Onset of differentiation is posttranscriptionally controlled in adult neural stem cells

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Dedicated to the memory of Bernd Fischer

SUMMARY

The contribution of posttranscriptional regulation of gene expression to neural stem cell

differentiation during tissue homeostasis remains elusive. Here we show highly dynamic

changes in protein synthesis along differentiation of stem cells to neurons *in vivo*.

Examination of individual transcripts using RiboTag mouse models reveals that neural stem

cells efficiently translate abundant transcripts, whereas translation becomes increasingly

controlled with the onset of differentiation. Stem cell generation of early neuroblasts involves

translational repression of a subset of mRNAs including the stem cell-identity factors Sox2

and Pax6 as well as translation machinery components. *In silico* motif analysis identifies a

pyrimidine-rich motif (PRM) in this repressed subset. A drop in mTORC1 activity at the

onset of differentiation selectively blocks translation of PRM-containing transcripts. Our data

uncovers how a drop in mTORC1 allows robust simultaneous posttranscriptional repression

of key stem cell identity-factors and translation-components and thereby stemness exit and

migration.

To generate olfactory bulb interneurons in the adult brain, ventricle-contacting NSCs exit the

dormant state to transit through a primed quiescent to an active state[1-3] and produce

neurogenic progenitors (NPs). NPs differentiate into neuroblasts (NBs) that migrate along the

rostral migratory stream to the olfactory bulb (OB) where they ultimately transform into new

granule and periglomerular interneurons[4,5]. Maintenance of NSCs throughout the life of the

animal critically depends on keeping them in a state of quiescence, which they entered during

embryonic development[6,7]. This dormant state features low protein synthesis[2] that is key to

maintain the pool of fully functional stem cells not only in the brain but also in the bone

marrow (haematopoietic stem cells: HSCs) and hair follicles (hair follicle stem cells: HFSCs)

[8-10]. With transition into the primed state, protein synthesis increases before actual division

[2,8,11]. However, how protein synthesis changes along the further steps of maturation has not

been studied.

Global protein synthesis is highly dynamic along stem cell differentiation to neurons

To address active protein synthesis during adult olfactory bulb neurogenesis, we FACS-

isolated multiple cell populations from the ventricular-subventricular zone (SVZ) and the

olfactory bulb based on their surface marker expression as previously described[2]. This

strategy enables distinction between quiescent NSCs (qNSCs, GLAST$^+$PROM$^+$), active NSCs

(aNSCs, GLAST$^+$PROM$^+$EGFR$^+$), neurogenic progenitors (NPs, only EGFR$^+$), early

neuroblasts (ENBs, PSA-NCAM$^+$ from SVZ) and late neuroblasts (LNBs, PSA-NCAM$^+$ from

OB, Fig. 1a). In addition, to overcome the challenging need of sorting neurons we isolated

cells from the olfactory bulb and identified by marker expression post fixation: LNBs

(DCX$^+$NeuN$^-$), early neurons (DCX$^+$NeuN$^+$) and mature neurons (DCX$^-$NeuN$^+$) (Fig. 1d).

Active protein synthesis per cell was quantified by incorporation of the aa-tRNA mimic

homologue O-Propargyl-Puromycin (OPP) into nascent proteins[12]. We confirmed that global

protein synthesis is very low in qNSCs and increases dramatically in aNSCs[2] (Fig. 1b-c). In

addition, we identified a further increase in neurogenic progenitors and a dramatic drop in

ENBs back to levels found in qNSC (Fig. 1b-c). To directly assess global protein synthesis in

ENB that exclusively derive from NSCs we used Tlx-CreER-eYFP reporter mice. Tlx-

recombined population overlapped with the previously characterized GLAST+PROM+

population of NSC, confirming that we are looking at the same subset of cells with Tlx-

labeling and FACS-isolation approach (Extended data Fig. 1a,b). Reporter-positive ENBs

exhibited a dramatic drop in OPP incorporation as compared to NSCs, similar to the drop

found in FACS-isolated populations (Extended data Fig. 1c,d). Thereafter, active protein

synthesis increases again in LNBs, which in contrast to ENBs are postmitotic and, thus, we

hypothesize that this increase potentially relates to the complex process of integration into the

neuronal network. Altogether these data support the idea that the need to differentiate and not

proliferation dictates the level of protein synthesis as previously reported for HFSCs[8]. From

LNBs to early and mature neurons active protein synthesis gradually decreases (Fig. 1 e,f),

supposedly because neurons rather need local proteome changes through localized

translation[13]. Indeed, a recent study addressing the axonal translatome by ribotagging

demonstrates that a subset of mRNAs with key axon-specific functions is highly enriched in

axons where they are locally translated[14].

RiboTag mouse models target distinct stages of neuronal differentiation

To address how transcript-specific translation relates to transcript abundance, we developed a

system for parallel assessment of the transcriptome and translatome of NSCs and their

progeny *in situ*. We used the RiboTag mouse line that carries a hemagglutinin (HA)-tagged

variant of the large ribosomal subunit RPL22 (RPL22-HA)[15], one of the most stable

ribosomal components[16] that is localized on the exposed solvent side of 60S and is not

involved in either mRNA or tRNA binding or ribosomal dynamics during translation[17].

Ribotag mice were bred with previously established cre-inducible fluorescent reporter mouse

lines, allows parallel ribosomal tagging and FACS isolation of the cell population of interest.

We generated Tlx-CreER-Rpl22.HA-eYFP (TiCRY) and Dcx-CreER-Rpl22.HA-eYFP

(DiCRY) mouse lines to target NSCs and their progeny, respectively (Fig. 2a).

As opposed to previous studies that have used this system to study terminally differentiated

cells[14,15,18], targeting of cells along their maturation stages requires (i) sufficient incorporation

of the tagged-RPL22 in functional ribosomes and (ii) no contamination of the target-

maturation stage by other stages. Thus, we first confirmed that this strategy allows targeting

of the maturation-stage of interest by immunohistochemistry for HA, eYFP and different

cellular marker (Fig. 2b-d and Extended Data Fig. 2g-k). We further confirmed efficient

incorporation of HA-tagged RPL22 into translating ribosomes and excluded potential changes

in global protein synthesis levels in cultured NSCs from TiCRY mice (Extended Data Fig. 2a-

f). Together, this characterization shows that careful selection of the reporter mouse line,

timepoints and regions allows simultaneous ribosome-tagging and fluorescent-labeling of

four distinct cell populations *in vivo* encompassing the complete adult OB-lineage

progression: NSCs, ENBs, LNBs and neurons.

RiboTag system allows parallel study of transcriptome and translatome

Next, to examine the transcriptome (total RNA) and translatome (Ribosome-bound RNA) we

extracted the different RNA fractions from these maturation stages *in vivo*.

Immunoprecipitation of HA-RPL22 allowed isolation of mRNAs bound to ribosomes

(RIBO+). To correct for unspecific binding of mRNAs we included samples of mock

immunoprecipitation of SVZ or OB tissue from Cre-negative animals (RIBO-). For isolation

of total RNA of the same target population, we sorted eYFP+-cells (RNA; Extended Data Fig.

3b). First we validated enrichment of the expected population-specific marker genes in the

RIBO+ and RNA fraction by quantitative RT-PCR (Extended Data Fig. 3a,c). Thereafter we

profiled the RNA from the RNA, RIBO+ and RIBO- fractions by next generation sequencing.

Sequencing results confirmed high enrichment for cell type specific transcripts both at the

level of transcriptome (RNAseq) and translatome (RIBOseq)(Fig. 3 a,b; Supplementary Table

1). While NSC transcripts were mostly restricted to NSCs in the SVZ, neuroblast genes were

already expressed at the level of NSCs (Fig. 3a). Similarly, expression of neuronal transcripts

started already at the immature stage of LNBs (Fig. 3b). To further investigate the

transcriptome and translatome, we performed differential expression analysis for stage

transitions solely based on RNAseq or RIBOseq data, respectively (Fig. 3c-e; Extended Data

Fig. 3d,e; Supplementary Tables 2, 3). Notably, the key core-regulators of neural

development were represented in the transcriptome and translatome throughout the transition

between the different differentiation stages (RNAseq and RIBOseq overlap) (Fig. 3c-e).

Collectively, these data demonstrate that our system can be used to obtain high purity

population (Extended Fig. 1c-e) and for integrated stage-specific transcriptome and

translatome analysis.

Transcriptome and translatome diverge during lineage progression

Intriguingly, our analysis additionally revealed the existence of subsets of genes that are

either less or more efficiently loaded onto ribosomes as compared to available mRNA (Fig.

3c-e). Besides, it showed a surprisingly low overlap between RIBO-seq and RNA-seq in the

transition from ENB to LNB (Fig. 3d). This is the only comparison of cells extracted from

two different regions, SVZ for NSC and OB for ENB, which highlighted the need of

normalization. Thus, in order to identify transcripts, whose binding to ribosomes is post-

transcriptionally controlled, we fit a linear model to explain the RIBOseq data by the RNAseq

data (representing default translation) and the RIBO- controls (representing background

binding) for each stage of interest (Fig. 4a). To identify targets with high confidence, we

restricted our analysis to protein coding, highly abundant transcripts (read count > 1000 in

RNAseq). Transcripts that were less abundant in RIBOseq compared to RNAseq (and RIBO-)

were entitled „repressed", suggesting that active mechanisms prevent them from ribosome

association. In contrast, transcripts with higher ribosome association than expected based on

RNAseq data and RIBO- data were entitled „enhanced", indicating that their ribosome

association is actively promoted. Our analysis revealed that abundant transcripts readily bind

to ribosomes in NSCs (Fig. 4b,c,f and Supplementary Table 4), indicating little post-

transcriptional regulation as previously reported in homeostatic HSCs[19]. Excitingly, with the

onset of differentiation we observed a higher divergence of transcriptome and translatome

(Fig. 4b,c,f, Extended Data Fig. 4a, and Supplementary Table 4). Neurons showed the highest

degree of uncoupling between RNAseq and RIBOseq. Notably, most analyzed genes showed

either repressed or enhanced translation as compared to their mRNA levels emphasizing the

important role of posttranscriptional regulation for neuronal differentiation and function. The

analysis of explained variance also confirmed that translation efficiency justifies a

significantly higher fraction of the RIBOseq data in neurons as compared to RNA abundance

(Extended Data Fig. 4b,c). We further examined the subset of transcripts sharing common

translational control at the different maturation stages (Fig. 4d-f). First, we observed many

transcripts exclusively repressed or enhanced at the ENB stage, some of which were validated

via western-blot (WB) and qPCR (Extended Fig. 4 d-f). Second, LNBs and neurons exhibited

the highest share of repressed transcripts, indicating that post-transcriptional repression of

translation already starts at the LNB stage and is kept in neurons. Collectively, these data

indicate that with differentiation to mature neurons, cells enter a mode of increasing

dependency on posttranscriptional control.

Stage-specific repression of Sox2 translation

We next focused on the exit of the stem-state for transitioning into migrating ENBs. This is

the first stage showing substantial control of ribosome binding of abundant mRNAs. Notably,

the subset of repressed transcripts comprised multiple ribosomal genes as well as the

prominent developmental transcription factors Pax6 and Sox2 (Fig. 4d). Sox2 and Pax6 have

a highly evolutionary conserved role in determining the stem cell identity of embryonic and

adult radial-glial progenitors together with Sox9[20]. In addition Sox2 is one of the factors used

to reprogram somatic cells into pluripotent stem cells[21]. To validate Sox2 sequencing profile

(Fig. 5a), we applied parallel *in situ* hybridization (ISH) for Sox2 mRNA and

immunohistochemistry (ICC) for Sox2 and Dcx protein in the Tlx-reporter mice. This

allowed simultaneous assessment of Sox2 mRNA and protein in NSCs and ENBs (Fig. 5b-d

and extended Fig. 5c). While both NSCs and ENBs showed substantial levels of Sox2

mRNA, protein expression was mostly limited to NSCs (Fig. 5c,d). Interestingly, ENBs

produce little Sox2 protein even when containing high levels of its mRNA. Comparison of

protein expression to mRNA abundance revealed a 2.8-fold reduction of Sox2 translation

efficiency from NSCs to ENBs. In addition, we independently confirmed that Sox2 shows

highest translation efficiency in NSCs as compared to NPs and ENBs in freshly sorted SVZ

cells via ISH and ICC but also via WB and qRT-PCR (Fig. 5e and Extended Data Fig. 5a-d).

Interestingly, NPs, whose maturation state lies between NSCs and ENBs, show an

intermediate efficiency for Sox2 translation (see regression lines), even if they displayed the

highest absolute levels of Sox2 mRNA and protein. These data demonstrate a gradual

repression of Sox2 translation in the transition from NSCs through NPs to ENBs.

Interestingly, Sox2-mRNA regains binding to ribosomes later in LNBs and neurons (Fig. 5a).

Thus, we further validated Sox2 translation in newborn neurons using DiCRY mice. While,

adult born neurons in the granular cell layer did not show any Sox2 protein expression,

periglomerular neurons exhibited high levels of Sox2 protein (Fig. 5f,g). Indeed, we identified

Calretinin-positive newborn periglomerular neurons as the only neurons in the olfactory bulb

expressing Sox2 protein (Fig. 5f,g). Thus, translation of Sox2 transcripts is transiently

repressed in ENBs and becomes re-expressed in a subset of newborn olfactory bulb neurons.

We next asked whether the set of 282 translationally repressed transcripts in ENBs would

share distinct features as compared to non-repressed transcripts. *De novo* motif analysis on

both untranslated regions (UTRs) as well as coding region of repressed transcripts discovered

enriched motifs in the 5' UTR including a stretch of pyrimidines (TCTTTC/CTCTTT,

Supplementary Table 5) that we coined pyrimidine rich motifs (PRMs). A stretch of

pyrimidines is also found in 5' terminal oligopyrimidine (TOP) motifs, which are particularly

sensitive to translation-mediated by mTORC1 activity[22]. Unlike the classical TOP motifs, this

PRM is not always located at the terminal end of 5'UTR. Similarly to TOP-containing

transcripts, PRM was found in transcripts encoding components of the translation machinery,

such as ribosomal proteins (Fig. 6a, Extended Data Fig. 6a). Interestingly, PRM-containing

transcripts were not repressed at the LNB stage despite the higher number of translationally

repressed transcripts at this stage (Fig. 6b). Thus, we hypothesized that mTORC1 activity

might be low in ENBs and high in NSCs and LNBs. This assumption is in conflict with the

reported phosphorylation of 40S ribosomal protein S6 (rpS6), used as readout of mTORC1

activity, in proliferating neuroblast, but not in SVZ-neural stem cells[23]. In order to visualize

phosphorylation of rpS6 specifically in NSCs and ENBs *in situ*, we used the Tlx-CreER[T2]-

eYFP reporter mouse in combination with immunofluorescence staining for Dcx. Notably,

phosphorylation of rpS6 (pS6) was low in all ENBs while NSCs showed heterogeneous levels

of pS6, probably reflecting their different activation status (Fig. 6c). We further assessed

expression of mTOR-related factors in freshly isolated ENBs and NSCs via WB. As predicted

from the Ribo-seq analysis (see supplemental material), ENBs exhibited a downregulation of

pS6 and phosphorylated-p70-S6K, and of total TSC2 and Rheb as compared to NSCs (Fig.

6d). In contrast, LNBs in the olfactory bulb showed significantly higher levels of pS6 than

neigbouring neurons (Extended Data Fig. 6f). Interestingly, neurons of the mitral cell layer in

the olfactory bulb showed high pS6 levels (data not shown), suggesting variability between

different neuronal subtypes regarding mTOR activity, which might translate into protein

synthesis rates. Thus, the drop of mTORC1 in ENBs but not LNBs could be the reason for the

specific repression of PRM-transcripts in ENBs. To experimentally validate the role of

mTORC1 in translation of the PRM-transcript Sox2 *in vivo*, freshly isolated ENBs were

acutely treated with membrane permeant phosphatidylinositol 3,4,5-trisphosphate

[PI(3,4,5)P3]. This lipid is produced upon nutrients and growth factor activation of PI3K and

mediates AKT activation of mTORC1[24]. ENBs were either treated with PI(3,4,5)P3 alone or

together with the mTOR inhibitor Torin1, which unlike rapamycin fully inhibits

mTORC1[22,25]. Thereafter, levels of pS6 and Sox2 proteins were assesed by ICC in single

cells. First, this assay confirmed that NSCs exhibit higher levels of pS6 and Sox2 than ENBs

(Fig. 6e). Second, exposure of ENBs to PI(3,4,5)P3 highly increased pS6 levels in ENBs to

levels comparable to NSCs (Fig. 6e). PI(3,4,5)P3-mediated pS6 increased could be inhibited

by Torin. Most importantly, PI(3,4,5)P3 also increased Sox2-protein levels in a mTORC1-

dependent manner, as Sox2 protein expression could be repressed by Torin (Fig. 6e). Next,

we wanted to examine the mTORC1-dependent rate of ribosomal load of PRM+ and PRM-

transcripts. To this end we turned to NSCs cultures to increase the input material and be able

to gain cell-fractions with distinct ribosome content via sucrose gradient fractionation of

Torin1- or vehicle-treated NSCs. Most PRM+ transcripts but not PRM- ones, shifted to the

lighter fractions upon Torin1-treatment, indicating that their translation depends on mTORC1

activity (Extended Data Fig. 6d). Surprisingly, this shift could not be detected for Sox2-

transcripts (Extended Data Fig. 6d,e). Therefore we compared the expression of mTORC-

related factors in cultured NSCs to expression in freshly isolated NSCs and ENBs. In cultured

NSCs were left untreated or treated with Torin or the EGFR inhibitor, erlotinib. The latter

was used to mimick the loss of EGFR occurring in NSCs transitioning to ENBs. Both Torin

and Erlotinib treatment of NSCs *in vitro* led to a transient reduction in pS6 and

phosphorylated-p70S6K, but not to lowering expression of the mTORC1-activator Rheb as

found between freshly isolated ENBs and NSCs (Fig. 6d and Extended Fig. 6 b,c). These

findings suggest that lineage transitions induced stoichiometric changes that cannot be

achieved by an acute inhibition of mTORC1. Surprisingly, Torin-treated cultured NSCs

exhibited a slight upregulation of protein expression of genes exhibiting enhanced translation

efficiency in the transition from NSCs to ENBs *in vivo* (Extended Fig. 6 e). These genes are

overrepresented in the neuron-differentiation- related gene ontology categories (Extended Fig.

6a). Thus, these data suggest that a drop of mTORC1 orchestrates posttranscriptional

repression of stemness and enhancement of neuronal differentiation processes. Along this

line, long-term activation of mTORC1 via deletion of TSC2 in human embryonic stem cells

generated neurons with increased expression of neural stem cell and proliferation markers

including SOX2, Nestin and PDNA and decreased expression of neuronal markers[26].

Altogether these data underline the importance of studying the molecular underpinnings of

lineage transitions *in vivo* and unveils a yet unrecognized differential sensitivity of targets to

long-term and short-term mTORC1 inhibition that needs to be addressed in future studies.

Thus, our data uncovers a way of regulation of components of the translation machinery and

neurogenic transcription factors via modulation of mTORC1-activity in the natural

environment of the brain. An activation of mTORC1-activity is found in injured muscle stem

cells, which transit from a quiescent (G0) to a quiescent primed state to finally enter cell cycle

(G alert)[11]. Yet the specific transcripts underlying mTORC1-control of G alert in muscle cells

remain unknown. Most importantly, this might represent a more general mechanism by which

mTOR controls stemness.

DISCUSSION

Altogether, this study demonstrates that the rate of active protein synthesis is tightly

controlled during stem cell differentiation into neurons. This general activation of protein

synthesis is required to exit the dormant state in NSCs[2] and muscle stem cells[11] and to activate

differentiation in skin stem cells[8] and drosophila germline stem cells[27]. Notably, impaired

drop of mTORC1 by deletion of TSC1 in single SVZ-NSC in the rodent brain, led to

generation of Dcx-negative cells with immature radial-like morphology that were unable to

migrate out of the SVZ[28]. Our data indicates that the observed impaired neurogenesis is due to

loss of translation arrest in ENBs needed to repress stem cell identity prior to a re-

establishment of protein synthesis in LNBs to allow neuronal maturation. There has been

long-standing discussions about the overall correlation of transcript- and protein abundance

with contradicting conclusions from identical datasets[29,30]. However, with the forthcoming of

refined mathematical models and latest technologies for quantification, it is believed that

mRNA levels largely explain protein abundance during steady state[31]. Notably, the study of

developmental lineage transitions *in vivo*, has allowed us to uncover a highly dynamic and

stage-specific regulation of translation efficiency. Whereas the transcriptome and translatome

highly correlate in stem cells during homeostasis, they become increasingly divergent with

the exit of the stemness state. The relatively large number of repressed mRNAs in our system

is not surprising if we remember that stem cells partially recapitulate some features of germ

cells, and the latter rely considerably on translational regulation instead of transcriptional

during most of their lifespan. Furthermore, recent data revealed embryonic origin of adult

NSCs[6,7]. The stock of mRNAs in the cytoplasm, stable but not translated, allows the cell to

respond quickly to stimuli. NSCs rearrange their morphology, contacts with the niche and

migrate to a new niche upon their differentiation. Thus, for such cells relying on post-

translational regulation might be crucial to be able to quickly adapt to fast-changing

environment conditions. Importantly, selective changes in translation efficiency have been

reported in oncogenic NSC in a spontaneous brain tumor model[32].

In early neuroblasts, a drop in mTORC1 activity programs a transient arrest in translation of

PRM+ transcripts, which include ribosomal genes and key evolutionary conserved

determinants of stem cell identity. Exit of stemness requires tight regulation to ensure

continuos production of differentiated progeny while maintaining the pool of stem cells.

Dysregulation of this transition is found in aging and cancer[33]. mTOR is hyperactivated in

90% of glioblastomas[34]. Notably, mTOR inhibition by rapamycin in glioblastoma abrogated

expression of Sox2 protein thereby reversing their chemoresistance to temozolomide[35]. Thus,

this study uncovers an unrecognized role of mTOR in stem cells that together with activation

of a G-alert state and proliferation contributes to explain the dependency of cancer stem cells

on mTOR activity. Besides, we identify a biological process in the adult brain *in vivo* that

critically depends on the selective sensitivity of PRM+ transcripts to mTOR-mediated

translation. Likewise, despite loss of mTORC activity, a subset of mRNAs increased their

translation efficiency. The main effect of mTOR on translation is the phosphorylation and

inactivation of 4EBP proteins, which associate and inactivate a cap-binding initiation factor

eIF4E responsible for 40S subunit recruitment to mRNAs. Those mRNAs, showing high

dependence on the cap structure and eIF4E, are among the most sensitive to mTOR activity.

Many such mTOR-sensitive mRNAs encode the most abundant proteins in cells, including

ribosomal proteins. These mRNAs are very efficient in translation and form a class of so-

called "strong" mRNAs[36]. However, the advent of the next-generation sequencing technology

revealed a considerable number of mRNAs, which show resistance to mTOR repression and

even get stimulated[22,37]. Additional studies found out that many such mRNAs are less

dependent on eIF4E and can apply other mechanisms of 40S recruitment independent on the

eIF4E-cap interaction[38]. These mRNAs could use isoforms of initiation factors eIF4E and

eIF4G, which do not bind 4EBP repressors and could confer less dependence on mTOR to the

corresponding mRNAs. Furthermore, these mRNAs being less competitive upon optimal

conditions get considerable advantages upon the repression of "strong" mRNAs, relishing

uncompetitive availability of ribosomes, tRNAs, and translation factors. Although, the

specific elements of such mRNAs providing mTOR independence are not yet well described,

recently discovered capability of N6-methylated adenines localized in the 5'-UTRs to directly

attach 40S in an eIF4E-independent manner might be one of those[39].Our motif analysis solely

revealed enrichment in the coding region of a consensus motif for m6A "CGCAAC" (as

shown in table S5), though this is not sufficient to explain escape from mTORC1 inhibition.

Future studies of N-6-methylated adenines should further our understanding of increased

translation efficiency in the frame of low mTORC1 activity for this set of transcripts.

In summary, our data offers a comprehensive genomic view on translational control during

neuron generation in the adult brain, adding a novel layer to our knowledge of the molecular

mechanisms controlling stem cell differentiation.

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R/Bioconductor software package will be made available upon acceptance on the authors'

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METHODS

Mice

Male transgenic mice of DiCRY (Dcx-CreER-Rpl22.HA-eYFP) and TiCRY (Tlx-CreER-

Rpl22.HA-eYFP) lines were used between 8 and 12 weeks of age for all sequencing

experiments. These mice were generated by mating of RiboTag mice (B6N.129-

Rpl22tm1.1Psam/J, purchased from The Jackson Laboratory) with Tlx-CreER-eYFP mice[40]

or Dcx- CreER-eYFP mice[41]. Additionally, TiCROMATO mice (Tlx-CreER-Rpl22.HA-

Tomato) were used whenever eYFP expression was considered to be too weak. All mice were

backcrossed to a C57BL/6 background.

All further experiments using transgenics were conducted using both male and female mice

up to 16 weeks of age. Recombination was induced by oral gavage of tamoxifen (TAM,

Sigma-Aldrich) at a concentration of 200mg/kg body weight (volume ~100μL; solved in 90%

sunflower oil/10% EtOH). TAM was administered twice per day for a total of 2-3 injections

and the experiments were conducted 3-4 days after recombination, since ribosome turnover in

the brain takes several days[42]. The conditions varied slightly between mouse lines due to

recombination efficiencies and total number of cells.

C57BL/6 male mice between 8 and 12 weeks of age were used for all other experiments. All

mice were bred inhouse at the DKFZ Center for Preclinical Research. Animals were housed

under standard conditions and fed ad libitum. All procedures were in accordance with the

DKFZ guidelines and approved by the Regierungspräsidium Karlsruhe.

Cell sorting

Animals were sacrificed by cervical dislocation and brains were immediately placed on ice.

The lateral SVZ was microdissected as a wholemount as previously described[43], further the

olfactory bulb were dissected. Tissue of 1-2 mice was used per replicate (SVZ or OB) for

sequencing experiments. Tissue of up to five mice was pooled per sample for OPP

experiments. Tissue was digested with trypsin and DNase according to the Neural Tissue

Dissociation kit in a Gentle MACS Dissociator (Miltenyi). For sequencing experiments

endogenous eYFP fluorescence was used to identify cells of interest. For OPP experiments

cells were sorted as previously described[2] using following antibodies: GLAST (ACSA-1)-PE

(Miltenyi, 1:20), APC-Cy™ 7 CD45 (BD, 1:200), O4-APC (Miltenyi, 1:50), Prominin

PerCP-eFluor710 (eBioscience, 1:75), PSA-NCAM-PE-Vio770 (Miltenyi, 1:50), conjugated

EGF-Alexa488 (Life Technologies, 1:100). During cell sorting, Sytox blue (Thermo Fisher

Scientific, 1:1000) was used to exclude dead cells. For transcriptome analysis, 200-500 cells

were sorted directly into Picopure lysis buffer (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Sequencing

libraries were prepared as described in the following section for immunoprecipitation

samples.

RiboTag immunoprecipitation and sequencing

RiboTag immunoprecipitation was conducted essentially following the original protocol[15]

with minor modifications. Animals were perfused with Hank's Balanced Salt Solution

(HBSS) supplemented with the translation inhibitor cycloheximide (CHX, 200 µg/ml) for

stabilization of RNA-ribosome complexes. Tissue of interest was dissected and placed in

tubes containing 1.4mm ceramic beads (PEQLAB). Homogenization buffer (50mM Tris HCl,

100mM KCl, 12mM Mg_2Cl, 1% NP-40, 1mM DTT, 1x Roche complete protease inhibitor,

200U/mL RNAsin from Promega, 100µg/mL CHX, 1mg/mL Heparin) was added to a weight

per volume ratio of 3% (e.g. 0.015g in 500µL) and tissue was homogenized using Minilys

Personal Homogenizer (Bertin Instruments). Samples were centrifuged and supernatant was

used for immunoprecipitation. Anti-HA antibody (Covance, 1:100) was added for four hours

(indirect conjugation) following addition of Protein G magnetic beads (100µL, prewashed

with homogenization buffer, Thermo Fisher Scientific) and overnight incubation (all steps at 4°C). Supernatant was discarded and beads were washed three times for ten minutes in high salt buffer (50mM Tris HCl, 300mM KCl, 12mM Mg$_2$Cl, 1% NP-40, 1mM DTT, 100μg/mL CHX). Finally, beads were resuspended in Picopure lysis buffer (supplemented with β-mercaptoethanol, 10μL/1mL, Sigma) and RNA was isolated by Picopure RNA isolation kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific) following the manufacturer's protocol. For enrichment analysis, fraction of the RNA was converted to cDNA using the SuperScript VILO kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Sequencing libraries were prepared using Smart-seq2 technology as previously described[44]. Reverse transcription was performed using an oligo (dT) primer and a locked nucleic acid (LNA)-containing template-switching oligonucleotide (Exiqon). Full-length cDNAs were amplified by 15-18 cycles of PCR using KAPA HiFi DNA polymerase (KAPA biosystems). cDNAs were then converted into libraries for Illumina sequencing according to the Nextera XT Sample Preparation (Illumina) protocol. Samples were sequenced in an Illumina HiSeq 2000.

Cell culture

For NSC isolation, 8-12 week old wild type C57BL/6 or TiCRY mice (one week post induction) were sacrificed by cervical dislocation. A wholemount of the SVZ was microdissected[43] and cells were isolated using trypsin (or papain) and DNAse according to the Neural Tissue Dissociation kit in a Gentle MACS Dissociator (Miltenyi). NSCs were cultured in Neurobasal medium (Thermo Fisher Scientific) supplemented with 20 ng/ml of basic fibroblast growth factor bFGF and epidermal growth factor EGF.

Freshly sorted cells for OPP administration (translation analysis) or RNA *in situ* hybridization were plated in Poly-D-lysine- and laminin-coated Lab-Tek chambers (Thermo) in Neurobasal medium lacking growth factors. OPP was added to the culture (50μM) two hours after plating and one hour after incubation cells were fixed for 20min using 2% paraformaldehyde (PFA) in the medium. For RNA *in situ* hybridization cells were fixed for 20min using 2% PFA in the medium two hours after plating.

Erlotinib, Torin1 and PI(3,4,5)P3 **treatment**

Primary NSCs were exposed to erlotinib (5 μM, stock in DMSO; SIGMA-Aldrich) or Torin1

(250 nM, stock in DMSO) for the indicated time periods. The solvent DMSO was used as a

vehicle control. Thereafter cells were collected in lysis buffer and analyzed by western blot.

For the PI(3,4,5)P3 (PIP3) treatment, NSCs and ENBs were sorted from SVZ and either

resuspended in Neurobasal media with the growth factors or fixed with 2% PFA. Thereafter,

ENBs were either treated with PIP3 or PIP3/Torin1. Torin1 (250nM) treatment was done for

5 min prior to PIP3 stimulation. PIP3/AM(DOG) synthesized as previously described[45], was

prepared as a stock solution of 50mM in DMSO and stored at −80°C. Just before used PIP3

was mixed with 20% pluronic F-127/DMSO solution (Invitrogen) in a 1:0.5 ratio to facilitate

cell entry. The PIP3/AM/pluronic/DMSO mixture was resuspended in 50μl ENB-medium to

a final concentration of 10μM and immediately added to cells for 10minutes. Thereafter, PIP3

was removed and fresh medium and additional Torin1 was added for further 2hrs. The control

sample was treated with DMSO as a vehicle control. Cells were fix and further process for

immunocytochemistry (ICC).

Western Blot analysis and qPCR

Around 10^4 freshly sorted NSCs and ENB cells were collected in PBS with 10% FBS on ice

for protein analysis by western blot. For re-probing, membrane stripping was performed

according to the protocol from Cell Signaling technologies. For primary cultures, cells were

collected, washed with PBS and lysed as described before.

The following primary antibodies were used for western blot analyses. Phos EGFR Tyr1068

(rabbit, 1:1000), EGFR (rabbit, 1:1000), phos S6 Ser240/244 (rabbit, 1:1000), S6 (rabbit,

1:10,000), phos p70 S6K Thr421/Ser424 (rabbit, 1:1000), p70 S6K (rabbit, 1:1000) and

Tuberin/TSC2 (rabbit, 1:1000) were from Cell Signaling Technologies; DUSP4 (rabbit,

1:800), RHEB (mouse, 1:1000), RPS20 (rabbit, 1:1000), Sox2 (rabbit, 1:1000), VASH2

(rabbit, 1:1000), vinculin (rabbit, 1:5000) were from Abcam; actin (rabbit, 1:1000) and

RPL22 (mouse, 1:1000) were from Santa Cruz; Sp8 (rabbit, 1:1000) was from Millipor; PLP1

(chicken, 1:400) was from Neuromics; anti-HA (mouse, 1:1000) was from BioLegend.

For qPCR analysis of mRNA abundance in freshly sorted NSCs and ENBs, we collected

around 5,000 cells of each type. For primary NSCs in culture, around 10^5 cells were used.

Total RNA was extracted with the Picopure RNA isolation kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific).

cDNA was synthesized using the SuperScript VILO kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific). qPCR

reactions were performed in three technical replicates with the Power SYBR™ Green PCR

Master Mix (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and QuantiTech primers specific for mouse genes

(Qiagen). Cycles of amplification were made in the CFX384 Real-Time System (Bio-Rad).

Excel (Microsoft) was used to analyse the qPCR data.

Immunocytochemistry, immunohistochemistry and RNA *in situ* hybridization

Cells were fixed for 20min at room temperature using 2% PFA in the medium. Staining was

performed using standard procedures with following antibodies: anti-Sox2 (mouse, Abcam,

1:500) and anti-pS6 Ser240/244 (rabbit, Cell Signaling, 1:1000). OPP visualization was done

after all staining steps. For this, the alkyne group of OPP was detected using an Alexa488- or

Alexa647-coupled azide according to the Click-iT Cell Reaction Buffer Kit (Life

Technologies).

For tissue staining, mice were transcardially perfused first with HBSS and then with 4% PFA,

following overnight postfixation. Vibratome sections of 50-70μm were prepared for tissue

staining only, for RNA *in situ* hybridization cryosections of 11-13μm were prepared.

Following antibodies were used for ICC/IHC: anti-DCX (goat, Santa Cruz, 1:500), anti-DCX

(guinea-pig, Merck Millipore, 1:1000), anti-pS6 Ser240/244 (rabbit, Cell Signaling, 1:1000),

anti-NeuN (mouse, Merck Millipore, 1:500), anti-pH3 (mouse, Merck Millipore, 1:500), anti-

GFAP (mouse, Merck Millipore, 1:1000), anti-GFAP (rabbit, Merck Millipore, 1:1000), anti-

HA (mouse, Covance, 1:1000), anti-GFP (chicken, Aves, 1:1000), anti-RFP (rabbit,

Rockland, 1:1000), anti-Sox2 (goat, Santa Cruz, 1:500), anti-Sox2 (rabbit, Abcam,

1:1000),anti-Calretinin (rabbit, Merck Millipore, 1:1000), anti-GLAST (guinea pig, Frontier,

1:1000), anti-Mash1 (rat, RDI Fitzgerald, 1:500).

RNA *in situ* hybridization was performed using RNASCOPE Multiplex Fluorescent Assay

(Advanced Cell Diagnostics) with one major modification of the protocol: To allow

subsequent protein staining we skipped pretreatment steps as it is described in the

manufacturer's protocol and instead only did extended (15min, 95°C) heat-based target

retrieval using a modified citrate buffer (Target Retrieval Solution, Dako). Additional

immunofluourescence was done following the mRNA detection following standard

procedures.

Polysome fractionation and protein/RNA isolation

Polysome fractionation for cultured cells with subsequent protein and/or RNA isolation was

performed essentially following a previously published protocol for CNS tissue leaving out

initial steps of tissue preparation[46]. Cells were acutely treated for 5 min with cycloheximide

in culture medium (100μg/mL) and subsequently collected, washed in PBS/CHX and lysed in

polysome lysis buffer (PLB, 20 mM Tris HCl, pH 7.4, 5 mM $MgCl_2$, 120 mM KCl, 1%

Nonidet NP40, 100μg/mL CHX, 1x Roche complete protease inhibitor, 200 U/mL RNAsin

from Promega, 14 mM b-mercaptoethanol). Lysates were centrifuged and the supernatant was

added on sucrose gradients (17.5-50%). Samples were centrifuged for 2.5 hours at 35.000rpm

at 4°C in an ultracentrifuge (Beckman L8M). Samples were fractionated in 12 fractions

containing one mL sample using an Isco fractionator while monitoring absorption at 254nm

wavelength. RNA isolation was performed using acidic Phenol-Chloroform-Isoamylalcohol

(PCI, 25:24:1, Thermo Fisher Scientific). Alternatively, proteins were precipitated using

trichloroacetic acid (TCA).

Imaging

Confocal images were acquired using a Leica TCS SP5 confocal microscope. Image J was

used for processing and images were only adjusted for brightness and contrast. For OPP

quantifications, all images within compared groups were acquired with identical settings.

Analysis was performed in ImageJ software using a custom-written macro for unbiased

segmentation and quantification of pixel intensity and cell size. OPP quantifications are

depicted as the integrated pixel intensity within a cell and normalized to a reference group

within the same experiment. In graphs, mean and SD are shown. Illustrator CS5 (Adobe) was

used for figure assembly.

Processing and analysis of RNAseq and RIBOseq data

Sequence reads from both RNAseq and RIBOseq samples were aligned to the mouse

reference genome (ENSEMBL Release 80) and the ENSEMBL gene annotation (Release 80)

using the STAR alignment algorithm version 020201[47] with the proposed the ENCODE

settings to generate gene-specific raw count values. Expected gene counts and TPM values

(transcripts per million) were computed using RSEM (version 1.2.21)[48] with bowtie2 (version

2.2.6) with the same genome and verison and annotation. Differential gene expression

analysis between developmental stages of the RNAseq data was conducted by the

R/Bioconductor package DESeq2[49]. Thereby p-values were computed by fitting a negative

binomial distribution and subsequent testing by a Wald test. P-values were corrected for

multiple testing by controlling the false discovery rate applying the method of Benjamini-

Hochberg. For RIBOseq data the same analysis was applied to analyze the differential

abundance of ribosome bound RNA.

To assess the translation efficiency, genes with an average log2 read count of at least 10 were

considered. At first, a linear model was fitted for each replicate individually to explain the

RIBOseq data by a linear combination of RNAseq data (representing efficient translation) and

RIBO- (representing tissue background expression). Analysis of variance of this part provides

the proportion of variance that is explained by RNAseq and by RIBO- in each replicate

separately. The RIBOseq signal that cannot be explained by RNAseq or RIBO- can be

explained by either enhanced or repressed translation. To assess, if the detected enhanced or

repressed translation was statistically significant, we compared the two replicates and test, if

the remaining signal is different from zero by applying a moderated t-test implemented in the

R/Bioconductor package limma[50]. P-values were corrected for multiple testing by the method

of Benjamini-Hochberg. At this stage the analysis of variance provides the proportion of

variance that can be explained by translation efficiency (correlated signal) and the remaining

unexplained variance (uncorrelated signal) that is most likely of technical source. Full

documentation of computational analysis can be found as a supplementary document.

De novo **motif analysis**

3' UTR, 5'UTR and protein coding sequences of all protein coding genes were tiled in 6-mer

nucleotide sequences. For each developmental stage separately, for translationally repressed

and enhanced genes separately, and for 3'UTR, 5'UTR and coding sequence separately, an

unbiased motif analysis was performed. For each possible 6-mer, the number of genes

containing the tested 6-mer in the set of repressed (enhanced) genes and in the remaining

genes was computed. A p-value was computed by a binomial test and corrected by the

method of Benjamini-Hochberg. All over- or underrepresented motifs at a false discovery rate

of 10% were reported (Supplementary Table 5).

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

a

Sox2

Motif Analysis

5′ UTR   coding   3′ UTR

Sox2   --- GCTGC CTCTT TAAGA ---
Pax6   --- GCACC CTCTT TTCTT ---
Rpl18 --- GGCCG CTCTT TCCCC ---
Rps17 --- GTTTC CTCTT TTACC ---

⬤ Pyrimidine-rich motif (PRM)

b

- Total repressed
- PRM+ repressed
- PRM+ unregulated

number of genes

c

DAPI   pS6   Merge
DCX   Tlx-YFP   LV

d

TSC2
vinculin
p-p70 S6K
total-p70 S6K
p-S6
total-S6
RHEB

e

NSCs Co   ENBs
Co   PIP3   PIP3/Torin

Sox2

pS6

Extended Data Figure 1

a

b

% of TOMATO+

c

Extended Data Figure 2

Extended Data Figure 3

Extended Data Figure 4

Extended Data Figure 5

Extended Data Figure 6