

Dissecting Hes-centred transcriptional networks in neural stem cell maintenance and tumorigenesis in *Drosophila*

Srivathsa S. Magadi^{1,2}, Chrysanthi Voutyraki^{1,2}, Gerasimos Anagnostopoulos^{1,2}, Evanthia Zacharioudaki¹, Ioanna K. Poutakidou^{1,2}, Christina Efraimoglou^{1,2}, Margarita Stapountzi¹, Vasiliki Theodorou¹, Christoforos Nikolaou^{1,2}, Konstantinos A. Koumbanakis^{1,2}, John F. Fullard¹ and Christos Delidakis^{1,2,*}

ABSTRACT

Neural stem cells divide during embryogenesis and juvenile life to generate the entire complement of neurons and glia in the nervous system of vertebrates and invertebrates. Studies of the mechanisms controlling the fine balance between neural stem cells and more differentiated progenitors have shown that, in every asymmetric cell division, progenitors send a Delta-Notch signal to their sibling stem cells. Here, we show that excessive activation of Notch or overexpression of its direct targets of the Hes family causes stem-cell hyperplasias in the *Drosophila* larval central nervous system, which can progress to malignant tumours after allografting to adult hosts. We combined transcriptomic data from these hyperplasias with chromatin occupancy data for Dpn, a Hes transcription factor, to identify genes regulated by Hes factors in this process. We show that the Notch/Hes axis represses a cohort of transcription factor genes. These are excluded from the stem cells and promote early differentiation steps, most likely by preventing the reversion of immature progenitors to a stem-cell fate. We describe the impact of two of these 'anti-stemness' factors, Zfh1 and Gcm, on Notch/Hes-triggered tumorigenesis.

KEY WORDS: *Drosophila*, Hes, Notch signalling, Cancer models in *Drosophila*, Neural stem cells, Transcription factors

INTRODUCTION

Drosophila neural stem cells (NSCs), also known as neuroblasts, are a well-studied system for stem cell self-renewal, differentiation and carcinogenesis. NSCs are born early in embryogenesis and, over the course of embryonic and juvenile (larval, early pupal) life, give birth to all neurons and glia that make up the central nervous system (Lee, 2017). They do so by undergoing asymmetric cell divisions that regenerate an NSC and also give rise to a more differentiated cell, usually a ganglion mother cell (GMC, Type I mode of division) or an intermediate neural precursor (INP, Type II) (Baumgardt et al., 2014; Homem et al., 2015). The GMC subsequently divides only once to give rise to two postmitotic cells (neurons or glia), whereas the INP can also self-renew, albeit for fewer rounds than an NSC, and generate GMCs. Similar asymmetric cell divisions have also been observed in vertebrate NSCs and the conservation extends beyond cellular

phenomenology to the molecular players involved: many proteins that orchestrate fly NSC divisions have mammalian orthologues with similar functions (Paridaen and Huttner, 2014). This justifies the use of *Drosophila* to elucidate conserved features of neurogenesis and to pinpoint defects that can lead to runaway proliferation and potential malignant transformation of NSCs, which is the cause of many types of childhood and adult brain tumours.

One of the several consequences of the elaborate asymmetric cell division of the NSC is the unidirectional Delta-Notch signalling from the GMC/INP progeny to the NSC, achieved by asymmetrically segregating Numb, a Notch inhibitor, to the GMC (Knoblich et al., 1995; Spana and Doe, 1996). However, Notch signalling is not indispensable for NSC maintenance, as only minor defects are observed upon loss of Notch function: most Type I lineages are unaffected, whereas Type IIs terminate prematurely (Almeida and Bray, 2005; Wang et al., 2006; Zacharioudaki et al., 2012). Transcription factors (TFs) of the Hes family are common Notch targets across tissues and species. During *Drosophila* neurogenesis, the NSCs express *dpn* and at least three *E(spl)* genes out of the 11 Hes genes in the fly genome (Almeida and Bray, 2005; Bier et al., 1992; Zacharioudaki et al., 2012; see also Fig. S1). Double knockout of *dpn* and the *E(spl)* complex results in acute NSC loss by premature termination of both Type I and Type II lineages (Zacharioudaki et al., 2012; Zhu et al., 2012). Even though *E(spl)* genes as well as *dpn* are induced by Notch (Almeida and Bray, 2005; San-Juan and Baonza, 2011), we showed that Dpn expression persists in *Notch* loss-of-function (Zacharioudaki et al., 2012), justifying the weaker *Notch* phenotype. Therefore, the Hes TFs and, to a lesser extent, Notch are central to the maintenance of stemness in fly NSCs. The dependence of NSC maintenance on Hes activity and Notch has also been documented in mammals (Kageyama et al., 2019).

Unlike the mild loss-of-function effects of Notch, its overactivation has dramatic consequences on neurogenesis: many immature differentiating cells revert to NSCs, causing extensive NSC hyperplasia at the expense of differentiated neuronal progeny in the larval CNS (Bowman et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2006; Weng et al., 2010; Zacharioudaki et al., 2012). This effect is complete in Type II lineages, but it is also evident in Type Is, albeit with reduced penetrance. Overexpression of *dpn* or *E(spl)my* (*E(spl)my-HLH*) did not disturb Type I lineages and gave only mild hyperplasias in Type II lineages (Zacharioudaki et al., 2016, 2012). Other genetic insults can give rise to NSC hyperplasia in larval CNSs, typified by *brat* or *pros* loss-of-function (Kang and Reichert, 2015). Both of these gene products are asymmetrically segregated in the GMC and/or INP (only Brat in the latter, as *pros* is not expressed in Type II NSCs) and function to regulate transcription (Pros) or translation (Brat) (Choksi et al., 2006; Loedige et al., 2015; Reichardt et al., 2018). Compromising the function of the asymmetric cell division machinery [e.g. mutations in *insc*, *pins*, *l(2)gl*, *dlg1*] also often leads to NSC hyperplasia (Caussinus

¹Institute of Molecular Biology & Biotechnology, Foundation for Research & Technology Hellas, 70013 Heraklion, Crete, Greece. ²Department of Biology, University of Crete, 70013 Heraklion, Crete, Greece.

*Author for correspondence (delidakis@imbb.forth.gr)

© S.S.M., 0000-0002-7926-5970; C.V., 0000-0003-0943-0384; V.T., 0000-0003-1614-700X; C.N., 0000-0003-3001-6786; J.F.F., 0000-0001-9874-2907; C.D., 0000-0003-3912-701X

Handling Editor: François Guillemot
Received 16 April 2020; Accepted 5 October 2020

and Gonzalez, 2005; Gateff, 1978). These hyperplasias are prone to malignant overgrowth and metastasis to distant sites upon allografting to an adult host. It was not known whether the Notch-dependent hyperplasias also have a malignant potential.

Here, we revisited the ability of Hes TFs to cause NSC hyperplasia and tested the ability of both Notch and Hes induced hyperplasias to progress to malignant tumours. We show that, upon ectopically expressing pairs of Hes transgenes, we can elicit severe NSC hyperplasias. These hyperplasias, as well as those caused by Notch overactivation, are malignant upon allografting. Comparison of hyperplastic CNS transcriptomes showed high similarity between two different combinations and moderate similarity between these and the high-Notch hyperplasias. Much less similarity was found with other known NSC tumour transcriptomes deposited in databases, pointing to a Hes/Notch-type of tumour. As Hes proteins are known to act as repressors, we focussed on the downregulated targets which are, at the same time, bound by Dpn, shown using chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP). These were enriched for TFs, among which were *pros* and *nerfin-1*, known to prevent GMCs and early neurons from reverting to an NSC fate, as well as *erm* which does the same in Type II INPs. We chose to study two other Hes-downregulated TFs, *Zfh1* and *Gcm*, in more detail, and will present their expression patterns and possible roles in modulating tumorigenesis.

RESULTS

Overexpression of Hes genes causes malignant NSC tumours

Overexpression of activated Notch has been known to cause NSC hyperplasia in larvae (Wang et al., 2006) and our earlier work (Zacharioudaki et al., 2016, 2012) has shown that this is accompanied by induction of Hes genes *dpn* and *E(spl)my* and is suppressed by deletion of the *E(spl)* locus. We have also shown that the mild Type II hyperplasias caused by *E(spl)my* overexpression bypass the need for Notch activation. To test whether stronger defects can be observed by Hes gene overexpression we increased the transgene dose by expressing two copies of Hes genes. We selected to co-express either *E(spl)my+E(spl)m8* or *E(spl)my+dpn*, as these are normally expressed in larval NSCs (Fig. S1) and we have previously shown that these combinations give strong DNA binding as heterodimers *in vitro* (Koumbanakis, 2007; Zacharioudaki et al., 2012). Both global NSC-lineage overexpression by *grhNB-Gal4* and clonal overexpression by *act>STOP>Gal4* were performed. We imaged control and hyperplastic CNSs using NSC markers Dpn and Mira, NSC/GMC markers Ase and Wor, GMC/neuron marker Pros (nuclear), neuron marker Elav and glia marker Repo. Using the *grhNB-Gal4* driver (Fig. S2), we observed a large number of ectopic NSCs, not only at their normal superficial location but also invading deeper cortical layers, normally occupied by neurons (Fig. 1A-F). At the same time there was a deficit in Elav-positive neurons throughout the central brain and thoracic ganglion, regions in which *grhNB-Gal4* is expressed. Overexpression of Hes genes was less disruptive than overexpression of *NΔecd*, an activated form of Notch lacking its extracellular domain: *E(spl)my+dpn*-overexpressing animals survived to pupation, although they almost never made it to adulthood; in comparison, *NΔecd* animals died as early larvae unless *grhNB-Gal4* was kept inactive using a Gal80ts inhibitor until the last day of larval life.

Using random clonal expression (*hs-FLP; act>STOP>Gal4*) we could focus on the response of individual lineages. We shall henceforth use a shorthand notation for the three effector genotypes: *N* for *UAS-NΔecd*, *MM* for *UAS-E(spl)my+UAS-E(spl)m8* and *DM* for *UAS-dpn+UAS-E(spl)my*. In these FLP-out clones, Type II lineages were severely affected (Fig. S3), exhibiting a massive size increase with

almost complete absence of differentiating cells (Pros-, Elav- or Repo-positive); only a small number of escapers turned on Pros or Elav, and these escapers were more frequent in *DM* and *MM* than in *N* clones. In *N* clones almost all cells expressed the NSC marker Dpn; in *MM* there were many Dpn-positive cells, but also many Dpn/Pros-double negative cells. In *DM* clones all cells were Dpn-positive by design (*UAS-dpn* overexpression), although its levels varied greatly from cell to cell, pointing to post-translational regulation of Dpn protein. Unlike Type II lineages, Type Is showed NSC hyperplasia with variable penetrance and expressivity (Fig. 1G-K). About 30% looked like the wild type (wt), whereas 70% contained three or more (up to 176) Dpn-positive NSC-like cells; all clones contained differentiating cells (Pros/Elav-positive). Phenotype expressivity (number of Dpn-positive cells per lineage) was higher in *N* than in *MM* clones. As in Type II, *DM* clones expressed Dpn broadly, albeit at variable levels from cell to cell within the same clone. The ectopic NSC-like cells were dispersed and were sometimes located in deep cortical layers, away from the parent NSC, where postmitotic neurons normally reside. Elav and Pros were partially repressed. Elav repression was more effective in *N* than in *MM* or *DM*. As a rule, cells that accumulated high levels of Dpn downregulated Elav, although in *MM* clones Dpn-negative/Elav-negative cells were often seen. Nuclear Pros downregulation was less common, in fact many cells were found to co-express Dpn and nuclear Pros in *N* clones (but not in *MM*), suggesting that *N* misexpression turns on Dpn before turning off Pros (Fig. S4). These phenotypes are consistent with a scenario in which ectopic Notch or Hes activity causes dedifferentiation of some GMCs (adjacent to the NSC) and early neurons (in deeper layers) back to an NSC-like fate (Fig. 1L). Using combinations of two UAS transgenes to equalize the dosage, we found the phenotypic severity in Type I lineages to be $N > DM > MM = 2xmy > 2xdpn$ (Fig. S5). Some of the dedifferentiated clones contain NSCs as late as in pupal or even adult stages (Fig. S6), a time when normal NSCs have ceased proliferating and are not detectable anymore (Homem et al., 2015; Lee, 2017; Maurange et al., 2008; Sousa-Nunes et al., 2010). Contrary to the behaviour of NSC lineages, misexpression of *N*, *MM* or *DM* in post-mitotic mature neurons (single-cell clones located in deep layers, close to the neuropils or in the abdominal ganglion) did not result in loss of Elav (Fig. 1H-J, blue arrows), suggesting that Notch/Hes activity is effective in causing dedifferentiation only within a certain competence window after neuron birth.

To determine whether the NSC hyperplasias produced by persistent Notch/Hes activity are malignant we used an allograft assay (Rossi and Gonzalez, 2015). In *Drosophila*, a tissue is characterized malignant if it can overgrow upon transplantation to an adult host to the point of causing its premature death. We transplanted brain lobes or ventral nerve cords (VNCs) containing *act>STOP>Gal4* FLP-out clones driving *N*, *MM* or *DM* into young adult female abdomens. Out of the flies that survived the transplantation process, 33-98% developed tumours, seen as increased GFP fluorescence throughout the body, away from the transplantation site; these flies had a significantly lower survival rate than siblings allografted with wt tissue (Fig. 2A,B). Tumour tissue dissected out of the body cavity of host flies was retransplanted into new hosts, whereupon tumour growth was observed in ~100% of injected hosts, and this could be repeated for many rounds (E.Z., C.V., V.T., I.K.P., C.E., S.S.M. and C.D., unpublished). Therefore, persistent Hes expression or excessive Notch signalling are sufficient to cause malignant transformation to larval NSC lineages. The fact that we readily recovered transplantable tumours even from VNC allografts suggests that Notch and Hes can drive malignancies not only from Type II, but also from Type I lineages (Fig. 2A). Histological examination of tumours 10-20 days

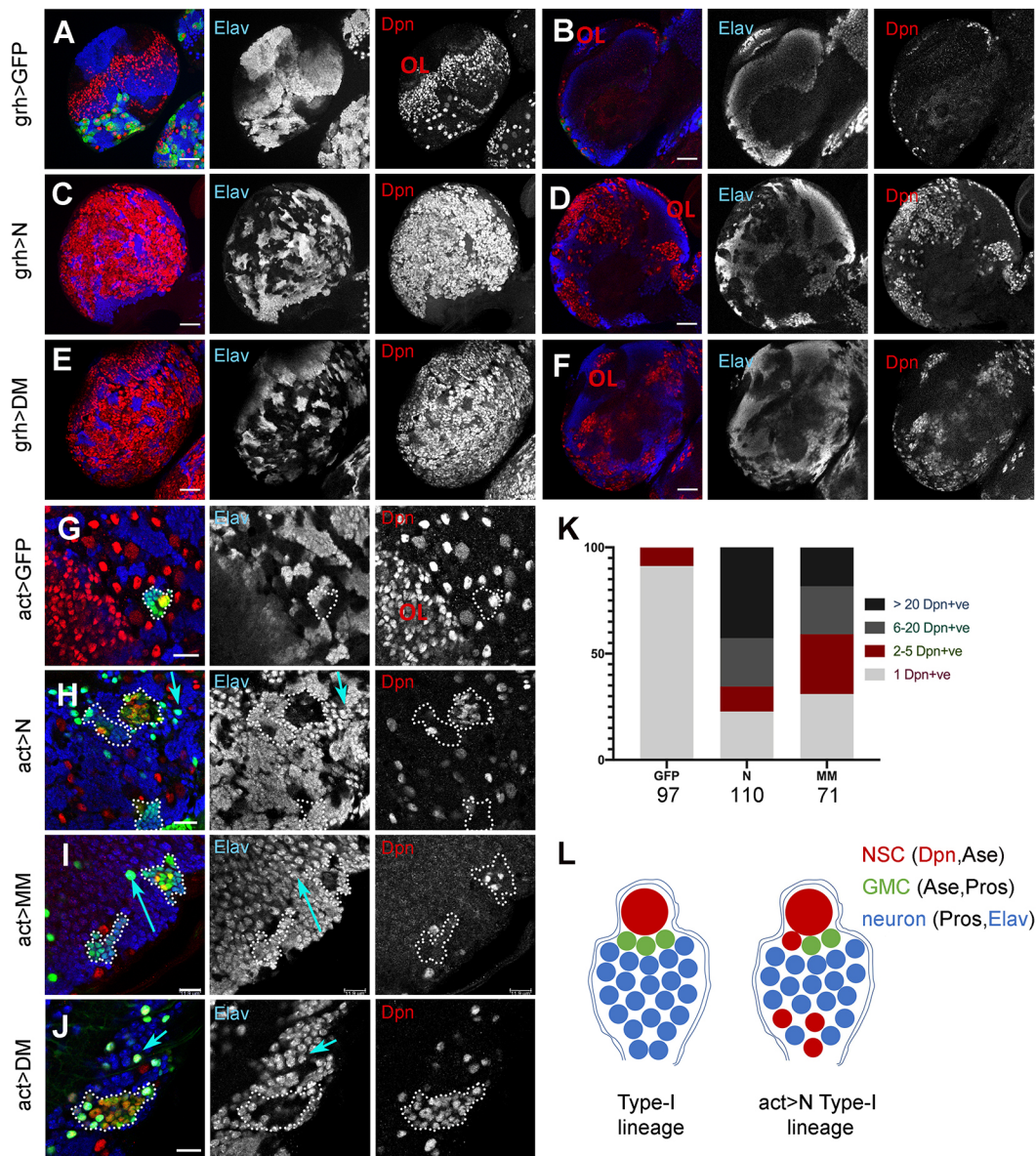


Fig. 1. Hes proteins induce neural hyperplasia. (A–J) Staining for NSCs (Dpn, red) and neurons (Elav, blue). (A,B) *grhNB-Gal4; UAS-CD8GFP* brain lobe; (C,D) Brain lobe from *atub-Gal80ts; grhNB-Gal4; UAS-N Δ ecd* exposed to the restrictive temperature for 24 h; (E,F) Brain lobe from *grhNB-Gal4; UAS-dpn, UAS-my*. A,C,E show superficial projections of $\sim 8 \mu\text{m}$; B,D,F are deep single sections at the level of the neuropil. (G–J) Superficial confocal sections of Type-I lineage *act>stop>Gal4* FLP-out clones expressing the indicated transgenes; G,H are from brain lobes and I,J are from VNCs. NSC lineage clones are traced by dotted lines. Examples of single-cell clones are marked by blue arrows. (K) Number of Dpn-positive cells per clone in the genotypes shown in G–I. Numbers of Type I lineage clones scored at 3 days after clone induction are indicated. (L) Schematics of wt versus *N Δ ecd*-overexpressing Type I lineages. *DM* lineages are similar, with the exception of ubiquitous Dpn expression. *MM* lineages are also similar, with the exception of frequent detection of cells that express neither Dpn nor neuronal markers. OL, optic lobe. Scale bars: $50 \mu\text{m}$ in A–F; $25 \mu\text{m}$ in G–J.

after transplantation showed broad expression of nuclear Dpn. In addition, several cells were positive for nuclear Pros (GMC/early neuron-like; Fig. 2C,D), while Elav-positive neuron-like cells were also observed more sparsely (examples shown later in Fig. 10). These more differentiated cells had generally low or undetectable levels of Dpn, although double-positive cells were also occasionally seen (Fig. 2C). These results indicate an NSC-like tumour phenotype with sustained proliferation (Fig. 2E) and little differentiation.

Comparison of transcriptomes from different CNS primary tumours

As both Hes overexpression and Notch overactivation produce NSC tumours, we wanted to find out to what extent the CNS transcriptomes

following these insults are similar or different. For this reason we performed microarray analysis using RNA from hand-dissected CNSs exposed for 24h (by heat-inactivating the *atub-Gal80ts* inhibitor of Gal4) to *DM*, *MM* or *dpn* (*D*) overexpression via *grhNB-Gal4*. We compared these to Notch- and GFP- (control) overexpressing CNSs using the same overexpression regimen (Zacharioudaki et al., 2016). For this analysis we decided to focus on the *N* and *2xHes* combinations (*DM* and *MM*), as these gave the strongest hyperplasias. Out of 8479 probesets with detectable expression in control larval CNS, we found 1410 that were differentially expressed by at least $1.8\times$ at a $\text{FDR} \leq 0.05$ in at least one of these three conditions (Fig. 3A; Fig. S7). *MM* and *DM* showed very similar transcriptomes – of the 1410 differentially expressed genes (DEGs), none showed an opposite trend between these

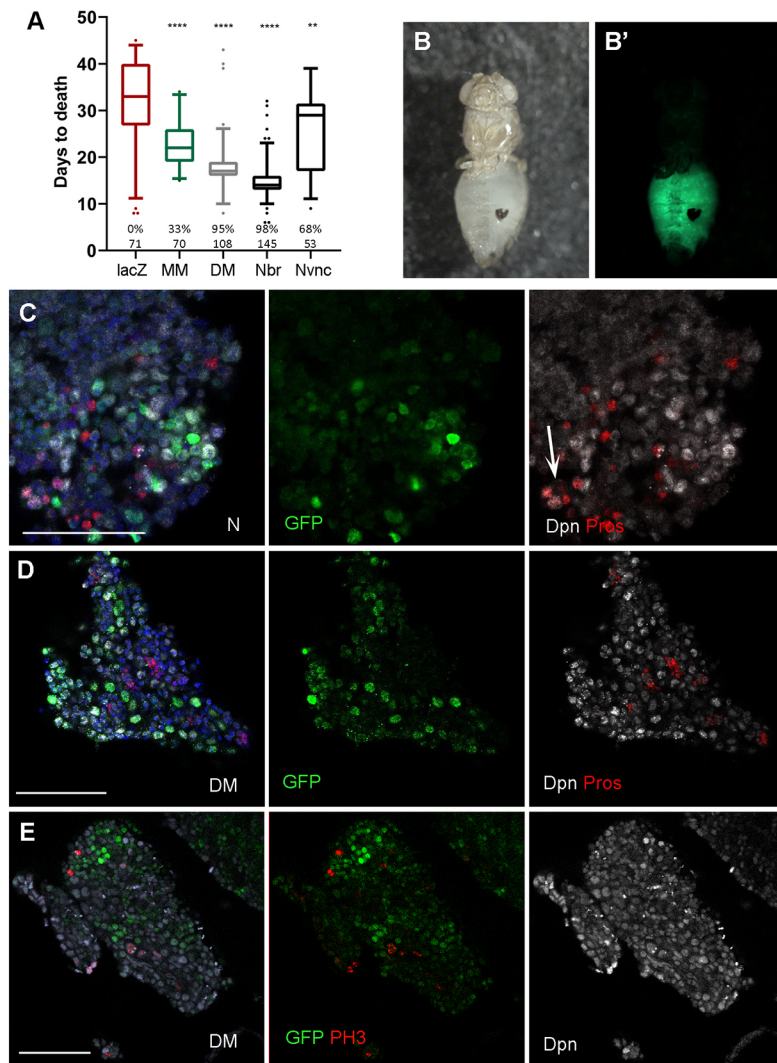


Fig. 2. *NΔecd* and *Hes* overexpression generates transplantable tumours. (A-E) Single VNCs (Nvnc, N-expressing) or brain lobes (all others) containing *act>stop>Gal4* induced clones overexpressing *lacZ* (control), *N*, *DM* or *MM* were allografted into adult wt female abdomens. Quantification in A shows host lifespan after transplantation [box-plot: median values (middle bars) and first to third interquartile ranges (boxes); whiskers are 5% and 95%; dots indicate outliers]. ** $P < 0.01$; **** $P < 0.0001$ (unpaired *t*-test). The numbers indicate the sample size scored. Only flies that developed GFP (as in B) were scored, except for the *lacZ* control. Percentages show the fraction of allografted flies that developed GFP. B shows brightfield image and B' shows epifluorescence image of one indicative host injected with an *act>N* brain. C-E shows fragments of tumour recovered from allografted host abdomens and stained for the markers shown. Histone H3-phosphoS10 (PH3, red) is a mitotic marker, DAPI (blue) shows nuclei. The arrow in C points to a group of double Dpn/Pros-positive cells. Scale bars: 50 μ m.

two conditions (up in one and down in the other). The *N* transcriptome was more distinct, but even so, only a very small number of probesets (eight) showed an opposite trend between *N* and *MM/DM* (union of DEGs in *MM* and *DM*). Correlation analysis showed that *Hes* tumours, including the weaker *D* (*dpn* alone), are more similar to each other than to the Notch tumour (Fig. 3D). In conclusion, *Hes* gene overexpression causes dramatic transcriptome changes in the CNS, which bears similarities and differences to that caused by *NΔecd* overexpression.

To address whether our transcriptome changes simply reflect the change in cellular composition of the CNSs used, we asked whether they correspond to upregulation of NSC-specific genes and/or downregulation of neuron-specific genes. When we queried a list of genes differentially expressed in wt NSCs versus neurons (Berger et al., 2012), no such trend was observed. Instead, most neuron- and NSC-enriched genes were unchanged in the *N/Hes* CNSs and conversely most *N/Hes* differentially regulated genes belonged to neither the neuron- nor the NSC-enriched genesets (Fig. S8). Similar results were obtained with a more recent categorization of genes expressed differentially between (wt) NSCs and GMCs (Wissel et al., 2018). We conclude that the transcriptomic changes that we documented are mostly due to the deregulation of the Notch/*Hes* axis and less because of the accompanying over-representation of NSCs versus GMCs and neurons.

Other genetic insults have been reported to generate brain tumours in *Drosophila* (reviewed by Kang and Reichert, 2015). We recovered transcriptome data for two tumours formed by *brat* RNAi in NSC lineages (using *insc-Gal4*) (Neumüller et al., 2011), two caused by the loss of cell polarity genes *l(2)gl* and *scrib* (GEO GSE48852) and one caused by the loss of the nuclear architecture gene *l(3)mbt* (Janic et al., 2010). When we compared these with our *N/Hes*-induced tumours (Fig. 3D; Fig. S9), we saw little or no similarity. Essentially no correlation was observed between the *Hes* transcriptomes and any of the other tumours. The *N* transcriptome showed a moderate correlation with the two *brat* RNAi conditions, but not the *l(2)gl*^{-/-}, *scrib*^{-/-} or *l(3)mbt*^{-/-}. This is consistent with the fact that the *N/Hes* tumours consist mostly of NSC-like cells, whereas the *l(2)gl*^{-/-} and *scrib*^{-/-} tumours strongly express differentiation markers (Beaucher et al., 2007). *l(3)mbt* tumours stood apart from all others, in agreement with a different cellular origin (optic lobe precursors; Richter et al., 2011). In short, Notch overactivation partially resembles *Hes* overactivation and partially resembles *brat* loss-of-function, which are distinct from each other.

Upon GO term analysis of the *N/Hes* transcriptomes, a few terms showed statistically significant enrichment (Fig. 3B,C), mostly associated with neurogenesis. Interestingly, 'DNA binding transcription factor', was enriched in both the upregulated and

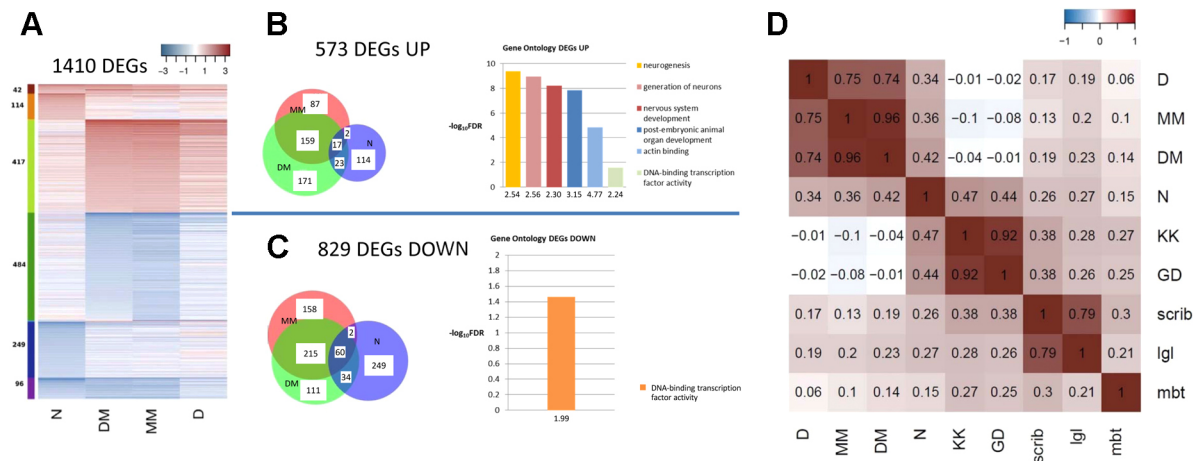


Fig. 3. Microarray analysis of Notch versus Hes overexpressing larval CNSs. (A) Heatmap showing the \log_2 (fold-change) of all 1410 genes (probesets) with an expression change of at least 1.8 \times compared with wt CNS controls (FDR \leq 0.05) in at least one of the four conditions (N, DM, MM or D expressed by *grhNB-Gal4* for 24 h). (B,C) The 1410 DEGs were split into 573 upregulated (B) and 829 downregulated (C) (and eight oppositely regulated; GSE141794). The Venn diagrams classify these genes according to the condition(s) where they showed change with high confidence (FDR \leq 0.05). GO terms showing significant enrichment are shown with fold enrichment in the x-axis. (D) Spearman rank correlation coefficients of the distributions of fold-change values for nine CNS tumour transcriptomes, calculated on the basis of the entire set of 8479 genes, showing detectable expression in our control array. scrib, lgl and mbt refer to homozygous mutant CNSs for *scrib*, *l(2)gl* and *l(3)mbt*; KK and GD refer to two *brat* RNAi lines driven by *insc-Gal4*.

downregulated subset of DEGs, which prompted us to focus on TF genes for the follow up analysis.

Genome-wide binding of Dpn

Transcriptomic analysis of complex tissues is inherently noisy from the contribution of numerous cell types. In order to reveal the direct targets of Hes proteins in the NSCs we performed ChIP using an anti-Dpn antibody on hyperplastic larval CNSs overexpressing *UAS-dpn+UAS-E(spl)m γ* driven by *grhNB-Gal4*. This enabled us to focus on the expanded population of NSCs, as there is little Dpn expression (endogenous or transgenic) in other cell types. From two ChIP-seq biological replicates we obtained a high confidence set of 229 regions displaying Dpn occupancy (Fig. 4A). Mining these 229 ChIP peaks for over-represented DNA motifs, we obtained an E_B/E_C box sequence and variants as the top hits (Fig. 4B), confirming that in an *in vivo* context Dpn binds sequences that conform to the well described *in vitro* binding consensus for Hes proteins (Jennings et al., 1999; Winston et al., 1999).

A large percentage of the Dpn peaks fell within or near genes (Fig. 4C). We extracted a list of 358 genes that contain at least one Dpn binding event within \pm 5kb of the gene body. These genes are enriched for factors involved in neural precursor development, Notch signalling and transcriptional regulation (Fig. 4D). When this list of Dpn binding-associated genes was overlapped with the DEGs from the microarray experiment, we obtained 50 genes, the transcriptional response of which is shown in Fig. 4E. Although Hes proteins are thought to act as repressors, only half of these 50 Dpn-bound genes showed repression in the Hes-induced tumours. This is not surprising, because of the heterogeneity of the tissue analysed and the complexities of transcriptional regulation. Genes bound by Dpn in the NSCs may also be expressed in cell types other than NSCs/GMCs/early neurons, in which we drive DM overexpression. Furthermore, mRNA levels respond to multiple transcriptional/post-transcriptional regulatory inputs, so that the overall effect of Hes overexpression (integrating direct and indirect effects) may not be repression, despite Dpn binding near these genes. We do not exclude the possibility that Hes proteins might behave as activators in certain enhancer contexts, although we have no evidence in support of such a scenario (Fig. S10). We focussed

our subsequent experimental validation on a set of TF genes which appear to be prominent Hes targets, as they combine high Dpn occupancy with transcriptional repression in the Hes-induced tumours.

Differentiation-promoting TFs are among the most highly downregulated Hes target genes

Amongst the top downregulated/Dpn-bound transcription factors we noted two zinc-finger genes *erm* and *nerfin-1*, known to promote neural differentiation (Fig. 4E,H,I). *erm* is turned on in the immature INP progeny of Type II NSCs and restricts their self-renewal. Its loss-of-function is sufficient to cause dedifferentiation of INPs to highly proliferative ectopic Type II NSCs (Janssens et al., 2014; Koe et al., 2014; Weng et al., 2010). An enhancer recapitulating its expression was shown to bind stem cell repressors, including Dpn (Janssens et al., 2017) and coincides with one of the two peaks we detected (Fig. 4H). *nerfin-1* is expressed in newly born neurons in both Type I and II lineages as well as in terminating NSCs after pupariation. Its loss can cause dedifferentiation and overproliferation (Froldi et al., 2015).

Besides, the well-studied *erm* and *nerfin-1*, there were another 13 TFs among the 27 downregulated/Dpn-bound TF genes. We chose two of these, *zfh1* and *gcm* (Fig. 4F,G), as they had been implicated in differentiation (see below) and we had access to reagents, to ask whether their repression by the *N/Hes* system might play a role in NSC tumorigenesis. *zfh1* encodes a large protein with a homeodomain and nine zinc-fingers; it has a broad tissue distribution and pleiotropic functions, e.g. embryonic mesoderm, neuron and glia differentiation (Layden et al., 2006; Postigo et al., 1999; Sellin et al., 2009). In third instar larval and early pupal CNSs we detected moderate expression in newly-born neurons in most brain (Type I and II) and VNC lineages (Fig. 5A,B, yellow arrows). Stronger expression was detected in dispersed older neurons located in deeper cortical layers (Fig. S11). In addition, a large number of glia, perhaps all glia, exhibited detectable *zfh1* expression. Hyperplastic brains generated by overexpression of *N Δ ecd* or *2xHes* using *grhNB-Gal4* showed reduced *zfh1* expression, especially in the superficial layers (Fig. 5C-F). The disorganization of the brain and shrinking of the neuropils did not allow us to assess the effect on mature neurons and glial cells.

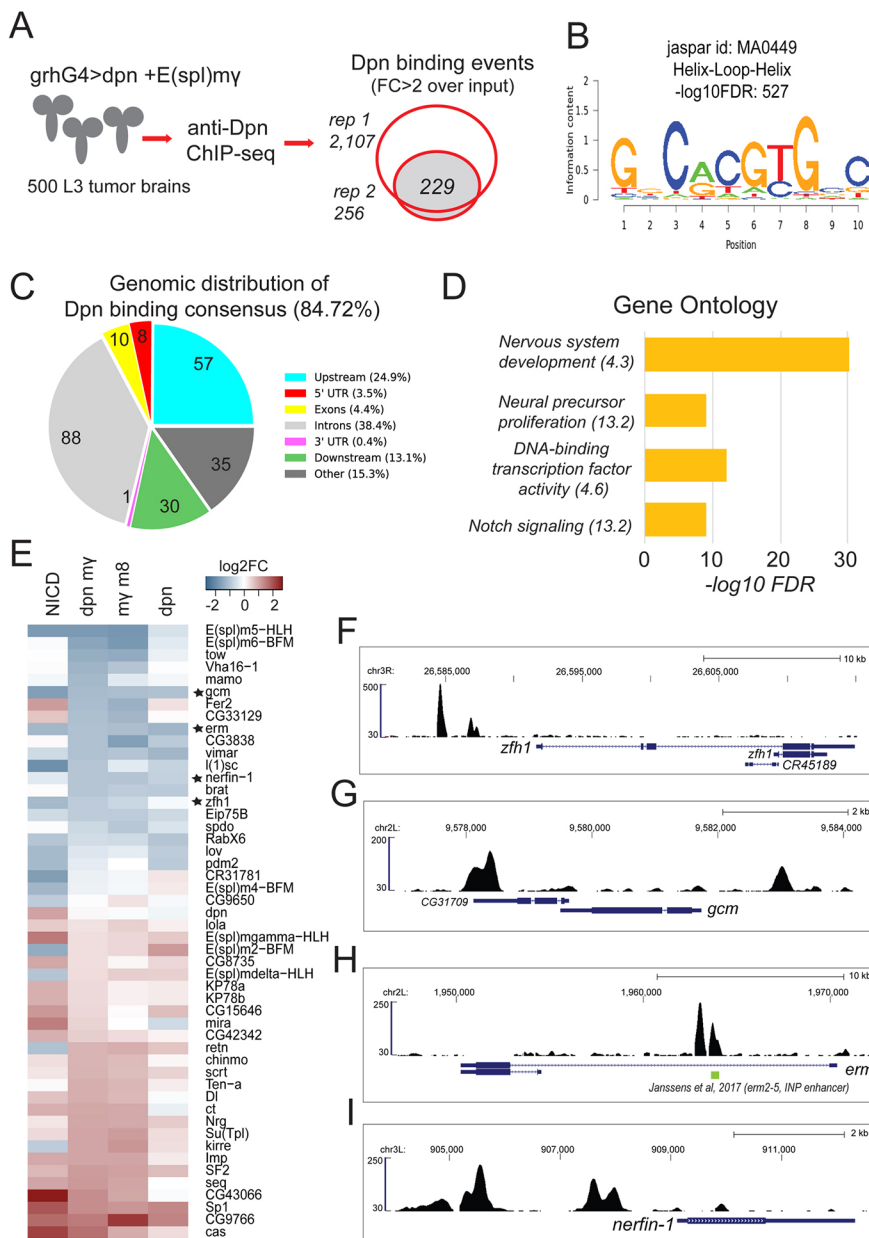


Fig. 4. Genome-wide mapping of Dpn binding in *DM* CNS hyperplasias. (A) Chromatin extracts from 500 third instar larval *DM* CNSs were isolated and incubated with anti-Dpn bound beads. A Dpn binding consensus of 229 binding events was generated from regions enriched at least $2\times$ input in two biological ChIP replicates. (B) Motif analysis of the Dpn-bound regions revealed high enrichment for a Hes-type bHLH binding motif. (C) Genomic distribution of Dpn-bound peaks. (D) Gene ontology enrichment analysis of the 358 genes with Dpn binding events in their vicinity. (E) Transcriptional response of 50 Dpn-bound genes that were also differentially regulated in our microarray analysis. (F-I) Genomic snapshots of Dpn binding at the *zfh1* (F), *gcm* (G), *erm* (H) and *nerfin-1* (I) loci.

The *gcm* gene encodes a transcriptional activator and founder of the Gcm-family of proteins, which are known to promote gliogenesis (Ragone et al., 2003), but also differentiation of some neurons, tendon cells and haemocytes (Cattenoz et al., 2016). In the larval CNS we detected *gcm* expression using the *gcm^{rA87}-lacZ* enhancer trap (Jones et al., 1995) (Fig. 6). Besides widespread expression in the optic lobe, there was sparse expression in the larval CNS (Fig. 6A,B). In deep areas (near the neuropils) *lacZ* was detected in some Repo-positive glial cells as well as nearby cells that could be neuropil glia precursors (Fig. S12). At the superficial levels of the central brain and thoracic ganglion, we did not detect *lacZ* expression in NSCs, but we did detect it in some INPs in both lateral and medial Type II NSC lineages (Fig. S12). This is in agreement with the fact that some of the Type II lineages produce glia as well as neurons (Viktorin et al., 2011, 2013). *gcm-lacZ* was also prominently expressed in two neuronal clusters, one on the ventral and one on the dorsal side of each brain hemisphere – these are Type I-derived neurons, but nearby NSCs were *gcm-lacZ*-negative (Soustelle and Giangrande, 2007). The only

NSCs expressing *gcm-lacZ* were found at the medial edge of the medulla and at the optic lobe inner proliferation centre (Fig. S12A,C), probably gliogenic NSCs (Li et al., 2013). Upon *grhNB-Gal4* overexpression of *2xHes* or *Nlaced*, central brain expression of *gcm-lacZ* was downregulated in both neuron and glial precursors (Fig. 6C-F), with the exception of some deep glial precursors that retained *gcm-lacZ* expression. Optic lobe expression was unaffected, as *grhNB-Gal4* does not drive expression in the optic lobe.

Loss- and gain-of-function analysis of novel Hes targets

Both embryonic and post-embryonic phenotypes of the loss of *gcm* and *zfh1* have been described. *gcm* loss-of-function in the larva results in the absence of most glial cells born post-embryonically (Awasaki et al., 2008). In the postembryonic CNS, *zfh1* loss-of-function has been studied in the context of specific leg motor neuron lineages and it results in defects in neuron morphology, but not defects in their birth or neurotransmitter phenotype (Enriquez et al., 2015). To address their need in NSCs and their immediate progeny,

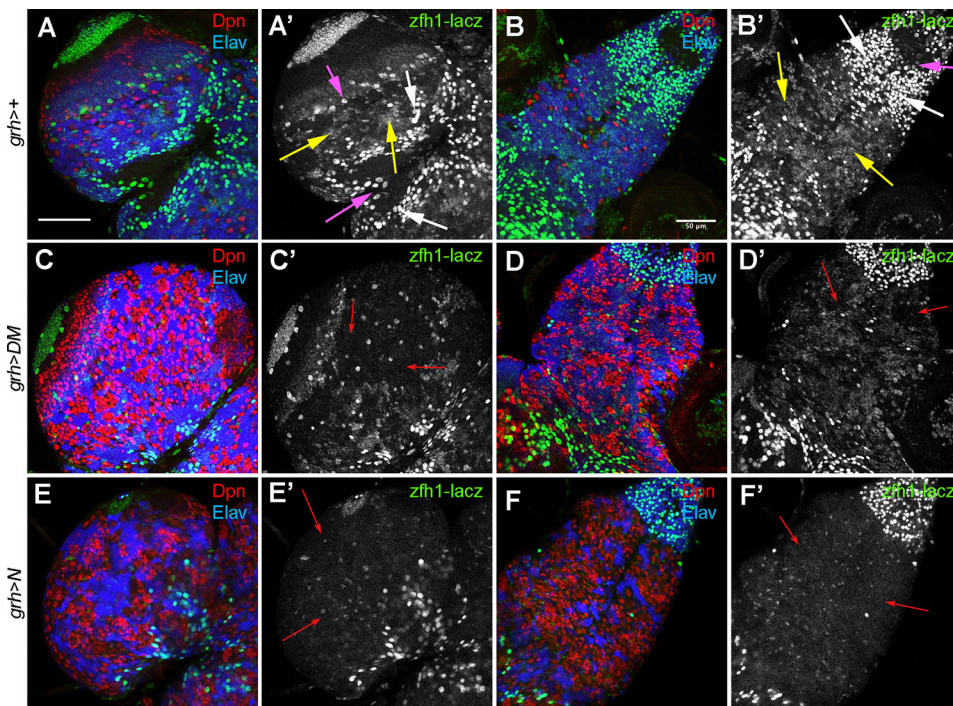


Fig. 5. *zfh1* expression in wt and hyperplastic CNSs. (A-F) *zfh1-lacZ*⁰⁰⁸⁶⁵ was used to report *zfh1* expression (green), compared with Dpn (red) and Elav (blue). Panels show ~2 μm-thick projections just below the CNS surface from brain lobes (A,C, E) and VNCs (B,D,F). All CNSs carry *grhNB-Gal4* and no UAS transgene (wt) (A,B), *UAS-dpn*, *UAS-E(spl)mγ* (DM) (C,D) and *UAS-NΔecd* (N) (E,F). In the wt panels (A-B'), regions of *zfh1*-expressing GMCs/young neurons are marked with yellow arrows, selected mature neurons with white arrows and selected glia with magenta arrows. In C'-F', examples of regions of *zfh1* repression are indicated by red arrows. Scale bars: 50 μm.

we generated MARCM clones for null alleles (*zfh1*^{75,26} or *gcm*^{N7-4}) 24-48 h after larval hatching and studied their effects 3-5 days later, namely in late larval or early pupal (12-24 h after puparium formation) stages. Unlike *erm* and *nerfin-1*, the loss of which causes supernumerary Type II and Type I NSCs, respectively, knocking out either *zfh1* or *gcm* had no detectable effect in the cellular composition of either Type I or Type II lineages based on NSC, GMC and neuron markers (Dpn, Pros, Elav; Fig. S13).

We then turned to a gain-of-function approach to ask what would happen if we were to forcibly express these Hes-repressed factors in NSCs. For this reason we used an *act>STOP>Gal4* driver and

induced expression by *hs-FLP* in mid-larval stages. Overexpression of *zfh1* in type I lineages resulted in complete elimination of Dpn within 1 day of clone induction (Fig. 7A-D,G). This was accompanied by shrinkage of the NSC, making it in most cases (76% of the clones) indistinguishable from other cells in the clone. Ase, another NSC (and GMC) marker, was not similarly repressed within the first day, although it too was extinguished at later times after clone induction (ACI) (Fig. S14). Interestingly, Elav and Pros were also partially repressed in *zfh1*-overexpressing lineages (Fig. 7C-F; Fig. S14): several cells lacked both Dpn and these differentiation markers in a large proportion of clones (Fig. 7H). For

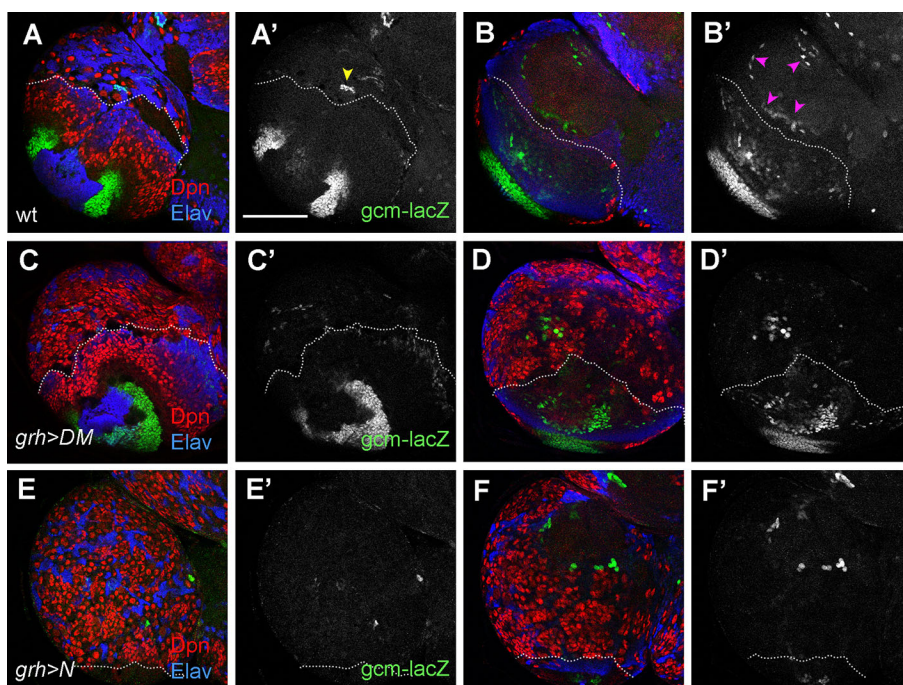


Fig. 6. *gcm* expression in wt and hyperplastic CNSs. (A-F) *gcm-lacZ*^{A87} was used to report *gcm* expression (green) versus Dpn (red) and Elav (blue). (A,B) wt brain lobe, superficial (A) and deep (B) section. Neuropil glia are indicated by magenta arrowheads. One of the Gcm-positive neuronal clusters is marked by a yellow arrowhead. (C,D) DM-overexpressing brain lobe, superficial (C) and deep (D) section. (E,F) N-overexpressing brain lobe, superficial (E) and deep (F) section. In all panels, the dotted line indicates the border between central brain (upper) and optic lobe (lower). Scale bar: 100 μm.

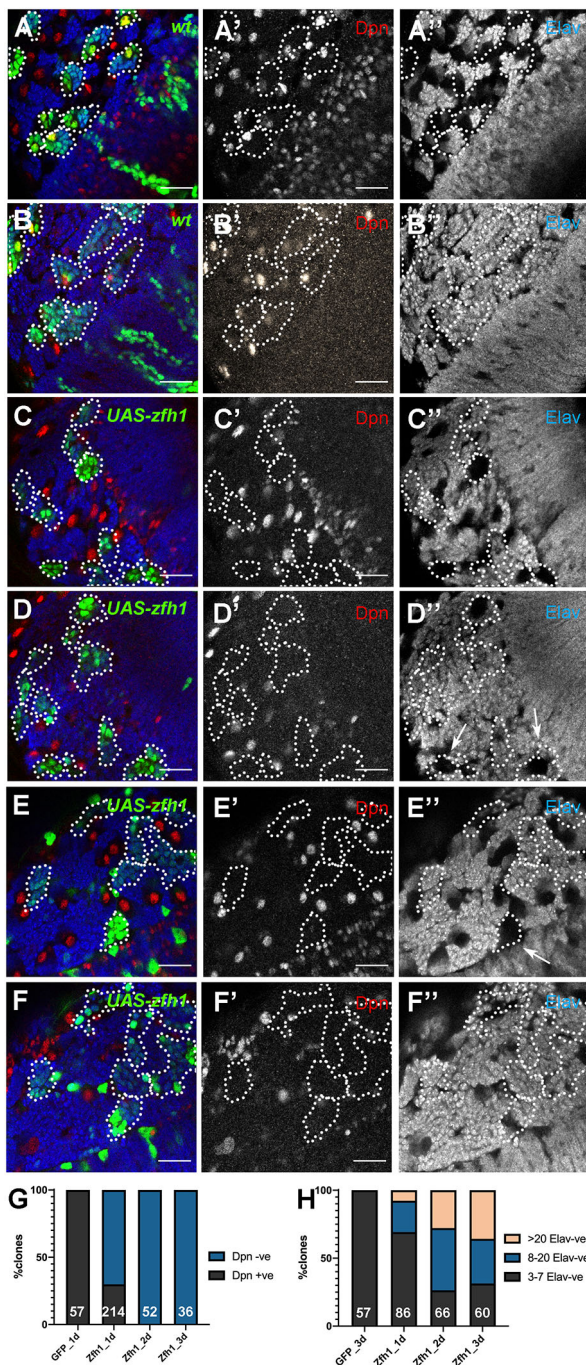


Fig. 7. *zfh1* misexpression in CNS lineages. (A-F) *act>STOP>Gal4* FLP-out clones are marked by GFP (green) and traced with dotted outlines. (A,B) Control (wt) clones, 2 days after clone induction (ACI) – the same brain lobe area imaged superficially, at the level of NSCs (A) and deeper (B). (C,D) Superficial and deep sections (same region) of *UAS-zfh1* clones 1 day ACI. (E,F) Superficial and deep sections (same region) of *UAS-zfh1* clones 2 days ACI. Arrows (D',E') point to examples of Elav-repressed clones. Scale bars: 25 μ m. (G) Frequency of clones containing or lacking a Dpn-positive cell. (H) Frequency of clones showing extensive Elav repression or exhibiting normal Elav in all cells but the NSC/GMCs.

comparison, wt clones never contained Dpn/Pros-double negative cells; nuclear Pros was detectable in all NSC progeny (GMCs and neurons) and Elav gradually came on in neurons, even those that were still close to the NSC at the CNS surface. Thus overexpression of *zfh1* was able to antagonize both NSC and neuron cell fates.

These cells were not converted to glia, as the glial marker Repo was not induced in *act>zfh1* clones (Fig. S14).

Unlike *zfh1*, ectopic expression of *gcm* for 2-3 days did not greatly upset the execution of NSC lineages, other than converting some of the differentiated progeny into glia (Fig. S15; see also Fig. 9E), consistent with its well-known glia-promoting role.

Overexpression of Hes targets ameliorates the tumour phenotype

We next wanted to address whether overexpression of *zfh1* or *gcm* would influence *N/Hes*-induced tumorigenesis. If the depletion of these Hes targets contributes towards tumorigenesis in Hes/Notch CNS tumours, perhaps expressing them transgenically would reverse this effect. We therefore co-expressed either *gcm* or *zfh1* with tumour-promoting transgene combinations, namely *N*, *MM* or *DM*, in random *act>STOP>Gal4* clones.

Overexpression of *zfh1* in a tumour background produced round clones with a conspicuous absence of Dpn in most lineages (unless *UAS-dpn* was used); only a few scattered escaper Dpn-positive cells were seen (Fig. 8). Therefore, the ability of Zfh1 to repress *dpn* overrides the activation of the latter by *N* or *MM*. Another NSC marker, *Ase*, responded more variably: it was fully repressed in *UAS-N+zfh1* clones, whereas it showed variable penetrance in *UAS-DM* (or *MM*)+*zfh1* clones (Fig. S16); in some clones it was repressed, whereas in others it was activated in many cells. More remarkable was the strong repression of Elav (Fig. 8) and Pros (Fig. S16) in *UAS-N* (*DM*, *MM*)+*zfh1* clones, which was seen with full penetrance (in all clones) in the majority of the marked cells. Whereas both *UAS-N* (or *DM* or *MM*; Fig. 1) and *UAS-zfh1* (Fig. 7) produced sporadic loss of these differentiation markers, their combination was far more potent (compare Fig. 8A,C,E with Fig. 8B,D,F). We excluded the possibility that the *N/Hes+zfh1* expressing cells were massively converted to glia using the pan-glial Repo marker (Fig. S16). In summary, *zfh1* overexpression overrides Dpn induction by *N/Hes* (Fig. 8G), but synergizes with the latter to maintain CNS progenitors in an undifferentiated state (which sometimes retain the *Ase* marker), generating cell clumps that stay separate and do not integrate with the cortex of differentiated neurons/glia.

Overexpression of *gcm* had a markedly different effect in *N* versus *DM* tumour backgrounds (Fig. 9; Fig. S17). In the *N* background it enhanced neuronal de-differentiation, with fully penetrant repression of Elav, but little or no repression of Pros (Fig. S17A,C). Repo was dramatically induced and often co-expressed with Dpn (Fig. 9A,B). More specifically, *N+gcm* clones consisted mostly of two types of cells: NSC-like Dpn-positive/Repo-negative cells and Dpn/Repo-double positive cells with lower Dpn levels. In contrast, *gcm+Hes* co-expression did not induce Repo as strongly; only a few cells were Repo positive in 10-20% of the clones, which is less than the frequency of Repo induction by misexpression of *gcm* alone (Fig. 9C-E). *DM/MM+gcm* also did not enhance Elav repression beyond that caused by *DM* or *MM* alone (Fig. S17B). Instead, it reduced the NSC-like cells, as evidenced by a reduction in *Ase*- or Dpn-positive cells compared with *DM/MM* alone (Fig. S17D-H). In conclusion, whereas *gcm* synergizes with Notch to generate precursor-like cells, many of which express the glia marker Repo, this cannot be recapitulated by co-expressing *gcm* with Hes factors, suggesting a different mechanism of Notch-Gcm synergy that may not involve the usual Hes targets of Notch.

To determine the malignancy potential of NSC tumours after co-expression of *zfh1* or *gcm*, we transplanted brain lobes bearing *N* or *DM* clones into abdomens of adult females. Both *zfh1* and *gcm*

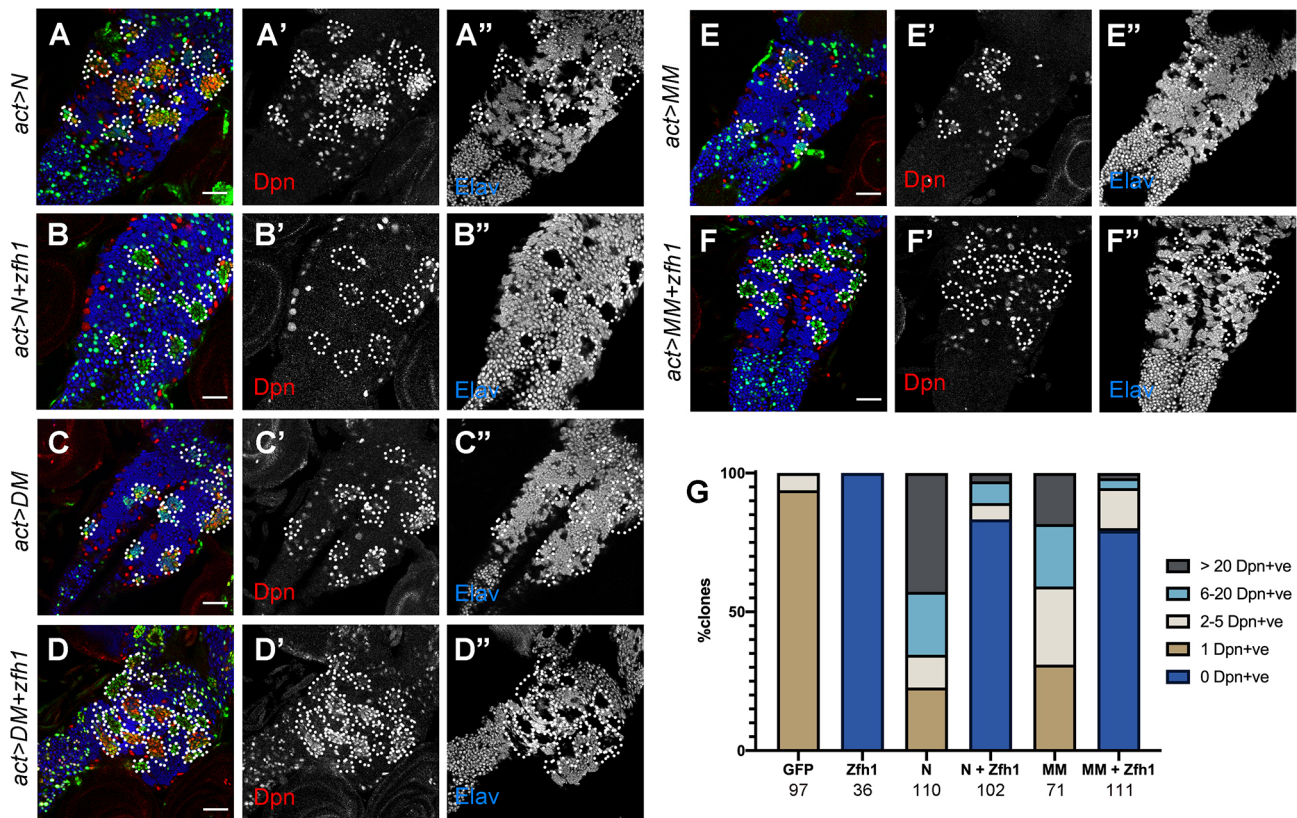


Fig. 8. Effects of *zfh1* misexpression on *N*, *DM* and *MM* lineages. (A-F) FLP-out (*act>STOP>Gal4*) clones (traced by dotted lines) expressing GFP (green) and the indicated transgenes. (A'-F') Dpn channel and (A''-F'') Elav channel. All images are from VNCs; the same effects were observed in brain lobes. Scale bars: 50 μ m. (G) 3-day-old (ACI) clones were scored for the number of NSCs per clone. The total number of Type I clones (both brain lobes and VNCs) scored for each genotype is shown below the chart.

significantly decreased the number of allografts generating malignancies from ~100% to 77% or less (Fig. 10A). Many of these tumours grew more slowly and allowed their hosts to survive longer (Fig. 10A). Therefore, both *zfh1* and *gcm* have an anti-tumorigenic effect when co-expressed with *N* or *DM*. Upon histological examination of *N+zfh1* tumours, we observed a large number of Elav-positive (neuron-like) cells, which were only sporadically seen in *N* tumours. Intriguingly, when the malignant tumour from the original allograft (T0) was transplanted to a new host, the resulting tumour (T1) contained significantly fewer Elav-positive cells and this was also true for T2, the next passage (Fig. 10B-G). Therefore, the *N+zfh1* CNS lineages have a greater tendency to differentiate after allografting (despite their initial repression of Elav), but they lose this ability upon serial passaging.

DISCUSSION

During neurogenesis, NSCs divide asymmetrically and their more differentiated progeny sends a DI-Notch signal back to the NSC. We have studied the NSC hyperplasias caused by overactivation of Notch or overexpression of its Hes targets, *dpn*, *E(spl)my* and *E(spl)m8*, in the larval CNS of *Drosophila*. Here, we show that such ectopic NSCs are highly prone to malignancy, as evidenced by their ability to be serially allografted and propagated in adult hosts. The proliferating larval NSCs and their progeny were already known to be prone to tumorigenesis if their asymmetric cell divisions are perturbed (Caussinus and Gonzalez, 2005; Gateff, 1978). Tumorigenesis has been more recently documented for other insults, among others overexpression of the early temporal TF *chinmo* (Narbonne-Reveau et al., 2016) or loss of the differentiation

TF *nerfin-1* (Froldi et al., 2015). It was suspected that Notch overactivity would also be tumorigenic based on the malignancy of *numb* loss-of-function lineages (Caussinus and Gonzalez, 2005), and we now firmly show that indeed Notch/Hes axis overactivity can lead to CNS tumorigenesis.

How does the Notch/Hes axis contribute to NSC maintenance? Earlier we showed that Su(H), the TF that tethers cleaved (activated) Notch to its target enhancers, binds near all genes specifically expressed in the larval NSC, indicatively *klu*, *ase*, *wor*, *pnt*, *Myc* and *mira*, besides the Hes genes in the *dpn* and *E(spl)* loci (Zacharioudaki et al., 2016). This is consistent with Notch signalling promoting NSC maintenance and with the fact that one of the steps taken by the differentiating NSC progeny is to downregulate the Notch signal by accumulating high levels of Numb, a Notch inhibitor. In fact the phenotype of our *act>>Gal4* (FLP-out) clones overexpressing *NΔecd* or *2xHes* (Fig. 1) is almost identical to the phenotype of *numb*^{-/-} clones (Lin et al., 2010).

From our earlier analysis, we knew that Hes genes are needed for NSC maintenance (Zacharioudaki et al., 2012). In the present work, we have gained insight on how the Hes factors contribute to NSC maintenance. We have shown that Dpn binds and represses a number of TF genes, among which are some that promote differentiation. A typical one is *gcm*, a well-known glia-promoting TF, which was able to antagonize Notch/Hes-induced tumorigenesis (Fig. 10). Another Hes-repressed direct target is *zfh1*, which appears to reciprocally repress *dpn* (Fig. 7), although we do not know whether this is a direct or indirect effect. Previously, genetic interactions implicated *Zfh1* in the action of the NURD chromatin remodelling complex, which was shown to

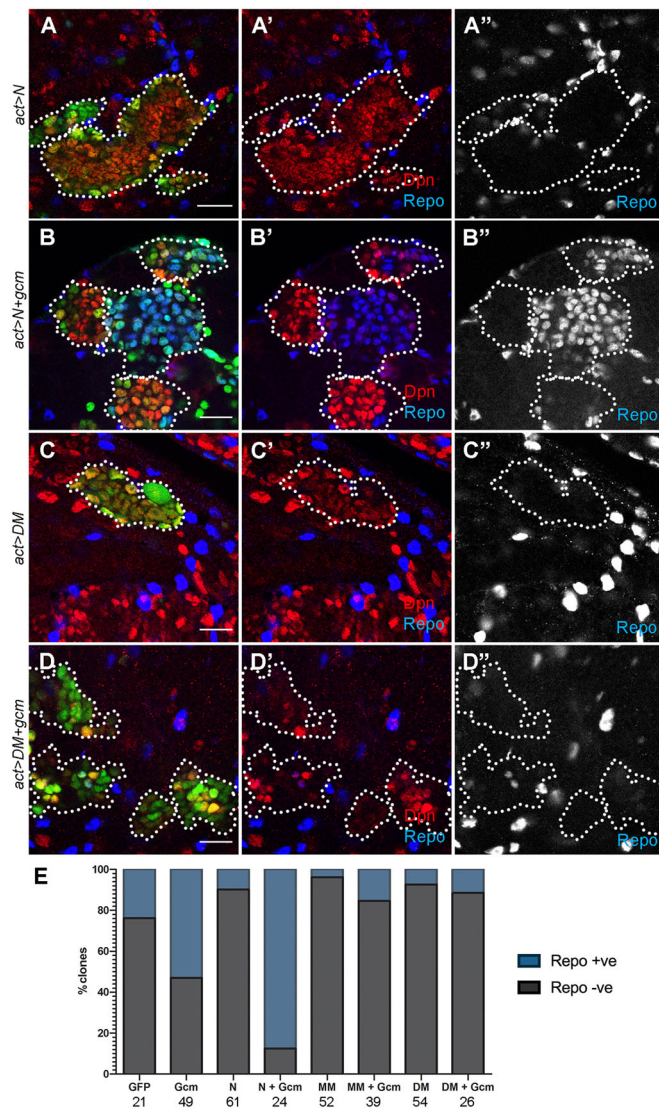


Fig. 9. Effects of *gcm* misexpression on *N* and *DM* lineages. (A-D) FLP-out (*act>STOP>Gal4*) clones (traced by dotted lines) from brain lobes expressing GFP (green) and the indicated transgenes. Repo (blue) marks glial cells. Note the general scarcity of Repo-positive cells within clones, with the exception of (B), in which two clones contain large numbers of glia. Scale bars: 20 μ m. (E) The frequency of clones containing at least one Repo-positive cell (blue) versus none (grey). The numbers below the chart indicate the number of clones scored. Only clones in central brain regions were scored.

shut off *E(spl)my* transcription in NSC progeny (Zacharioudaki et al., 2019). A plausible scenario is that Zfh1 acts with NURD to actively decommission many Notch-responsive target enhancers in NSC lineages, including *dpn* and *E(spl)*. Besides repressing *Hes* genes, Zfh1 must also have other NSC targets, as its forced expression ameliorates *DM* tumorigenesis, despite exogenous expression of *dpn* and *E(spl)my* (Fig. 8; Fig. S16). Likely candidates for other Zfh1 targets are the remaining NSC stemness TFs, such as *ase*, *wor* and *klu*, although direct repression of other stem-cell functions, such as the cell cycle, is also possible.

Other TFs reported to repress NSC genes are Pros (Bayraktar et al., 2010; Cabernard and Doe, 2009; Choksi et al., 2006; Colonques et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2020; Southall and Brand, 2009; Vaessin et al., 1991), LolaN (Flybase: Lola-PP) (Southall et al., 2014) and Nerfin-1 (Froldi et al., 2015; Viissers et al., 2018) in

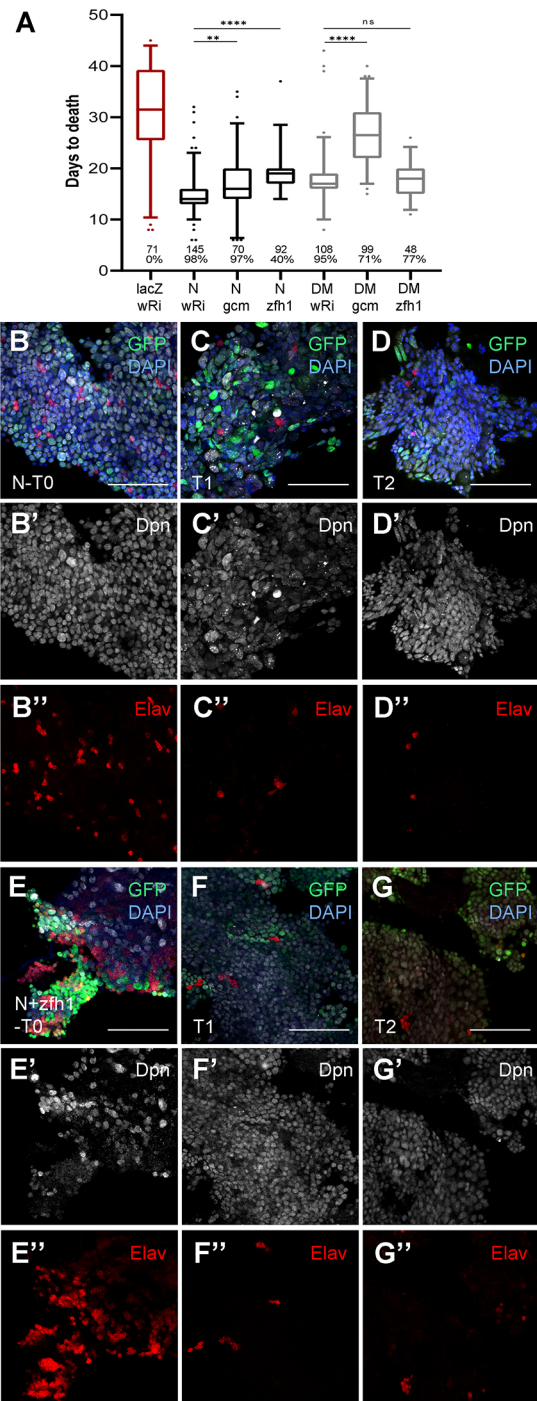


Fig. 10. Effects of *gcm* and *zfh1* misexpression on *N* and *DM* tumorigenesis. (A) Host lifespan after transplantation of larval brain lobes carrying *act>STOP>Gal4* clones of the indicated genotypes; *lacZ* and *wRi* (white-RNAi) are neutral UAS transgenes. Box-plot: median values (middle bars) and first to third interquartile ranges (boxes); whiskers are 5% and 95%; dots indicate outliers. $**P<0.01$; $****P<0.0001$ (unpaired *t*-test). The percentage of injected flies that developed detectable GFP (under the stereoscope) is shown. In all but the control (*lacZ*+*wRi*), viability was scored only for GFP-positive flies – numbers of flies scored are shown. (B-G) Progression of *act>N* (B-D) and *act>N+zfh1* (E-G) transplanted tumours. Shown are tumour fragments recovered from the host abdomen and stained for the indicated markers. (B,E) T0 tumour recovered after transplanting larval brain lobe. (C,F) T1 tumour recovered after transplanting T0 tumour pieces. (D,G) T2 tumour recovered after transplanting T1 tumour pieces. Scale bars: 25 μ m.

Type I lineages and Erm in Type II INPs (Janssens et al., 2014; Koe et al., 2014; Weng et al., 2010). All four, like *Zfh1*, show mutually repressive relationships with the Hes factors: they have strong Dpn binding in their vicinity (Fig. 4) and most are downregulated in *N/Hes* tumours (Fig. 3A, although *pros* downregulation was less than the 1.8× cut-off we imposed). Repression by Hes factors has been reported for *erm* (Janssens et al., 2017; Li et al., 2017) and *pros* (San-Juán and Baonza, 2011; Zhu et al., 2012), and we now show it for *zfh1*. Together *Pros*, *Zfh1*, *LolaN* and *Nerfin-1* may therefore constitute a group of TFs that switch off the expression of stemness markers, ensuring their specific accumulation only in the NSCs.

Curiously, these anti-stemness TF genes (*zfh1*, *erm*, *nerfin-1*, *lolaN* and *pros*) are also in the vicinity of experimentally detected Su(H) binding sites, even though Notch activity represses them (Zacharioudaki et al., 2016; this study). Perhaps high Notch signalling in the NSC primes these chromatin regions for activity, but transcription is prevented by the binding of Hes repressors that accumulate to high levels in the NSC. As Notch signalling diminishes in the NSC progeny, Hes proteins disappear and these genes are derepressed. They in turn would serve to repress residual stemness gene transcription in the early-born neurons, in which lower levels of Notch activity are still present, as evidenced by the need for Notch in neuron fate decisions (Truman et al., 2010) and the neuronal expression of *Hey*, another Notch target (Monastirioti et al., 2010).

Do these anti-stemness factors directly promote differentiation, like *Gcm*? We have evidence that *Zfh1* does the contrary, namely antagonizes differentiation. We see this by the loss of early neuronal markers such as *Elav* upon *Zfh1* overexpression (Figs 7 and 8). A plausible scenario is that after GMC divisions, newly-born neurons remain in a developmentally plastic state by virtue of expressing *zfh1* (and probably also *pros*, *lolaN* and *nerfin-1*) and they only differentiate when these factors are downregulated at a later time. When in this plastic state, cells can be reprogrammed by increased Notch/Hes activity leading to ectopic NSCs. In contrast, mature neurons and glia never de-differentiate to NSCs upon the same Notch/Hes stimulation. A similar role in delaying differentiation has been described for *Zfh1* and its mammalian homologue *ZEB1* during myogenesis (Boukhatmi and Bray, 2018; Siles et al., 2013). We also noted a difference between the activity of *Zfh1* and mammalian *ZEB1*: Whereas *ZEB1* is well-known for promoting epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition and enabling tumour progression and metastasis (Brabletz and Brabletz, 2010; Rosmaninho et al., 2018), in our system, *Zfh1* suppressed NSC lineage tumorigenesis.

In summary, Notch activity favours NSC fate via setting up a network of TFs that mutually cross-regulate and allow a gradual transition to differentiation as Notch activity dwindles. Why does persistent Notch activity lead to malignant tumours? Our data show that tumorigenesis is not a simple consequence of an inability to differentiate. *N/zfh1* and *DM/zfh1* CNSs contain more undifferentiated cells than *N* or *DM*, but they are also less tumorigenic. Also, normal NSCs, despite being undifferentiated, do not produce tumours when FACS-sorted and allografted (Landskron et al., 2018). Further studies are needed to characterize the transition of NSC lineages to malignancy.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

DNA constructs

UAS constructs of *dpn*, *E(spl)my* and *E(spl)m8* were made by PCR amplifying the coding sequences of these genes (primer sequences are listed

in Table S1) from a cDNA template. The cDNA was synthesized from RNA extracted from 30 adult *yw* flies. PCR fragments were subsequently cloned into the pENTR3C entry vector (<http://www.ciwemb.edu/labs/murphy/Gateway%20vectors.html>) and subsequently N-terminally tagged with 3×HA epitope using the UAS destination vector pTHW by Gateway cloning technology.

These plasmids were injected along with helper plasmid ($\Delta 2-3$ -transposase) (Karess and Rubin, 1984) into embryos of *yw* to generate transgenic *UAS-HA-dpn*, *UAS-HA-E(spl)my* and *UAS-HA-E(spl)m8* flies.

Fly stocks and genetics

Drosophila stocks are described in Flybase and were obtained from the Bloomington *Drosophila* Stock Center (BDSC) unless otherwise indicated. *zfh1-lacZ* is BDSC stock 11515 that carries the *P{PZ}zfh1⁰⁰⁸⁶⁵* enhancer trap (Justice et al., 1995; Lai et al., 1991). *gcm-lacZ* is BDSC stock 5445 that carries the *P{PZ}gcm^{A87}* enhancer trap.

Overproliferating third instar larval CNSs were obtained by crossing *UAS-HA-my* and/or *UAS-HA-dpn* flies with *tubP-Gal80ts*; *UAS-CD8GFP*; *grhNB-Gal4* (Zacharioudaki et al., 2016). Crosses were maintained at 18°C for 8 days, then transferred to 30°C for 24 h before dissection.

Flip-out clones

Stocks for act flip-out clones were generated as follows: Initially the act-FRT>STOP>FRT-Gal4 (BDSC stock 4780) was recombined with *UAS-nlsGFP* and subsequently combined with *hs-FLP*. Flies from the *hs-FLP*; act-FRT>STOP>FRT-Gal4, *UAS-GFP* stock were crossed with the appropriate UAS combinations for generating clones. *UAS-zfh1* is BDSC stock 6879 and expresses the long isoform of *zfh1* (RB). *UAS-gcm* was obtained from Fly ORF (Bischof et al., 2013). Control clones were obtained by replacing UAS-lines with *yw*. Progeny underwent heat shock for 45 min-1 h at 37°C at 72 h after egg lay (AEL). Phenotypes were analysed 3 days later, unless otherwise indicated.

For mosaic analysis (MARCM)

FRT82 zfh1^{75.26} (Leatherman and Dinardo, 2008) and *FRTG13 gcm^{N7-4}* (Bernardon et al., 1997) were crossed to appropriate *FRT tubP-Gal80* counter-chromosomes (Lee and Luo, 1999) combined with *hs-FLP*, *tubP-Gal4*, *UAS-GFP* for generating clones. Progeny underwent heat shock for 1 h at 37°C at 72 h AEL and CNSs were dissected out from wandering third instar larvae 3 days post clone induction.

Expression arrays

For each expression array, RNA was isolated from 300 larval CNSs dissected in ice-cold PBS using the RNeasy Plus Mini Kit (Qiagen). Synthesis of double-stranded cDNA and biotin-labelled cRNA was performed according to the manufacturer's instructions (Affymetrix). Fragmented cRNA preparations were hybridized to *Drosophila* genome oligonucleotide arrays [GeneChip *Drosophila* Genome 2.0 Array (3' IVT Expression Affymetrix)] using an Affymetrix hybridization Oven 640, washed, and then scanned on a GeneChip Scanner 3000. Three replicate arrays were analysed for each genotype. Data from expression arrays have been deposited in Gene Expression Omnibus under accession number GSE141794.

Gene expression values were obtained using Affymetrix Transcription Analysis Console from CEL intensity files using MAS5 without normalization and further quantile-normalized and then filtered for low expression. Differential gene expression analysis was performed on 8479 probesets with detectable expression. For each of the four mutant conditions, log₂-fold-change values were calculated against wt samples, coupled with a Benjamini-Hochberg adjusted *P*-value following an unpaired two-tailed Student's *t*-test.

Differentially expressed genes were defined in the reduced set, based on moderately conservative criteria of absolute log₂(fold-change) ≥ 0.85 (corresponding to fold-change values of >1.8 or <0.55) and corrected *P*-values of ≤ 0.05 (FDR 5%). The union of all genes differentially expressed in at least one of the studied conditions comprised 1410 genes. These were further clustered in six groups depending on their differential expression across conditions: overexpressed in Notch (114 genes), Hes (417) or both

Notch and Hes (42), underexpressed in Notch (242), Hes (484), or both Notch and Hes (96). Further comparison of transcriptomes was performed through Pearson correlation calculations of differential expression values for the set of the 1410 inclusive DEGs.

Comparison of differential expression with public datasets was performed through the application of simple thresholds corresponding to the top/bottom 10% of genes being differentially expressed in FACS-sorted neural stem cells versus differentiated neurons (Berger et al., 2012). Differential expression values in the four studied conditions were then analysed for sets of ~1600 genes corresponding to neuron and neuroblast-specific expression, respectively (Fig. S8). To compare our CNS transcriptomes with those of other CNS tumours, we obtained data for *l(3)mbt* (Janic et al., 2010), *l(2)gl*, *scrib* (Richardson lab, GEO: GSE48852) and two *brat* RNAi genotypes (Neumüller et al., 2011), and cross-analysed gene expression levels for our restricted 1410 DEGs (Fig. S9), and against the extended set of 8479 measured genes (Fig. 3D). This comparison was performed at the level of differential expression, which largely removes biases owing to genotypic variation, experimental procedures and processing, as all values refer to wt controls. Log(fold-change) data, being relative values, represent the best way for cross comparison of gene expression profiles. Clustering of gene expression profiles was performed on the basis of Spearman Rank Correlation for all 8479 genes. Spearman rank was preferred to linear measures (such as Pearson correlation coefficient), as our focus was on monitoring monotonic relationships between tumours that were unlikely to be linear owing to the inherent variability of the samples (coming from different experiments).

We used PANTHER (<http://www.pantherdb.org/>) (Mi et al., 2019) to assess statistical overrepresentation. Genes were provided as lists of Flybase FBgn IDs (Thurmond et al., 2019) to PANTHER and analysed at the levels of GO (Biological Process and Molecular Function). An adjusted *P*-value of ≤ 0.05 was set as the threshold for significance.

qPCR

Larval CNSs of different genotypes were dissected and kept in Trizol, where they were homogenized with a plastic pestle and incubated for 10 min on ice. RNA was extracted using chloroform and precipitated in isopropanol overnight at -20°C . RNA was resuspended in RNase-free water and subsequently treated with DNA-free™ DNase (Invitrogen, now Thermo Fisher Scientific, AM1906) for removal of genomic DNA. Then 700 ng of RNA was reverse transcribed with oligo(dT)₁₅ primers (Promega C1101) using SuperScript III Reverse Transcriptase (Invitrogen, now Thermo Fisher Scientific, 18080044). The cDNA products were subsequently diluted 1:5 and 2 μl were used as a template in each qPCR reaction. qPCR was performed using KAPA SYBR Green fast Master PCR Kit (Roche, SFUKB-KK, 04707516001). Generation of specific PCR products was confirmed by melting-curve analysis. Ct values for all genes were normalized to the levels of *GAPDH*. For data analysis, the delta-delta Ct values was applied. Primer sequences are listed in Table S2.

ChIP

For each ChIP analysis, chromatin was prepared from 500 third instar larval CNSs dissected from the cross *grhNB-Gal4*×*UAS-my*; *UAS-dpn*. Tissues were cross-linked with 1% formaldehyde, quenched with 200 mM glycine. After homogenization in Nuclear Lysis Buffer [50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8), 10 mM EDTA, 1% SDS and protease inhibitor], chromatin was fragmented using Diagenode Bioruptor for 7 cycles with 30 s OFF/30 s ON to obtain 200–500 bp length. Fragmented chromatin was immunoprecipitated with anti-Dpn antibody (see Supplementary Materials and Methods for production method) overnight at 4°C . Complexes were incubated with Protein A/G agarose beads (SC-2003) and precipitated chromatin was eluted using IP Elution Buffer (100 mM NaHCO₃, 1% SDS) and purified using Qiagen PCR purification kit. Validation of enrichment was performed over specific chromatin regions (Primer sequences in Table S3).

Ion Torrent library sequencing and data processing

Two biological replicates of anti-Dpn ChIP and one input were sequenced on an Ion Torrent Proton platform with Ion 540 ChIP kits (Thermo Fisher

Scientific, #A27765). Libraries were prepared according to manufacturer's protocol using the Ion Plus Library Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific, #4471252).

Fastq reads were mapped to University of California, Santa Cruz (UCSC)/dm3 genome (archive-2015-07-17-14-30-40) downloaded from iGenomes using bowtie2 (version 2.2.8, –very-sensitive) (Langmead and Salzberg, 2012). Bedgraphs of mapped reads were generated by bedtools genomecov (v2.25.0) and uploaded on UCSC/Berkeley *Drosophila* Genome Project R5/dm3 genome browser for visualization. Reads that overlapped with dm3 repeat elements (downloaded from UCSC) were removed from bam files before peak calling using bamtools intersect (default). Peak calling was performed with macs2 over input ($-p$ 0.05, version 2.1.0.20140616) (Zhang et al., 2008). A Dpn binding consensus list of 229 genomic regions was generated using peaks with fold-change > 2 over input in both biological replicates. Motif enrichment analysis was performed in cistrome (Liu et al., 2011) using the SeqPos motif tool, searching against known *Drosophila melanogaster* transcription factor binding motifs from Jaspar. Genome wide peak distribution was performed with the pavis tool (Huang et al., 2013) using the Flybase R5.57/dm3 genome assembly and a 5kb upstream and 5kb downstream length window. Peak to gene annotation was performed by bedtools intersect using the Dpn binding consensus and the RefseqFlat.txt with 5kb upstream and 5kb downstream window extensions for each Refseq transcript. Gene ontology analysis of the genes with peaks in their proximity was performed using flymine v47.1 (Lyne et al., 2007). ChIP data have been deposited in Gene Expression Omnibus (GSE141794).

Immunohistochemistry

Fixation and immunohistochemistry of larval tissues were performed according to standard protocols (Daskalaki et al., 2011). Details of primary and secondary antibodies are provided in Tables S4 and S5. Samples were imaged on a Leica SP8 confocal microscope at the Confocal Facility, Institute of Molecular Biology and Biotechnology (IMBB) of the Foundation for Research and Technology Hellas (FORTH).

Transplantation assay

Transplantation assays were performed as previously described by Rossi and Gonzalez (2015). Donor larval brains were made using FLP-out GFP clones or a *tubGal80ts grhNB-Gal4 UAS-stinger-RFP* combination to overexpress different transgene combinations. CNSs were dissected, sliced into single brain lobes or single VNCs, loaded into a fine glass needle and implanted into the abdomen of female host w¹¹¹⁸ flies using a nanoinjector (Nanoject II Auto-Nanoliter Injector, Drummond Scientific Company, 3-000-205A). Host flies carrying allografts were kept at 25°C (GFP allografts) or 30°C (RFP allografts) and examined daily for viability and the presence of GFP/RFP in their abdomen and other tissues. Malignant GFP/RFP-positive tumour pieces (T0) were dissected out of the abdomen of host flies and either re-transplanted into new host flies (T1) or fixed with 4% formaldehyde (for 25 min at room temperature) and used for immunohistochemistry experiments according to standard protocols (Daskalaki et al., 2011). Alternatively they were stored in Trizol for RNA extraction and qRT-PCR.

Acknowledgements

We are grateful to Sarah J. Bray and Cayetano Gonzalez for hosting S.S.M. and training him in chromatin immunoprecipitation and tumour allografting. We thank Ioannis Livadaras and Alexandros Babaratsas for fly injections and maintenance. Microarray hybridizations and high-throughput sequencing were performed at the IMBB genomics facility. Many thanks to Erika Bach, Stephen DiNardo, Angela Giangrande, Yuh Nung Jan, Ruth Lehmann, James Skeath and Isabel Guerrero for providing fly stocks and antibodies.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing or financial interests.

Author contributions

Conceptualization: S.S.M., C.D.; Methodology: S.S.M., C.D.; Validation: S.S.M., G.A., E.Z.; Formal analysis: V.T., C.N.; Investigation: S.S.M., C.V., G.A., E.Z., I.K.P.,

C.E., M.S., K.A.K., J.F.F., C.D.; Resources: S.S.M.; Data curation: S.S.M., V.T., C.N.; Writing - original draft: C.D.; Writing - review & editing: C.D.; Visualization: S.S.M., E.Z., C.D.; Supervision: C.D.; Project administration: C.D.; Funding acquisition: C.D.

Funding

Funding for this work was provided by the H2020 Marie Skłodowska-Curie Actions HEALING (ITN consortium), a Worldwide Cancer Research grant to C.D., a Fondation Santé grant to C.D., a Hellenic Foundation for Research & Innovation grant to E.Z. and two short-term grants, from EMBO and The Company of Biologists, to S.S.M.

Data availability

Data from expression arrays have been deposited in Gene Expression Omnibus under accession number GSE141794.

Supplementary information

Supplementary information available online at <https://dev.biologists.org/lookup/doi/10.1242/dev.191544.supplemental>

Peer review history

The peer review history is available online at <https://dev.biologists.org/lookup/doi/10.1242/dev.191544.reviewer-comments.pdf>

References

- Almeida, M. S. and Bray, S. J. (2005). Regulation of post-embryonic neuroblasts by *Drosophila* grainyhead. *Mech. Dev.* **122**, 1282-1293. doi:10.1016/j.mod.2005.08.004
- Awasaki, T., Lai, S.-L., Ito, K. and Lee, T. (2008). Organization and postembryonic development of glial cells in the adult central brain of *Drosophila*. *J. Neurosci.* **28**, 13742-13753. doi:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.4844-08.2008
- Baumgardt, M., Karlsson, D., Salmani, B. Y., Bivik, C., MacDonald, R. B., Gunnar, E. and Thor, S. (2014). Global programmed switch in neural daughter cell proliferation mode triggered by a temporal gene cascade. *Dev. Cell* **30**, 192-208. doi:10.1016/j.devcel.2014.06.021
- Bayraktar, O. A., Boone, J. Q., Drummond, M. L. and Doe, C. Q. (2010). *Drosophila* type II neuroblast lineages keep prospero levels low to generate large clones that contribute to the adult brain central complex. *Neural Dev.* **5**, 26. doi:10.1186/1749-8104-5-26
- Beaucher, M., Goodliffe, J., Hersperger, E., Trunova, S., Frydman, H. and Shearn, A. (2007). *Drosophila* brain tumor metastases express both neuronal and glial cell type markers. *Dev. Biol.* **301**, 287-297. doi:10.1016/j.ydbio.2006.09.019
- Berger, C., Harzer, H., Burkard, T. R., Steinmann, J., van der Horst, S., Laurenson, A.-S., Novatchkova, M., Reichert, H. and Knoblich, J. A. (2012). FACS purification and transcriptome analysis of *drosophila* neural stem cells reveals a role for Klumpfuss in self-renewal. *Cell Rep.* **2**, 407-418. doi:10.1016/j.celrep.2012.07.008
- Bernardoni, R., Vivancos, V. and Giangrande, A. (1997). glide/gcm is expressed and required in the scavenger cell lineage. *Dev. Biol.* **191**, 118-130. doi:10.1006/dbio.1997.8702
- Bier, E., Vaessin, H., Younger-Shepherd, S., Jan, L. Y. and Jan, Y. N. (1992). deadpan, an essential pan-neural gene in *Drosophila*, encodes a helix-loop-helix protein similar to the hairy gene product. *Genes Dev.* **6**, 2137-2151. doi:10.1101/gad.6.11.2137
- Bischof, J., Bjorklund, M., Furger, E., Schertel, C., Taipale, J. and Basler, K. (2013). A versatile platform for creating a comprehensive UAS-ORFome library in *Drosophila*. *Development* **140**, 2434-2442. doi:10.1242/dev.088757
- Boukhatmi, H. and Bray, S. (2018). A population of adult satellite-like cells in *Drosophila* is maintained through a switch in RNA-isoforms. *eLife* **7**, e35954. doi:10.7554/eLife.35954
- Bowman, S. K., Rolland, V., Betschinger, J., Kinsey, K. A., Emery, G. and Knoblich, J. A. (2008). The tumor suppressors brat and numb regulate transit-amplifying neuroblast lineages in *Drosophila*. *Dev. Cell* **14**, 535-546. doi:10.1016/j.devcel.2008.03.004
- Brabletz, S. and Brabletz, T. (2010). The ZEB/miR-200 feedback loop—a motor of cellular plasticity in development and cancer? *EMBO Rep.* **11**, 670-677. doi:10.1038/embor.2010.117
- Cabernard, C. and Doe, C. Q. (2009). Apical/basal spindle orientation is required for neuroblast homeostasis and neuronal differentiation in *Drosophila*. *Dev. Cell* **17**, 134-141. doi:10.1016/j.devcel.2009.06.009
- Cattenoz, P. B., Popkova, A., Southall, T. D., Aiello, G., Brand, A. H. and Giangrande, A. (2016). Functional conservation of the glide/Gcm regulatory network controlling glia, hemocyte, and tendon cell differentiation in *Drosophila*. *Genetics* **202**, 191-219. doi:10.1534/genetics.115.182154
- Caussinus, E. and Gonzalez, C. (2005). Induction of tumor growth by altered stem-cell asymmetric division in *Drosophila melanogaster*. *Nat. Genet.* **37**, 1125-1129. doi:10.1038/ng1632
- Choksi, S. P., Southall, T. D., Bossing, T., Edoff, K., de Wit, E., Fischer, B. E., van Steensel, B., Micklem, G. and Brand, A. H. (2006). Prospero acts as a binary switch between self-renewal and differentiation in *Drosophila* neural stem cells. *Dev. Cell* **11**, 775-789. doi:10.1016/j.devcel.2006.09.015
- Colonques, J., Ceron, J., Reichert, H. and Tejedor, F. J. (2011). A transient expression of prospero promotes cell cycle exit of *Drosophila* postembryonic neurons through the regulation of dacapo. *PLoS ONE* **6**, e19342. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0019342
- Daskalaki, A., Shalaby, N. A., Kux, K., Tsoumpikos, G., Tsidis, G. D., Muskavitch, M. A. T. and Delidakis, C. (2011). Distinct intracellular motifs of Delta mediate its ubiquitylation and activation by Mindbomb1 and Neuralized. *J. Cell Biol.* **195**, 1017-1031. doi:10.1083/jcb.201105166
- Enriquez, J., Venkatasubramanian, L., Baek, M., Peterson, M., Aghayeva, U. and Mann, R. S. (2015). Specification of individual adult motor neuron morphologies by combinatorial transcription factor codes. *Neuron* **86**, 955-970. doi:10.1016/j.neuron.2015.04.011
- Froldi, F., Szuperak, M., Weng, C.-F., Shi, W., Papenfuss, A. T. and Cheng, L. Y. (2015). The transcription factor Nerfin-1 prevents reversion of neurons into neural stem cells. *Genes Dev.* **29**, 129-143. doi:10.1101/gad.250282.114
- Gateff, E. (1978). Malignant neoplasms of genetic origin in *Drosophila melanogaster*. *Science* **200**, 1448-1459. doi:10.1126/science.96525
- Homem, C. C. F., Repic, M. and Knoblich, J. A. (2015). Proliferation control in neural stem and progenitor cells. *Nat. Rev. Neurosci.* **16**, 647-659. doi:10.1038/nrn4021
- Huang, W., Loganatharaj, R., Schroeder, B., Fargo, D. and Li, L. (2013). PAVIS: a tool for peak annotation and visualization. *Bioinformatics* **29**, 3097-3099. doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/btt520
- Janic, A., Mendizabal, L., Llamazares, S., Rossell, D. and Gonzalez, C. (2010). Ectopic expression of germline genes drives malignant brain tumor growth in *Drosophila*. *Science* **330**, 1824-1827. doi:10.1126/science.1195481
- Janssens, D. H., Komori, H., Grbac, D., Chen, K., Koe, C. T., Wang, H. and Lee, C.-Y. (2014). Earmuff restricts progenitor cell potential by attenuating the competence to respond to self-renewal factors. *Development* **141**, 1036-1046. doi:10.1242/dev.106534
- Janssens, D. H., Hamm, D. C., Anhezini, L., Xiao, Q., Siller, K. H., Siegrist, S. E., Harrison, M. M. and Lee, C.-Y. (2017). An Hdac1/Rpd3-poised circuit balances continual self-renewal and rapid restriction of developmental potential during asymmetric stem cell division. *Dev. Cell* **40**, 367-380.e7. doi:10.1016/j.devcel.2017.01.014
- Jennings, B. H., Tyler, D. M. and Bray, S. J. (1999). Target specificities of *Drosophila* enhancer of split basic helix-loop-helix proteins. *Mol. Cell Biol.* **19**, 4600-4610. doi:10.1128/MCB.19.7.4600
- Jones, B. W., Fetter, R. D., Tear, G. and Goodman, C. S. (1995). glial cells missing: a genetic switch that controls glial versus neuronal fate. *Cell* **82**, 1013-1023. doi:10.1016/0092-8674(95)90280-5
- Justice, R. W., Zilian, O., Woods, D. F., Noll, M. and Bryant, P. J. (1995). The *Drosophila* tumor suppressor gene warts encodes a homolog of human myotonic dystrophy kinase and is required for the control of cell shape and proliferation. *Genes Dev.* **9**, 534-546. doi:10.1101/gad.9.5.534
- Kageyama, R., Shimojo, H. and Ohtsuka, T. (2019). Dynamic control of neural stem cells by bHLH factors. *Neurosci. Res.* **138**, 12-18. doi:10.1016/j.neures.2018.09.005
- Kang, K. H. and Reichert, H. (2015). Control of neural stem cell self-renewal and differentiation in *Drosophila*. *Cell Tissue Res.* **359**, 33-45. doi:10.1007/s00441-014-1914-9
- Karess, R. E. and Rubin, G. M. (1984). Analysis of P transposable element functions in *Drosophila*. *Cell* **38**, 135-146. doi:10.1016/0092-8674(84)90534-8
- Knoblich, J. A., Jan, L. Y. and Jan, Y. N. (1995). Asymmetric segregation of numb and prospero during cell division. *Nature* **377**, 624-627. doi:10.1038/377624a0
- Koe, C. T., Li, S., Rossi, F., Wong, J. J. L., Wang, Y., Zhang, Z., Chen, K., Aw, S. S., Richardson, H. E., Robson, P. et al. (2014). The Brm-HDAC3-Erm repressor complex suppresses dedifferentiation in *Drosophila* type II neuroblast lineages. *eLife* **3**, e01906. doi:10.7554/eLife.01906
- Koumbanakis, K. (2007). In vitro και in vivo μελέτες της πρόσδεσης των πρωτεϊνών bHLH E(spl) σε στόχους DNA. [In vitro and in vivo studies of E(spl)bHLH protein binding to DNA targets]: Department of Biology, University of Crete, Greece.
- Lai, Z., Fortini, M. E. and Rubin, G. M. (1991). The embryonic expression patterns of zfh-1 and zfh-2, two *Drosophila* genes encoding novel zinc-finger homeodomain proteins. *Mech. Dev.* **34**, 123-134. doi:10.1016/0925-4773(91)90049-C
- Landskron, L., Steinmann, V., Bonnay, F., Burkard, T. R., Steinmann, J., Reichardt, I., Harzer, H., Laurenson, A.-S., Reichert, H., Knoblich, J. A. et al. (2018). The asymmetrically segregating lncRNA cherub is required for transforming stem cells into malignant cells. *eLife* **7**, e31347. doi:10.7554/eLife.31347
- Langmead, B. and Salzberg, S. L. (2012). Fast gapped-read alignment with bowtie 2. *Nat. Methods* **9**, 357-359. doi:10.1038/nmeth.1923
- Layden, M. J., Odden, J. P., Schmid, A., Garcas, A., Thor, S. and Doe, C. Q. (2006). Zfh1, a somatic motor neuron transcription factor, regulates axon exit from the CNS. *Dev. Biol.* **291**, 253-263. doi:10.1016/j.ydbio.2005.12.009

- Leatherman, J. L. and Dinardo, S.** (2008). Zfh-1 controls somatic stem cell self-renewal in the *Drosophila* testis and nonautonomously influences germline stem cell self-renewal. *Cell Stem Cell* **3**, 44-54. doi:10.1016/j.stem.2008.05.001
- Lee, T.** (2017). Wiring the *Drosophila* brain with individually tailored neural lineages. *Curr. Biol.* **27**, R77-R82. doi:10.1016/j.cub.2016.12.026
- Lee, T. and Luo, L.** (1999). Mosaic analysis with a repressible cell marker for studies of gene function in neuronal morphogenesis. *Neuron* **22**, 451-461. doi:10.1016/S0896-6273(00)80701-1
- Li, X., Erclik, T., Bertet, C., Chen, Z., Voutev, R., Venkatesh, S., Morante, J., Celik, A. and Desplan, C.** (2013). Temporal patterning of *Drosophila* medulla neuroblasts controls neural fates. *Nature* **498**, 456-462. doi:10.1038/nature12319
- Li, X., Chen, R. and Zhu, S.** (2017). bHLH-O proteins balance the self-renewal and differentiation of *Drosophila* neural stem cells by regulating Earmuff expression. *Dev. Biol.* **431**, 239-251. doi:10.1016/j.ydbio.2017.09.011
- Lin, S., Lai, S.-L., Yu, H.-H., Chihara, T., Luo, L. and Lee, T.** (2010). Lineage-specific effects of notch/numb signaling in post-embryonic development of the *Drosophila* brain. *Development* **137**, 43-51. doi:10.1242/dev.041699
- Liu, T., Ortiz, J. A., Taing, L., Meyer, C. A., Lee, B., Zhang, Y., Shin, H., Wong, S. S., Ma, J., Lei, Y. et al.** (2011). Cistrome: an integrative platform for transcriptional regulation studies. *Genome Biol.* **12**, R83. doi:10.1186/gb-2011-12-8-r83
- Liu, X., Shen, J., Xie, L., Wei, Z., Wong, C., Li, Y., Zheng, X., Li, P. and Song, Y.** (2020). Mitotic implantation of the transcription factor prospero via phase separation drives terminal neuronal differentiation. *Dev. Cell* **52**, 277-293.e8. doi:10.1016/j.devcel.2019.11.019
- Loedige, I., Jakob, L., Treiber, T., Ray, D., Stotz, M., Treiber, N., Hennig, J., Cook, K. B., Morris, Q., Hughes, T. R. et al.** (2015). The crystal structure of the NHL domain in complex with rna reveals the molecular basis of drosophila brain-tumor-mediated gene regulation. *Cell Rep.* **13**, 1206-1220. doi:10.1016/j.celrep.2015.09.068
- Lyne, R., Smith, R., Rutherford, K., Wakeling, M., Varley, A., Guillier, F., Janssens, H., Ji, W., McLaren, P., North, P. et al.** (2007). FlyMine: an integrated database for *Drosophila* and anopheles genomics. *Genome Biol.* **8**, R129. doi:10.1186/gb-2007-8-7-r129
- Maurange, C., Cheng, L. and Gould, A. P.** (2008). Temporal transcription factors and their targets schedule the end of neural proliferation in *Drosophila*. *Cell* **133**, 891-902. doi:10.1016/j.cell.2008.03.034
- Mi, H., Muruganujan, A., Ebert, D., Huang, X. and Thomas, P. D.** (2019). PANTHER version 14: more genomes, a new PANTHER GO-slim and improvements in enrichment analysis tools. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **47**, D419-D426. doi:10.1093/nar/gky1038
- Monastirioti, M., Giagtzoglou, N., Koumbanakis, K. A., Zacharioudaki, E., Deligiannaki, M., Wech, I., Almeida, M., Preiss, A., Bray, S. and Delidakis, C.** (2010). *Drosophila* hey is a target of notch in asymmetric divisions during embryonic and larval neurogenesis. *Development* **137**, 191-201. doi:10.1242/dev.043604
- Narbonne-Reveau, K., Lanet, E., Dillard, C., Foppolo, S., Chen, C.-H., Parrinello, H., Rialle, S., Sokol, N. S. and Maurange, C.** (2016). Neural stem cell-encoded temporal patterning delineates an early window of malignant susceptibility in *Drosophila*. *eLife* **5**, e13463. doi:10.7554/eLife.13463
- Neumüller, R. A., Richter, C., Fischer, A., Novatchkova, M., Neumüller, K. G. and Knoblich, J. A.** (2011). Genome-wide analysis of self-renewal in *Drosophila* neural stem cells by transgenic RNAi. *Cell Stem Cell* **8**, 580-593. doi:10.1016/j.stem.2011.02.022
- Paridaen, J. T. M. L. and Huttner, W. B.** (2014). Neurogenesis during development of the vertebrate central nervous system. *EMBO Rep.* **15**, 351-364. doi:10.1002/embr.201438447
- Postigo, A. A., Ward, E., Skeath, J. B. and Dean, D. C.** (1999). zfh-1, the *Drosophila* homologue of ZEB, is a transcriptional repressor that regulates somatic myogenesis. *Mol. Cell Biol.* **19**, 7255-7263. doi:10.1128/MCB.19.10.7255
- Ragone, G., Van De Bor, V., Sorrentino, S., Kammerer, M., Galy, A., Schenck, A., Bernardoni, R., Miller, A. A., Roy, N. and Giangrande, A.** (2003). Transcriptional regulation of glial cell specification. *Dev. Biol.* **255**, 138-150. doi:10.1016/S0012-1606(02)00081-7
- Reichardt, I., Bonnay, F., Steinmann, V., Loedige, I., Burkard, T. R., Meister, G. and Knoblich, J. A.** (2018). The tumor suppressor brat controls neuronal stem cell lineages by inhibiting deadpan and zelda. *EMBO Rep.* **19**, 102-117. doi:10.15252/embr.201744188
- Richter, C., Oktaba, K., Steinmann, J., Müller, J. and Knoblich, J. A.** (2011). The tumour suppressor L(3)mbt inhibits neuroepithelial proliferation and acts on insulator elements. *Nat. Cell Biol.* **13**, 1029-1039. doi:10.1038/ncb2306
- Rosmaninho, P., Mükusch, S., Piscopo, V., Teixeira, V., Raposo, A. A. S. F., Warta, R., Bennewitz, R., Tang, Y., Herold-Mende, C., Stifani, S. et al.** (2018). Zeb1 potentiates genome-wide gene transcription with Lef1 to promote glioblastoma cell invasion. *EMBO J.* **37**, e97115. doi:10.15252/emboj.201797115
- Rossi, F. and Gonzalez, C.** (2015). Studying tumor growth in *Drosophila* using the tissue allograft method. *Nat. Protoc.* **10**, 1525-1534. doi:10.1038/nprot.2015.096
- San-Juán, B. P. and Baonza, A.** (2011). The bHLH factor deadpan is a direct target of notch signaling and regulates neuroblast self-renewal in *Drosophila*. *Dev. Biol.* **352**, 70-82. doi:10.1016/j.ydbio.2011.01.019
- Sellin, J., Drechsler, M., Nguyen, H. T. and Paululat, A.** (2009). Antagonistic function of Lmd and Zfh1 fine tunes cell fate decisions in the Twi and Tin positive mesoderm of *Drosophila* melanogaster. *Dev. Biol.* **326**, 444-455. doi:10.1016/j.ydbio.2008.10.041
- Siles, L., Sanchez-Tillo, E., Lim, J.-W., Darling, D. S., Kroll, K. L. and Postigo, A.** (2013). ZEB1 imposes a temporary stage-dependent inhibition of muscle gene expression and differentiation via CtBP-mediated transcriptional repression. *Mol. Cell Biol.* **33**, 1368-1382. doi:10.1128/MCB.01259-12
- Sousa-Nunes, R., Cheng, L. Y. and Gould, A. P.** (2010). Regulating neural proliferation in the *Drosophila* CNS. *Curr. Opin. Neurobiol.* **20**, 50-57. doi:10.1016/j.conb.2009.12.005
- Soustelle, L. and Giangrande, A.** (2007). Novel gcm-dependent lineages in the postembryonic nervous system of *Drosophila* melanogaster. *Dev. Dyn.* **236**, 2101-2108. doi:10.1002/dvdy.21232
- Southall, T. D. and Brand, A. H.** (2009). Neural stem cell transcriptional networks highlight genes essential for nervous system development. *EMBO J.* **28**, 3799-3807. doi:10.1038/emboj.2009.309
- Southall, T. D., Davidson, C. M., Miller, C., Carr, A. and Brand, A. H.** (2014). Dedifferentiation of neurons precedes tumor formation in *Lola* mutants. *Dev. Cell* **28**, 685-696. doi:10.1016/j.devcel.2014.01.030
- Spana, E. P. and Doe, C. Q.** (1996). Numb antagonizes Notch signaling to specify sibling neuron cell fates. *Neuron* **17**, 21-26. doi:10.1016/S0896-6273(00)80277-9
- Thurmond, J., Goodman, J. L., Strelets, V. B., Attrill, H., Gramates, L. S., Marygold, S. J., Matthews, B. B., Millburn, G., Antonazzo, G., Trovisco, V. et al.** (2019). FlyBase 2.0: the next generation. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **47**, D759-D765. doi:10.1093/nar/gky1003
- Truman, J. W., Moats, W., Altman, J., Marin, E. C. and Williams, D. W.** (2010). Role of Notch signaling in establishing the hemilineages of secondary neurons in *Drosophila* melanogaster. *Development* **137**, 53-61. doi:10.1242/dev.041749
- Vaessin, H., Grell, E., Wolff, E., Bier, E., Jan, L. Y. and Jan, Y. N.** (1991). *prospero* is expressed in neuronal precursors and encodes a nuclear protein that is involved in the control of axonal outgrowth in *Drosophila*. *Cell* **67**, 941-953. doi:10.1016/0092-8674(91)90367-8
- Viktorin, G., Riebli, N., Popkova, A., Giangrande, A. and Reichert, H.** (2011). Multipotent neural stem cells generate glial cells of the central complex through transit amplifying intermediate progenitors in *Drosophila* brain development. *Dev. Biol.* **356**, 553-565. doi:10.1016/j.ydbio.2011.06.013
- Viktorin, G., Riebli, N. and Reichert, H.** (2013). A multipotent transit-amplifying neuroblast lineage in the central brain gives rise to optic lobe glial cells in *Drosophila*. *Dev. Biol.* **379**, 182-194. doi:10.1016/j.ydbio.2013.04.020
- Visser, J. H. A., Froidi, F., Schröder, J., Papenfuss, A. T., Cheng, L. Y. and Harvey, K. F.** (2018). The scalloped and Nerfin-1 transcription factors cooperate to maintain neuronal cell fate. *Cell Rep.* **25**, 1561-1576.e7. doi:10.1016/j.celrep.2018.10.038
- Wang, H., Somers, G. W., Bashirullah, A., Heberlein, U., Yu, F. and Chia, W.** (2006). Aurora-A acts as a tumor suppressor and regulates self-renewal of *Drosophila* neuroblasts. *Genes Dev.* **20**, 3453-3463. doi:10.1101/gad.1487506
- Weng, M., Golden, K. L. and Lee, C.-Y.** (2010). dFzefz/Earmuff maintains the restricted developmental potential of intermediate neural progenitors in *Drosophila*. *Dev. Cell* **18**, 126-135. doi:10.1016/j.devcel.2009.12.007
- Winston, R. L., Millar, D. P., Gottesfeld, J. M. and Kent, S. B. H.** (1999). Characterization of the DNA binding properties of the bHLH domain of deadpan to single and tandem sites. *Biochemistry* **38**, 5138-5146. doi:10.1021/bi982856a
- Wissel, S., Harzer, H., Bonnay, F., Burkard, T. R., Neumüller, R. A. and Knoblich, J. A.** (2018). Time-resolved transcriptomics in neural stem cells identifies a v-ATPase/Notch regulatory loop. *J. Cell Biol.* **217**, 3285-3300. doi:10.1083/jcb.201711167
- Zacharioudaki, E., Magadi, S. S. and Delidakis, C.** (2012). bHLH-O proteins are crucial for *Drosophila* neuroblast self-renewal and mediate Notch-induced overproliferation. *Development* **139**, 1258-1269. doi:10.1242/dev.071779
- Zacharioudaki, E., Housden, B. E., Garinis, G., Stojnic, R., Delidakis, C. and Bray, S. J.** (2016). Genes implicated in stem cell identity and temporal programme are directly targeted by notch in neuroblast tumours. *Development* **143**, 219-231. doi:10.1242/dev.126326
- Zacharioudaki, E., Falo Sanjuan, J. and Bray, S.** (2019). Mi-2/NuRD complex protects stem cell progeny from mitogenic Notch signaling. *eLife* **8**, e41637. doi:10.7554/eLife.41637
- Zhang, Y., Liu, T., Meyer, C. A., Eeckhoutte, J., Johnson, D. S., Bernstein, B. E., Nusbaum, C., Myers, R. M., Brown, M., Li, W. et al.** (2008). Model-based analysis of ChIP-Seq (MACS). *Genome Biol.* **9**, R137. doi:10.1186/gb-2008-9-9-r137
- Zhu, S., Wildonger, J., Barshow, S., Younger, S., Huang, Y. and Lee, T.** (2012). The bHLH repressor deadpan regulates the self-renewal and specification of *Drosophila* larval neural stem cells independently of Notch. *PLOS ONE* **7**, e46724. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0046724