing brains

(Figure 1). In the pseudo-time trajectory, Hes1$^+$ NPC passes through three consecutive

branching points, each of which produces a side branch fated into terminal differentiation (first

neurons, second oligodendrocytes, and third ependymal cells). This result is consistent with a

consensus for the temporal transitions of embryonic neural stem cells from neurogenic to

gliogenic, and with a recent finding of oligodendrocyte formation in the human dorsal cortical

primordium (Huang et al. 2020). These self-renewing Hes1$^+$ and side branches gradually

changed transcription profiles as the pseudo-time increased, and multiple progenitor types

coexisted in parallel. The latest differentiating branching in the trajectory during the analyzed

period generated tRG (Nowakowski et al. 2016) that was committed to ependymal fates.

However, the tRG are not the last progeny of Hes1$^+$ NPC in ferrets. Instead, the tRG branch is

parallel to another Hes1$^+$ NPC, which are mostly astrocyte progenitors that include a tRG

subtype fated into astrocytes.

The origin and fates of tRG revealed by live imaging and single cell transcriptomes

Live imaging of ferret brains indicated tRG generation via asymmetric divisions of RG-like

progenitors with a short radial fiber. In ferrets, the production of this neurogenic type of

progenitor from vRG was observed during earlier neurogenic stages (Tsunekawa et al. in

preparation). These progenitors might change their fate to produce tRG during the late

neurogenic and early gliogenic stages, contributing to gliogenesis and ependymal formation.

As the sample size was small, further studies on this type of progenitor are needed.

While tRG were first identified in human brain development (Nowakowski et al. 2016),

their detailed characteristics, such as the fate of their descendants, remain unclear. In ferrets,

cells belonging to the tRG cluster are distributed into three interconnected branches: NPC3,

ependymal (CRYAB$^+$, FOXJ1$^+$), and astrogenic (CRYAB$^+$, GFAP$^+$) branches in the pseudo-

time trajectory. The tRG in the NPC3 branch were not committed to ependymal or astrogenic

fates, suggesting that this tRG population was uncommitted. Histochemically, we confirmed

that a large part of the tRG became ependymal and astrogenic cells. This mode of ependymal

cell formation is parallel to the bifurcation of ependymal cells and adult neural stem cells from

the same progenitor population in the striatum on the ventral side (Ortiz-A'lvarez et al. 2019).

Our cross-species analysis using CCA-MNN combined with cluster score analysis

predicted that human tRG were also classified into three classes with differential

transcriptomes (Figure 7E), which corresponded to the three subtypes of ferret tRG. In GW25

human brains, the uncommitted tRG fraction appeared to be major unlike in ferrets, raising the

possibility that human tRG at GW25 progresses less along the differentiation axis compared to

ferret tRG at P5-P10, most of which are already committed to either ependymal or astroglial

states. Human GW25 is almost the latest stages available, and samples at the later stages might

be very difficult to obtain. However, the result from ferrets predicts that tRG adopt the fate of

ependymal cells and astroglial cells at later stages. Thus, the cross-species analysis with ferrets

and humans provides a prediction as an advantage in this case, although checking whether the

prediction is correct in humans is preferable.

A remarkable difference in the spatio-temporal pattern of NPC between ferrets and humans is

the coexistence of vRG and tRG in the VZ at ferret late neurogenic and gliogenic stages

whereas tRG is almost major NPC in the VZ in humans, thereby resulting in the spatial

separation of the VZ from the OSVZ where oRG reside at late neurogenic stages. Therefore,

genes that are preferentially expressed in late RG (compared with other RG) such as HOPX

and CLU show nearly exclusive expression in the OSVZ in human. In contrast, the

expression of those genes are observed less differentially between the VZ and OSVZ because

of their expression in vRG as well as tRG.

In summary, we performed a comprehensive single-cell analysis of ferret cortical progenitors

over the entire neurogenic and early gliogenic periods, and demonstrated that cross-species

comparisons greatly contribute to define NPC states transcriptionally. In addition, we

highlighted similarities and differences in NPC variations and temporal patterns between two

gyrencephalic mammals, ferrets and humans. We created a useful dataset of ferret

transcriptomes and provided comparison protocols for single-cell transcriptome analysis with

high resolution for two different stages, tissues, or species.

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Author contributions

F.M. and Q.W. supervised the project. M.B., Q.W., and F.M. designed experiments and wrote
the manuscript. M.K., O.N., Q.W., Y.K., and S.K. constructed new ferret gene models. M.B.
and Q.W. carried out scRNA-seq experiments and performed bioinformatics analysis. M.B.,
Y.T., A.S. and Q.W. performed molecular biological analysis. M.B. and T.S. performed
histological analysis. T.S. carried out the time-lapse imaging. T.S. and Y.T. bred the ferrets.

Conflict of interest statement

The authors declare no competing interests.

Data and code availability statement

Genome assembly and Chromium linked-read sequences were deposited in the DDBJ under
the accession number BLXN01000001-BLXN01022349 and DRA010274, and the gene
models is available from Figshare under the DOI: 10.6084/m9.figshare.12807032. Single-cell
RNA-seq data have been deposited in the DDBJ (PSUB013536).

Any information required to obtain and reanalyze the data reported in this paper is available
from the lead contact upon request.

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FIGURE TITLES AND LEGENDS

Figure 1. Temporal patterns of neurogenesis and gliogenesis in the cerebral cortex of

ferrets

(A) Schematic of cortical development and emergence of neural progenitor diversity in humans

and ferrets. Progenitors sequentially undergo DL-neurogenesis, UL-neurogenesis, and

gliogenesis and form ependymal cells. In both humans and ferrets, RG and oRG have been

morphologically and positionally identified while tRG have been reported in humans only. VZ,

ventricular zone; ISVZ, inner subventricular zone; OSVZ, outer subventricular zone; IZ,

intermediate zone; DL, deep layer; UL, upper layer; CP, cortical plate; Mn, migrating neuron;

IP, intermediate progenitor; and EPC, ependymal cell. (B-G) Coronal sections of the

somatosensory cortices immunostained for PAX6 (red), TBR2 (green), and OLIG2 (cyan) from

early to late neurogenesis at E25, E32, E36, E40, P5, and P10. Scale bars: 100 μm. The position

of image strips at each stage is shown in the dorsal hemisphere images presented below

Figure 2. Single-cell RNA-seq reveals ferret transcriptome signatures and the cell types

(A) Schematic illustration of the experimental design and time points to build the transcriptome

atlas of developing somatosensory cortex of ferrets. Single cells were isolated using 10X

Chromium (see STAR Methods). (B) UMAP visualization of cells colored by Seurat clusters

and annotated by cell types (as shown in D, E). (C) UMAP plot of cells colored by samples.

Labels were named by cell isolation stages with suffixes "AG" or "T" to indicate IUE samples

with azamigreen or those with no IUE, respectively (See STAR Methods). RG, IP, OPC, and

excitatory neuron populations are highlighted on the plot. (D) Heatmap showing expression

profiles of cluster marker genes based on log fold-change values. Cells were grouped by Seurat

clustering (transverse). Cell types were assigned according to the expression of marker and

differentially expressed genes in each cluster; RG, radial glia; tRG, truncated RG; IPC,

intermediate progenitor cell; DL, deep layer neurons; UL, upper layer neurons; OPC,

oligodendrocyte precursor cell; ITN, interneuron; and EN, endothelial cells. Color bar matches

Seurat clusters in (B). The representative genes among 10 topmost enriched genes are shown

per cluster, with typical marker gene note on the right side. (E) Normalized expression levels

of representative marker genes of different cell types projected onto the UMAP plot in (B). EP,

ependymal and MG, microglia. (F) The expression pattern of *CRYAB*, a marker for tRG, which

had been described only in humans and primates. (G) The expression pattern of *HOPX*, a

marker for oRG in humans and primates in the UMAP plot. (H)Immunostaining for CRYAB[+]

671 tRG (green) and HOPX$^+$ RG (red) together with DAPI on P1 and P10 germinal layers. HOPX$^+$

672 cells are observed in all germinal layers during late neurogenic stages

674 **Figure 3. Comparison of molecular identity of RG subtypes between ferret and human**

675 (A) UMAP visualization of integrated human (n=2672; left) and ferret (n=30, 234; right)

676 single-cell dataset colored by different clusters. The names of clusters from human and ferret

677 cells begin with "H" and "F" capitalization, respectively. (B) Proportional representation of

678 cells from different stages and species. Schematics of the corresponding stages between ferrets

679 and human are shown. (C, D) Correlation coefficient (C) and significance (D) between

680 indicated clusters of ferrets and humans, calculated by marker gene scores. (E) Normalized

681 expression levels of the indicated genes in humans and ferrets from each progenitor cluster. (F)

682 tRG scores of the indicated cell in each cell cluster, presented as box-whiskers for humans and

683 ferrets. The lines in the box-whiskers from top to bottom indicate maximum (except outliers),

684 third to first quartile, median, and minimum (except outliers). The points outside the box

685 indicate outliers. Outliers are 1.5-fold larger or smaller than interquartile range from the third

686 or first quartile, respectively

687 **Figure 4. Truncated tRG is emerged during postnatal cortical development in ferrets**

688 (A) Representative image showing the cellular features of tRG in ferret P0 apical germinal

689 zones stained for GFP and CRYAB. (B) Ferret embryonic RG was sparsely labelled with a

690 GFP-expressing plasmid at E30 via IUE. MAX projection was performed on a 30 μm

691 vibratome section with 5 μm interval for each z-image. Scale bar, 50 μm. (B) The expression

692 patterns of CRYAB (green) and PAX6 (red) in ferret germinal zones during postnatal

693 development (P1, P5, and P10). Cryosection thickness: 12 μm. (C) Quantification of CRYAB$^+$

694 cells among all nuclei (DAPI) in the VZ by immunohistochemistry (width, 150 μm; n=3 for

695 P5; n=2 for P10; Wilcoxon rank-sum test p-value 6.574e-08). (D) Histogram showing the

696 number of cells by age in the tRG cluster annotated in the ferret transcriptome dataset (Figure

697 2B). (E-G) Quantification of KI67-, TBR2-, or OLIG2-expressing cells among the CRYAB$^+$

698 cell population in the VZ (n=2 for P5; n=2 for P10 for each staining except n=3 for TBR2

699 staining), as displayed in the box and whisker plots. Box-whiskers indicate lines of the

700 maximum and minimum, with a box of upper and lower quartiles with the median. (E'-G')

701 Representative images with MAX projection used for quantification. Images were taken using

702 a 100× objective lens with immersion oil on cortical slices of 12 μm (z-step, 1.5 μm). (H-M)

703 Time-lapse imaging of EGFP-labeled progenitor cells forming tRG. Please refer to the text for

further details. EGFP fluorescence was visualized. The time below each snapshot strip

indicates the time passed after the slice culture was started. (H-J) An apically attached IPC with

a short basal fiber produced a tRG cell. (H) Sequential snapshots showing that an IPC formed

tRG through apical division (both cells are marked in deep blue and by white arrows). The

sibling cells of tRG are marked by bright blue color and open arrows. (I) Schematic

representation of tRG formation recorded in (H). IPC and tRG are marked in deep blue; the

sibling of tRG is indicated by light blue. (J) Immunostaining of a cryostat section from a fixed

slice stained for Cryab (red) and EGFP (green). (K-L) A vRG cell is divided to produce an

apical IPC that produces tRG. Please see the time-lapse movie 1 and main text for further

details. (K) Sequential snapshots. The white arrowheads indicate ancestral vRG (pinked-

colored); the white arrows (deep blue-colored cell body) indicate IPC generated from the vRG

and then the CRYAB$^+$ daughter of the IPC; open arrows indicate the other daughter of the

divided IPC (light blue). (L) Schematic of time-lapse imaging, as shown in (K). (M) The

cultured slice was fixed and stained for EGFP (green), CRYAB (red), and FOXJ1 (light blue).

Scale bar, 50 μm

Figure 5. Temporal fates of RG cells predicted by pseudo-time trajectory analysis

(A) The pseudo-time trajectory branching tree of the developing cortex in ferrets (Monocle v2).

Cellular distribution at each branch on UMAP plot shown in Figure 2B. Cell types representing

each branch and their gene markers are shown next to the branches (see below). (B) Branching

trees split by collection stages (AG samples are shown). (C) Distribution of cells expressing

marker genes for major cell states or fates along trajectories. Color densities indicate the log-

normalized unique molecular identifier (UMI) count for each gene. Branches strongly

expressing Hes1 were named NPC 1, 2, and 3 branches. (D) The distribution of tRG cells along

branching trees and tRG-focused UMAP visualization. The tRG cells (162) were found on

three branches, NPC3 (9.3%; 15 cells), ependymal-tRG (61.1%; 99 cells), and astroglial-tRG

(29.6%; 48 cells). (E) The composition of three types of tRG in (D) by the collection stage (AG

and T samples are combined). No tRG cells were collected from E25 and E34

Figure 6. Ferret tRG undergo postnatal ependymal differentiation

(A) Immunostaining of 12-μm cortical cryosections for CRYAB (green) and FOXJ1 (red),

focusing on the VZ at E40, P3, P5, P10, P14, and P35. Scale bar, 50 μm. (B) Numbers of

FOXJ1-expressing cells in CRYAB-expressing cells in the VZ (n=3 for P5; n=2 for P10;

Wilcoxon rank sum test *p*-value 1.749e-05). (C) Number of cells having UMI counts higher

than 0.25 for both *Cryab* and *Foxj1* in the mid and late RG, or tRG clusters is shown in Figure

2B. Color bars indicate the stages of sample collection. *Cryab*- and *Foxj1*-expressing cells

increased over time in the tRG cluster only. (D) Normalized expression of *Foxj1* in the

indicated ferret clusters. (E) Cortical origin and shape of FOXJ1-expressing ependymal cells.

Staining for FOXJ1 at P14 after labeling cortical progenitors by an mCherry-expressing vector

via IUE at E30. The maximum projection images with 1 μm z-step size are shown; cryosection

thickness, 12 μm; scale bar, 20 μm. (F) The onset of ciliogenesis in the developing cortex of

ferrets, as shown by staining for adenine cyclase III (cyan) along the VZ surface at E40, P5,

P10, and P35. Scale bars, 10 μm

Figure 7. Comparison of tRG and oRG subtypes between ferrets and humans

(A) UMAP visualization of human brain cells colored by cell type and identified by marker

genes (data from Bhaduri et al., 2021). (B) Schematic of the integration strategy of human and

ferret subtypes. (C) UMAP visualization of integrated ferret and human datasets colored by

different clusters. (D, E) Identification of three tRG subtypes in ferrets (D) and humans (E).

The red dots highlight the indicated tRG subtypes. (F) Distribution of humans (left) and ferrets

(right) tRGs in the integrated dataset. Human and ferret tRG were identified from the separated

dataset. (G) Distribution of ferret tRG subtypes (identified by the pseudo-time analysis) in the

integrated dataset. (H) Identification of oRG-like cells in ferret (left) and oRG in human (right).

The red dots highlight the indicated oRG-like cells or oRGs. (I) oRG scores for oRG-like cells

and other NPCs in ferrets. (J) The expression pattern of *CRYM*, CLU, and HOPX in oRG-like

cells and other NPCs in ferrets. (F) *in situ* hybridization for *Clu* indicates that this gene is

expressed in all of the VZ, ISVZ, and OSVZ.

Supplementary Figure Legends

Figure S1. Development of the cerebral cortex in ferrets

(A) Immunostaining for CTIP2 (green) and SATB2 (red) at the same developmental stages as in Figure 1B, showing the onset of DL- (E25 or earlier) and UL-neurogenesis (E32-E34). VZ, ventricular zone; ISVZ, inner subventricular zone; OSVZ: outer subventricular zone; IZ, intermediate zone; DL, deep layer; UL, upper layer; and CP, cortical plate. Scale bars: 100 μm

(B) Gliogenic progenitors as revealed by immunostaining for GFAP in cortical germinal layers at E32, E36, E40, P5, and P10. Scale bars: 100 μm

(C) Validation of cortically generated OLIG2$^+$ oligodendrocyte precursors at P10 cerebral cortex after mCherry labeling at E30. Arrowheads in the cropped images of the upper panels (Figures S1C-i and S1C-ii) indicate cells that co-express mCherry, PAX6, and OLIG2 in the OSVZ and VZ. Scale bars: 20 μm

Figure S2. Cell types in the developing cerebral cortex of ferrets

(A) Violin plots showing the number of genes (nFeature) and mRNAs (nCount) per cell in each sample and time point. Progenitor clusters (mid RG, late RG, tRG, and IPC) contained more cells from "AG" samples than from unsorted "T" samples, indicating a successful enrichment of progenitor cell types in "AG" samples (Figure S2C). (B) Table comparing quality-control metrics of an alignment with either MusPutFur 1.0 (UCSC gene models) or MusPutFur 2.60 (this study) using E34 samples. The total number of genes detected and median genes per cell were higher with MusPutFur 2.60 (C) Heatmap of expression level of cell cycle marker genes based on log fold-change values. *PCNA*, *DUT*, *SIVA1,* and *TYMS* are shown as markers of the S-phase; *UBE2C*, *CDCA4*, *CENPF,* and *CCNB1* are shown as markers of the G2M-phase. Three subclusters among early RG, late RG, and IPC clusters expressed different markers for cell-cycle states. Color bar at top indicates seurat clusters matching those in Figure 2B. (D) Dotplot showing average expression and percentage of expression of representative marker genes for individual cell types in the merged dataset. The largest cluster was composed of upper-layer neurons, and their four clusters were combined as a single "UL" group. P.E., percentage of expression and A.E., average expression. (E) Percentage of each cell type in the merged dataset (left) and each sample (right). The color bar at the right matches samples of cell collection in (A).

Figure S3 Comparison of molecular identity of RG subtypes between ferret and human

(A) UMAP visualization of integrated ferret (n=30, 234) and human (n=2672) single-cell

datasets colored by different clusters. The names of clusters from human and ferret cells begin

with "H" and "F", respectively. (B) Expression patterns of the indicated genes in each cluster.

The color of the cycle indicates the expression level of each gene. The size of cycles indicates

the percentage of cells expressing the gene in the indicated cluster

Figure S4. Emergence of ferret tRG during postnatal cortical development

(A) Cellular features of a tRG cell in cortex labelled with GFP at embryonic stages by IUE.

Vibratome sections at P0 and P4 (thickness=200 μm) were immunostained for CRYAB (green)

and GFP (red). CRYAB$^+$ truncated basal fibers spanned up to the SVZ. (B) CRYAB expression

among RG subtypes with different morphology in P10 cortex. Percentage of CRYAB$^+$ cells in

oRG (12 cells), vRG (15 cells), and tRG (12 cells), (n=3), distinguished by sparse labeling with

GFP by electroporation at P1. Representative images below show that oRG cells do not express

CRYAB. (C) Pies showing the percentage of *Cryab* expression in the ferret clusters of the

transcriptome dataset (Figure 2). Cells were counted positive if log-normalized UMI counts for

Cryab were higher than 0.25 using Seurat "WhichCells" function (slot="data"). (D) Violin plot

indicating the normalized expression of *Cryab* in ferret clusters shown in Figure 2. (E)

Numbers of *Cryab*-expressing cells in the transcriptome dataset (Figure 2). *Cryab* expression

was undetectable at E25. *Cryab*-expressing cells in the midRG and lateRG subtypes did not

change in all stages (cell numbers; 58, 46, 68, 55, and 61 at E34, E40, P1, P5, and P10,

respectively), while the number of *Cryab*$^+$ tRG cells increased after birth (cell numbers; 0, 21,

50, 91, and 118 at E34, E40, P1, P5, and P10, respectively). (F) The onset of CRYAB

expression on the germinal layers of developing cortex in ferrets. Immunostaining for CRYAB

(left) and DAPI (right) on cryosections at E32, E40, P3, P5, and P10 (thickness=12 μm). (G)

Violin plots indicating the normalized expression levels of *Tbr2* (or *Eomes*) and *Olig2* in ferret

clusters shown in Figure 2. (H) Gene enrichment analysis using tRG markers on EnrichR (572

genes found by FindMarkers Seurat function; X-axis, -log10 (adjusted *p-value*). Biological

processes are shown (-LOG10 (adjusted *p-value*)>2.25) (I) To determine the appropriate

timing of time-lapse observation (Figure 4H, I), a late timing of divisions of progenitors

producing tRG was examined by labelling cells with EdU at E30 (producing deep layer

neurons), E34 (Layer IV), E38 (upper layer neurons), and P6 (late neurogenic stages), and

chasing labelled cells at P35.

Figure S5. Temporal fates of RG cells identified by pseudo-time trajectory analysis

(A) Ferret cells used for pseudo-time trajectory analysis were lined up along the stretched pseudo-time axis. These cells were color-coded according to collection (orig.ident) and UMAP clusters (Subtype.combined), separately. Along the pseudo-time axis, expression levels of marker-genes are also shown for typical cell types; LIX1 and HMGA2 for early RG, EOMES and NEUROG2 for IP, RGS20, and PTN for late RG, PDGFR and OLIG2 for glial cells, and FOXJ1 and FAM216B for ependymal cells. (B) Branching trees labelled by pseudo-time score. Color scale indicates log10 (pseudo-time +0.1) values. Each branch is named after the major cell type or state. (C) The composition of each branch by clusters is shown in the UMAP plot (Figure 2). Percentage was calculated for a cluster among all cells from a branch. (D) Branching trees split by UMAP clusters (Figure 2).

Figure S6. Comparison of the tRG and oRG subtypes between ferrets and humans

(A, B)   A matrix of correlations between two arbitrary RG subtypes from humans and ferrets by calculating marker gene scores as described for Figure 3. (A) Correlations and (B) *p*-values between pairs in human and ferret clusters are shown (see STAR Methods). The early RG in ferrets showed the highest similarity with "OLIG1" in human data (see Figure S7B and its legend). This might be because of two reasons; (1) we included human cells from GW25 only and no human early RG in this dataset, and (2) cells in "OLIG1" highly expressed genes related with cell proliferation, which was observed in the early RG also (added to the supplementary table S4). We did not observe any cell types in human data corresponding to the ferret "midRG" with the same reason described above. (C) Distribution of human and ferret tRGs in the integrated dataset. The number in the X-axis indicates the cluster number identified by the UMAP in Figure 7C. (D) Expression pattern of the subtype maker genes in the three tRG-enriched clusters (7, 21, and 28). (E) The expression patterns of *CRYM*, CLU, and HOPX in oRG-like cells and other NPCs in humans. (F) *in situ* hybridization of *Clu* at the ferret cortex showed its expression in all of the VZ, ISVZ, and OSVZ at P5.

Figure.1. Development of the ferret cerebral cortex.

A

gliogenesis

UL
CP
DL
IZ
oSVZ
iSVZ
VZ

neurogenesis

proliferation

Mature neuron

Immature neuron

Intermediate Progenitor Cell (IPC)

Ependymal Cell (EPC)

Radial Glia (RG)

outer RG (oRG)

truncated RG (tRG)

B PAX6 TBR2 OLIG2

SVZ

VZ

E25

C PAX6 TBR2 OLIG2

CP

IZ

SVZ

VZ

E32

D PAX6 TBR2 OLIG2

CP

IZ

oSVZ

iSVZ

VZ

E36

E PAX6 TBR2 OLIG2

CP

IZ

oSVZ

iSVZ

VZ

E40

F PAX6 TBR2 OLIG2

CP

IZ

oSVZ

iSVZ

VZ

P5

G PAX6 TBR2 OLIG2

IZ

oSVZ

iSVZ

VZ

P10

Figure S1. Development of the ferret cerebral cortex.

Figure.2. Cell types in developing ferret cerebral cortex.

Figure S2. Cell types in developing ferret cerebral cortex.

Figure 3. Comparison of molecular identity of RG subtypes between ferret and human.

Figure S3. Comparison of molecular identity of RG subtypes between ferret and human.

Ferret integrated with human Nowakowski dataset

Figure 4. Emergence of ferret tRG during post-natal cortical development.

Figure S4. Emergence of ferret tRG during post-natal cortical development.

Figure 5. tRG contribute to ependymal and glial production.

A

Hmga2, Lix1
NPC1

neurogenic

Ascl1, Hes6
NPC2

Olig2, Pdgfra
OPC

NPC3

Slc1a3, Ptn

Eomes, Neurog2

Foxj1, Fam216b

ependymal

Aqp4, Sparcl1
astroglial

B

E25 E34AG E40AG

P1AG P5AG P10AG

C

HES1 *HMGA2* *EOMES (Tbr2)*

FOXJ1 *PTN* *AQP4*

D

• tRG

NPC3 branch
9.3% (15/162)

Ependymal branch
61.1% (99/162)

Astroglial branch
29.6% (48/162)

E

Percentage of tRG cells by Age

astroglial
ependymal
NPC 3

0% 20% 40% 60% 80% 100% P10
E25 E34 E40 P1 P5

Figure S5. tRG contribute to ependymal and glial production.

Figure.6. Ferret tRG undergo ependymal differentiation postnately in ferrets.

Figure 7 . Comparison of diffrential tRG states between ferret and human.

Figure S6 . Comparison of differential tRG states between ferret and human.