TEAD promotes lineage progression of subpallial neural progenitor

cells independent of YAP/TAZ

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Abstract

The embryonic ventral telencephalon (subpallium) gives rise to extremely diverse types of cells.

Although it is known that subpallial neural progenitors possess characteristics distinct from their

cortical counterparts, the mechanisms governing their lineage progression are poorly

understood. Here we show that TEAD, the key DNA-binding factor of the Hippo pathway,

promotes lineage progression of subpallial neural progenitors; the loss of TEAD1 and TEAD2

(TEAD1/2) during mammalian brain development expands early progenitors and reduces late

progenitors uniquely in the subpallium, but not in the cortex. Importantly, this function of

TEAD1/2 is independent of their canonical partners in the Hippo pathway, transcriptional

coactivators YAP and TAZ (YAP/TAZ), as YAP/TAZ loss leads to the opposite phenotype—a

depletion of early progenitors and increase in late progenitors. We further show that TEAD1/2

act by, at least in part, inhibiting Notch signaling and by cooperating with INSM1. It has been

shown that orthologs of TEAD and INSM1 cooperate to regulate neuronal cell fate decisions in

worms and flies. Our study reveals a remarkable evolutionary conservation of the function of

this transcription factor complex during metazoan neural development.

Keywords: radial glia, intermediate progenitor, apical progenitor, basal progenitor, subapical

progenitor, neurogenesis, interneuron, basal ganglia, medial ganglionic eminence (MGE),

VGLL4

Introduction

The telencephalon in all vertebrates consists of two main territories: the pallium (dorsal telencephalon, cortex) and the subpallium (ventral telencephalon)[1]. The embryonic subpallium is subdivided into four major anatomical regions: the lateral, medial, and caudal ganglionic eminences (LGE, MGE, and CGE, respectively) and the anterior entopeduncular area (AEP)[2].The cell types produced by the subpallium during development are extremely diverse, which include not only neurons and glia that form the basal ganglia, parts of the septum and the amygdala, the preoptic area, but also all cortical interneurons and a subset of cortical oligodendrocyte lineage cells (OLCs)[1-4].

In the developing central nervous system (CNS), the primary stem/progenitor cells, neuroepithelial cells (NECs) and the cells they transform into upon the onset of neurogenesis—radial glia (RG), form the ventricular zone (VZ) lining the central lumen of the neural tube[5,6]. These cells divide—depending on their division mode—to expand or replenish themselves, produce neurons directly (direct neurogenesis), or give rise to another type of progenitor cells known as intermediate progenitors (IPs). IPs, residing in the subventricular zone (SVZ) adjacent to the VZ, divide to expand themselves and produce neurons (indirect neurogenesis), increasing the cell output of primary stem/progenitor cells. NECs/RG and IPs exhibit key cell biological differences. NECs/RG undergo mitosis at or near the ventricular surface (VS); they are also called apical progenitors (APs). IPs undergo mitosis in the SVZ; they are also called basal progenitors (BPs). Moreover, it is generally thought that RG are multipotent (being able to produce different types of neurons or both neurons and glia), whereas IPs are unipotent (being able to produce only one type of neurons), and that RGs divide more rounds than IPs.

Our knowledge about RG and IPs is mostly obtained by studying progenitor cells in the developing mouse cortex. Subpallial neural progenitors, however, are likely to possess unique features that underlie their distinct cellular output in terms of cell number and cell type diversity. For example, whereas the vast majority of progenitor cells reside in the VZ in most regions of the developing mouse CNS, in the ganglionic eminences (GEs) the SVZ largely surpasses the VZ in size and is the main site of cell proliferation throughout most of the neurogenic period[7-9]. Furthermore, studies have found novel subtypes of progenitor cells (e.g., subapical progenitors (SAPs), which are common in the mouse GEs and in the developing gyrated cerebral cortices of ferrets and sheep but rare in the developing mouse cortex) and distinct progenitor behaviors (e.g., more proliferative divisions by several subtypes of progenitor cells and a progressively faster cell cycle) in the subpallium[9]. It remains largely unknown what mechanisms uniquely govern the characteristics and lineage progression of subpallial neural progenitor cells.

The Hippo pathway plays important roles in the development, tumorigenesis, and

regeneration of many tissues across species[10]. It controls the activity of a transcription factor

complex composed of the transcriptional coactivator YAP (Yorki in flies, YAP and TAZ

(YAP/TAZ) in mammals) and the DNA-binding factor TEAD (Scalloped in flies, TEAD1–4 in

mammals). In many tissues, YAP is expressed in the stem/progenitor cells and promotes their

proliferation and self-renewal[11,12]. We have shown that, during mammalian cortical

development, YAP/TAZ maintain the proliferative potential of RG[13]. In contrast to the extensive

studies on the functions of YAP/TAZ, studies on the in vivo function of TEAD in mammals are

scarce[14,15], probably because it is assumed that TEAD simply acts as the DNA-binding partner

of YAP/TAZ. Some observations, however, suggest that TEAD acts with other cofactors in some

contexts. TEAD is evolutionarily much more ancient than YAP; TEAD is present in

amoebozoans whereas YAP appears to be restricted to holozoans[16,17]. In *Drosophila*,

Scalloped, identified in 1929 as a result of a wing phenotype[18], regulates wing identity

independent of Yorki/YAP[19,20]. In *C. elegans*, the TEAD ortholog EGL-44 regulates neuron cell

fate and neuroblast lineage progression in an apparently YAP-independent manner[21-23]. We

have reported that, in the developing chick spinal cord, YAP is only expressed in the VZ but

TEAD is expressed not only in the VZ but also in nearby cells expressing the proneural

transcription factor Neurogenin 2 (Ngn2)[24], suggesting that TEAD may have YAP-independent

function in these Ngn2-expressing cells.

In this study, we show that TEAD promotes lineage progression of subpallial neural

progenitor cells. Notably, TEAD acts via a YAP/TAZ-independent mechanism. We further show

that TEAD acts at least in part by inhibiting Notch signaling and suggest that TEAD cooperates

with INSM1 (Insulinoma-associated 1), a zinc-finger transcription factor, in this developmental

context.

Results

TEAD1 is expressed in broader regions than YAP/TAZ are in the developing

telencephalon

Our earlier observation in the chick neural tube prompted us to examine YAP/TAZ and TEAD

expression patterns in the developing mammalian telencephalon. We compared YAP/TAZ and

TEAD1 immunostaining patterns to those of SOX2, which marks RG and some IPs throughout

the developing CNS; TBR2, which marks cortical IPs[25]; and ASCL1, which marks subsets of

subpallial neural progenitors[26-28] (Fig. 1a). In the cortex, as we have reported previously[13],

YAP/TAZ were specifically expressed in SOX2$^+$TBR2$^-$ RG. TEAD1 immunosignals, however,

were detected in the VZ, the TBR2-dense SVZ, and weakly above the SVZ, suggesting that

TEAD1 is expressed in both RG and IPs, and probably also in new-born neurons. In the MGE,

YAP/TAZ were expressed in the cells near the VS, presumably RG, whereas TEAD1 was

detected in both the VZ and the adjacent SVZ. YAP/TAZ and TEAD1 showed similar expression

patterns in the LGE and CGE (data not shown).

To further determine whether YAP/TAZ and TEAD1 are expressed in APs or BPs, we

co-immunostained YAP/TAZ or TEAD1 with the mitosis marker phospho-Histone H3 (pH3) (Fig.

1b), because mitosis position is a defining feature of APs and BPs. In the cortex, >90% of

YAP/TAZ$^+$pH3$^+$ cells were found along the VS (apical) and a small fraction within the VZ away

from the VS (subapical) (Fig. 1c); the latter type of progenitors has been defined as SAPs—they

are derived from APs and give rise to BPs[9]. Among TEAD1$^+$pH3$^+$ cells, only ~60% were found

along the VS, with the rest either within the VZ or in the SVZ (basal) (Fig. 1c). Similar patterns

were observed in the MGE, except that the fraction of those dividing apically was reduced by

~10% for both YAP/TAZ$^+$ cells and TEAD1$^+$ cells (Fig. 1c). These results demonstrate that, in

the developing telencephalon, YAP/TAZ are predominantly expressed in RG/APs, whereas

TEAD1 is expressed in both RG and IPs (including SAPs and BPs).

YAP/TAZ loss and TEAD1/2 loss result in different defects in the subpallium

The above finding led us to hypothesize that TEAD may act independent of YAP/TAZ in IPs

during telencephalon development. To test this, we decided to compare the phenotypes of

genetic mutants lacking *Yap* and *Taz* (*Yap;Taz*) to those lacking *Tead*. Besides *Tead1*, *Tead2*

mRNA is also detected in the VZ/SVZ throughout the developing CNS[29] (Supplementary Fig.

1a). *Tead3* transcript levels in the telencephalon are very low (Supplementary Fig. 1a). Our

RNA-sequencing (RNA-seq) data suggest that *Tead4* is not expressed in the developing CNS

(data not shown). Therefore, we generated *Yap;Taz* double conditional knockout (dKO),

Tead1;2 dKO, and *Tead1* and *Tead2* single conditional KO (cKO) mice using a *Nestin-Cre* line,

which is expressed in the developing CNS starting from around embryonic day (E) 10.5. The

depletion of corresponding proteins was validated by Western blot (Supplementary Fig. 1b).

Both *Yap;Taz* dKO and *Tead1;2* dKO mice died soon after birth. Therefore, we collected

E17.5 brains for histological analysis. Obvious defects were observed in both mutants. In the

subpallium, both mutants showed structural disruption of the VS and disorganization of the VZ-

SVZ (Fig. 1d, arrows); similar defects were also present in the cortex of *Yap;Taz* dKO mice

when *Yap;Taz* were deleted with *Emx1-Cre*[13]. Interestingly, *Tead1;2* dKO, but not *Yap;Taz*

dKO, mice showed a marked expansion of ASCL1$^+$ cells (Fig. 1d), suggesting that TEAD1/2

have YAP/TAZ-independent functions during subpallial development. Cortical neural

progenitors, labeled by SOX2 and TBR2, were notably reduced in *Yap;Taz* dKO mice

(Supplementary Fig. 1c), consistent with our previous report when *Yap;Taz* were deleted with

Emx1-Cre[13]. This phenotype, however, was not present in *Tead1;2* dKO mice, suggesting either

that TEAD1/2 are not required in cortical progenitors or that the loss of *Tead1;2* is compensated

by other genes. Here we focused on investigating the role of TEAD1/2 during subpallial

development.

The telencephalon of *Tead1* and *Tead2* single cKO mice did not show obvious defects at

E17.5 (Supplementary Fig. 1d). However, *Tead1* cKO mice exhibited hydrocephaly postnatally

(Supplementary Fig. 1d) and all died within 3 weeks of age. *Tead2* cKO mice did not show

gross defects in brain development and were healthy and fertile. These results suggest that,

functionally, *Tead1* and *Tead2* are largely redundant during brain development, although *Tead1*

is probably more important than *Tead2*.

TEAD1/2 loss and YAP/TAZ loss similarly disrupt subpallial apical junctions

The disruptions in the subpallial VS of E17.5 *Tead1;2* dKO and *Yap;Taz* dKO mice suggested

defects in the apical junctions that support neuroepithelial structural integrity. Indeed,

immunostaining using apical junction markers ZO-1, β-catenin, and aPKC revealed disruptions

in these junctions as early as E13.5 in both dKO lines (Supplementary Fig. 2, arrows), indicating

that TEAD1/2 and YAP/TAZ are both required to maintain the integrity of neuroepithelial apical

junctions.

TEAD1/2 loss and YAP/TAZ loss have distinct impact on lineage progression of

subpallial neural progenitors

To pinpoint which progenitor subtypes/states were affected upon TEAD1/2 loss and YAP/TAZ

loss, we focused our analyses on the MGE. Previous studies have shown that nearly all cells in

the VZ of MGE express OLIG2 as early as E10.5[27], and that ASCL is expressed in cells both in

the VZ and the SVZ[26-28]. Studies have also found that the manner in which ASCL1 is expressed

has distinct impact on cell fate; oscillatory expression maintains progenitor proliferation and self-

renewal, whereas sustained expression promotes neuronal commitment and differentiation[30].

We performed OLIG2, ASCL1, and pH3 triple immunostaining to correlate OLIG2 and ASCL1

expression patterns with progenitor subtype (Fig. 2a). Quantification suggested that nearly all

OLIG2$^+$ASCL1$^-$ cells were APs; that among OLIG2$^+$ASCL1$^+$ cells, ~40% were APs, ~50% were

SAPs, and ~10% were BPs; that nearly all OLIG2$^-$ASCL1$^+$ and OLIG2$^-$ASCL1$^-$ progenitor cells

were BPs (Fig. 2b). From another perspective: APs were composed of OLIG2$^+$ASCL1$^-$ (~60%)

and OLIG2$^+$ASCL1$^+$ (~40%) cells; nearly all SAPs were OLIG2$^+$ASCL1$^+$ cells, and BPs were

composed of roughly equal fractions of OLIG2$^+$ASCL1$^+$, OLIG2$^-$ASCL1$^+$, and OLIG2$^-$ASCL1$^-$

(and presumably Ki67$^+$) cells (Fig. 2c). Taken together, we propose that MGE neural

progenitors oscillate between the OLIG2$^+$ASCL1$^-$ and OLIG2$^+$ASCL1$^+$ states, then—upon

neuronal commitment—progress from the OLIG2$^+$ASCL1$^+$ state to the OLIG2$^-$ASCL1$^+$ state,

and finally to the OLIG2$^-$ASCL1$^-$ state (Fig. 2d). Although defining progenitor states in this

manner is not ideal, as the OLIG2$^+$ASCL1$^+$ state contains cells in different cell states and some

are probably no different from cells in the OLIG2$^+$ASCL1$^-$ state, this approach at least allows us

to distinguish early progenitors (OLIG2$^+$ASCL1$^-$ and OLIG2$^+$ASCL1$^+$) and late progenitors

(OLIG2$^-$ASCL1$^+$ and OLIG2$^-$ASCL1$^-$).

Next, we quantified the number of progenitors in each of the states defined above; the

proliferation marker Ki67 was used as a generic marker for progenitor cells (Fig. 2e). In *Tead1;2*

dKO MGE, OLIG2$^+$ASCL1$^+$ progenitors were significantly increased at E13.5 and E14.5

compared to control MGE while OLIG2$^-$ASCL1$^-$ progenitors significantly decreased at E14.5. In

contrast, in *Yap;Taz* dKO MGE, OLIG2$^+$ASCL1$^+$ progenitors were significantly decreased at

E13.5 and E14.5 while OLIG2$^-$ASCL1$^+$ and OLIG2$^-$ASCL1$^-$ progenitors significantly increased

at E14.5. In both dKO lines, the numbers of OLIG2$^+$ASCL1$^-$ cells were not significantly changed

(Fig. 2e). Thus, TEAD1/2 loss and YAP/TAZ loss have distinct impacts on the lineage

progression of subpallial progenitors: TEAD1/2 loss expands the early progenitor

(OLIG2$^+$ASCL1$^+$) population, whereas YAP/TAZ loss depletes early progenitors and expands

late (OLIG2$^-$) progenitors.

TEAD1/2 loss and YAP/TAZ loss differentially affect MGE cellular output

MGE progenitors give rise to cortical interneurons, projection neurons and interneurons in the

basal ganglia, and OLCs in the embryonic cortex[4,31,32]., In *Tead1;2* dKO mice, the percentage of

TUJ1$^+$ area within the MGE and the number of MAFB$^+$ immature interneurons[33] in the neocortex

were significantly reduced at E14.5 compared to those in control mice (Fig. 3). Cortical OLCs

labeled by OLIG2 and SOX10[34] were also significantly reduced in *Tead1;2* dKO mice at E17.5

(Fig. 3). These results suggest that TEAD1/2 loss impairs the production of neurons and OLCs

by the MGE.

In *Yap;Taz* dKO mice, the percentage of TUJ1$^+$ area within the MGE was increased at

E14.5 compared to control mice, although the number of MAFB$^+$ immature interneurons in the

neocortex was unchanged (Fig. 3). Cortical OLCs were increased in *Yap;Taz* dKO mice at

E17.5; intriguingly, many OLIG2- and SOX10-labeled cells were found along cortical VS in

Yap;Taz dKO (Fig. 3, arrowheads), which were rarely seen in control mice. These results

suggest that YAP/TAZ loss causes premature neuronal differentiation. Whether YAP/TAZ loss

enhances OLC differentiation by MGE progenitors remains to be determined because it is

unclear whether the excess OLCs found *Yap;Taz* dKO cortices were derived from MGE or

cortical progenitors. Taken together, our results demonstrate that TEAD1/2 loss and YAP/TAZ

loss differentially affect the cellular output from MGE neural progenitors.

Single-cell RNA-seq analysis reveals distinct impacts of TEAD1/2 loss and

YAP/TAZ loss on MGE neural progenitor lineage progression

To confirm the changes in MGE progenitor population in our mutant mice and to hopefully better

define progenitor states, we performed single-cell RNA-seq (scRNA-seq) using microdissected

MGE from E14.5 *Tead1;2* dKO, *Yap;Taz* dKO, and their corresponding no-*Cre* littermate

controls, as well as MGE from E12.5 and E15.5 wild-type (WT) mice.

To understand MGE lineage progression during normal development, we first analyzed

WT cells, which included E12.5 and E15.5 WT cells and E14.5 *Tead1;2* control cells. We

clustered them based on highly variable genes (HVGs) and visualized them by uniform manifold

approximation and projection (UMAP) (Fig. 4a and Supplementary Fig. 3a). To annotate the cell

clusters, we compiled a list of progenitor genes and a list of neuron genes (Supplementary data

1) based on previous publications[32,35] and scored each cell based on their expression of these

genes. This analysis indicated that clusters 2, 3, and 6 were predominantly composed of

progenitor cells and clusters 1, 4, 5, 7, and 8 were composed of neurons (Fig. 4a–c). This

conclusion is supported by cell-cycle phase analysis, which showed that cells in clusters 2, 3,

and 6 were predominantly proliferating cells in S and G2/M phases, and cells in clusters 1, 4, 5,

7, and 8 were postmitotic cells in G1/G0 phases (Fig. 4d). Based on marker gene expression,

cells in cluster 9 were endothelial cells (*Igfbp7*), in cluster 10 were red blood cells (*hba* and

hbb), and in cluster 11 were microglia (*Cx3cr1*).

Next, we subset out the progenitor clusters (clusters 2, 3, and 6) for further analysis.

When HVGs were used for feature selection, progenitor cells were organized largely based on

their cell-cycle phase; for example, cluster 3 was mostly composed of S-phase cells and cluster

6 was composed of G2/M-phase cells (Fig. 4d). A previous study of subpallial development has

found that clustering cells using transcription factors mitigates the influence of cell-cycle phase

and improves resolution of developmental populations[36]. We adopted this approach and

compiled a list of 742 transcription factor genes (Supplementary data 1) based on both the

aforementioned study and the Allen Developing Mouse Brain Atlas RNA in situ hybridization

data[37]. Using this list for feature selection, cells in different cell-cycle phases intermingled when

visualized by UMAP (Fig. 4e), indicating that the influence of cell-cycle phase was largely

abolished. Scoring the cells using our curated lists of genes enriched in the VZ and in the SVZ

and mantle zone (SVZ-MZ) (Supplementary data 1 and Supplementary Fig. 3b) showed a

gradual, unidirectional transition of VZ and SVZ-MZ scores on UMAP (Fig. 4f, g). Pseudotime

analysis by Monocle 3 also revealed a gradual, unidirectional transition (Fig. 4h). Together,

these results suggest that using our list of transcription factors to cluster MGE progenitor cells is

able to capture their lineage progression.

How many MGE progenitor states/subtypes are there? To address this question, we

used an unbiased, systematic approach by stepwise (0.025) increasing the clustering resolution

and plotting the results in a "cluster tree" (Supplementary Fig. 3c). When the resolution was less

than 0.25, cells often changed their cluster membership at the next resolution (Supplementary

Fig. 3c, grey diagonal arrows), suggesting that the clusters were unstable. When the resolution

was 0.25 and higher, however, cells no longer changed their cluster membership other than

splitting into smaller clusters (Supplementary Fig. 3c). We therefore concluded that 0.25 was the

optimal resolution, yielding 4 clusters with comparable size, which we referred to as progenitor

state (PS) 1 to PS4 with PS1 being the earliest progenitor state and PS4 being the latest (Fig.

4i). Expression counts of *Olig2* were high in PS1 and PS2 and low in PS3 and PS4, whereas

that of *Ascl1* were low in PS1, high in PS2 and PS3, and medium in PS4 (Fig. 4j). These results

match well with the progenitor states defined by OLIG2 and ASCL1 immunostaining (Fig. 2d),

validating our computational methods to analyze and annotate MGE progenitor cells.

Next, we combined WT, *Tead1;2* dKO, *Yap;Taz* dKO, and no-*Cre* controls cells,

clustered them based on HVGs (Fig. 4k and Supplementary Fig. 3d), and identified progenitor

clusters—clusters 2, 3, and 5—based on progenitor/neuron scoring and cell-cycle phase

analysis (Fig. 4l–n). We then assigned progenitor states by using the annotation of WT

progenitor cells as the reference[38] (Fig. 4o, Supplementary Fig. 3e). To compare the distribution

of progenitor cells in each progenitor state between control and dKO samples, we used

propeller, a method for testing for differences in cell type proportions in scRNA-seq data[39]. In

Tead1;2 dKO samples, the proportion of progenitor cells in PS2 was significantly increased and

the proportions in PS3 and PS4 significantly decreased compared to control. In contrast, in

Yap;Taz dKO samples, the proportion of progenitor cells in PS1 was significantly decreased and

the proportion in PS4 significantly increased (Fig. 4p). These results correlate well with that

obtained by immunostaining (Fig. 2e); both approaches find that TEAD1/2 loss expands the

early progenitor population and depletes later progenitors, whereas YAP/TAZ loss has the

opposite effect—it depletes early progenitors and expands late progenitors. Pseudotime

analysis further supports this conclusion (Supplementary Fig. 3f).

TEAD1/2 loss impedes developmental progression of subpallial neural

progenitors

The consequence of YAP/TAZ loss in the subpallium, a depletion of early progenitors, is

consistent with the known function of YAP/TAZ in promoting the proliferation and self-renewal of

diverse types of stem/progenitor cells[11,12]. However, that TEAD1/2 loss results in an expansion

of early progenitors is unexpected. Therefore, we investigated the cellular mechanism driving

this expansion.

A faster cell-cycle speed could lead to increased cell numbers within a given time

window. We measured cell-cycle speed using a sequential EdU-BrdU labeling method[40]. The

cell-cycle length and the S-phase length of OLIG2$^+$ASCL1$^+$ cells—the population expanded in

Tead1;2 dKO MGE—and of OLIG2$^+$ASCL1$^-$ cells were significantly increased in *Tead1;2* dKO

MGE compared to control (Fig. 5a), indicating a slowing down of cycling speed. This could not

explain why the number of OLIG2$^+$ASCL1$^+$ cells was increased in *Tead1;2* dKO MGE.

Next, we tested whether the developmental progression of early progenitors was stalled

in *Tead1;2* dKO MGE. To this end, we performed lineage tracing by injecting FlashTag into the

cerebral ventricles of E12.5 embryos in utero to pulse label M-phase APs[41] and monitoring the

fate of labeled cells 12, 24, and 48 h post injection (hpi). At 12 and 24 hpi, the fate of FlashTag-

labeled cells in control and *Tead1;2* dKO MGE was similar (Fig. 5b); in both genotypes the

fractions of labeled cells existing in early progenitor (OLIG2$^+$) states decreased while those

adopting later progenitor (OLIG2$^-$) states increased comparing 24 hpi vs. 12 hpi (Fig. 5b),

consistent with developmental progression. At 48 hpi, however, significantly larger fractions of

labeled cells remained in the OLIG2$^+$ early progenitor states—especially the OLIG2$^+$ASCL1$^+$

state—rather than progressing to the OLIG2$^-$ late progenitor states in *Tead1;2* dKO than in

control MGE (Fig. 5b). Thus, TEAD1/2 promote developmental progression of subpallial neural

progenitors; their loss stalls the cells in early progenitor states.

TEAD1/2 promote lineage progression of subpallial progenitors by inhibiting

Notch signaling

To uncover the molecular mechanism underlying the expansion of early progenitors in *Tead1;2*

dKO MGE, we exploited our scRNA-seq dataset and performed differential expression analysis

using scMINER[42] and gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) using NetBID2[43], comparing

Tead1;2 dKO and control PS2 cells, the progenitor state that was expanded in *Tead1;2* dKO

MGE (Supplementary data 2). Several signaling pathway gene sets in the Hallmark collection

were significantly upregulated in *Tead1;2* dKO PS2 cells, among which Notch_signaling was

upregulated the most strongly (Fig. 6a, b). Interestingly, several cell cycle related gene sets,

such as E2F_targets and G2M_checkpoint, were significantly downregulated in *Tead1;2* dKO

PS2 cells (Fig. 6a and Supplementary data 2), which is consistent with our finding that the cell-

cycle speed of early progenitor cells was slowed down in *Tead1;2* dKO MEG.

Notch signaling is a key regulator of neural progenitor cells. Both *Notch1* and *Notch3*

regulate lineage progression of subpallial neural progenitors, with *Notch1* being the more

important paralog. Conditional deletion of *Notch1* leads to accumulation of *Ascl1*-expressing

cells in the subpallial VZ-SVZ boundary while depleting *Ascl1*-expressing cells in the SVZ[44], a

phenotype that is, to an extent, opposite to that of *Tead1;2* dKO mice. *Notch1-3* and Notch

target genes *Hes1* and *Hes5* were all significantly upregulated in *Tead1;2* dKO PS2 cells

compared to control PS2 cells (Fig. 6c and Supplementary data 2). We confirmed the

upregulation of *Notch1* and *Hes5*—the most highly expressed *Notch* and *Hes* genes in PS2

cells—by RNAscope (Fig. 6d).

To determine whether upregulation of Notch signaling contributes to the expansion of

early progenitors in *Tead1;2* dKO mice, we performed genetic rescue experiments by deleting

one allele of *Notch1* in the *Tead1;2* dKO background. This, unfortunately, did not rescue the

subpallial phenotype of *Tead1;2* dKO mice (data not shown). We reasoned that the failure of

rescue was probably because the phenotype of *Tead1;2* dKO mice was too severe. Therefore,

we attempted the rescue in the *Tead1^F/F^;Tead2^F/+^;Nestin-Cre* background; these mice also

exhibited consistent expansion of the ASCL1$^+$ progenitor population at postnatal day (P) 0 (Fig.

6e, f), although not as severely as *Tead1;2* dKO mice did. Loss of one allele of *Notch1*, which

had no effect on the number of ASCL1$^+$ cells in the WT background, completely restored the

number of ASCL1$^+$ cells in *Tead1^F/F^;Tead2^F/+^;Nestin-Cre* mice to the control level (Fig. 6e, f).

These results indicate that TEAD1/2 promote lineage progression of subpallial neural

progenitors at least in part by inhibiting Notch signaling. Note that in *Tead1^F/F^;Tead2^F/+^;Nestin-

Cre* subpallium, the VS, apical junctions, and VZ-SVZ organization were disrupted (Fig. 6e,

arrows and insets), just like in *Tead1;2* dKO mice. These defects, however, were not rescued by

the loss of one allele of *Notch1* (Fig. 6e, arrows and insets), suggesting that upregulation of

Notch signaling is not responsible for these defects.

TEAD1/2 act with INSM1 to promote lineage progression of subpallial neural

progenitors

The distinct subpallial phenotypes of *Tead1;2* dKO and *Yap;Taz* dKO mice strongly suggest that

TEAD1/2 regulate lineage progression of subpallial neural progenitors independent of YAP/TAZ.

In addition to Yorki/YAP/TAZ, Scalloped/TEAD interacts with Vestigial/VGLL1–3[19,20],

Tgi/VGLL4[45,46], Nerfin-1/INSM1[47,48], and RUNX2/3[49,50], among which only *Vgll4* (*Vestigial like 4*)

and *Insm1* are expressed in subpallial progenitor cells (Supplementary Fig. 4a). By competing

with YAP/TAZ for TEAD binding, VGLL4-mediated transcriptional repression antagonizes

YAP/TAZ-mediated transcriptional activation of TEAD target genes[51,52]. To test whether

TEAD1/2 act with VGLL4 to regulate subpallial lineage progression, we generated *Vgll4* null

mice and *Nestin-Cre*–mediated cKO mice. Null mice all died before P7 (Supplementary Fig. 4b),

an outcome reported previously[53]. However, cKO mice did not exhibit any obvious brain

development phenotype (Supplementary Fig. 4d), suggesting that VGLL4 is not an important

cofactor for TEAD in the context of subpallial development.

INSM1 is a zinc-finger transcription factor with an N-terminal SNAG (Snail/Gfi-1) domain

that interacts with transcriptional corepressors such as KDM1A/LSD1 (lysine (K)-specific

demethylase 1A)[54]. *Insm1* mRNA is expressed in neural progenitors and nascent neurons

throughout embryonic and adult neurogenesis[55]. Within neural progenitors, *Insm1* is expressed

in non-surface dividing SAPs and BPs but not in APs[55-57]. Previous studies have found that

Insm1 deletion leads to increased subpallial VZ/SVZ size and the number of Ki67$^+$ cells and

decreased embryonic cortical OLCs[56,58]—similar to the effects of *Tead1;2* deletion, raising the

possibility that TEAD1/2 act with INSM1 to regulate subpallial development. To test this, we

examined INSM1 expression pattern in the MGE (Fig. 7a). At E12.5, INSM1 was expressed in

some VZ cells and more frequently in SVZ cells. All INSM1$^+$ cells in the VZ and a subset of

INSM1$^+$ cells in the SVZ, especially those close to the VZ, also expressed TEAD1.

We validated TEAD-INSM1 interaction by co-immunoprecipitation using transfected

HEK293T cells (Fig. 7b). Proximity ligation assay (PLA) using E12.5 brain sections further

confirmed TEAD-INSM1 interaction in the subpallium (Fig. 7c). Interestingly, whereas the PLA-

detected interactions (PLA$^+$ spots) between TEAD1 and YAP were enriched near the ventricular

surface, the interactions between TEAD1 and INSM1 were more frequent near the VZ-SVZ

boundary (Fig. 7c).

Previous characterizations of *Insm1* KO mice did not define the affected progenitor

subtype/state with molecular markers. Therefore, we generated *Insm1* cKO mice using *Nestin-*

Cre; the loss of INSM1 protein was confirmed by Western blot (Supplementary Fig. 5a). The

OLIG2$^+$ASCL1$^+$ progenitor population was significantly expanded and the OLIG2$^-$ASCL1$^-$

population significantly decreased in *Insm1* cKO mice at E14.5 (Fig. 7d, e). The ASCL1$^+$

population remained expanded at P0 (Supplementary Fig. 5c). These phenotypes recapitulate

that of *Tead1;2* dKO mice, supporting the hypothesis that TEAD1/2 and INSM1 act together to

promote lineage progression of subpallial neural progenitors. A notable phenotypic difference

between *Tead1;2* dKO and *Insm1* cKO subpallium is that the VS, apical junctions, and VZ-SVZ

organization were not disrupted in *Insm1* cKO mice (Fig. 7d and Supplementary Fig. 5b), unlike

in *Tead1;2* dKO mice; this is consistent with the idea that TEAD1/2 act with YAP/TAZ to

maintain the integrity of neuroepithelial apical junctions.

Discussion

The mechanisms governing lineage progression of subpallial neural progenitor cells are poorly

understood. In this study, we discovered that the TEAD family of transcription factors promotes

lineage progression of subpallial neural progenitors. Importantly, this function of TEAD is

independent of its best-known cofactors, YAP/TAZ, the key effectors of the Hippo pathway.

Instead, we suggest that TEAD acts with INSM1 in this developmental context.

Prompted by the hypothesis that TEAD may have YAP/TAZ-independent functions
during vertebrate neural tube development, we compared conditional mouse mutants lacking
Tead1 and *Tead2* (*Tead1;2* dKO) to those lacking *Yap* and *Taz* (*Yap;Taz* dKO). The distinct,
essentially opposite, phenotype in the subpallium of these two mutant lines confirms our
hypothesis. YAP/TAZ loss results in decreased numbers of subpallial early progenitors and
increased numbers of late progenitors and neurons, indicative of reduced early progenitor self-
renewal and premature differentiation, which is consistent with the well-established function of
YAP/TAZ in promoting stem/progenitor cell self-renewal. In striking contrast, TEAD1/2 loss
results in an expansion of early progenitors and reduction in late progenitors, neurons, and
OLCs, suggesting that TEAD1/2 promote developmental progression of subpallial neural
progenitors. One phenotype, however, is present in both mutant lines: the disruption of
subpallial VS and VZ-SVZ organization, likely caused by defects in neuroepithelial apical
junctions. We have shown that YAP/TAZ regulate the expression of cell junction genes in
cortical neural progenitors[13]; the shared junctional defect suggests that YAP/TAZ and TEAD act
together to regulate these genes. Taken together, our study demonstrates that, during
mammalian subpallial development, TEAD has both YAP/TAZ-dependent and -independent
functions.
Interestingly, despite having similar expression patterns in cortical and subpallial neural
progenitors, TEAD1/2 loss specifically perturbs subpallial, but not cortical, development. It is
unclear whether TEAD function is uniquely required in subpallial progenitors, or whether *Tead3*
and/or *Tead4* compensate for the loss of *Tead1*;*2* in cortical progenitors. In comparison,
YAP/TAZ loss affects the structural organization and self-renewal of cortical and subpallial
progenitors similarly. Furthermore, in addition to having fewer early neural progenitors and more
late progenitors and neurons in the MGE, *Yap;Taz* dKO embryos had more OLCs in the cortex.
Interestingly, many OLCs were found along the VS in *Yap;Taz* dKO cortices, which rarely
occurs in control embryos. Because cortical progenitors lacking YAP/TAZ are defective in their
self-renewal and proliferation capacities[13], it is possible that the OLCs located at VS were
derived from cortical progenitors as a result of their abnormal differentiation, rather than from
subpallial progenitors; resolving this will require future experiments using cortical and MGE
region-specific *Yap;Taz* mutants.
Unlike in the cortex where RG/APs and IPs/BPs are readily distinguished by
immunostaining (e.g., RG are $SOX2^+TBR2^-$ and IPs are $TBR2^+$), progenitor subtype/state in
the subpallium has not been defined in a similar manner. We used the combined immunosignals
of OLIG2 and ASCL1—because their expression patterns are well characterized and because

excellent antibodies are available—and defined four subpallial progenitor states. Although these

progenitor states likely reflect the lineage progression of subpallial progenitors and, importantly,

allowed us to distinguish early vs. late progenitors, there are several weaknesses with this

approach. First, the four progenitor states do not progress in a linear fashion; cells in the

OLIG2$^+$ASCL1$^-$ state oscillate with a subset of cells in the OLIG2$^+$ASCL1$^+$state due to the

oscillatory expression of ASCL1[30]. Second, the OLIG2$^+$ASCL1$^+$ state contains several subtypes

of progenitors (APs/RG, SAPs, and BPs). Lastly, this approach does not distinguish RG and

IPs. Therefore, although our analysis shows that the OLIG2$^+$ASCL1$^+$ early progenitor population

is affected—increased in *Tead1;2* dKO mice and decreased in *Yap;Taz* dKO mice, it remains

unclear whether RG/APs, SAPs, or BPs are affected; using mitotic location to distinguish them

is not feasible due to the disorganization of VZ-SVZ in both mutant lines.

To complement immunohistological analysis and overcome at least some of the

weaknesses mentioned above, we employed scRNA-seq to characterize our mutant lines

because this approach offers a more comprehensive view of cell state by measuring the

expression levels of thousands of genes. Previous scRNA-seq analyses of the developing

mouse subpallium did not define progenitor states in detail[32,35,59]. By using a curated list of 742

transcription factors for feature selection and using stepwise increase of clustering resolution to

identify the optimal cluster number, we defined four MGE progenitor states. Based on marker

gene expression (*Olig2* and *Ascl1*), the four progenitor states defined by scRNA-seq—or more

precisely, by the expression of the 742 transcription factors—correlate well with the four

immunostaining-defined states. However, the progenitor states defined by these two methods

are not identical. For example, in WT E14.5 MGE, the OLIG2$^+$ASCL1$^+$ state contains about

twice the number of cells than the other states do, whereas the four progenitor states defined by

scRNA-seq are of comparable size, with the third state (PS3) being the largest. More

importantly, both gene signature analysis using VZ and SVZ-MZ gene scores and pseudotime

analysis showed gradual, unidirectional transition of scRNA-defined progenitor states, rather

than the oscillatory behavior between the two early progenitor states defined by

immunostaining. Given that scRNA-based analysis takes into account much richer information

and is much less biased than immunostaining-based analysis (which is limited by antibody

availability and influenced by definition of immunosignal positivity), it is likely that the progenitor

states defined by scRNA-seq reflect more accurately the true states and transition of progenitor

cells during development. Our scRNA-seq analysis probably detected at least some of the

different states of OLIG2$^+$ASCL1$^+$ cells—perhaps those in the self-renewal state (that oscillate

with the OLIG2$^+$ASCL1$^-$ state) vs. those committed to differentiation—and separated them into

two progenitor states, PS1 and PS2, respectively. Interestingly, our scRNA-seq analysis found

that YAP/TAZ loss and TEAD1/2 loss affect different early progenitor states: YAP/TAZ loss

reduces PS1, whereas TEAD1/2 loss expands PS2. This insight is not obtained from

immunohistological analysis, likely due to the heterogeneity of the OLIG2$^+$ASCL1$^+$ state. That

YAP/TAZ loss reduces PS1 is consistent with YAP/TAZ being predominantly expressed in APs

and suggests that YAP/TAZ promote AP self-renewal and/or proliferation. Whether YAP/TAZ

require TEAD for this function is unclear, as the absence of a reduction in PS1 in *Tead1;2* dKO

mice could have been masked by the expansion of PS2 due to certain feedback or homeostasis

mechanism; compensation by *Tead3* or *Tead4* is unlikely because they were not upregulated in

Tead1;2 dKO PS1 cells (data not shown).

It is likely that TEAD loss and YAP/TAZ loss affect not only the number of cells

belonging to a progenitor state but also the cell state (of the general sense) itself. In our "cluster

tree" analysis, *Tead1;2* dKO progenitor cells switched between clusters upon a small change in

clustering resolution more readily than WT progenitor cells did (data not shown), suggesting that

the cell states of *Tead1;2* dKO cells are less well defined than that of WT cells. Furthermore,

differential expression and GSEA analyses comparing dKO and control cells of the same

progenitor state revealed many significantly changed gene sets (Supplementary data 2 and data

not shown), indicative of different biological activities—which constitute a cell state—between

dKO and control cells in the same progenitor state. This type of analyses led us to discover that

TEAD promotes subpallial progenitor lineage progression at least in part by inhibiting Notch

signaling.

Based on the co-expression and physical interaction between TEAD and INSM1 in the

subpallium and the phenotypic similarity between their mutants—both showed expansion of the

OLIG2$^+$ASCL1$^+$ population, we suggest that TEAD acts with INSM1 to promote subpallial

progenitor lineage progression. The physical interaction between orthologs of TEAD and INSM1

is evolutionarily conserved[22,47,48]. Our study demonstrates that the function of this transcription

factor complex in regulating neurogenesis is also conserved. In *C. elegans*, this complex (EGL-

44 and EGL-46) instructs cell cycle exit during the lineage progression of a specific neuroblast[22]

and controls neuronal cell fate in specific neurons[21]. In *Drosophila*, this complex (Scalloped and

Nerfin-1) maintains specific neuronal fate; in its absence, terminally differentiated medulla

neurons in the optic lobes revert back to a neuroblast-like state[47]. Interestingly, Scalloped and

Nerfin-1 maintains medullar neuron fate at least in part by repressing Notch signaling, which

echoes our finding that TEAD1/2 promote subpallial progenitor lineage progression also by, at

least in part, inhibiting Notch signaling. In both *C. elegans* and *Drosophila*, orthologs of TEAD

and INSM1 only act together in specific contexts, while both playing additional roles

independent of the other. During mammalian neural development, INSM1 has been shown to

promote the generation and expansion of BPs in the cortex[56], specify monoaminergic neuronal

phenotypes in the hindbrain[60], control the development of pituitary endocrine cells[54], and

consolidate outer hair cell fate in the cochlea[61]. It remains to be determined whether INSM1

functions with TEAD in any of these contexts.

In summary, we propose that during subpallial development, TEAD interacts with

different partners in different progenitor subtypes/states to execute distinct functions (Fig. 8). In

APs, TEAD interacts with YAP/TAZ to maintain neuroepithelial structural integrity; whether

TEAD also promotes self-renewal and proliferation with YAP/TAZ remains to be determined. In

SAPs and possibly a subset of BPs, TEAD interacts with INSM1 to promote lineage progression

at least in part by inhibiting Notch signaling.

Methods

Mice

The *Nestin-Cre* line[62] (#003771) and *Notch1^F* allele[63] (#007181) was purchased from the

Jackson Laboratory (JAX). *Tead2^{F/F}* mice[64], *Yap^{F/F};Taz^{F/F}* mice[65], and *Insm1^{F/F}* mice[61] were

kindly provided by Drs. Melvin DePamphilis, Eric Olson, and Jaime García-Añoveros,

respectively. To generate the *Tead1^F* allele, *Tead1^{tm1a}* (#050015-UCD) was obtained from

Mutant Mouse Resource & Research Centers UC Davis (MMRRC-UCD) and crossed with a

ubiquitous *Rosa26-FLP* line (JAX #016226). Both *Tead1* and *Tead2* are on chromosome 7. A

recombined chromosome 7 harboring both *Tead1^F* and *Tead2^F* alleles was generated by

crossing *Tead1^{F/+};Tead2^{F/+}* trans-heterozygous mice with wild-type mice and screening for

progenies carrying both *Tead1^F* and *Tead2^F* alleles. Two *Vgll4^F* lines were generated by using

CRISPR-Cas9–mediated gene editing to insert two *loxP* sites flanking exon 2 in one line and

exon 3 in the other. The corresponding deleted alleles (*Vgll4^Δ*) were generated by crossing

Vgll4^{F/F} mice with *Sox2-Cre* (JAX #008454) females, which express *Cre* in their germline. All

mice were maintained in a mixed genetic background. All animal procedures were approved by

the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of St. Jude Children's Research Hospital.

Histology, immunostaining, and image acquisition

Mouse brains were dissected in cold PBS, fixed overnight in 4% paraformaldehyde at 4°C, and

washed in PBS. For paraffin sections, fixed brains were dehydrated in 70% ethanol overnight,

embedded in paraffin, and sectioned at 5-µm thickness. For histological analysis, sections

were rehydrated and stained with hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) or Luxol blue and Nissl. For

frozen sections, fixed brains were cryoprotected in 30% sucrose overnight at 4°C, embedded in

Tissue Freezing Medium (Thermo Scientific), and sectioned at 12–20-µm thickness. For

immunostaining, sections were washed twice in PBS, blocked and permeabilized in PBS with

3% normal donkey serum and 0.2% Triton X-100 for 1 h, and incubated with primary

antibodies at 4°C overnight. Sections were then washed in PBS 3 times and incubated with

appropriate fluorescence–conjugated secondary antibodies (Jackson ImmunoResearch

Laboratories or Thermo Scientific Invitrogen) at 1:1000 dilution and DAPI (1:1000 dilution) for

2–3 h at room temperature. After 3 washes in PBS, sections were coverslipped in ProLong

Gold (Thermo Scientific Invitrogen #P36930). The following primary antibodies were used:

Alexa Fluor 647-Sox2 (BD Biosciences, #562139, 1:100), BrdU (Abcam ab6326, 1:100), β-

catenin (BD Biosciences #610153, 1:500), TBR2/EOMES (eBioscience, #14-4875, 1:100),

phospho-Histone H3 (Ser10) (Cell Signaling Technologies (CST) #9706, 1:500), INSM1 (Santa

Cruz Biotechnologies sc-271408 AF488, 1:50), Ki67 (Invitrogen #14-5698-82, 1:1000), MAFB

(Sigma HPA005653, 1:500), ASCL1 (Abcam ab211327, 1:500), PKCζ/aPKC (Santa Cruz sc-

216, 1:1000), SOX10 (Santa Cruz sc-17342, 1:250), OLIG2 (R&D, af2418, 1:250), TEAD1 (CST

#12292, 1:250), TUJ1 (BioLegend #801202, 1:100), YAP/TAZ (CST #8418, 1:500), and ZO-1

(Invitrogen #339188, 1:500).

Images of H&E- or Luxol blue/Nissl-stained sections were acquired using a Zeiss Stereo

Discovery V8 microscope equipped with an AxiocamMRc camera and processed with

Axiovision. Low magnification fluorescent images were acquired using an Olympus BX63

microscope equipped with an Orca Flash4.0 camera. High magnification fluorescent images

were acquired using a Zeiss LSM 780 confocal or a Zeiss Apotome microscope.

Image Quantifications

All images used for cell counting were acquired using a Zeiss LSM 780 confocal or Zeiss

Apotome microscope with a 40x objective lens. For each genotype, 3 animals with 1-3 sections

of comparable positions per animal were quantified. Areas of interest were outlined and isolated

in ImageJ. Nucleus segmentation was carried out using the machine-learning–based

segmentation method StarDist (https://github.com/stardist/stardist), which was first trained using

manually annotated datasets. Fluorescent label intensity of each channel over nuclear ROIs

was calculated by a custom multi-channel intensity quantification algorithm created in OMERO

(https://www.openmicroscopy.org/omero/scientists/). Thresholds for signal positivity were

manually determined by inspecting each image. Mitosis location, MAFB-labeled cells and OLCs

were counted manually in OMERO. For TUJ1 analysis, areas of interest were outlined and the

percentage of TUJ1$^+$ regions were measured using the Olympus CellSens Dimension analysis

program (Olympus). Image area and ventricular length were measured with Zeiss Zen 3.9

imaging software. Data points in all quantification graphs correspond to individual animals,

which are the average of 1-3 sections per animal.

Western blot

Mouse brains were dissected and total cell lysates were prepared in 20 mM HEPES (pH 7.4),

150 mM NaCl, 2% SDS and 5% glycerol supplemented with AEBSF and Halt protease and

phosphatase inhibitors (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Protein concentrations were measured by

BCA assay (Thermo Scientific). Twenty μg of protein per lane were subjected to SDS-PAGE

and probed with primary antibodies and HRP-conjugated secondary antibodies. The following

primary antibodies were used: β-actin (Ambion #AM4302, 1:40,000), GAPDH (CST #2118S,

1:3000), FLAG (CST #2368S, 1:1000), INSM1 (Santa Cruz sc-271408, 1:500), TEAD1 (CST

#12292, 1:500), pan-TEAD (CST #13295, 1:500), and VGLL4 (Thermo Fisher #PA5-58303,

1:50). Each lane in Western blot images corresponds to an individual embryo (biological

replicate).

Co-immunoprecipitation

Plasmids encoding FLAG-tagged proteins were transfected into HEK293T cells plated on 10-cm

plates using Lipofectamin 2000. Co-immunoprecipitation was performed 48 h later using

Nuclear Complex Co-IP kit (Active Motif #54001) according to kit instruction, using IP Low buffer

supplemented with additional detergent to 1% final concentration and 10 μl of Pan-TEAD (CST

#13295, 33 μg/ml) or 5 μl of FLAG-M2 (Sigma #F1804, 1 μg/μl) antibody.

Proximity ligation assay

The assay was performed according to Duolink kit (Millipore Sigma DUO92103) protocol. The

following primary antibodies were used: TEAD1(CST #12292, 1:250), YAP (Sigma

WH0010413M1, 1:1000), INSM1 (Santa Cruz Biotechnologies sc-271408 X, 1:50), Ki67 (BD

Pharmigen #558615, 1:250) and Ki67 (Vector VP-RM0, 1:250). The images used for the

quantification of PLA signals were acquired using a Zeiss LSM 780 confocal microscope and a
40x objective lens. The number of spots per image were quantified using OMERO. Each
interaction was quantified in 3 embryos. At least 4 images from subpallial sections of
comparable positions were quantified for each embryo.
594

Single cell RNA sequencing

MGEs were obtained by first extracting the embryonic brain and detaching the telencephalon,
followed by removing the dorsal telencephalon and finally dissecting the MGE from the rest of
the subpallium in cold PBS. Both MGEs from the same embryo were dissociated using either
Stem-Pro Accutase (Thermo Scientific A1110501) or a papain dissociation kit (Worthington
LK003150) for less than 5 min. Cells were filtered through Flowmi cell strainers (SP Bel-Art
#13680040). Cell viability was analyzed with a Countess cell counter and only samples with a
viability of >90% were processed for scRNAseq. A 3' scRNAseq kit from 10x Genomics was
used according to kit instructions. Up to 10K cells were loaded per each bead mix.
604

Single cell RNA sequencing data analysis

General quality control and filtering: Sequences from each individual Illumina sequencing
dataset were demultiplexed using bcl2fastq v2.20.0.422 (Illumina). Sequencing reads were
processed using 10X Genomics Cell Ranger version 7.0.0, with reads mapping to the mouse
reference genome mm10 version 2020-A (10x Genomics). Quality control filtering, clustering,
dimensionality reduction, visualization, and differential gene expression were performed using
Seurat v4.0.4 with R v4.1.0[38]. Each dataset was initially filtered so that genes that were
expressed in at least three or more cells and cells that expressed at least 200 genes were
retained when reading in the data. Then cells were excluded if they: (1) expressed greater than
10% of unique transcripts derived from mitochondrial genes, (2) unique transcripts derived from
mitochondrial genes expressing more than 3 median absolute deviations (MADs) from the
median number of unique transcripts derived from mitochondrial genes, (3) had fewer than
1,500 genes expressed, or (3) had UMI counts below 5,000. Afterward, cells with more than 3
MADs from the median number of genes expressed were removed.
Dataset integration processing: Datasets were individually log-normalized using the
NormalizeData function with default parameters. We calculated 3,000 features that exhibit high
cell-to-cell variation in the dataset using the *FindVariableFeature* function. Next, we scaled the
data by linear regression against the number of reads using the *ScaleData* function with default
parameters. The variable genes were projected onto a low-dimensional subspace using

principal component analysis using the *RunPCA* function with default parameters. The number

of principal components (Npcs) were selected based on inspection of the plot of variance

explained (Npcs = 30). Datasets were integrated using Harmony integration with default

parameters. A shared-nearest-neighbor graph was constructed based on the Euclidean

distance in the low-dimensional subspace using the *FindNeighbors* function with dims = 1:30

and default parameters. Integrated datasets then underwent non-linear dimensional reduction

and visualization using UMAP. Clusters were identified using a resolution of 0.3. Gene signature

scores were calculated using the *AddModuleScore* function with our lists of progenitor genes

and neuron genes (Supplementary data 1). Cell cycle phase was inferred using the S- and

G2M-phase gene lists from Tirosh, et al 2015 using the *CellCycleScoring* command in Seurat.

Progenitor cluster integration processing: Clusters with average progenitors scores

above zero (WT dataset clusters 2,3,6, WT/KO dataset clusters 2,3,5) were subset out and re-

analyzed following the above processing steps except that (1) cells with fewer than 2,500 genes

expressed were removed and that (2) a list of 742 transcription factor genes (Supplementary

data 1) was used as the features to project onto a low-dimensional subspace using principal

component analysis using the *RunPCA* function with default parameters. Gene signature scores

were calculated using the *AddModuleScore* function with our lists of VZ genes and SVZ-MZ

genes (Supplementary data 1). Cell cycle phase was inferred as described above. Pseudotime

analysis was conducted using Monocle3 (v1.3.1) with default parameters. Trajectory starting

points were manually selected based on the maximum expression of VZ markers. Cluster tree

was generated by stepwise (0.025) increasing clustering resolution using progenitor cells from

the WT dataset (WT dataset clusters 2,3,6), which identified 0.25 as the optimal resolution. To

assign progenitor state annotation to mutant cells, we used the *FindIntegrationAnchors* function

in Seurat to detect integration anchors, using the first 30 PCA dimensions between the

WT_progenitors_dataset (reference) and the All_progenitors_dataset (query). These anchors

were then used to transfer progenitor state labels from the WT_progenitors_dataset to the

All_progenitors_dataset. The transfer efficiency was validated by examining the clustering

consistency of shared cells between the two datasets, achieving ~93% agreement. The

propeller function from the speckle_v_0.0.3 package[39] was used to evaluate statistical

differences in cell proportions between control and mutants. Pseudotime density plot was

generated using the *geom_density* function in ggplot. Differential expression analysis was

performed using the *getDE* function in scMINER[42] (https://jyyulab.github.io/scMINER). Gene set

enrichment analysis (GSEA) was performed using the *funcEnrich.Fisher* function and visualized

with the *draw.funcEnrich.cluster* function in NetBID2[43] (https://jyyulab.github.io/NetBID).

Selected gene sets were visualized with the *draw.GSEA* function in NetBID2.

Calculation of in vivo cell cycle parameters

Pregnant dams were injected intraperitoneally with EdU (10 µg/g body weight) and followed by

BrdU (50 µg/g body weight) 1.5 h later. Dams were euthanized 30-min following BrdU

administration, and embryos were collected and processed for cryosectioning. Sections were

blocked in PBS containing 3% normal donkey serum and 0.2% Triton X-100, incubated in

primary antibodies against ASCL1 and OLIG2 at 4°C overnight, washed in PBS, and incubated

in fluorescence-conjugated secondary antibodies for 2 h at room temperature. After 3 washes

in PBS, sections were post-fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde for 10 min, followed by 3 washes in

PBS. To detect EdU, sections were incubated in 1N HCl at 45°C for 30 min, then washed 3

times in PBS. EdU was detected by the Click-it Plus EdU Alexa Fluor 488 Imaging Kit (Thermo

Scientific Invitrogen #C10337). Sections were then washed 3 times in PBS, blocked again in

PBS containing 3% normal donkey serum and 0.2% Triton X-100, incubated in BrdU antibody

(Abcam #ab6326, 1:100) overnight at 4°C and secondary antibody for 2 h at room temperature.

After 3 washes in PBS, sections were coverslipped in ProLong Gold. Z-stack images (5) were

acquired on a Zeiss LSM 780 confocal microscope, merged in ImageJ, and quantified with

OMERO.

Cell cycle parameters were calculated based on the method described by Quinn et al[40].

The following populations were quantified using OMERO: Cycling fraction ($\text{Cycling}_{\text{fraction}}$): total

number of cells in each progenitor subtype defined as $\text{OLIG2}^+\text{ASCL1}^-$, $\text{OLIG2}^+\text{ASCL1}^+$, and

$\text{OLIG2}^-\text{ASCL1}^+$; S-phase fraction ($\text{S}_{\text{fraction}}$): the number of progenitor cells in the S phase,

defined as $\text{EdU}^+\text{BrdU}^+$ cells; Leaving fraction ($\text{L}_{\text{fraction}}$): the number of progenitor cells that have

left the S phase, defined as $\text{EdU}^+\text{BrdU}^-$ cells. S-phase length (T_S) and total cell-cycle length

(T_C) were then calculated using the following equations: (1) $\frac{T_S}{T_L} = \frac{S_{\text{fraction}}}{L_{\text{fraction}}}$; (2) $T_S = \frac{S_{\text{fraction}}}{L_{\text{fraction}}} \times T_L$;

(3) $T_S = \frac{S_{\text{fraction}}}{L_{\text{fraction}}} \times 1.5$; (4) $\frac{T_C}{T_S} = \frac{Cycling_{\text{fraction}}}{S_{\text{fraction}}}$; (5) $T_C = \frac{Cycling_{\text{fraction}}}{S_{\text{fraction}}} \times T_S$.

FlashTag labeling of neural progenitor cells in vivo

The procedure was performed according to the protocol described by Govindan et al[41].

Pregnant mice carrying E12.5 embryos were deeply anesthetized with 2.5–3% of isoflurane and

the uterine horns exposed. Approximately 300 nL of 10 mM carboxyfluorescein succinimidyl

ester (CFSE, Invitrogen C34554) in DMSO was injected into a lateral ventricle of the embryo

brain using a pulled glass micropipette. Embryos were returned to dam and allowed to

resume normal development before being harvested for immunostaining.

RNAscope in situ hybridization

Tissue sections were processed according to the kit instructions for frozen samples (Advanced

Cell Diagnostics (ACD) RNAscope Multiplex FL v2 #323100). Sections were air-dried for 1 h at

room temperature and further dried at 60°C for 30 min. Slides were post-fixed in 4%

paraformaldehyde for 15 min at 4°C, followed by dehydration in graded ethanol (50%, 70%, and

100% ethanol) for 5 min each, with a final dehydration step in 100% ethanol for 5 min. Sections

were then air-dried for 5 min at 60°C. Endogenous peroxidase activity was quenched in H_2O_2 for

10 min, followed by 3 washes with distilled water (dH$_2$O). Sections were further dehydrated in

100% ethanol for 3 min and dried for 5 min at 60°C. Tissue was permeabilized with Protease III

for 20 min at 40°C. Slides were then washed twice in dH$_2$O for 2 min. Sections were incubated

with a probe mixture targeting MmHes5 (ACD #400991, C2) and MmNotch1 (ACD #404641,

C4), each at a 1:100 dilution in probe diluent (ACD #300041) for 2 h at 40°C. Signal

amplification was carried out using the RNAscope amplification reagents (AMP1, AMP2, and

AMP3), with incubation at 40°C for 30 min each for AMP1/2 and 15 min for AMP3. After each

amplification step, sections were washed twice for 2 min with ACD wash buffer. HRP signal was

developed for 15 min at 40°C, followed by washing and incubation with the appropriate

fluorophores: Opal 520 (for C2 at 1:1000) (FP1487001KT) and Opal 570 (for C4 at 1:1000)

(FP1488001KT) for 30 min at 40°C. After a final round of washing, sections were blocked with

RNAscope HRP blocker for 15 min at 40°C. Nuclei were stained with DAPI. Slides were then

mounted in Prolong Gold. Fluorescent images were acquired using a Zeiss Apotome

microscope. Laser power and exposure time was adjusted to ensure below saturation exposure.

Quantification was performed in ImageJ. The mean fluorescence intensity (total fluorescence

signal divided by area) of *Hes5* and *Notch1* was measured in the medial ganglionic eminence

(MGE) and a cortical VZ region within the same section. Because the cortex of *Tead1;2* dKO

mice did not shown obvious morphological phenotype, the cortex was used as an internal

control. The average mean intensity values from the left and right MGE were normalized to the

mean intensity values in the cortex.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analyses of immunostaining and RNAscope experiments were done using GraphPad

Prism software. Statistical significance was assessed by unpaired two-tailed t-test. *P* < 0.05 was

considered a significant difference. Individual animals are defined as a biological replicated. All

values represent individual animals mean ± SEM (standard error of the mean). The statistical

test used and the P values are indicated in figures or figure legends. Statistical analyses of

scRNA-seq data were performed using designated functions in *propeller* (cell proportions),

scMINER (differential gene expression), and NetBID2 (gene set enrichment analysis).

Data availability

731 The raw single-cell RNA sequencing datasets generated in this study have been deposited in

732 the GEO repository databased under the accession code GSE.

Material availability

735 Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to X.C.

Code availability

738 The code for the scRNA-seq analysis presented in this manuscript in available on

739 https://github.com/thecaolab-stjude/subpallium_development_Tead_and_YT_KO

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Acknowledgements

We thank members of the Cao lab for suggestions and technical help; Aaron Taylor and George Campbell for help in image acquisition; Abbas Shirinifard for help in image quantification; Yiping Fan and Hongjian Jin for help in scRNA-seq data analysis; Shondra Miller, Valerie Stewart, and members of the Center for Advanced Genomic Editing and of the Neuroembryology core at St. Jude Children's Research Hospital (SJCRH) for generating the *Vgll4^F* alleles; Melvin DePamphilis, Eric Olson, and Jaime García-Añoveros for sharing mouse lines. This work was supported by National Institute of Health grant R01NS119760 (to X.C. and J.Y.), P30CA021765 (to SJCRH Comprehensive Cancer Center core facilities), and American Lebanese Syrian Associated Charities (ALSAC).

Author contributions

X.C. conceived and supervised the project; C.P and A.L. performed the majority of the experiments and data analysis; A.L., V.T., C.R., A.M., J.Y. and J.Y performed computational analysis of scRNA-seq data; J.P. helped with mouse management and Western blotting; R.D. helped with histological analysis. X.C. wrote the paper with input from other authors.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

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Fig. 1

a

YAP/TAZ expression | TEAD1 expression

E13.5 | SOX2 | TBR2 | SOX2 | TBR2 (Cortex)

ventricle

ventricle | SOX2 | ASCL1 | SOX2 | ASCL1 (MGE)

100 μm

b

YAP/TAZ pH3 TUJ1 | TEAD1 pH3 TUJ1

Cortex — BP | MGE — AP, SAP, BP | Cortex — BP, SAP, AP | MGE — AP, SAP, BP

50 μm

Cortex / LGE / MGE — DAPI

c Mitosis location

■ Apical ■ Subapical ▢ Basal

Cortex | MGE

100% / 80% / 60% / 40% / 20% / 0%

All pH3⁺ | YAP/TAZ⁺ | TEAD1⁺ (Cortex)
All pH3⁺ | YAP/TAZ⁺ | TEAD1⁺ (MGE)

d

Control | *Yap;Taz* dKO | *Tead1;2* dKO

E17.5 SOX2 ASCL1 TBR2

1 mm

Fig. 1 | Expression patterns of YAP/TAZ and TEAD in the developing forebrain and gross phenotypes of their mutants. a YAP/TAZ and TEAD1 expression patterns in E13.5 forebrain sections examined by immunostaining. White dashed lines delineate the boundary between the ventricular zone (VZ) and the subventricular zone (SVZ). Yellow dashed lines mark the outer surface of the cortex. MGE, medial ganglionic eminence; LGE, lateral ganglionic eminence. **b** YAP/TAZ and TEAD1 immunostaining on E13.5 forebrain sections co-stained with phospho-histone H3 (pH3, cells in mitosis) and βIII-tubulin (TUJ1, neurons), highlighting apical progenitors (APs) that divide at the ventricular surface (VS), subapical progenitors (SAPs) that divided at subapical positions within the VZ, and basal progenitors (BPs) that divide in the SVZ. Dashed lines delineate the VS. Asterisks, autofluorescent blood vessels. **c** Quantification of the proportion of pH3^{+} cells at the respective locations. Values are mean ± SEM. **d** Immunostaining showing the gross phenotypes of *Nestin-Cre* mediated *Yap;Taz* double knockout (dKO) and *Tead1;2* dKO forebrain at E17.5. Dashed lines mark the outer surface of the forebrain. Arrows highlight disruptions in the VS and VZ-SVZ organization.

Sup. Fig. 1

a E13.5   *Tead1*   *Tead2*   *Tead3*   **a'**

500 μm

LGE MGE
VZ
SVZ-MZ

b

E13.5 Brain

Control   *Tead1;2* dKO

Pan-TEAD

TEAD1

β-Actin

E13.5 Brain

Control   *Yap;Taz* dKO

YAP
TAZ

GAPDH

c   Control   *Yap;Taz* dKO   *Tead1;2* dKO

E17.5

SOX2 TBR2

100 μm

d   Control   *Tead1* cKO   *Tead2* cKO

E17.5

SOX2 ASCL1 TBR2

500 μm

P7

H&E

1 mm

Supplementary Fig. 1 | Expression patterns of *Tead* genes in the developing telencephalon and the gross phenotypes of *Yap;Taz* and *Tead* knockout mice. a RNA in situ hybridization images of *Tead1–3* genes (Allen Developing Mouse Brain Atlas). **a′** A schematic of the E13.5 telencephalon showing subpallial regional organization. LGE, lateral ganglionic eminence; MGE, medial ganglionic eminence; VZ, ventricular zone; SVZ, subventricular zone; MZ, mantle zone. **b** Western blot analysis of total brain lysates from no-*Cre* control and *Nestin-Cre*–mediated *Tead1* and *Tead2* double knockout (*Tead1;2* dKO) and *Yap* and *Taz* (*Yap;Taz*) dKO mice. Note that a TEAD2 specific antibody was not available to us. Nevertheless, a pan-TEAD antibody showed that the levels of TEAD proteins were strongly reduced in *Tead1;2* dKO brains. **c** Immunostaining showing the neocortex of control and dKO mice, focusing on the VZ and SVZ regions. Blue color is DAPI signal. **d** Immunostaining and H&E staining showing the gross brain morphology of *Nestin-Cre*–mediated *Tead1* and *Tead2* single conditional knockout (cKO) mice.

Supplementary Fig. 2 | TEAD1/2 loss and YAP/TAZ loss similarly disrupt subpallial neuroepithelial apical juctions. Immunostaining with apical junction markers β-catenin, aPKC, and ZO-1 showing the medial ganglionic eminence. Arrows: apical junctions. Blue color is DAPI signal.

Fig. 2

Fig. 2 | TEAD1/2 loss and YAP/TAZ loss have distinct impacts on the lineage progression of subpallial neural progenitors. a Immunostaining on a E13.5 brain section, highlighting an apical progenitor (AP), a subapical progenitor (SAP), and a basal progenitor (BP). **b**, **c** Quantification of the proportion of pH3$^+$ cells found at different locations. **d** A schematic of proposed progenitor states during subpallial neural progenitor lineage progression. **e** Immunostaining and quantification of progenitors in each of the states defined by OLIG2 and ASCL1 immunosignal. N = 6 control mice with 3 from each line, N = 3 dKO mice. Areas in dashed boxes are enlarged in the images to the right. MGE, medial ganglionic eminence. LGE, lateral ganglionic eminence. Values in b, c, and e are mean ± SEM. Each data point represents an individual animal. Two-sided unpaired *t*-test. Unmarked comparisons (vs. control) did not show significant difference (*P* > 0.05).

Fig. 3

Fig. 3 | TEAD1/2 loss and YAP/TAZ loss have distinct impacts on the cellular output from subpallial progenitors. Immunostaining and quantification of neurons (TUJ1) in the MGE (dashed area), and immature interneurons (MAFB) and oligodendrocyte lineage cells (OLIG2 and SOX10) in the neocortex. Dotted lines mark the outer surface of the cortex. Areas in dashed boxes are enlarged in the images to the right. Values are mean ± SEM. Each data point represents an individual animal. Two-sided unpaired t-test. Unmarked comparisons (vs. control) did not show significant difference ($P > 0.05$).

Fig. 4

Fig. 4 | Single-cell RNA sequencing analysis reveals distinct impacts of TEAD1/2 loss and YAP/TAZ loss on MGE neural progenitor lineage progression. a Clustering of WT MGE cells (which included E12.5 WT, E14.5 *Tead1;2* control, and E15.5 WT cells; n = 42,876 cells after quality control) based on highly variable genes (HVG) visualized by UMAP. **b–d** UMAP visualizations of progenitor score, neuron score, and cell-cycle phase of WT MGE cells. **e** Cell cycle phase of WT progenitor cells (cells from clusters 2, 3, and 6 in **a**; n = 18,963 cells after quality control) visualized by UMAP using a curated list of transcription factors for feature selection. **f–h** UMAP visualizations of VZ score, SVZ-MZ score, and pseudotime of WT progenitor cells. **i** Clustering of WT progenitor cells based on the list of transcription factors at the resolution of 0.25. PS, progenitor state. **j** ScRNA-seq expression levels of indicated genes in each progenitor state. **k** Clustering of WT and KO MGE cells (which included E12.5 WT, E14.5 *Tead1;2* control and dKO, E14.5 *Yap;Taz* control and dKO, and E15.5 WT cells; n = 85,684 cells after quality control) based on HVG visualized by UMAP. **l–n** UMAP visualizations of progenitor score, neuron score, and cell-cycle phase of WT and KO cells. **o** Progenitor state annotation of progenitor cells (cells from clusters 2, 3, and 5 in **k**; n = 38,860 cells after quality control) visualized by UMAP using the list of transcription factors for feature selection. **p** Fraction of progenitor cells in each progenitor state. Values are mean ± SEM. Each data point represents an individual animal. Statistical test was performed using *propeller*. Unmarked comparisons (vs. control) did not show significant difference ($P > 0.05$).

Supplementary Fig. 3 | Single-cell RNA sequencing analysis reveals distinct impacts of TEAD1/2 loss and YAP/TAZ loss on MGE neural progenitor lineage progression. a Clustering of WT MGE cells based on highly variable genes (HVG) visualized by UMAP. E12.5 WT, 11,929 cells after quality control; E14.5 *Tead1;2* control, 15,124 cells; E15.5 WT, 15,823 cells. **b** Expression patterns (from Allen Developing Mouse Brain Atlas) of selected genes in the VZ and SVZ-MZ gene lists. **b′** A schematic of the E13.5 telencephalon showing subpallial regional organization. VZ, ventricular zone; SVZ, subventricular zone; MZ, mantle zone. **c** Cluster tree analysis of WT progenitor cells showing changes in cluster composition with stepwise increase of clustering resolution. **d** Clustering of E14.5 control and dKO MGE cells based on HVG visualized by UMAP. *Tead1;2* control, 15,124 cells; *Tead1;2* dKO, 18,406 cells; *Yap;Taz* control, 18,041 cells; *Yap;Taz* dKO, 6,361 cells. **e** Progenitor state annotation of progenitor cells visualized by UMAP using the list of transcription factors for feature selection. *Tead1;2* control, 7,172 cells; *Tead1;2* dKO, 9,648 cells; *Yap;Taz* control, 8,299 cells; *Yap;Taz* dKO, 1,954 cells. **f** Pseudotime density plot of progenitor cells.

Fig. 5

Fig. 5 | TEAD1/2 loss impedes developmental progression of subpallial neural progenitors. a Immunostaining and quantification measuring the cell cycle speed of MGE progenitor cells by EdU-BrdU sequential labeling. Areas in dashed boxes are enlarged in the images to the right. **b** Immunostaining and quantification of the fraction of FlashTag-labeled cells in each of the progenitor states defined by OLIG2 and ASCL1 immunosignal. Values are mean ± SEM. Each data point represents an individual animal. Two-sided unpaired *t*-test. Unmarked comparisons (vs. control) did not show significant difference (*P* > 0.05).

Fig. 6

a

UV response dn
Notch signaling
TGFβ signaling
Hedghog signaling
Wnt β-catenin signaling

E2F targets
Myc target v1
Oxidative phosphorylation
DNA repair
mTORC1 signaling

−log₁₀(adj.P.val)

Z-statistics

b

Notch signaling

adj.P.val = 3.8E−38

Enrichment score

Ranked list metric (PreRanked)

Size:30

High in dKO

Zero cross at 5283

High in control

Rank in Ordered Dataset

Enrichment profile   Hits   Ranking metric scores

c

Control   Tead1;2 dKO

Expression level

Notch1   Hes5

d

Notch1   Hes5

E13.5

Control   dKO   Control   dKO

500 μm

200 μm

Control   Tead1;2 dKO

Normalized signal

P = 0.008   P < 0.001

Notch1   Hes5

e

No Cre   Notch1^F/+;Nes-Cre   Tead1^F/F;Tead2^F/+; Nes-Cre   Tead1^F/F;Tead2^F/+; Notch1^F/+;Nes-Cre

P0

SOX2 ASCL1

200 μm

aPKC DAPI

CP   CP   CP   CP

200 μm

f

ASCL1⁺ cells per mm subpallial ventricular length (x 10³)

n.s.
P = 0.005   n.s.
n.s.

Fig. 6 | TEAD1/2 promote lineage progression of subpallial neural progenitors by inhibiting Notch signaling. a Top 5 enriched Hallmark gene sets by gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) comparing *Tead1;2* dKO to control PS2 cells. **b** Enrichment plot of the Notch_signaling gene set. **c** ScRNA-seq expression levels of *Notch1* ($log_2FC = 0.17$, adj.P.val = 0.001) and *Hes5* ($log_2FC = 2.24$, adj.P.val = 2.8E−143) in PS2 cells comparing *Tead1;2* dKO vs. control. **d** RNAscope in situ hybridization analysis of *Notch1* and *Hes5* expression in E13.5 brain sections. Areas in dashed boxes are enlarged in the images below. Mean fluorescence intensity in the MGE (total signals divided by area) were normalized to the mean intensity in a cortical VZ region within the same section. **e** Immunostaining of neural progenitors (SOX2 and ASCL1) and apical junctions (aPKC) in P0 brain sections. Arrows highlight disruptions in the VS and VZ-SVZ organization. CP, choroid plexus. **f** Quantification of ASCL1$^+$ cells located in subpallial VZ-SVZ in P0 brain sections. Values in **d** and **f** are mean ± SEM. Two-sided unpaired *t*-test; n.s., not significant ($P > 0.05$). Each data point represents an individual animal.

Supplementary Fig. 4 | Loss of VGLL4 does not notably perturb brain development. a ScRNA-seq expression levels of genes encoding proteins known to interact with TEAD in WT progenitor cells visualized by UMAP. **b** Number of live animals genotyped from $Vgll4^{\Delta/+}$ x $Vgll4^{\Delta/+}$ breedings. Tissue biopsies were collected between P3 to P7. **c** Western blot of total brain lysates from E14.5 no-*Cre* control and *Nestin-cre*-mediated *Vgll4* conditional KO (cKO) mice deleting exon 2. **d** Gross morphology of control and *Vgll4* cKO brains. E17.5 images are obtained from exon2 cKO line. P30 images are from exon3 cKO line.

Fig. 7

Fig. 7 | INSM1 interacts with TEAD and promote lineage progression of subpallial progeni-tors. a INSM1 expression pattern in E12.5 MGE examined by immunostaining. Dashed lines delineate VZ and SVZ boundary. **b** Co-immunoprecipitation experiment using 293T cells transfected with FLAG-tagged INSM1 or DLX2 (negative control) to examine the interaction between endogenous TEAD and FLAG-tagged proteins. **c** Examples of immunostaining and proximity ligation assay (PLA) images of adjacent E12.5 brain sections showing subpallial regions and quantification of PLA signals as fluorescent spots. (R), rabbit antibody; (M), mouse antibody. Each data point represents an individual embryo. **d** Immunostaining of neural progenitors (OLIG2 and ASCL1) and apical junctions (aPKC and ZO-1) in E14.5 MGE. **e** Quantification of progenitors in the states defined by OLIG2 and ASCL1 immunosignal. Values in c and e are mean ± SEM. Each data point represents an individual animal. Two-sided unpaired *t*-test. Unmarked comparisons (vs. control) did not show significant difference (*P* > 0.05).

Supplementary Fig. 5 | Characterization of *Insm1* cKO mice. a Western blot of total brain lysates from no-*Cre* control and *Nestin-cre*-mediated *Insm1* conditional KO (cKO) mice. **b** Immunostaining for neural progenitor (OLIG2) and apical junction (β-catenin) markers, showing MGE regions. Blue color is DAPI signal. **c** Immunostaining of neural progenitor cells and quantification of subpallial ASCL1-labeled cells.

Fig. 8

Fig. 8 | A model of TEAD function during subpallial development. During subpallial development, TEAD interacts with different partners in different progenitor subtypes/states to execute distinct functions. In apical progenitors (APs), TEAD interacts with YAP/TAZ to promote the expression of cell junction genes; whether TEAD also promotes self-renewal with YAP/TAZ remains to be determined. In subapical progenitors (SAPs) and possibly a subset of basal progenitors (BPs), TEAD interacts with INSM1 to promote lineage progression at least in part by inhibiting Notch signaling. N, neurons; O, oligodendrocytes; A, astrocytes. Created with BioRender.com.