1 **Capicua regulates neural stem cell proliferation and lineage specification through control of**
2 **Ets factors**
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ABSTRACT

Capicua (Cic) is a transcriptional repressor mutated in the brain cancer oligodendroglioma. Despite its cancer link, little is known of Cic's function in the brain. Here, we investigated the relationship between Cic expression and cell type specification in the brain. Cic is strongly expressed in astrocytic and neuronal lineage cells but is more weakly expressed in stem cells and oligodendroglial lineage cells. Using a new conditional *Cic* knockout mouse, we show that forebrain-specific *Cic* deletion increases proliferation and self-renewal of neural stem cells. Furthermore, *Cic* loss biases neural stem cells toward glial lineage selection, expanding the pool of oligodendrocyte precursor cells (OPCs). These proliferation and lineage selection effects in the developing brain are dependent on de-repression of Ets transcription factors. In patient-derived oligodendroglioma cells, CIC re-expression or ETV5 blockade decreases lineage bias, proliferation, self-renewal and tumorigenicity. Our results identify Cic is an important regulator of cell fate in neurodevelopment and oligodendroglioma, and suggest that its loss contributes to oligodendroglioma by promoting proliferation and an OPC-like identity via Ets overactivity.

INTRODUCTION

The identification of genes recurrently mutated in cancer often presents opportunities to uncover previously unappreciated mechanisms regulating normal development, and vice versa. The transcriptional repressor Capicua (*CIC*) has been identified as a likely tumour suppressor gene, as recurrent mutations in *CIC* and/or reduced expression of CIC are found in several cancer types. In the brain, *CIC* mutations are nearly exclusively found in oligodendrogliomas (ODGs) – glial tumors that are composed of cells resembling oligodendrocyte precursor cells (1, 2). Indeed, concurrent *IDH1/2* mutation, single-copy whole-arm losses of 1p and 19q, and mutation of the remaining copy of *CIC* on

chr 19q13 are highly characteristic of ODG and are not found in other cancer types (3-5). These

associations suggest a unique relationship between CIC and glial biology.

Prior work in Drosophila and in mammalian cultured cells has shown that Cic is a transcriptional

repressor downstream of receptor tyrosine kinase (RTK) signalling (6). Binding of Cic to the sequence

T(G/C)AATG(G/A)A in enhancers and promoters leads to transcriptional repression of its target genes

(7, 8). This default repression is relieved upon RTK signalling (6, 9-11), permitting transcription of

targets – among which are *PEA3/ETS* transcription factors *ETV1/4/5* (12). To date, there is limited

knowledge of Cic's function in mammalian development or in the brain. Recently, Yang et al. using *Cic*

conditional knockout mice, reported that Cic loss increases a population of proliferating Olig2+ cells in

the brain, and that) loss of Cic potentiates glial tumorigenesis in a glioma model driven by *PDGFR*

(13). The mechanisms by which Cic loss caused those findings, however, remained undefined.

Meanwhile, in the non-neoplastic context, Lu et al. recently showed that impairing the interaction of the

Cic with the protein Ataxin 1 results in spectrum of neurobehavioral and neurocognitive phenotypes,

as well as abnormal maturation and maintenance of populations of cortical neurons (14) – indicating a

role for Cic in neuronal biology as well.   Deciphering Cic's mechanisms of action as a

neurodevelopmental regulator may shed light on these varied phenotypes resulting from Cic loss or

abnormal function.

Here, we examine the temporal and spatial pattern of Cic expression in the mammalian cerebral

cortex and white matter, and take a loss-of-function approach to determine its role in neuronal-glial

identity determination. Our results reveal an important role for Cic in regulating the proliferation and

lineage specification of neural stem cells during development – with loss favoring NSC proliferation

and glial production at the expense of neuronal production. Furthermore, we show that these effects

are mediated largely through Cic's regulation of Ets factors. The proliferative dysregulation is

recapitulated in oligodendroglioma cells, where CIC re-expression or blockade of Ets activity reduces

tumorigenicity. Our findings reveal an important role for CIC in development and oligodendroglioma,

and suggest that Etv5 may be a potential therapeutic target.

RESULTS

Nuclear Cic levels are cell type- and stage-specific

As an initial step to investigating Cic's potential function in forebrain development and

oligodendroglioma, we examined its expression in several regions and cell types in the mouse brain.

Immunofluorescence staining for CIC and cell-type specific markers revealed that all cell types

examined have some detectable level of Cic protein, whether cytoplasmic or nuclear. Because of Cic's

previously identified role as a transcriptional repressor, however, we were particularly interested in the

nuclear levels and quantitated Cic nuclear staining intensity across cell types and stages.

Focusing first on the stem cell compartment, we assessed tissue from the dorsal telencephalon (the

anlage of the neocortex) at embryonic day (E) E12. At this early neurogenic stage, non-lineage

restricted neural stem cells (NSCs) are found in the ventricular zone (VZ) where can be identified by

their spatial location and their expression of the transcription factor Sox2 (15). In embryonic Sox2+ VZ

cells, Cic was localized predominantly in the cytoplasm, with relatively weak nuclear expression

(Figure 1A). This distribution is consistent with the previous demonstration that growth factor/RTK

signaling is locally elevated in the embryonic VZ (16, 17) and that Cic nuclear export is regulated by

ERK-mediated Cic phosphorylation (6, 9-11). Pools of stem/progenitor cells are not limited to

development, but also persist postnatally in the subventricular zone (SVZ) of the lateral ventricle and

in the subgranular layer (SGL) of the hippocampal dentate gyrus (18, 19). In the SVZ and SGL of

postnatal day (P) P21 and P56 mice, Cic was also weakly expressed within the nucleus in the Sox2+

compartment – in contrast to stronger nuclear expression in adjacent differentiated cells (Figure 1B,C).

Thus, in both the embryonic and postnatal brain, neural stem cells are characterized by low levels of

nuclear Cic.

As cells differentiated, Cic was increasingly localized to the nucleus, but with notable differences

between the levels detected in neuronal, astrocytic, and oligodendrocytic cell lineages.   In the adult

(P56) cortex, NeuN+ neurons displayed the strongest nuclear Cic (Figure 1I). The increase in Cic

within the neuronal lineage was detectable during the process of embryonic neurogenesis, with a

modest increase detected as cells transitioned from Sox2+ stem cells to Tbr2+ neuronal intermediate

progenitors, followed by a more marked elevation in Tbr1+ post-mitotic neurons in the intermediate

zone and cortical plate – where nuclear Cic levels approached those of mature neurons in the adult

cortex (Figure 1G,H,I, J). In GFAP+ or Aldh1+ astrocytes in the cortex and underlying white matter,

nuclear Cic levels also increased relative to Sox2+ cells (Figure 1D,J; Supplemental Figure S1A).

Among the three major lineages, the lowest levels of nuclear Cic were found in the oligodendroglial

lineage.   Olig2 is a bHLH transcription factor that is expressed in cells at or before oligodendrocyte

specification and continues to be present throughout the stages of oligodendroglial differentiation (20,

21). Within the Olig2+ population, the subset of Pdgfra+ cells indicative of oligodendrocyte precursor

cells (OPCs) had the lowest levels of all, with a modest increase in CNPase+ immature

oligodendrocytes, and a further increase in mature CC1+ oligodendrocytes (Figure 1E, F, J; and Suppl

Fig S1). Overall, the mean integrated nuclear signal intensity for Cic was significantly lower in Sox2+

and Pdgfra+ cells than in NeuN+ cells (p < 0.0001), Tbr1+ cells (p < 0.0001), or Gfap+ cells (p < 0.01)

(Figure 1J and Suppl S1).

As both NSCs and OPCs are cell types that are proliferation-competent, this pattern of lower nuclear

Cic in NSCs and OPCs, and higher nuclear Cic expression in neurons and astrocytes, raised the

possibility that nuclear CIC bound to its target genes may repress proliferation-related genes and/or

early oligodendroglial-promoting programs. We tested these hypotheses with a series of loss-of-

function studies.

Cic-deficiency results in increased glial populations and decreased neuronal populations
during forebrain development

Cic contains several critical domains including an HMG-box and a C-terminal C1 domain that together
bind to DNA, and a C-terminal Gro-L domain that mediates protein-protein interactions (10, 22-25).
We generated *Cic* conditional knockout mice in which exons 2-11 of *Cic* gene were flanked by loxP
sites, with the floxed region containing all exons encoding the HMG box. Upon introduction of Cre,
exons 2-11 are excised and the remaining exons 12-20 are frameshifted, thus ablating the HMG box,
C1 domain, and Gro-L domain (Figure 2A). We used these animals for in vivo studies as well as to
generate cell lines with which we could further study proliferation and lineage selection in a cell-
autonomous manner.

By crossing *Cic*-floxed mice to *Foxg1-Cre* mice (in which *Cre* is expressed throughout the forebrain by
E10.5 (26)), we generated mice deficient in CIC in the embryonic telencephalon and subsequent
postnatal cerebrum (Figure 2A,B). $Cic^{Fl/Fl};FoxG1^{Cre/+}$ animals were born in approximate Mendelian
ratios and were grossly indistinguishable at birth. They failed to thrive postnatally, however, becoming
visible runts by postnatal day 7, and were uniformly lethal by P22 when they did not survive past
weaning. The reason for lethality is unclear. Gross and cursory light microscopic exam showed the
presence of the expected major anatomic structures in the brain, as well as the presence of laminated
cortex, white matter tracts, deep nuclei, and hippocampi. The cerebra of Cic-null brains, however,
were smaller than littermate controls (Figure 2C, Suppl Fig 2). We have not found major anatomic
defects in other organs and suspect that poor feeding secondary to impaired neurologic function may
be related to their progressive decline.

Microscopic exam showed that the overall decrease in cerebral size in CIC forebrain-null animals was
due to global decreases in volume that affected both gray matter and white matter structures (Suppl

Fig S2A-C). The corpus callosum of null animals was thinned but showed abnormally increased

cellularity (Suppl Fig S2B). The cortex was also thinner in Cic-null brains, again showed increased

cellularity (Suppl Fig S2C,D). Interestingly, cortical neuronal density was not significantly different

between the two (Suppl Fig S2E), suggesting that the increased cellularity in the mutant brains could

be due to increased glia, and also that the total number of cortical neurons was decreased (same

neuronal density, but an overall smaller cortical volume).

Closer evaluation of P21 cortices confirmed this shift in cell populations, with decreased neurons and

increased oligodendroglia cells and astrocytes in Cic-null cortices and white matter compared to

controls (Fig 2D,D',E,E'). In Cic-null cortices, NeuN+ cells comprised 76.6±2.5% of total cells; whereas

in controls that were either CIC-floxed but without Cre ($Cic^{Fl/Fl}$; $FoxG1^{+/+}$) or that were heterozygous for

Cic loss ($Cic^{Fl/+}$; $FoxG1^{Cre/+}$), NeuN+ cells comprised 82.04±2.78% of the total cells (n=5, p<0.05). In

contrast, Gfap+ cells were increased in knockout relative to wild-type cortices (12.46±1.49 CIC-null *vs.*

9.61±1.39 Cic-wt; 1.29-fold change; n=5, p<0.05). Olig2+ cells were also increased in Cic-null cortices

compared to controls (10.83±1.47% *vs.* 4.99±0.87%, in Cic-null vs control, respectively; 2.17-fold

increased; n=5, p=0.0001), a finding corroborated by an increase in Sox10+ cells (11.72±1.83% *vs.*

7.43±0.94%; n=5, p=0.0001). In the progression along the oligodendrocyte lineage, the relative

distribution of cells was also altered. Olig2+Sox2+ cells were increased in Cic-null animals

($CIC^{Fl/Fl}$;$FoxG1^{Cre/+}$ 13.67±2.89%   vs. Control 4.31±1.33%; n=3, p<0.01)(Suppl Fig S3) as were

Olig2+Pdgfra+ OPCs (44.53±3.80% of cells Olig2+Pdgfra+ in $CIC^{Fl/Fl}$;$FoxG1^{Cre/+}$ *vs.* 28.20±1.95% in

controls; p<0.01). In contrast, CNPase+ cells were comparatively decreased ($CIC^{Fl/Fl}$;$FoxG1^{Cre/+}$

38.0±9.78% *vs.* Control 72.92±3.88%; n=5, p<0.0001) (Figure 2E,E'). Mbp expression in the white

matter was also decreased in $Cic^{Fl/Fl}$;$FoxG1^{Cre/+}$ brains (n=6, p < 0.01) (Figure 2E,E').

One possibility that could explain such a skewing of cell populations could be that there was increased

death in a particular population. However we found no evidence of increased apoptosis in the

knockout brains (Suppl Fig S4E). Other possibilities, were that Cic loss could be increasing

proliferation and affecting lineage selection in NSCs, or that Cic loss could have specific effects on

OPC proliferation and maturation – possibilities that are not mutually exclusive. In the following work,

we focus our investigations on Cic's role at the NSC stage, and examine its role in proliferation and

lineage selection.

CIC increases proliferation of neural stem cells

Others recently reported proliferative gains upon loss of Cic (13), and we too found evidence of this.

By electroporating pCIG2-Cre (or pCIG2 empty vector control) into $Cic^{Fl/Fl}$ embryos, we could study the

effects of Cic loss in a discrete population of VZ cells and their subsequent progeny (schematic Figure

4A). 48 hours after Cre electroporation into VZ NSCs at E13 (early to mid-neurogenesis), EdU

incorporation was markedly increased, as were the numbers of Sox2 positive cells. Among GFP+

cells, EdU+ cells were increased by 2.6-fold in cre- vs. control-electroporated brains (pCIG2-Cre

9.99±0.92% Edu+, n=4, *vs.* pCIG2-Empty; 3.77±0.81%, n=5, p<0.0001)(Figure 3A,A'). The fraction of

GFP+ cells expressing Sox2 was also increased (pCIG2-Cre 11.09±1.10% Sox2+ vs. pCIG2-Empty

5.48±1.01%; n=4 and n=5, respectively; p<0.05) (Figure 4B,B'). There was no change in activated

Caspase-3, indicating that the increased Sox2+ fraction in Cic-deleted cells was not due to increased

apoptosis in other cells (Suppl Figure S4D,D'). Together, these findings supported a cell-autonomous

increase in NSC proliferation with CIC loss. Of note, there was also an increase in Edu+ cells among

non-GFP cells within the area of the electroporated patches, suggesting additional non-cell

autonomous effects that we did not pursue.

To confirm the cell autonomous gains in NSC proliferation with CIC ablation, we turned to cell culture.

Cic null and control NSC lines were derived from E15 *Cic*-floxed cells transfected ex-vivo with Cre or

control plasmids (Figure 3B). When maintained in serum-free NSC proliferation media, Cic-null and

control cells both maintained expression of NSC markers such as the intermediate filament protein

nestin (Figure 5A,B). When Cic-null and control cells were seeded at equal numbers and grown in

NSC proliferation media, however, Cic-null cells displayed a 3-fold increase in cell numbers relative to

controls by 3 days post-plating (Cic-null; 2.90±0.44, n=4, *vs.* Cic-wt; 0.98±0.12, n=3, p<0.01) (Figure

3C). These data were corroborated by Alamar blue cell viability assay (Suppl Figure S4A), Ki-67

immunostaining (Figure 3D) and cell cycle analysis (Figure 3E), all of which showed increased

proliferation in Cic-null cultures compared to controls. There were no significant differences in the

numbers of dead cells (Suppl Figure S4C), supporting that the differences in viable cell numbers for

Cic-null cells was due to their higher proliferative rates, rather than reduced cell death. Together, the

data show that Cic is a strong negative regulator of proliferation in forebrain NSCs.

Cic loss alters mode of cell division and self-renewal

During mammalian neurodevelopment, the stem cell pool is first expanded by symmetric proliferative

cell divisions followed by rounds of asymmetric divisions of stem and progenitor cells, which generate

neurons and then glia, and finally by terminal symmetric differentiative divisions (18). The balance

between symmetric and asymmetric divisions is important for maintaining the stem/progenitor pool,

and alterations in cell division mode can lead to neoplasia (27).

To investigate whether *Cic* loss alters modes of cell division, we performed a paired cell assay. *Cic*

null and control NSCs were seeded at low density in adherent cultures for 24 hrs, then fixed and

stained for Ki-67 (Figure 3G). Pairs where both daughter cells were Ki67+ were scored as symmetric

proliferative divisions. Pairs where daughter cells differed in Ki67 expression (i.e. Ki67+/Ki67-) were

scored as asymmetric. Pairs where both daughter cells were Ki67- were scored as symmetric

terminal. *Cic* null cells underwent significantly more frequent symmetric proliferative divisions (77.6 ±

10.2% vs. 24.3 ± 4.9%; p < 0.01, n=3) and fewer asymmetric divisions (9.7 ± 1.2% vs. 64.0 ± 7.1%; p

< 0.05, n=3) compared to controls (Figure 3H). No significant difference was found in numbers of

symmetric terminal divisions between *Cic* null and control cells, although there was a trend toward

decreased terminal divisions in CIC null cells (12.7 ± 8.1% vs. 25.0 ± 6.5%; n=3, p = 0.108)(Figure

3H). The net effect of these is the presence of more cycling and self-renewing cells.

Consistent with this, evidence for increased self-renewal in the Cic null cells was also detected in a

clonogenic assay (Figure 3F). In this assay, after plating equal numbers of dissociated cells in semi-

solid media, a higher number of spheres indicates higher number of self-renewing cells in the initial

population, whereas sphere volume is a more general indicator of proliferation that includes the

influence of factors such as cell cycle kinetics, modes of cell division, and the fraction of cells

remaining in or exiting the cell cycle. Both Cic-null and control NSCs were able to generate spheres,

but Cic-null NSCs NSCs generated higher sphere counts (n=3; p < 0.0001) and larger spheres

compared to control (n=3; p<0.0001)(Figure 3F,F',F''). Thus, Cic loss confers not only higher

proliferation but higher self-renewal capacity in NSCs, at least when cells are in an environment

promoting NSC proliferation.

Cic ablation in NSCs increases the pool of cells expressing glial lineage determinants

While the proliferative effects of Cic deficiency in NSCs were clear, what was intriguing was the

additional possibility that Cic loss may be affecting lineage selection in NSCs. As the $Cic^{Fl/Fl};FoxG1^{Cre/+}$

phenotype was characterized by a shift in cell populations with fewer neurons and increased glia

(Figure 2), we thus asked whether Cic loss had altered the expression of factors important in

regulating lineage selection and gliogenic potential.

To this end, we examined the expression of Sox 9 and Olig2 in Cic-wildtype and -null NSCs. Sox9 is

an HMG-box transcription factor present in a range of CNS cell types, including stem cells, astrocyte

and oligodendroglial precursors, and later glial cells. It has key roles not only in stem cell maintenance

but also in driving differentiation programs away from neurogenesis and towards gliogenesis of both

astrocytes and oligodendrocytes at the stage of gliogenic initiation (28-30). Similarly, Olig2 is

expressed in a multitude of cells including stem cells, oligodendroglial lineage cells, and specific subtypes of neurons; but it has a major role in establishing oligodendroglial competence. In our control or cre-electroporated brains where Cre was introduced at E13, we found that the fraction of GFP+ cells expressing Sox9 was 2.5-fold increased over controls at 2 days post-electroporation (pCIG2-Cre; 15.97±1.69% *vs.* pCIG2-Empty; 6.37±1.60%, n=4 p<0.05) (Figure 4C,C'). Following the targeted cells to E18 (5 days post-electroporation) revealed that a smaller fraction Cic-deleted NSCs subsequently became Tbr1+ early-born/deep-layer neurons (pCIG2-Cre 1.66±0.91% *vs.* pCIG2-Empty 4.62±1.04%; n=5, p<0.01) (Figure 4D,D'). Conversely, a greater number fraction became Aldh1+ astrocytes (pCIG2-Cre 3.65±1.31%, n=5, *vs.* p-CIG2-Empty 1.664±0.91%, n=6; p<0.05) or Pdgfra+ OPCs (pCIG2-Cre 13.29±1.04%, *vs.* p-CIG2-Empty 5.87±2.54%; n=4; p<0.01) (Figure 4C,C',E,E').

These findings were echoed in the expression of stem and lineage markers in the cultured NSCs. As expected, when cells were grown in NSC media, both Cic-null and control cells both strongly expressed Nestin, and were largely devoid of Gfap or the pan-neuronal marker βIII-Tubulin (as detected by Tuj1)(Figure 5A,B), or markers of subsequent oligodendrocyte stages, including OPCs, mature, and myelinating oligodendrocytes (not shown). There, was, however, a marked increase in the percentage of cells expressing Sox9 and Olig2 in Cic-null cultures (Figure 5A,A'). Sox9+ cells were increased 3.04-fold in Cic-null cultures compared to control (Cic-null 37.4±3.6% *vs.* Cic-wt 12.3±2.1%; n=3, p < 0.01)(Figure 5A,B) while Olig2+ cells were increased 2.09-fold (Cic-null 29.8±2.9% *vs.* Cic-wt 14.2±3.5% in controls; n=3, p<0.01) (Figure 5A,A'). Western blotting also corroborated the findings (Figure 5B). A possible interpretation of the increased Sox9 and Olig2 concurrent with Nestin positivity in Cic-null cells is that Cic loss may set an intrinsic foundation for pro-glial or pro-oligodendroglial programs starting early in the neural cellular hierarchy.

Cic-deficient NSCs are less responsive to extrinsic neuronal and astrocytic lineage selection cues, but are biased to oligodendroglial lineage selection

299 To directly test cell type specification capacity, we challenged Cic-null and control NSCs with exposure

300 to different lineage-promoting culture conditions. Neuronal differentiation was induced by culturing

301 cells with B27 and cAMP. Astrocytic differentiation was induced by culturing NSCs in 1% FBS and N2.

302 Oligodendroglial differentiation was induced by culturing cells in media with B27 and tri-iodo-thyronine.

303 After a 10 day exposure to these conditions, cultures were analyzed for cellular identity and

304 morphology.

306 After 10 days in the neuronal condition, fewer Tuj1+ cells were generated in absolute numbers in Cic

307 null cultures compared to controls after plating equal numbers of starting cells (1.967 ± 0.36 $\times10^3$ vs

308 2.929 ± 0.33 $\times10^3$ Tuj1+ per well in Cic-null vs control; $p<0.05$)(Fig 6G) – a finding corroborated by

309 western blotting for Tuj1 (Figure 5C'). Furthermore, of the cells that were Tuj1+, we observed fewer

310 and less complex cell processes in the Cic-null cells than in their Cic-wildtype counterparts (Figure

311 5C). In the astrocytic condition, there were fewer absolute numbers of Gfap+ cells in the Cic-null

312 cultures (1.471 ± 0.15 $\times10^3$ vs 2.74 ± 0.55 $\times10^3$ Gfap+ per well in Cic-null vs control, $p<0.05$) (Fig 6F).

313 Western blotting also showed decreased GFAP (Figure 5D'). Analogous to our observation in the

314 neuronal differentiation condition, Gfap+ Cic-null cells in the astrocytic differentiation condition

315 displayed more rudimentary processes than their Cic-wildtype counterparts (Figure 5D). In both of

316 these conditions, there were only a few proliferating cells remaining after the differentiation protocols,

317 consistent with successful differentiation. In both conditions, there was also no change in apoptotic

318 cells (Suppl Figure S4F-F'''). When viewed as fractions of the total cell population, Cic-null cultures

319 were comprised of a significantly smaller fraction of bIII-Tub+ (Tuj1+) neurons in the neuronal

320 condition (CIC-null 24.0±9.2% *vs.* CIC-wt 67.8±8.5%, respectively; n=3, $p<0.01$) and a significantly

321 smaller fraction of Gfap+ cells in the astrocytic condition (29.1±5.5% in Cic-null *vs.* 68.2±10.4% in Cic-

322 wt; n=3, $p <0.01$)(Figure 5C,D). Thus, with normal CIC expression, NSCs that are exposed to neuronal

323 conditions become neurons (as expected), but CIC-deficient NSCs do not as readily select the

324 neuronal lineage when exposed to the same neuronal-inducing conditions. Likewise, most CIC-wt

325 NSCs that are exposed to astrocytic conditions become astrocytes (as expected), but CIC-null NSCs

do not as readily select the astrocytic lineage when exposed to the same astrocyte-inducing

conditions. Together, the data indicate that Cic-deficient NSCs are less responsive to external cues

for neuronal and astrocytic lineage specification.

We then asked what the Cic-null NSCs became, if not neurons and astrocytes, respectively. In the

neuronal condition, the Tuj1- population was predominantly comprised of Sox2+ cells, followed by

Olig2+ cells; together, half of the culture was comprised of either Sox2+ (31%) or Olig2+ cells (19%)

after exposure to the neuronal conditions (Figure 6B',B'''). Of the Sox2+ and Olig2+ cells present,

however, less than 1% were EdU+, and there was no significant difference between the proliferation

rate of Sox2+ or Olig2+ cells in the Cic-null vs. control cultures in the neuronal condition (Figure 6D-

E). There was also a small but non-significant increase in the percentage of Gfap+ cells in the Cic-null

cultures compared to control. In the astrocytic culture condition, the Gfap- population was also

comprised predominantly of Sox2+ cells and, to a lesser extent Olig2+ cells, both of which were

significantly increased in the Cic-null cultures compared to controls. 36% of the Cic-null cells in the

astrocytic condition still expressed Sox2 after the 10-day protocol (Figure 6A'''). Tuj1+ cells were rare

in the astrocytic condition in both Cic-null and control cultures. These data further support that CIC-

deficient NSCs are less responsive to neuronal and astrocytic lineage cues, and instead remain as

stem cells that are permissive to the oligodendroglial lineage.

After 10 days in the oligodendrocyte-promoting media both Cic-null and wildtype cultures contained a

mix neurons, astrocytes, and oligodendrocytes; however the distributions of cells between cell types

and also along stages of oligodendrocyte lineage progression were altered. There was a higher

fraction of Olig2+ cells in Cic-null cultures compared to control (Cic-null 68.0±1.6% *vs.* Cic-wt

54.1±0.9%; n=3, p < 0.01) as well as increased Olig2 by western blotting (Figure 5E). When analyzed

for markers of OPCs versus more mature oligodendroglial markers, Cic-null cells also had a greater

percentage of Olig2+ Pdgfra+ cells than in Cic-wildtype cultures (Cic-null 68.8±2.4% vs. Cic-wt

39.3±3.8%; n=5, p < 0.0001)(Figure 5E). Conversely the percentage of Olig2+MBP+ cells was

decreased in Cic-null cultures compared to controls (Cic-null 2.1±1.5% vs. Cic-wt 8.2±3.0%; n=5, p <

0.0001)(Figure 5E). Of the few Cic-null Olig2+MBP+ cells that were identified, process formation was

rudimentary compared to Cic-wildtype cells.   With respect to other cell types present in the

oligodendroglial culture conditions, Sox2+ cells were increased in Cic-null cultures compared to

control, whereas both Tuj1+ and Gfap+ cells were reduced (Figure 6C-C''').

The results suggest to us that Cic-null cells are less sensitive to neuronal or astrocytic differentiation

signals but retain permissiveness to the oligodendroglial lineage. Cumulatively, based on the pattern

of cell-type specific nuclear Cic expression in forebrain tissue together with the in vivo and in vitro

functional studies of Cic ablation, we conclude that Cic is a critical regulator of proliferation, self-

renewal, and cell fate of NSCs. Loss of Cic expands the OPC pool by not only increasing NSC

proliferation but also biasing their specification towards the oligodendroglial lineage.

Ets factors are transcriptional repressive targets of Cic in the forebrain

As Cic is a transcriptional repressor, one mechanism for our findings is that Cic loss de-represses

specific genes driving NSC proliferation and lineage specification. In this respect, *Etv* genes, which

encode Ets-domain transcription factors, are candidate target genes of interest. *Etv* genes (Etv 1, 4, 5)

have been identified as direct targets of Cic in various mammalian cells and tissues (12, 31), and are

overexpressed in ODGs (32). Furthermore, previous studies have documented Cic occupancy at the

Etv5 promoter, at least in cerebellar tissue (33). Consistent with a possible functional relationship

between CIC and Ets factor gene regulation in the forebrain, we found that NSCs and OPCs, the two

cell types that have the lowest levels of nuclear Cic, express the highest levels of Etv4 and 5 (Figure

7F-K; Supplemental Figure S5B-D'). We also confirmed that in forebrain tissue, *Etv5* showed evidence

of promoter occupancy by Cic via ChIP-PCR (Figure 7C).

If Ets factors are the mediators of the effects of CIC loss that we observe, we would expect their levels

to be elevated in our experimental systems of CIC loss. Indeed, we found that *Etv4* and *Etv5*

transcript levels were elevated in cultured Cic-null cells compared to control cells after 2 days of

growth in oligodendroglial conditions. *Etv5* mRNA was increased ~37 fold while *Etv4* transcripts were

increased ~19 fold in Cic-null cells versus control cells whereas *Etv1* transcripts were unchanged

(Figure 7A). Western blotting also confirmed marked increases in levels of Etv4 and Etv5 in Cic-null

cells (Figure 7B). Although both *Etv4* and *Etv5* were both de-repressed upon Cic loss, because of the

comparatively higher levels of Etv5 relative to Etv4, as well as previous studies implicating *Etv5* in

mediating glial fate decisions (34), we focused additional studies on this Ets factor. In vivo

electroporation of *Cic* shRNA into the telencephalic VZ resulted in upregulation of *Etv5* transcript in the

electroporated patch within 48 hours (Figure 7D). Our *Cic*-floxed, Cre-electroporated brains showed a

similar increase in Etv5 protein in the electroporated patch (Figure 7E). In aggregate, these data

support that the PEA3 Ets transcription factors are transcriptional repressive targets of Cic in the

forebrain.

Ets de-repression mediates the proliferative and oligo-biased phenotype of *Cic*-deficient NSCs

To determine whether the increased proliferation and OPC bias that we observed with CIC ablation

was mediated by Etv5, we overexpressed wild-type *Etv5*. In vivo, electroporation of wild-type *Etv5*

phenocopied the increase proliferation of CIC-null cells in vivo (Figure 8D, D', S6A). Similarly, *Etv5*

overexpression acutely increased proliferation of cultured NSCs (Figure 8F, S6C'). We also performed

epistasis experiments introducing a dominant negative form (*DNETV5*) in which *Etv5* was fused to the

Engrailed transcriptional repressor domain. Introduction of *DNETV5* or knockdown of *Etv5* with siRNA

reduced the proliferation of cultured *Cic*-deficient NSCs back to control levels (Figure 8F-G, Suppl

Figure S6D). In vivo, the increased proliferation observed upon deletion of *Cic* by cre-electroporation

was abrogated by co-electroporation with *DNETV5,* resulting in proliferation that was comparable to

baseline (Figure 8E, E' compared to 8D,D'; Figure S6). Based on the extent of the effects of *Etv5*

overexpression and *DNETV5* rescue in these assays, we conclude that the proliferative effects of Cic

loss are large driven by de-repression of Etv5.

With respect to the altered proportions of cell types that we had observed in CIC-deficient NSCs

exposed to the different lineage-specific culture conditions, overexpression of wild-type Etv5 also

phenocopied CIC loss in many respects. There were decreased fractions of Tuj1+ cells and Gfap+

cells in the neuronal and astrocytic conditions, and increased fractions of Olig2+ and Olig2+Pdgfra+

cells in the oligodendrocytic condition when Etv5 was overexpressed – although the severity of the

changes was somewhat less marked with Etv5 overexpression compared to Cic loss. DNETV5 was

also able to substantially (although incompletely) rescue the phenotype of Cic-deficient cells in these

assays. In the neuronal and astrocytic conditions, DNETV5 significantly increased the populations of

Tuj1+ and Gfap+ cells, respectively. The shifts in Olig2+ cells and Olig2+Pdgfra+ OPCs returned to

control levels (44.6±12.0% in *Cic^{null};DNETV5* cells *vs.* 62.5±14.6% in *Cic^{null}* cells; n=3, p<0.05). The

percentage of cells expressing MBP also showed a substantial although partial rescue (5.3±2.9% in

Cic^{null};DNETV5 cells *vs.* 2.1±1.5% in *Cic^{null}* cells; n=3, p < 0.05) (Figure 8C-C'). That the extent of the

changes for the lineage selection assays with Etv5 overexpression and DNETV5 rescue were partial

suggests that other factors may contribute to the lineage specification affects, nevertheless the results

point to Etv5 as playing a large part in the lineage phenotype.

Thus, Etv5 is both necessary and sufficient for inducing the proliferation and cell fate bias effects

downstream of CIC loss.

Ets blockade decreases proliferation, self-renewal, and tumorigenicity of human

oligodendroglioma cells

Finally, we used 2 oligodendroglioma cell lines, BT54 and BT88, to further investigate the importance

of *CIC* mutation/loss in human disease. Both of these patient-derived lines harbour the characteristic

whole-arm chromosome 1p and 19q losses that are diagnostic of ODG (35). As well, BT54 harbours a

splice acceptor site mutation in the remaining *CIC* exon 6 while BT88 harbours a missense mutation in

the remaining *CIC* exon 20 (3). In both BT54 and BT88, either stable re-expression of wildtype CIC or

stable expression of *DNETV5* significantly reduced proliferation as measured by EdU incorporation

(Figure 9A,A',C). Sphere-forming ability was also decreased by *CIC* expression or by introduction of

DNETV5 (Figure 9B,B',B'',D,E). These results were also confirmed by transient siRNA experiments to

knock down Etv5 in BT-88 cells that also showed decreased proliferation and sphere formation (data

not shown). Consistent with an ongoing requirement for CIC loss or Etv5 expression for proliferation

and self-renewal in ODG, in vivo tumorigenicity of BT88 cells was markedly reduced, and survival of

animals was increased, by stable expression of either wildtype *CIC* or *DNETV5* (Figure 10). Thus, in

cells that are already transformed to ODG, CIC loss and the subsequent elevation of Etv5 remains

important to sustain the proliferative phenotype.

A similar finding was observed when we assessed the ODG cell lines' ability to differentiate in

response to oligodendrocyte differentiation conditions. Both CIC re-expression and DNETV5 similarly

resulted in increased expression of CNPase in the ODG cells compared to respective control cells,

indicating at least some improvement in capacity for the tumour cells to differentiate and mature

(Figure 9F,F' bottom row panels; Suppl Fig S7). Interestingly, however, effects on neuronal and

astrocytic differentiation, were mixed (Figure 9F,F' top and middle row panels). Cic re-expression

resulted increased the ability of cells to respond to extrinsic neuronal differentiation cues by increasing

expressing bIII-Tubulin (TUJ1) and extending neurites; however this was not phenocopied by

DNETV5. With respect to expression of GFAP in response to astrocytic differentiation cues, no

significant differences were detected with either CIC re-expression or DNETV5 introduction compared

to BT-88 control. The latter data suggest that other genetic (or epigenetic) alterations may be more

central to driving or maintaining some specific aspects of the tumour cells' phenotypes, at least in our

cultured system. The effects on differentiation in vivo were not evaluated, however, as the lesions

resulting from implantation of CIC- or DNETV5-expressing BT88 cells were too small to provide

meaningful cell numbers for assessment.

Taken together, our results indicate that Cic regulates NSC proliferation and cell fate in

neurodevelopment and oligodendroglioma, and that the pro-proliferative and pro-OPC phenotypes

observed with Cic loss are largely mediated through Ets transcriptional de-repression.

DISCUSSION

Genomic analyses of brain cancers have suggested that *CIC* functions as a tumor suppressor gene in

diffuse gliomas, particularly ODGs (3, 4, 36). Yet, to date, knowledge of *CIC*'s role in the brain has

been limited. Here we report previously undescribed cell type specific differences in CIC expression in

the brain. Moreover, our functional work examining *Cic* function in forebrain development and in

oligodendroglioma cells provides new insight into the roles of this putative tumor suppressor in

regulating the developmental fate of neural stem/progenitor cells.

We found that genetic ablation of Cic biases cells neural stem cells away from neuronal lineage

specification to the selection of glial lineages. Adding to knowledge that RAS/MAPK pathway

signaling regulates the switch from neurogenesis to gliogenesis, with *ETV5* implicated in mediating

gliogenic competence (17, 34), our results firmly place *Cic* at the intersection of RAS pathway

signaling and *Etv5* in the brain, providing a missing link between extrinsic differentiation signals and

the execution of transcriptional programs critical for normal neuro- and glio-genesis. With respect to

Cic and the anti-neuronal bias that we observed, recent work by Lu, et al. found that disrupting Ataxin-

1 (Atxn1)-Cic complexes resulted in abnormal maturation and maintenance of upper-layer cortical

neurons – with concomitant effect on behavior, learning, and memory (14). It is unknown, however,

the extent to which the effects could be due to specific Ataxin-Cic interactions versus Cic abnormality

alone. Our studies, which primarily focused on early lineage selection events, did not systematically

address questions of cell maturation (although some of our in vitro morphological findings are

consistent with a neuronal maturation defect). Future work would be needed to define the complex

neuronal dependencies on Cic, not only in the forebrain but also in the cerebellum where Cic

pathology has also been implicated (37) (38).

With respect to neural stem cell proliferation, glial fates, and the implications for ODG; our findings

build on the recent observation by Yang, et al. that CIC deficiency increases a population of

proliferating OPCs in the brain (13). Our work is not only consistent, but now provides a mechanistic

foundation for the observations with identification of symmetric cell division alterations, dissection of

lineage selection effects and identification of a downstream mediator. Together, they provide tangible

links between *CIC* loss and ODG biology – as both dysregulated proliferation and the persistence of

an immature OPC phenotype are cardinal features of this cancer. Many parallels exist between normal

OPCs and the cells comprising ODG. In common, both OPCs and ODGs express PDGF, PDGFR,

and NG2, which control OPC differentiation (39, 40). Together, the results may thus explain some of

these phenotypic features of ODG, and consistent with other reports suggesting that dysregulation of

OPCs or OPC-like cells are amongst the early changes in experimental models of gliomagenesis (2,

41).

There are some notable differences between the work reported by Yang, et al. (13), however, and our

studies. One difference is that the prior study used HOG cells that, despite their historic name, do not

carry the ODG-defining genetic features of 1p19q loss or *CIC* mutation; similarly the Pdgfra-

amplified/overexpressed mouse glioma model used is more akin to an RTK-driven GBM than it is to

ODG. In deploying the BT-88 and BT-54 models (which genetically and phenotypically faithfully

recapitulate ODG), our work may be closer to clinical relevance for ODG. Another difference is that

our studies also further clarify the early neuronal-glial fate decision effects of NSCs, with the bias away

from neuronal fates and toward glial fates in the setting of CIC loss. Most importantly, however, we

now identify *Ets* de-repression as a key mechanism underlying much of the phenotypic effects of Cic loss in NSCs.

Our observation that *DN-Etv5* alone can abrogate so much of the pro-proliferative and pro-OPC phenotype resulting from *Cic* loss was somewhat unexpected. In support of a role specifically for Etv5, our observation that it is the most upregulated factor upon Cic loss, our Etv5 overexpression studies (in vivo and in vitro), and our in vitro Etv5 siRNA experiments all lend independent support pointing to the requirement for this particular Ets factor. However, we do not exclude that other Ets factors such as Etv4 may also contribute. The dominant negative construct may not be entirely specific for inhibiting Etv5 alone; such cross-reactivity has been reported with similar approaches, and further experiments would be required to dissect the relative contribution of different Pea3 factors or other subfamilies of the Ets genes. Nevertheless, the identification of this family of genes as a likely mediator is salient to the development of future therapeutic strategies for ODG. Although it is thought that transcription factors are difficult to target, reports of inhibition of other Ets factors either through peptidomimetic or small molecule approaches (42-44) lend hope that Etv5 could potentially be inhibited for clinical benefit.

Finally, although our findings are relevant to ODG biology, it is recognized that our studies do not directly model the genesis of ODG. Indeed, despite the increase in proliferation observed in Cic-null cells, no tumors were detected when following for up to one year after *Cre* electroporation of the *Cic* floxed mice (data not shown) – in keeping with the concept that several collaborating genetic hits are necessary for oncogenic transformation. Our *Cic* conditional knockout mice, however, will be a useful tool for a future more refined cell type- and stage-specific deletion of *Cic* along with the introduction of other mutations such as of *IDH1*(R132H) (45). We conceptualize *IDH1/2* mutations as a first event in ODG, causing epigenetic changes that that serve to expand the potential pool of cells vulnerable to transformation, with second-hit loss of *CIC* serving to dysregulate proliferation, bias cells to oligodendroglial lineage, and delay them in an immature state. Additional studies using experimental

models and human ODG samples are needed to further dissect the relationship of *CIC* mutation to

IDH mutation. Although one recent study used single-cell RNA-Seq to examine ODG cell

subpopulations and did not detect any differences between ODG cells with and without *CIC* mutation

aside from the increased expression of PEA3 Ets factors, the number of cells analyzed was limiting for

resolution of cell type specific differences, and functional studies had not been performed (46). Similar

approaches with larger cell numbers might provide further insight into the biology of ODG with respect

to *CIC*.

In summary, we provide evidence that Cic regulates proliferation, fate decisions, and differentiation in

neural stem cells, with loss particularly expanding the OPC population. Furthermore, our findings

indicate that disruption of the Cic-Etv axis (with abnormal de-repression of *Etv5* downstream of *Cic*

loss) is central to the biology of ODG.

METHODS

Mice

CD1 outbred mice (Jackson Labs) were used for Cic expression analyses.

Cic conditional knockout (*Cic*-CKO) mice were generated at Taconic Artemis by homologous

recombination to flank Cic exons 2-11 with loxP sites. The exons targeted are 2-11 of *Cic* short form,

transcript variant 1, NM_027882.4 (equivalent to exons 3-12 of the *Cic* long form, NM_001302811.1,

Cic transcript variant 4). The targeting vector was generated using clones from the C57BL/6J RPCIB-

731 BAC library, and consisted of a 4.0 kb 5' flanking arm, neomycin resistance cassette (flanked by

FRT sites), 5.5 kb loxP-flanked region, a puromycin resistance cassette (flanked by F3 sites), and 6.0

kb 3' flanking arm. After homologous recombination in C57BL/6N Tac ES cells, generation of chimeric

animals, and germline transmission, Neo^R and Puro^R cassettes were removed via Flp recombination

by breeding with a Flp deleter line. The

final CIC-CKO allele carries loxP sites in introns 1 and 11, and single residual FRT and F3 sites.

Expression of Cre recombinase results in deletion of exons 2-11 and frameshifting of the remaining

CIC-S exons 12-20. Genotyping primers were as follows: CIC 5' flanking region (192 bp wt, 348 bp

CKO allele) 5'- AGG AGG TTG TTA CTC GCT ATG G -3' (forward) and 5'- CTG ATG TCC TAA GAC

CTT TAC AAG G -3' (reverse); CIC 3' flanking region (273 bp wt, 410 bp CKO) 5' – CTG TGT CAC

TGT CTG CCT TCC -3' (forward) and 5' – TGG GTA ATA CCA CCG TGC C – 3 (reverse)'.

FoxG1-cre mice (Jackson Labs) were bred to *Cic*-CKO mice to generate telencephalic CIC knockouts

and littermate controls. After euthanasia, dissected brains were processed for histology, western

blotting, or cell culture. Knockout in tissue or cells post-cre was confirmed by Q-RT-PCR using

primer/probe sets for CIC (Applied Biosystems) and by Western blotting with anti-Cic.

In all mouse experiments, the morning of vaginal plug was designated embryonic day 0.5 (E0.5). Both

males and females were used.

In utero electroporation

In utero electroporation was performed as described previously [1] using the following plasmids:

pLKO.1-Cic shRNA (Sigma, TRCN0000304642; 5'-CCG GAG CGG GAG AAG GAC CAT ATT CCT

CGA GGA ATA TGG TCC TTC TCC CGC TTT TTT G-3'), pLKO.1-non-targeting shRNA (Sigma; 5'-

CCT AAG GTT AAG TCG CCC TCG CTC GAG CGA GGG CGA CTT AAC CTT AGG -3'), pCIG2-Cre

(which contains Cre-IRES-GFP), pCIC-ETV5 (which contains Etv5-IRES-mCherry), Super piggyBac

Transposase (Systems Biosciences, SBI), and piggyBac cargo vector PB513B-1 (SBI) into which

cDNAs were cloned for Turbo-Cre and Etv5. The DN-ETV5 consists of an *Etv5-EnR* fusion (gift of Dr.

Carol Schuurmans) cloned into the piggyBac construct modified to contain the CAG promoter and

GFP-luciferase. DNA was prepared with Endo-free DNA kit (Qiagen) and was injected at 1.5 µg/µl into

the telencephalic vesicles of embryos in time-staged pregnant females using a Femtojet 4i

microinjector (Eppendorf) then followed by electrical pulses (6 x 43 V, 950 ms interval) applied by

platinum tweezer-style electrodes (7 mm, Protech) using a BTX square wave generator (Harvard

Apparatus). Post-procedure, embryos were allowed to develop until the time of harvesting. EdU (50

mg/ml in PBS) was injected intraperitoneally into the pregnant dam 30 minutes prior to euthanasia.

Neural stem cell culture

The VZ of E15 brains were dissected, and tissue was dissociated to single cells using Accumax (EMD

Millipore). Cells were grown at 37°C, 5% CO_2 in low-adhesion tissue culture flasks (Sarstedt) in mouse

neural stem cell (mNSC) media consisting of NeuroCult Proliferation media (Stem Cell Technologies)

supplemented with heparin, epidermal growth factor (EGF 20 ng/mL; Peprotech), and fibroblast

growth factor (FGF 20 ng/mL; Peprotech). When spheres reached 100–200 µm in diameter, cells were

split using Accumax and re-plated at 20,000 cells/mL.

Transfection of cultured cells

1-4 x 10^6 dissociated cells were re-suspended in 100 µL of Amaxa Mouse NSC Nucleofector Solution

(VPG-1004, Lonza) with 5 µg of plasmid DNA. Nucleofection was performed with a Nucleofector II

Device (Amaxa) using the A-033 program. Cells were returned to mouse neural stem cell media for

further expansion/selection. For siRNA-mediated Etv5 knockdown, cells were transfected with 50

nM Etv5 or Etv4 ON-TARGET Plus SMARTpool siRNAs (Dharmacon) using Lipofectamine 3000

reagent per manufacturer's protocol. Cells were assayed 48hrs hours post-transfection.

Trypan Assay

150,000 cells were seeded per T25 flask in mNSC media and counted after 72 hours on a TC20 cell

counter (Biorad) using Trypan blue stain (Thermo). Both dead and live cells were counted.

Paired cell assay

Dissociated cells were plated at 1,000 cells/ml in mNSC media on dishes coated with CTS CELLstart

(Thermo). After 20 hrs, cells were fixed in 4% PFA and immunostained for Ki67. Pairs were scored as

symmetric proliferative if both daughter nuclei were Ki67+, symmetric differentiative if both were Ki67-,

and asymmetric if one nucleus was Ki67+ and the other Ki67-.

Neural Colony-Forming Cell Assay

Cells in semi-solid media were prepared using the Neurocult NCFC Assay Kit (Stem Cell

Technologies) per manufacturer's protocol. Cells were plated at a density of 1,650 cells/ml using 1.5

ml per 35 mm culture dish. Dishes were replenished after 7 days with 60 µl of neural stem cell

proliferation media supplemented with heparin, EGF, and FGF. Sphere number and size were scored

using a gridded scoring dish (Stem Cell Technologies). 8-cell aggregates were used as the cut-off for

scoring.

Lineage-directed differentiation

<u>Neuronal Differentiation</u>: NSCs were seeded in mNSC proliferation media (Stem Cell Technologies)

on coverslips coated with Poly-L-Ornitihine and Laminin. After 24 hrs, media was replaced with

Neurobasal Media, 2% B-27, 2mM GlutaMAX-I (Thermo). After 4 more days dibutyryl cAMP (Sigma)

was added daily to a final concentration of 0.5 mM.

<u>Oligodendroglial Differentiation</u>: NSCs were seeded on coverslips coated with Poly-L-Ornitihine and

Laminin. After 24 hrs, media was replaced with Neurobasal media, 2% B-27, GlutaMAX-I, 30 ng/mL

3,3',5-Triiodo-L-thyronine sodium (Sigma).

<u>Astrocyte Differentiation</u>: NSCs were seeded on coverslips coated with Geltrex (Thermo). After 24 hrs,

media was replaced with DMEM, 1% N2-Supplement, 2mM GlutaMAX-I, 1% FBS.

Immunostaining

Tissue was fixed overnight in 4% PFA, cryoprotected in 30% sucrose/PBS, and embedded in Tissue-

Tek O.C.T. (Sakura Finetek) prior to cutting 6 μm cryosections on Superfrost Plus slides (VWR).

Cultured cells grown on coverslips were fixed for 20 minutes in 4% PFA then rinsed in PBS.

Permeabilization was performed with 1× TBST (Tris-buffered saline: 25 mM Tris, 0.14 M NaCl, 0.1%

Triton X-100) for 15 min at room temperature (RT). 3% goat or horse serum in TBST x 30 min was

used for block.   Primary antibodies applied for 1 hr at RT or O/N at 4°C in block. Alexa Fluor

secondary antibodies were applied at 1:500 dilution for 1 hour RT. Nuclei were counterstained in 4′,6-

diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI; Santa Cruz) and mounted with FluorSave Reagent (Calbiochem). For

immunostaining of tissue sections when two or more primary antibodies were from the same host

species and for comparison of cell-type specific CIC expression, the Opal 4-colour IHC kit (Perkin

Elmer) was used per manufacturer's protocol.

Western blotting

Cells/tissue was lysed in RIPA buffer (10 mM Tris-Cl pH 8, 1 mM EDTA, 1% Triton X-100, 0.1%

sodium deoxycholate, 0.1% SDS, 140 mM NaCl, 1 mM PMSF) with 1X Halt Protease and

Phosphatase Inhibitor Cocktail (Thermo). 20 μg protein lysate (50 μg in the case of CIC probing) was

run on 4-12% Bis-Tris or 3-8% Tris-Acetate gels (Thermo). Protein was transferred to PVDF

membranes in NuPAGE Transfer Buffer (Thermo). Membranes were blocked in TBST with 5%

powdered milk. Primary antibodies diluted were applied for 1 hr at room temperature or overnight at

4°C. Horseradish peroxidase-coupled secondary antibodies were applied for 1 hr at room

temperature. Membranes were developed using ECL Plus Western Blotting Reagent (GE Healthcare)

and X-ray film.

Transcriptional analysis

Total RNA was extracted using AllPrep DNA/RNA/Protein Mini Kit (Qiagen) per manufacturer's

protocol. For each of 3 biologic replicates per condition, 100 ng RNA was subjected to nanoString

analysis on nCounter system (NanoString Technologies) using a custom gene expression codeset

containing neurodevelopmental and brain cancer associated genes, and 3 housekeeping genes. Data

were analyzed using nSolver software and exported to PRISM software for further statistical analyses.

Counts for Etv1, Etv4, and Etv5 were normalized to the average of 3 house-keeping genes (GAPDH,

Actin, Tubulin beta chain).

In situ **hybridization**

Digoxygenin (DIG)-labeled riboprobes were prepared using a 10x DIG-labeling kit (Roche), and ISH

was performed as described previously using probes for *GFP* and *Etv5* (17).

Chromatin immunoprecipitation

50 mg P6 mouse forebrain tissue was use per ChIP assay. ChIP was performed with the SimpleChip

Plus Kit with magnetic beads (Cell Signaling) per manufacturer's protocol with the following

exceptions. Tissue was disaggregated using a Dounce homogenizer. In place of micrococcal

nuclease, shearing was performed on a UCD Bioruptor on high power with intervals of 30 seconds on,

1 minute off for 30 minutes. 1.5 µl of anti-CIC (PA1-46018, Thermo) was used per IP reaction. Histone

H3 antibody and normal rabbit IgG were used as positive and negative controls, as supplied in the kit.

PCR primers for the ETV5 promoter region were: 5′-GGTGCAGGCCGAGGCCAGGG-3′ (For) and 5′-

CATTGACCAATCAGCACCGG-3′ (Rev).

Image Analysis

Coronal sections at the level of the anterior commissure were used in all quantitations of cell

populations and staining intensities in the dorsal cerebral cortex and corpus callosum. Slides were

imaged on AxioObserver fluorescence microscope (Zeiss). Images were processed using CS6

Photoshop software (Adobe) for orientation, false colorization, and overlay/colocalization. Enumeration

of cells positive for cytoskeletal, cytoplasmic or membrane proteins was performed manually by

counting positive cells using the Photoshop CS6 counting tool. Quantitation of CIC nuclear staining

intensity and MBP staining density was performed using FIJI software (47) as follows. Images were

first processed using Gaussian blur, then background subtracted. Default threshold limits were used in

the threshold tool. Images were converted to binary and watershed was run to separate clumped

cells. Nuclear staining was quantitated by using the analysing particles option with separate cut-offs

set for each antibody used. For quantitation of MBP expression on tissue sections, FIJI was used by

drawing regions of interest on the lateral corpus callosum (cingulum), and the mean integrated density

in the regions of interest was calculated.

Intracranial BTIC xenografts and Bioluminescence imaging

BT88 oligodendroglioma cells were obtained from the Dr. S. Weiss, University of Calgary (33). 1×10^5

BT88 cells stably transfected with CIC-GFP-Luciferase or DNETV5-GFP or respective empty vectors

were stereotactically implanted into the right striata of 6- to 8-week-old NOD/SCID mice. 6 weeks post-

implantation, tumour burden was measured either by bioluminescence imaging using IVIS Spectrum

In Vivo Imaging System (Xenogen) and/or by histology from euthanized animals. Mice were

anaesthetized under isoflurane and intraperitoneal injection of XenoLight D-Luciferin (PerkinElmer)

was administered at a dose of 150mg/kg body weight. Acquisition of bioluminescence images was

performed 10 min post-injection. Analysis was performed using Living Image Software by

measurement of photon counts (photon/s/cm^2) with a region of interest drawn around the

bioluminescence signal.

Statistics

Data are represented as mean ± SD from at least 3 biologic replicates for experiments. Comparisons

between experimental and control samples were made using 2-tailed t-test or, when there were more

than 2 groups, using ANOVA. Tukey's procedure was applied post-hoc to correct for multiple

comparisons during multiple pairwise analyses (e.g. differential Cic expression among cell types).

Bonferroni post-hoc correction was applied for statistical analysis of data from NanoString assays.

Statistical analyses were performed using Prism sofware (Graphpad).

Study Approval

Animal use was approved by the University of Calgary Animal Care Committee (protocol AC16-0266)

in compliance with the Guidelines of the Canadian Council of Animal Care.

Data Availability

The data that support the findings in this study are available from the corresponding author upon

reasonable request.

Availability of Biological Materials

Biological materials used in this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable

request.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Conceptualization, JAC, STA; Methodology, JAC, CS, STA; Investigation, STA, ADR, RD, LF, MJC,

MA, WW, SOL; Acquisition, Analyses and Interpretation of data, JAC, STA; Writing – Original Draft,

JAC, STA; Writing – Review & Editing, JAC, SC, JGC, SMR, MAM, WW, RD, SOL; Funding

Acquisition, JAC, JGC, CS; Resources, LA, MA, CS; Supervision, JAC, CS, JGC, SMR.

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COMPETING FINANCIAL INTERESTS

The authors have no competing financial interests to declare.

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FIGURES

FIGURE 1: Differential Cic expression among cell types in the developing and mature brain.
Representative images of immunofluorescence staining for Cic expression in Sox2+ stem cell populations in (A)
E12 subventricular zone, (B) P56 hippocampal dentate gyrus subgranular zone, and (C) P56 subventricular
zone. Cic expression in glial cells in the adult brain showing localization in (D) Gfap+ cortical astrocytes, (E)
Pdgfra+ white matter OPCs, and (F) CNPase+ mature oligodendrocytes. Cic expression in cortical neuronal
populations (G) E15 Tbr2+ early-born neurons in the SVZ and IZ, (H) E15 Tbr1+ late-born neurons in the cortical
plate, and (I) adult post-mitotic NeuN+ cortical neurons. (J) Quantitation of Cic nuclear staining intensities,
plotted for different brain cell types. Each point represents one cell quantitated. Results show quantitation from a
minimum of 24 cells per marker from the boxed regions used for image analysis. All quantitation performed on
P56 cortex except Tbr2 and Tbr1 which were analyzed at E15. Pairwise comparisons between cell types
performed by ANOVA with Tukey's posthoc test. Data shown as mean ± SD. *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ****p<0.0001.
LV–lateral ventricle, GCL–granule cell layer, SGZ–subgranular zone, SVZ–subventricular zone, Ctx–cortex.

FIGURE 2: Forebrain-specific *Cic* deletion increases glial cells at the expense of neurons by P21 (A)
Targeting strategy for Cic conditional knockout mice. Exon numbering is shown relative to Cic transcript variant
1. (B) Forebrain-deletion of Cic starting from E10.5 by crossing CIC-floxed line with FoxG1-cre.
Cic^{Fl/Fl};FoxG1^{Cre/+} animals are compared with *Cic^{Fl/+};FoxG^{Cre/+}* or *Cic^{Fl/Fl};FoxG1^{+/+}* as controls. (C) Representative
gross morphology of *Cic*-deleted and *Cic*-wildtype brains at P21. (D,D') Staining and quantitation of NeuN+,
Gfap+, and Sox10+ cells in Cic-deleted (*Cic^{Fl/Fl};FoxG1^{Cre/+}*) cortex vs control (*Cic^{Fl/Fl};FoxG1^{+/+}*). (E,E') Staining
and quantitation of Olig2+, Pdgfra+, and CNPase+ cells in lateral corpus callosum, and Mbp expression in lateral
corpus callosum at P21. Results show quantitation from 5 mice per each group. Statistical analyses performed
by unpaired t-test. Data shown as mean ± SD. *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ****p<0.0001. Ctx–cortex, CC–corpus
callosum.
953

FIGURE 3: Cic deficiency increases proliferation and self-renewal of neural stem/progenitor cells. (A,A')
EdU incorporation 48-hours after electroporation of *Cre* or control plasmid into VZ of E13 *Cic*-floxed embryos;
boxed area indicates zone for imaging and quantitation (n ≥ 4 mice per group). (B) Generation of Cic-null cells
and control cells from *Cic*-floxed cells via ex vivo transfection of Cre recombinase, and western blotting for
validation of knockout. (C) Trypan blue assay, (D) Ki67 proliferation index, and (E) propidium iodide cell cycle
analysis in cultured cells. (F) Neural colony forming assay with quantitation of (F') sphere number and (F'')
sphere size. (G) Paired cell assay schematic and representative images with Ki67 immunostaining and (H)
Quantitation of symmetric proliferative, asymmetric, and symmetric terminal divisions. Data shown as mean ±
SD. Data from ≥ 3 biologic replicates per condition. Statistical analysis performed by unpaired t-test. ns-not
significant, *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001, ****p<0.0001. VZ–ventricular zone, LV–lateral ventricle.

FIGURE 4: Deletion of *Cic* in the neurogenic period biases neural stem/progenitor cells to glial lineage selection. (A) Localized deletion of *Cic* in neural stem cells via *in-utero* electroporation into VZ cell of *Cic*-floxed embryos. Targeted cells carry a fluorescent marker and express either cre recombinase (Cre), dominant negative ETV5 (DNETV5), or not (Empty control), depending on the electroporated plasmid. Staining and quantitation of Sox2+ stem cells (B,B') and Sox9+ glioblasts (C,C') 2 days after E13 electroporation. Staining and quantitation of late-born Tbr1+ neurons, Aldh1+ astrocytes, Olig2+ oligodendrogial lineage cells, and Pdgfra+ oligodendrocyte precursors cells 5 days after E13 electroporation. Results show quantitation from 4 mice per group. Statistical analyses between control and experimental groups performed by ANOVA with Tukey's posthoc test. Data shown as mean ± SD. *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001, ns–not significant. Ctx–cortex, LV–lateral ventricle, VZ–ventricular zone.

FIGURE 5: Cultured Cic null cells are oligodendrocyte lineage-biased. (A) Immunofluorescence and (B) Western blotting for Nestin, Sox9, Olig2, Gfap, and Tuj1 in Cic-null and control cells cultured in stem cell conditions. Responses of Cic-null and control cells to 10-day exposure to lineage-directed differentiation conditions for (C) neurons, (D) astrocytes, or (E) oligodendrocytes. Immunofluorescence quantitation of cell populations and western blotting of cells cultured in lineage-directed differentiation conditions for (C') neurons, (D') astrocytes, and (E', E'') stages of oligodendrocyte development. Data shown as mean ± SD. Data from ≥ 3 biologic replicates per condition. Statistical analysis performed by unpaired t-test. ns-not significant, **p<0.01, ****p<0.0001.

Figure 6: Alternate lineage selection of Cic null NSCs in response to extrinsic differentiation cues. (A) Under astrocytic promoting conditions, representative images of cultures stained for oligodendrocytes (Olig2+), neurons (Tuj1+) and stem cells (Sox2+); and (A',A'',A''') corresponding quantifications. (B) Under neuronal promoting conditions, representative images of cultures stained for oligodendrocytes (Olig2+), astrocytes (Gfap+) and stem cells (Sox2+); and (B',B'',B''') corresponding quantifications.(C) Under oligodendrocytic promoting conditions, representative images of cultures stained for neurons (Tuj1+), astrocytes (Gfap+) and stem cells (Sox2+); and (C',C'',C''') corresponding quantifications. (D) Percentage of Sox2+ cells positive for Edu incorporation after 10 days exposure to neuronal promoting conditions. (E) Percentage of Olig2+ positive for Edu incorporation after 10 days exposure to neuronal promoting conditions. (F) Absolute counts of Gfap+ cells/well after differentiating 4x10³ NSCs in astrocytic conditions for 10 days. (G) Absolute counts of Tuj1+ cells/well after differentiation 4x10³ NSCs in neuronal conditions for 10 days. Bars indicate mean±SD. ADC-Astrocytic differentiation condition, NDC-Neuronal differentiation condition, ODC-Oligodendroglial differentiation condition. ns – not significant, * p<0.05, ***p<0.001.

FIGURE 7: *Etv5* is a direct target of Cic transcriptional repression. *Etv1*, *Etv4*, and *Etv5* mRNA (A) and protein (B) levels in cultured CIC-null and -control cells after 48-hour exposure to oligodendrocytic differentiating conditions; transcript levels normalized to average of 3 (Actin, GAPDH, Tubulin beta chain) housekeeping genes. Data from n=3 biologic replicates. (C) ChIP-PCR for Cic at the *Etv5* promoter. (D) Electroporation of Cic shRNA or non-targeting (NT) shRNA at E13 followed by *in-situ* hybridization for *Etv5* and *GFP* at E15; *Etv5* transcripts are upregulated in areas of Cic knockdown. Data from n≥3 mice per group. (E) Immunofluorescence staining showing Etv5 and GFP protein expression 2 days after Cre electroporation into E13 VZ of *Cic*-floxed embryos. *Cic* deleted cells show increased Etv5 protein. (F-I, J) Differential Etv5 expression in (F) NSCs (Sox2+) at mid-neurogenesis, and in (G) astrocytes (Gfap+), (H) OPCs (Pdgfra+), and (I) mature oligodendrocytes (CNPase+) in P56 adult cortex. Each point represents one cell quantitated. Results show quantitation from ≥20 cells for each marker. Data shown as mean ± SD. Statistical analyses performed by unpaired t-test. *p<0.05. SVZ–subventricular zone, LV–lateral ventricle, Ctx–cortex. (K) Schematic depiction of relationship of Cic and Etv5 expression as neural stem cells differentiate to mature myelinating oligodendrocytes.

FIGURE 8: Etv5 is necessary and sufficient for proliferation and cell fate bias effects downstream of Cic loss. Cic-null cells with and without DN-ETV5, and Cic-wildtype cells with Etv5 overexpression were assessed for their ability to differentiate in response to 10-days' exposure to lineage-directed differentiating conditions. (A,A') Neuronal differentiation capacity was assessed by bIII-Tubulin immunostaining (Tuj1 positivity), (B,B') astrocytic differentiation capacity was assessed by Gfap immunostaining, and (C,C') oligodendroglial differentiation capacity was assess by staining for Olig2, Pdgfra, and Mbp. (D,D') EdU incorporation 2 days post-electroporation of wildtype *ETV5* or empty control plasmid, both carrying mCherry as a marker, into E13 CIC^FI/FI VZ. Note: mCherry fluorescence and EdU staining were false-colorized to green and red after grayscale imaging. (E,E') EdU incorporation 2 days post-electroporation of Cre only or of Cre co-electroporated with *DN-ETV5* into E13 CIC^FI/FI VZ . EdU incorporation assay in cultured NSCs showing (F) effects of ETV5 overexpression in CIC-wildtype NSCs and (G) effects of *DN-ETV5* expression in Cic-null NSCs. Data shown as mean ± SD from n ≥ 4 mice per each group for in vivo studies and n=3 biological replicates for cell culture studies. Statistical analyses performed either t-test in D', E', F, G; or with ANOVA with Tukey's posthoc test in A', B', C'. ns-not significant, *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.0001. ADC–astrocytic differentiation condition, NDC–neuronal differentiation condition, ODC–oligodendrocytic differentiation condition. VZ–ventricular zone, LV–lateral ventricle.

FIGURE 9: ODG cells require CIC loss or elevated ETV5 to maintain proliferation and stemness. (A,A')
EdU incorporation in BT-88 and BT-54 ODG cell lines stably transfected with control plasmid or of DNETV5.
Quantitation shows results from both cell lines. Representative images are from BT-88. (B) Representative
images showing effect of DN-ETV5 on sphere formation in BT88 ODG cells. Quantification of (B') sphere
number and (B") size in BT-54 and BT-88 ODG cells without and with DNETV5. (C,D,E) CIC re-expression in
BT-88 cells decreases proliferation, sphere number, and sphere size. (F,F') Lineage-specific differentiation
capacity of BT-88 ODG cells stably transfected with either control plasmid, DNETV5, or CIC; expression of Tuj1,
GFAP, OLIG2, and CNPase after 10-days exposure to differentiation conditions for neurons, astrocytes, and
oligodendrocytes. Data shown as mean ± SD from n=3 biologic replicates. Statistical analyses by ANOVA with
Tukey's posthoc test.   ns–not significant, *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ****p<0.0001. NDC–neuronal differentiation
condition, ADC–astrocytic differentiation condition, ODC–oligodendrocytic differentiation condition.

FIGURE 10: Tumorigenicity of ODG cells is reduced by CIC re-expression or ETV5 blockade. (A, A') Bioluminescence imaging of NOD-SCID mice at 6 weeks post-implantation of BT88 oligodendroglioma cells stably transfected with either empty-GFP-luciferase or CIC-GFP-luciferase expression vectors. Data shown as mean ± SD from 8 mice per group. Statistical analyses by student's t test. **p<0.01. (B,B') Representative images of brain sections from mice implanted with control-GFP-luciferase BT88 cells or CIC-GFP-luciferase BT88 cells stained with H&E or GFP. (C,C') Representative images of brain sections from mice implanted with control-GFP BT88 cells or DNETV5-GFP expressing BT88 cells stained with H&E or GFP. (D) Kaplan-Meier survival analysis of mice implanted with BT88 cell transfected with empty-GFP-luciferase or CIC-GFP-luciferase. (E) Kaplan-Meier survival analysis for BT88 cell transfected with empty-GFP or DNETV5-GFP.