Deciphering inhibitory neuron development: the paths to diversity

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Abstract

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2 The regulation of fate decisions in progenitor cells lays the foundation for the generation of neuronal diversity and the formation of specialized circuits with remark-3 able processing capacity. Since the discovery more than 20 years ago that inhibitory 4 (GABAergic) neurons originate from progenitors in the ventral part of the embryonic 5 6 brain, numerous details about their development and function have been unveiled. GABAergic neurons are an extremely heterogeneous group, comprising many spe-7 8 cialized subtypes of local interneurons and long-range projection neurons. Clearly 9 distinguishable types emerge during postmitotic maturation, at a time when precursors migrate, morphologically mature, and establish synaptic connections. Yet, differentia-10 tion begins at an earlier stage within their progenitor domains, where a combination of 11 birthdate and place of origin are key drivers. This review explains how new insights 12 from single-cell sequencing inform our current understanding of how GABAergic 13 neuron diversity emerges. 14

15 Introduction

Brain computation relies on dynamic interactions between excitatory and inhibitory neuronal circuits 16 (1). Inhibitory neurons, which produce the neurotransmitter Gamma-aminobutyric acid (GABA), are 17 highly diverse and can be identified by morphological features, subcellular targets, neurochemical 18 markers, firing patterns, and gene expression profiles (2). In the visual cortex of mice alone, more 19 than two dozen different types have been identified based on a combination of morphological, 20 electrophysiological, and transcriptomic features (3). Inhibitory neurons can act locally, or they 21 can extend long-range axons to remote cortical and subcortical areas (4). In the cerebral cortex, a 22 majority of inhibitory neurons are interneurons that are an integral part of the cortical circuit, as they 23 reciprocally connect to other cortical neurons. This local inhibition orchestrates both spontaneous 24 and sensory-driven activity in the cerebral cortex(1), and for example allows neurons to synchronize 25 their firing, giving rise to rhythmic oscillations of activity (5). GABAergic projection neurons 26 27 primarily populate subcortical regions such as the striatum, globus pallidus, and the amygdalar complex, and they often work as an integrating hub. Spiny projection neurons of the striatum, 28 for example, receive glutamatergic inputs from different cortical and thalamic areas, and send 29 30 GABAergic projections to neighboring basal ganglia nuclei (6). These projections are thought to contribute to motivated behavior, reward learning and decision-making (7; 8). 31

GABAergic neurons are developmentally derived from proliferative zones in the ventral telencephalon: the medial ganglionic eminence (MGE), the caudal ganglionic eminence (CGE), the lateral ganglionic eminence (LGE) and the preoptic area (9; 10; 11) (Figure 1). Because of the large number of different cell types they each produce, the ganglionic eminences (GEs) represent a fascinating study object for how cellular diversity emerges. For example, the MGE and CGE produce many distinct types of interneurons in the cortex, striatum, and hippocampus (12; 13; 14).



Figure 1: Origins of inhibitory cell types. Inhibitory projection neurons and interneurons are born in the ganglionic eminences. Schematic demonstrating the cell types that the medial, caudal and lateral ganglionic eminences (MGE, CGE and LGE, respectively) produce and the brain structures they occupy.

38 In addition, the MGE generates prototypic neurons of the globus pallidus (15), basal forebrain cholinergic neurons (16), and the CGE contributes to numerous amygdala nuclei (17). The LGE 39 generates direct and indirect spiny projection neurons of the striatum (18), arkypallidal neurons of 40 the globus pallidus(15), olfactory bulb interneurons(18), as well as neurons of the olfactory tubercle 41 and amygdala (19) (Figure 1). Although most neurons that originate from the GEs are GABAergic, 42 the GEs also generate cholinergic neurons as well as glia (20; 21; 22). Intensive efforts have been 43 made to link properties of progenitors within the GEs to cell fate of their progeny. These include 44 mode of cell-division (23; 24), time of cell-cycle exit (25; 26; 24)), cell-cycle length (27; 28; 29), 45 progenitor heterogeneity (30), spatial subdomains and transcription factors that transduce patterning 46 signals (31; 32; 33; 13; 34; 9; 35; 20; 36; 37). All these factors seem to act concurrently to produce 47 neuronal heterogeneity. This review focuses on recent work that has employed single-cell omic 48 methods to shed new light on the sequence of events that lead to the emergence of GABAergic 49 diversity. 50

51 Developmental diversification of cortical interneurons

Cell type heterogeneity arises through a series of cell proliferation and differentiation events. An 52 early mitotic phase generates a neuroproliferative layer surrounding the ventricles of the neural 53 tube. This layer contains the so called radial-glia progenitors and intermediate progenitors that 54 undergo their final rounds of cell-division, which generates postmitotic neurons, astrocytes, and 55 oligodendrocytes (38; 39). Postmitotic precursors migrate to their final settling positions (40; 41), 56 where they grow specific morphologies (42) and integrate into circuits. Single-cell RNA sequencing 57 (scRNA-seq), a technique that allows the study of quantitative relationships between cell types, has 58 59 been used to explore when during development the identities of GABAergic types emerge. Some of the gene expression signatures of differentiated cell types have already been found in neurons 60



Figure 2: Developmental diversification of inhibitory neurons. Schematic of a two-dimensional representation of cell type heterogeneity in single-cell gene expression experiments. Characterization of gene expression in single cells allows quantification of cell type heterogeneity at different time points. Cells are colored by site of origin (MGE purple, CGE green, LGE blue). Different cell types become increasingly distinct from each other during development; as a result, clearly distinguishable clusters emerge in single-cell transcription experiments. Clusters that unambiguously group cells according to a cell's site of origin do not form until shortly before birth.

that have just exited the cell cycle in the scRNA-seq studies. For instance, all major classes of 61 cortical interneurons were distinguishable in postmitotic neurons of scRNA-seq datasets of the GE 62 at embryonic day 13. Furthermore, signatures of GABAergic projection neurons, and cholinergic 63 neurons that mature to form pallidal structures, were also distinguishable (43; 44). However, 64 refinement of clusters within theses broad classes unfolded over a lengthy period of time (Fig.2) 65 and temporally coincided with developmental processes such as migration (45), morphological 66 maturation (42), synaptogenesis (46) and the emergence of sensory-driven network activity (47). 67 Surprisingly, using highly variable genes for feature selection, as is commonly used in scRNA-seq 68 analysis, did not separate proliferating cells in a way that could be linked to adult cell types. And 69 similarly, diffusion map analysis of E13 MGE scATAC-seq datasets showed that interneuron 70 type-specific opening of chromatin at distal elements was first seen when cells exited the cell cycle 71 (48). Only through the use of a curated approach, which combined enhancer-based cell labeling and 72

transcription factor-anchored scRNA-seq clustering, was it possible to increase the resolution of
 regional and developmental populations in mitotic cells to a level where spatially defined subtypes
 of MGE-derived GABAergic projection neurons and interneurons could be distinguished (49).

76 Trajectory estimation in the GEs

Cluster analysis methods aim to assess heterogeneity in a tissue by categorizing cells into groups. 77 Embryonic brain tissue, however, typically consists of a continuum of cell states along maturation 78 and differentiation axes, rather than discrete states. Many analysis tools have been developed that 79 can provide high-resolution descriptions of cell trajectories as they transition between states (50). 80 These tools have been used to explore scRNA-seq (43; 51; 52), single-nucleus (53) and single-cell 81 82 ATAC-seq datasets of the GEs, both in mouse (48) and human (54) (Figure 3). In the GEs, the progression along pseudotime largely recapitulates known maturation markers, from Nestin and 83 Ccnd2 expressing cycling progenitors to Dcx, Gad1 and Dlx6 expressing postmitotic neurons (43; 48; 84 51; 52). Consistent with cluster-based approaches, fate bifurcations along the maturation trajectory 85 occurred when cells became postmitotic (Figure 3). These early bifurcations, or "precursor states", 86 already exhibited a clear transcriptomic signature linking them to adult cell types. When precursor 87 states from each GE were compared to one another, they displayed similar gene expression profiles 88 (43) (Figure 3). This was very surprising because in the adult brain, the MGE, CGE and LGE 89 produce distinct non-overlapping cell types. Why then would the GEs utilize common precursor 90 states along their maturation trajectories? Each GE produces both locally projecting interneurons 91 as well as long-range projection neurons. The common precursor states present in the GEs might 92 initially act as a conserved regulatory program for generating these very different neuron classes. 93 94 Only later in development, once precursors have embarked on a path towards differentiated neurons, do eminence-specific factors become a major source of heterogeneity (43). 95



Figure 3: A trajectory describing the transition between cell states. Schematic of developmental trajectories of single-cell transcriptomes from the GEs. Fate bifurcations occur when progenitors exit the cell cycle. Different shapes (triangle, circle, square, hexagon, star) denote different precursor states (or branches), which initially show similarities between the GEs. Lineage barcoding methods have revealed that a single progenitor can produce daughter cells occupying different precursor states.

96 While trajectory estimation offers a population-level view of differentiation, it does not directly reveal relationships between individual cells. Do the progeny of a single progenitor enter the same 97 precursor state, or disperse across multiple states? A way to link a mitotic progenitor and its progeny 98 is with lineage tracing, by labelling an individual progenitor at an early time point and tracking the 99 cell-states their clonal progeny differentiated into at a later time point. A recent study using synthetic 100 oligonucleotides to tag progenitors and their descendants in the GEs found that, in about one-third 101 of cases, clones disperse into different precursor states when they leave the cell-cycle. For example, 102 a single LGE progenitor produced olfactory bulb interneurons, striatal spiny projection neurons, 103 104 and intercalated cells of the amygdala. Thus, at least a subset of GE progenitors are multipotent, generating transcriptomically and anatomically disparate cell types (51). Whether the sequential 105 production of different types involves stochastic events that occur during cell-cycle exit, or follows a 106 stereotypic sequence, remains unknown. 107

108 Comparisons between species

The major cell classes of inhibitory neurons classified in mice have been identified in reptiles (55), 109 nonhuman primates (56) and humans (57). Recently, however, a number of differences have come 110 to light. For example, several primate-specific cell types have been discovered, such as the "rosehip" 111 interneurons in the cortex (Boldog et al 2018), a TAC3-expressing population of interneurons in the 112 striatum (58), and TH-expressing neurons of the striatum laureatum (56). Other features, like the 113 laminar positioning of cell types, the proportions of cell types, gene expression profiles (58), and 114 even lineage relationships (59) have been found to be different in primates. In development, many 115 gene regulatory networks and transcription factors are the same in mouse and human inhibitory 116 117 neurons (60; 54; 61; 62; 63). As in mice, the fates of inhibitory neurons, such as GABAergic interneurons and different projection neurons, are established already in fetal human ganglionic 118

eminences (54; 62). In the future, a more detailed comparison of gene regulatory relationships between mice and primates should provide insight into previously unknown regulatory processes driving the diversification of neurons. This has great potential to provide valuable insights into the development and function of these neurons, as well as their role in neurological disorders and diseases.

124 Summary/Conclusions

In this review, we explore the processes underlying inhibitory neuron diversification, with a focus 125 on recent studies employing single-cell omic methods. Different GABAergic cell types arise 126 from regional differences in the specification of GE progenitors, which are initially established by 127 morphogenic molecules such as retinoic acid (64), fibroblast growth factors and sonic hedgehog (65; 128 66; 67; 68). While single cell omic techniques have offered valuable insights into cell maturation and 129 differentiation, they have not explained the underlying mechanisms by which spatial and temporal 130 signals influence cell fate decisions. Transcription factor activity can be highly context-dependent. 131 TALE transcription factors, for example, which are expressed in the ganglionic eminences, have 132 been shown to act as broad activators of homeobox genes (69) and to interact with other transcription 133 factors such as PBX, HOX, TBX, and Pax6 to promote differentiation in limbs, heart, lens, hindbrain, 134 and olfactory bulb development (70; 69; 71; 72; 73). It is possible that such factors interact with 135 spatial cues to selectively activate enhancers in different parts of the ganglionic eminences. To better 136 understand the role of spatial selective enhancer activation in the early determination of GABAergic 137 identities, additional methods such as reporter assays may provide a more detailed and mechanistic 138 understanding of how early spatial signals shape cell fate decisions. Moreover, methods that map 139 140 protein-DNA interactions, such as CUT&RUN, could be used to study where transcription factors bind within select groups of GE progenitors, and how differential access to transcriptional regulatory 141

142 elements is controlled during development.

Single-cell omics experiments have shown that the vast majority of cell type-specific heterogeneity 143 in gene expression occurs during a prolonged period of postmitotic development, toward the end of 144 embryogenesis and after birth (43; 44; 74). This coincides with the developmental stage at which 145 morphological maturation, synaptogenesis, and the specification of electrophysiological properties 146 147 occur. This raises the important question as to what extent the manifestation of heterogeneity follows a prescribed unfolding of programs initiated in embryonic progenitor zones, and what role, in 148 contrast, environmental interactions play. Mounting experimental evidence shows that environmental 149 150 stimuli play an important role. For example, Lim et al. (2018) (45) showed that environmental cues can influence the migration and differentiation of neural stem cells during development. Similarly, 151 De-Marco-Garcia et al. (2011) (42) found that electrical inputs can modulate gene expression in 152 developing neurons. However, many questions remain about the relative importance of intrinsic 153 and extrinsic processes in shaping gene expression patterns, and the mechanisms through which 154 155 these processes interact. It is not yet clear whether certain subtypes are more influenced by extrinsic signals than others, or how extrinsic signals interact with evolving gene regulatory networks. Further 156 experimentation is needed to fully understand these complex processes and how they contribute to 157 the development of cell-types. Single-cell omics, with their quantitative nature, provide a unique 158 opportunity to explore the effect of environmental influences on the development of interneurons. 159 As major inhibitory neuron types can already be identified within the GEs before migration or 160 synaptic wiring, the initial formation of these cell types is likely a cell intrinsic process. Using 161 genetic approaches to manipulate environmental factors (e.g. early brain network activity or sensory 162 inputs) in a cell type-specific manner and analyzing the effect with single-cell omics would allow for 163 the precise determination of how, when, and to what extent different subtypes of GABAergic neurons 164 require environmental influences for their maturation. Such experiments may provide insights into 165

the complex process of interneuron differentiation and how it is shaped by environmental factorsduring development.

We have summarized the processes that lay the foundation for cell type heterogeneity proliferating 168 cells. These processes range from spatial gradients and temporal signals to clonal dispersion of 169 individual progenitors. Together, these processes could form a combinatorial framework that 170 facilitates the emergence of neuronal diversity. It is not clear whether these processes work together, 171 like the cogs of a clock, or whether they run in parallel and largely independently of each other. 172 A hint is provided by the clonal dispersion into precursor states upon the cell-cycle exit: similar 173 174 precursor states emerge in all GEs, differing only in a relatively small amount of domain-specific gene expression. Thus, a universal mechanism might generate precursor states in all GEs, to which a 175 local identity is imbued by region-specific signals. This is an interesting possibility, but new studies 176 are needed to test these hypotheses. Such studies should provide a comprehensive picture of how 177 the different processes cooperate to ultimately establish cellular identity and connectivity in the 178 179 adult brain.

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185 Short title

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