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Chromatin Protein HMGB2 In Neural Progenitor Cells & Adult Neurogenesis

A Dissertation Presented

by

Ariel Benjamin Abraham

To

The Graduate School
In Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements

For the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

in

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Abstract of the Dissertation

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Neural stem cells (NSCs) and neural progenitor cells (NPCs) are distinct groups of cells present in the embryonic and adult mammalian central nervous system (CNS). Proliferation of NSCs and NPCs is regulated by several molecular factors including the cyclin dependant kinase inhibitors (CDKI), such as p16^{Ink4a}, and negative regulators of cell cycle, such as p19^{Arf}. Chromatin proteins, including chromatin protein high mobility group A2 (HMGA2), regulate the expression of p16^{Ink4a} and p19^{Arf} in NSCs and NPCs, demonstrating the critical regulatory role that chromatin proteins play in NSC and NPC proliferation. In addition to HMGA2, it is likely that other chromatin proteins expressed in NSCs

can and mediate NSC proliferation. The purpose of this project was to: 1) study and characterize the expression of HMG-B family members in NSCs, 2) test the hypothesis that HMGB2 regulates proper maintenance of adult subventricular zone (SVZ) NSCs and NPCs, and 3) test the hypothesis that changes in HMGB2-dependant progenitor maintenance in vivo is mechanistically related to changes in expression of different CDKIs in adult SVZ progenitor cells.

Using neurosphere assays, I have determined the differential expression of HMGB mRNAs in proliferating and differentiating embryonic NSCs. HMG-B chromatin proteins, and predominantly HMGB2, were dynamically expressed in embryonic NSCs suggesting a possible regulatory role in NSC proliferation and neurogenesis. I performed in vivo proliferation and differentiation assays using HMGB2^{-/-} mice to determine the role of HMGB2 in SVZ NSC proliferation and olfactory bulb (OB) neurogenesis. Young adult HMGB2^{-/-} mice had altered SVZ proliferation, and different numbers of SVZ NSCs and NPCs. These cellular changes in the SVZ were associated with changes in expression in several cyclin dependant kinase inhibitors. Young adult HMGB2^{-/-} mice displayed aberrant changes in the rates of newly born neurons in the olfactory bulb. Finally, a subset (50%) of young adult HMGB2^{-/-} mice exhibited ventriculomegaly. These results demonstrate that HMGB2 is a mediator of proper NSC cell cycle and OB neurogenesis.

Dedicated to my parents, Susan and Isaac Abraham, whose unconditional love and support made this dissertation possible.

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List of Abbreviations

CNS:	Central nervous system
NSC(s):	Neural Stem Cell(s)
NPC(s):	Neural Progenitor Cell(s)
HMGA2:	High mobility group A2
HMGB2:	High mobility group B2
SVZ:	Subventricular zone
RMS:	Rostral migratory stream
DG:	Dentate Gyrus
SGZ:	Subgranule zone
OB:	Olfactory bulb
GL:	Glomerular Layer of Olfactory Bulb
GCL:	Granule Cell Layer of Olfactory Bulb
BrdU:	Bromodeoxyuridine
CDKI(s):	cyclin dependant kinase inhibitor(s)
CIP/KIP:	CDK-inhibitory protein/Kinase-inhibitor protein
p16 ^{Ink4a} :	cyclin dependant kinase inhibitor p16 ^{INK4a}
p21 ^{Cip1/Waf1} :	cyclin dependant kinase inhibitor p21 ^{Cip1/Waf1}
p27 ^{Kip1} :	cyclin dependant kinase inhibitor p27 ^{Kip1}
p19 ^{Arf} :	p19 ^{ARF} protein
GFAP:	Glial Fibrillary Acid Protein
DCX:	Doublecortin
NestinGFP:	GFP expression under the nestin promoter

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Chapter I: Introduction

Neural Stem Cells & Neurogenesis

Neural stem cells (NSCs) are a distinct group of cells that reside in the developing embryonic and mature adult mammalian central nervous system (Gage, 2000; Kriegstein and Alvarez-Buylla, 2009). NSCs proliferate and give rise to neural progenitor cells (NPCs) which differentiate into three principal cells in the CNS, neurons, astrocytes and oligodendrocytes (Gage, 2000; Ming and Song, 2005).

Neurogenesis, the process by which new neurons are created, occurs during development and continues in select regions of adult CNS (Ming and Song, 2005). Neurogenesis in the adult CNS occurs in two locations; the dentate gyrus (DG) within the hippocampal formation, and the olfactory bulb (OB). Evidence of adult neurogenesis was first described in the DG in rodents (Altman and Das, 1965a, b, 1966; Caviness, 1973), and later confirmed in adult primates (Kornack and Rakic, 1999) and humans (Eriksson et al., 1998). Evidence of postnatal OB neurogenesis in rodents emerged shortly thereafter (Altman, 1969), with subsequent confirmation that OB neurogenesis arises from the forebrain subventricular zone (SVZ) in mice (Lois et al., 1996; Wichterle et al., 1997; Kirschenbaum et al., 1999) and humans (Curtis et al., 2007). Neurogenesis in the DG occurs when NSCs in the subgranular zone (SGZ) proliferate and give rise to

progenitor cells which migrate and differentiate into the new granular neurons in the granule cell layer of the DG (Seki and Arai, 1991, 1993; Eriksson et al., 1998; Kornack and Rakic, 1999; Seri et al., 2001; Seri et al., 2004). Neurogenesis in the OB occurs when NSCs in the SVZ proliferate and give rise to progenitor cells which migrate through a rostral migratory stream (RMS) to the OB and differentiate into newborn neurons in the OB (Lois and Alvarez-Buylla, 1994; Lois et al., 1996; Doetsch et al., 1997; Wichterle et al., 1997; Doetsch et al., 1999; Kirschenbaum et al., 1999; Curtis et al., 2007). The current hypothesis regarding cell lineage in the adult SVZ-OB neurogenic cascade is that NSCs (type B cells) proliferate and give rise to amplifying NPCs (type C cells), and NPCs proliferate and give rise to neuroblasts (type A cells), which migrate through the RMS and differentiate into neurons in the OB (Doetsch et al., 1997; Doetsch et al., 1999). The image of the SVZ stem cell niche containing type B, C, and A cells can be found in Figure 1A.

Molecular Mechanisms of Neural Stem Cell Maintenance

Studies of the embryonic and adult NSCs and NPCs have defined the location and the function of several mitogens which regulate NSC proliferation, including epidermal growth factor (EGF) and fibroblast growth factor (FGF) (Reynolds et al., 1992; Reynolds and Weiss, 1992, 1996; Gritti et al., 1999; Doetsch et al., 2002a). Other studies have specifically addressed the molecular control of NSC maintenance, demonstrating the critical regulatory roles of different signaling pathways involved in NSC maintenance, including Notch

(Hitoshi et al., 2002; Alexson et al., 2006; Mizutani et al., 2007) and Bone Morphogenic Protein (BMP)(Lim et al., 2000). Despite these studies, the precise molecular mechanisms of NSC maintenance in the post-natal mouse brain remain unclear. The use of aging mice as a model to study NSC maintenance has provided greater insight into NSC maintenance. NSC maintenance decreases with increasing age; the total numbers of NSCs and proliferating NSCs in the SVZ stem cell niche decline with age (Maslov et al., 2004). The cellular consequence of this decrease in NSC maintenance is a decrease in OB neurogenesis in aged mice (Enwere et al., 2004). A molecular contributor to the decrease in NSC maintenance in the SVZ during aging is the increase in p16^{Ink4a} expression (Molofsky et al., 2006). p16^{Ink4a} is a well-known cyclin-dependant kinase inhibitor (CDKI) that suppresses G1-Cdk complex activity in the G1 phase of the cell cycle (Lowe and Sherr, 2003; Alberts, 2008). Transcriptional control of p16^{Ink4a} expression is mediated by the chromatin protein bmi-1 (Jacobs et al., 1999) which regulates p16^{Ink4a} expression in NSCs (Molofsky et al., 2003; Molofsky et al., 2005). A recent study demonstrated that an additional chromatin protein, non-histone nuclear protein high mobility group A2 (HMGA2), regulated p16^{Ink4a} expression in NSCs (Nishino et al., 2008). HMGA2 expression is spatially and temporally specified in CNS tissue; expression remains high in the neuroepithelium of the developing embryonic telencephalon (E11-E14.5) and the lateral ventricle of the CNS during the early post-natal period (P0), decreases throughout post-natal development and adulthood, and expression ceases in old age (P600) (Nishino et al., 2008). HMGA2 represses p16^{Ink4a} expression.

Consequently, NSC proliferation and self-renewal are robust during embryonic development when HMGA2 expression is high and p16^{Ink4a} expression is low, and as developmental time and aging progress HMGA2 expression decreases and p16^{Ink4a} expression increases, resulting in a decrease in NSC proliferation and self-renewal. In NSCs HMGA2 expression is negatively regulated by microRNA Let7b (Lee and Dutta, 2007), a microRNA with temporally specified expression in NSCs (Nishino et al., 2008). This temporally specified Let7b-HMGA2 axis regulates in concert p16^{Ink4a} expression, which in turn controls NSC proliferation and self-renewal (Levi and Morrison, 2008), demonstrating the critical role chromatin protein HMGA2 plays in proper NSC maintenance. A diagram depicting the HMGA2-p16^{Ink4a} molecular mechanism of NSC proliferation can be found in Figure 1B.

In addition to p16^{Ink4a}, several additional CDKIs regulate proliferation of NSCs and NPCs in the SVZ and play a role in NSC maintenance and OB neurogenesis. These CDKIs include members of the CIP/KIP family of CDKIs. One CIP/KIP family protein, p21^{Cip1/Waf1}, is a CDKI which has previously been shown to mediate NSC maintenance (Kippin et al., 2005). Young adult p21^{Cip1/Waf1}^{-/-} mice (1-4 months old) have increased *in vivo* SVZ proliferation (as assessed by BrdU incorporation), but neurospheres isolated from these young p21^{Cip1/Waf1}^{-/-} mice have impaired self-renewal compared to age-matched WT mice. Aged p21^{Cip1/Waf1}^{-/-} mice (16 months old) have decreased *in vivo* SVZ proliferation, and neurospheres cultured from these aged p21^{Cip1/Waf1}^{-/-} mice have impaired self-renewal compared to aged-match WT mice (Kippin et al., 2005),

demonstrating that p21^{Cip1/Waf1} plays a role in proper NSC maintenance in the SVZ in aging mice. A second CIP/KIP family member protein, p27^{Kip1}, mediates NPC proliferation in vivo (Doetsch et al., 2002b). Young adult p27^{Kip1^{-/-}} mice (9 weeks old) have increased numbers of amplifying NPCs (type C cells), decreased numbers of neuroblasts (type A cells) in the SVZ compared to age-matched WT mice (Doetsch et al., 2002b). It remains unclear whether these changes in SVZ NPC and neuroblast cell numbers persist in aged p27^{Kip1^{-/-}} mice, or whether aged p27^{Kip1^{-/-}} mice experience any form of impaired NSC maintenance compared to aged WT mice. Finally, p53, a tumor suppressor protein and known mediator of CDKI p21^{Cip1/Waf1} and p27^{Kip1} expression, also regulates NSC maintenance; neurospheres grown from the SVZ of young adult p53^{-/-} mice (2-3 months old) have increased proliferation and self-renewal (Meletis et al., 2006). Young p53^{-/-} mice also exhibit increases in SVZ proliferation in vivo compared to WT mice. p53^{-/-} neurospheres have greatly reduced expression of p21^{Cip1/Waf1} mRNA expression and a two-fold decrease in p27^{Kip1} mRNA expression compared to WT neurospheres from the SVZ of age-matched mice. A diagram depicting the integrated molecular mechanism of NSC proliferation, including p21^{Cip1/Waf1}, p27^{Kip1}, and p53, can be found in Figure 1C. These results demonstrate that p21^{Cip1/Waf1}, p27^{Kip1}, and p53 expression are involved in proper NSC maintenance in young adult mice.

HMG-B Proteins and Function

High mobility group (HMG) proteins are members of the HMG superfamily, a family of non-histone proteins found in the nuclei of mammalian cells, that bind to nucleosomes and the minor groove of DNA in a sequence independent manner (Bustin, 1999; Thomas, 2001; Hock et al., 2007). The HMG superfamily is composed of three subfamilies, the HMG-A, HMG-B, and HMG-N (Bustin, 1999, 2001; Bianchi and Agresti, 2005). The members of each subfamily have a distinct functional motif that mediates nucleosome or DNA binding (Bustin, 1999, 2001). The HMG-A subfamily functional motif is the AT hook (ATH) and the HMG-B subfamily functional motif is the HMG-box, which both bind to the minor groove of DNA (Bustin, 1999). The HMG-N subfamily functional motif is the nucleosome binding domain (NBD), which binds to nucleosomes (Bustin, 1999). The HMG-B subfamily includes proteins HMGB1, 2, 3, and 4. All HMGB proteins contain two HMG-box domains followed by an acidic amino acid domain at the C terminus of the protein (Thomas, 2001). The HMG-boxes are 80 amino acids in length and composed of three alpha helices, which twist and fold to create an L shape (Read et al., 1993; Weir et al., 1993). The HMG-boxes bind to the minor groove of DNA and loosen the DNA by inserting hydrophobic R group(s) from the first alpha helix of the HMG-box into the minor groove of DNA (Weir et al., 1993; Love et al., 1995; Werner et al., 1995; Bustin, 1999). It is through these domains that HMG-B proteins act as modulators of transcription, replication, recombination, and DNA repair (Bianchi and Agresti, 2005).

HMG-B Proteins and Neural Stem Cells

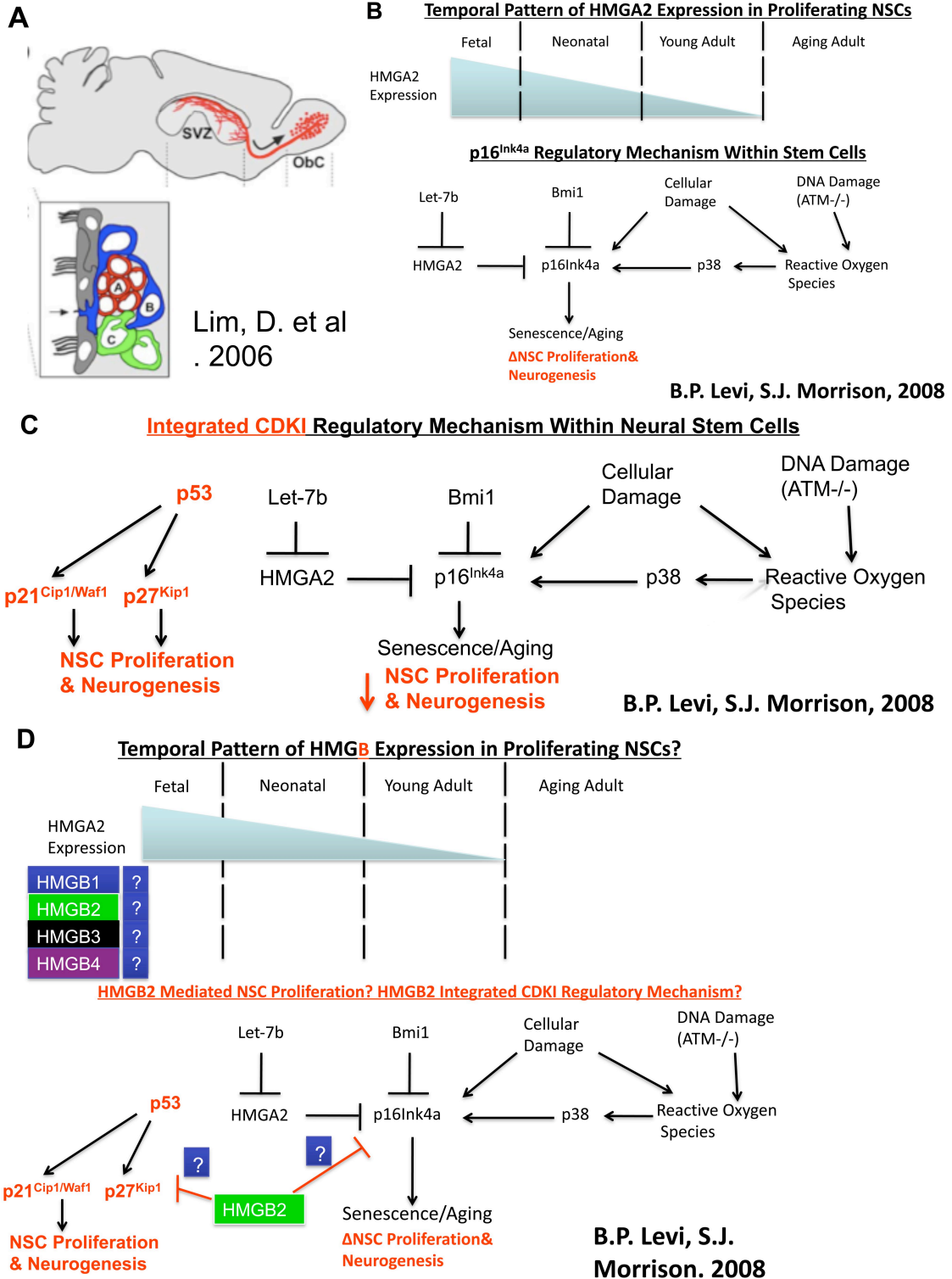
The association between members of the HMG-B subfamily of chromatin proteins and NSCs is not fully understood. Transcriptional profiling of SVZ NSCs indicated that NSCs express HMGB1 and HMGB2 mRNA (Ramalho-Santos et al., 2002). A subsequent study of SVZ NSCs reported HMGB1, HMGB2, and HMGB3 mRNA expression in NSCs (Fortunel et al., 2003). Analysis of gene expression overlap between NSCs, embryonic stem cells (ESCs) and retinal progenitor cells (RPCs) identified HMGB2 gene expression in all three populations (Fortunel et al., 2003). HMGB2 mRNA expression was also identified in peri-natal NSCs, was upregulated in undifferentiated neurospheres (Karsten et al., 2003) and decreased in differentiating neurospheres (Gurok et al., 2004). Consistent with these findings, an *in vivo* transcriptional profiling study of SVZ and OB gene expression found that HMGB2 mRNA expression was 17 fold higher in the SVZ than the OB, a finding confirmed by northern blot analysis (Lim et al., 2006). These findings suggest a possible role for HMGB2 in NSC proliferation in the SVZ stem cell niche. Despite these previous studies and the newly found regulatory role for HMGA2 in NSC proliferation, no comprehensive study to characterize the expression of HMG-Bs in NSCs has been conducted, nor has any study specifically addressed the role of individual HMGBs, such as HMGB2, in NSC maintenance and neurogenesis. Therefore, the purpose of this project is to: 1) study and characterize the expression of HMG-B family members in NSCs, 2) test the hypothesis that HMGB2 regulates proper maintenance of adult SVZ NSCs and NPCs, and 3) test the hypothesis that changes in HMGB2-

dependant progenitor maintenance *in vivo* is mechanistically related to changes in expression of different CDKIs in the adult SVZ progenitor cells (Figure 1D).

To characterize the expression of HMG-Bs in NSCs the proteome of embryonic NSCs was analyzed using shotgun proteomics. This led to the identification of 384 proteins expressed in proliferating embryonic NSCs, including members of the HMG-B family, which were validated by western blot analysis. Using neurosphere assays, the expression of all HMG-B mRNAs in proliferating and differentiating embryonic NSCs were studied and the differential expression of HMG-B mRNA in proliferating and differentiating embryonic NSCs were characterized. The differential expression of HMG-B chromatin proteins was also characterized in proliferating and differentiating NSCs. All HMG-B proteins (B1-4) were identified in proliferating embryonic NSCs at varying time points during neural development. HMGB1 and HMGB2 proteins are differentially expressed in differentiating embryonic NSCs. The possible regulatory role for HMGB2 in NSC maintenance and neurogenesis was examined using *in vivo* and *in vitro* assays. *In vivo* proliferation assays using HMGB2^{-/-} mice demonstrate that young adult HMGB2^{-/-} mice have SVZ hyperproliferation and increased numbers of SVZ NSCs and neuroblasts, but decreased numbers of NPCs *in vivo*. *In vivo* staining to examine changes in CDKI expression in young compound transgenic NestinGFP+HMGB2^{-/-} mice were associated with changes in SVZ expression of different negative regulators of cell cycle, including p21^{Cip1/Waf1}, p27^{Kip1}, and p53. *In vivo* differentiation assays using HMGB2^{-/-} mice to determine the role of HMGB2 in OB neurogenesis

demonstrate that young adult HMGB2^{-/-} mice displayed aberrant increases in newly born neurons in the OB granule cell layer, but not the OB glomerular layer. Finally, a subset (50%) of young adult HMGB2^{-/-} mice exhibits ventriculomegaly. These results demonstrate that HMGB2 is a mediator of proper proliferation of SVZ neural progenitors and OB neurogenesis in vivo.

Figure 1: (A) The SVZ neural stem cell niche, containing type B NSCs, type C NPCs, and type A neuroblasts, modified from (Lim et al., 2006). (B) HMGA2-p16^{Ink4a} mechanism of NSC proliferation during aging in vivo, modified (in color) from (Levi and Morrison, 2008). (C) Integrated mechanism of NSC proliferation. (D) Relationship of HMGB2 to proper NSC proliferation and CDKI expression.



Chapter II

General Methods

Genotyping

HMGB2^{-/-} mice were generated and characterized previously (Ronfani et al., 2001); NestinGFP transgenic mice were also generated previously (Mignone et al., 2004). Mouse genotyping was conducted by digesting mice tails in DNA digestion buffer containing (final) 100mM NaCl, 10mM Tris-HCl (pH8), 25mM EDTA, 0.5% (w/v) SDS, and 0.1 mg/ml proteinase K dissolved in milliQ water overnight (or for six hours) at 55°C. DNA digestion buffer was mixed with one equivalent volume of phenol/chloroform/isoamyl alcohol (25:24:1), centrifuged, and the aqueous phase collected. The aqueous phase was mixed with chloroform, centrifuged, and re-collected, and was slowly mixed with one equivalent volume of isopropanol to precipitate DNA. After gentle mixing, precipitated DNA was centrifuged for 15 min, and DNA was washed with 500 μ L of 70% ethanol. DNA pellets were centrifuged a final time for 10 minutes and the ethanol supernatant was discarded. DNA cell pellets were dried briefly and resuspended in 100 μ L of Tris EDTA (TE) solution, pH 7.5

NestinGFP mouse tail DNA was genotyped using the following primers:

Oligo 1 (5' CGY-FP): 5' ATC ACA TGG TCC TGC TGG AGT TC 3'

Oligo 2 (3' 2nd Intron): 5' GGA GCT GCA CAC AAC CCA TTG CC 3'

Primers were mixed with genomic DNA and PCR reaction buffer, MgCl₂, dNTPs, and Taq polymerase (Sigma). Cycling conditions were as follows; 3 minutes at 94°C, melting for 30 seconds at 94°C, annealing for 1 minute at 64°C, extension for 1 minute at 72°C, with repeat of 35 cycles, followed by 5 minutes at 72°C and 4°C hold until the end. PCR reactions were run on a 1.5% agarose gel run in 1x TAE solution. The presence of a 700 base pair band indicated that mice were NestinGFP positive mice.

HMGB2 mouse tail DNA was genotyped using the following primers:

HMGB2 Oligo 1 (Forward): 5' CGG ACA GCT AGG AGC TTT GAA GTC 3'

HMGB2 Oligo 2 (reverse): 5' GCG ATG GGT TCG TTA GTT CTC AG 3'

LacZ Oligo 1 (Forward): 5' GCT GGC GTA ATA GCG AAG AGG 3'

LacZ Oligo 2 (Reverse): 5' ATG CGC TCA GGT CAA ATT CAG AC 3'

Primers were mixed with genomic DNA and PCR reaction buffer, MgCl₂, dNTPs, and Taq polymerase (Sigma). Cycling conditions were as follows; 5 minutes at 95°C, melting for 45 seconds at 95°C, annealing for 30 seconds at 60°C, extension for 30 seconds at 72°C, with repeat of 35 cycles, followed by 5 minutes at 72°C and 4°C hold until the end. PCR reactions were run on a 1.5% agarose gel run in 1x TAE solution. The presence of a 236 base pair band in the HMGB2 PCR reaction indicated the presence of WT HMGB2 mouse allele, while the presence of a 413 base pair band in the LacZ PCR reaction indicated the presence of the LacZ HMGB2 knockout allele. Mice with both HMGB2 WT and LacZ alleles are HMGB2^{+/-} heterozygotes.

PCR reactions of all alleles from of all mice (NestinGFP transgenic, HMGB2 transgenic, and compound NestinGFP-HMGB2 transgenic mice) was performed separately to prevent generating non-specific amplification products that would yield false positive genotypes. All PCR reactions were run using previously known positive controls for the NestinGFP, WT HMGB2 allele, and LacZ HMGB2 knockout allele, as well as a negative PCR control. In all PCR reactions positive controls were positive and negative PCR controls were negative, and PCR reactions were repeated if any controls failed.

Immunofluorescence

For immunofluorescence (IF) staining, brain serial sections from each mouse were transferred to a new six well plate, washed with PBS, and antigen retrieval was performed using 2N HCl treatment for 1 hour at 37°C, followed by two washes in 0.1M Borate Buffer (pH 8) and two washes in 1x PBS. In immunofluorescence experiments in which antigen retrieval was not required sections were not treated with HCL and washed twice with 1x PBS. Sections were blocked with 10% goat serum/0.3%BSA/0.2%TritonX/PBS solution for 2 hours at room temperature (Sigma). Sections were stained with primary antibody/antibodies (for multi-fluorophore labeling) in 0.3%BSA/0.2%TritonX/PBS solution overnight at 4°C. Primary antibody/antibodies were removed and all sections were washed extensively with PBS and stained with species-specific highly cross absorbed secondary antibodies used for dual/multi-fluorophore staining. All secondary antibody stains were performed in 0.3%BSA/0.2%TritonX

/PBS solution at room temperature for 1 hour. Secondary antibodies were removed and all sections were wash extensively with PBS, were mounted on Superfrost plus micro slides (VWR), covered with Fluormount G mounting media (Southern Biotech) and covered with a cover glass (Fisher).

Western Blot Analysis

NSC cell lysates were generated from neurospheres (for compatibility with proteomics parameters see Chapter III and IV for specific conditions and reagents used for NSC lysis). Protein was determined using the DC protein assay (Biorad). Equal amounts of proteins were prepared by mixing protein lysates with 6x SDS sample (loading) buffer containing 350 μ M Tris pH 6.8, 30% glycerol, 10% SDS and 0.01% Bromophenol Blue. Beta-mercaptoethanol was added to samples at a dilution of 1:20, and all samples were heated at 95°C for 10 minutes, followed by centrifugation. Samples were loaded into Tris glycine SDS-polyacrylamide gels, containing a 5% stacking gel (pH6.8) and a 12% or 15% resolving gel (pH 8.8). All gels were loaded with Precision Plus protein ladder (Bio-Rad). Gel electrophoresis was done using 1x running buffer containing (final) 25mM Tris base, 192mM glycine, and 0.1% SDS for 20 minutes at 80 volts (stacking), followed by electrophoresis for 1 hour at 120 volts (resolving). For protein transfer, transfer buffer solution was composed of 25mM Tris base, 192mM glycine and 20% methanol, and proteins were transferred to PVDF membrane (previously activated by brief exposure to methanol) by running transfer apparatus at 120 volts for 1 hour at room temperature. Ice blocks were

used to prevent overheating of transfer apparatus. Following protein transfer to PVDF, the membrane was quickly rinsed with PBS and blocked with 4% BSA/PBS for 2 hours at room temperature, and then incubated over night at 4°C with primary antibody in 0.05% Tween20-PBS solution. All PVDF membranes were incubated with Mouse anti-alpha Tubulin (Sigma, 1:2000) as loading control. The following morning, the primary antibody was removed and the membrane was washed in 0.2% Tween20-PBS solution. PVDF membranes with then incubated with either Alexa goat anti-Mouse 680 (Invitrogen) and/or IR DYE Donkey anti-Rabbit 800 (Jackson) antibodies at 1:10,000 in 0.05% Tween20-PBS solution for 1 hour at room temperature. Secondary antibodies were then removed and the membrane was washed extensively with 0.2% Tween20-PBS solution. The membranes were scanned using the LICOR Odyssey Scanner with 700 and 800 nm laser excitation to visualize the reacting protein bands.

RT-PCR Analysis

RNA was isolated from neurospheres using the Rneasy RNA Isolation Kit (Qiagen) and total RNA levels were quantified using Nanodrop (Thermo Scientific). Prior to reverse transcription all RNA samples were treated with DNase (Invitrogen) to degrade genomic DNA. 750 ng of DNase-treated total RNA was reverse transcribed using the Superscript III First-Strand Synthesis System for RT-PCR (Invitrogen) according to manufacturer protocol. All cDNA samples were treated with RNase (Invitrogen) following completion of RT-PCR reaction according to manufacturer protocol. PCR reactions were run using gene

specific primers for HMGB1, HMGB2, HMGB3, and HMGB4 and β -Actin primers were used as an endogenous control. PCR reactions for samples treated without the reverse transcriptase enzyme ($-RT$ reactions) were run with all four gene specific HMG-B primers, and all $-RT$ reactions were negative. HMG-B primer sequences are listed below:

HMGB1(L) 5'ACAGAGCGGAGAGAGTGAGG 3' and

HMGB1(R) 5'TTTGCCTCTCGGCTTTTTAG 3';

HMGB2(L) 5' TGTCCTCGTACGCCTTCTTC 3' and

HMGB2(R) 5' CCTCCTCATCTTCTGGTTCG 3';

HMGB3(L) 5'GCGAACAATACAGGTACGACTC 3' and

HMGB3(R) 5' CTTGGCACCATCAAACCTTCC 3';

HMGB4(L) 5' CGGGACCACTATGCTATGCT 3' and

HMGB4(R) 5' CTTCTGCCTTGACATTGG 3'.

Cycling conditions for HMGB1 were as follows: 95°C for 15 min, 94°C for 15 seconds (melting), 53.2°C for 30 seconds (annealing), 72°C for 30 seconds (extension), repeat for 35 cycles, 4° hold until end. Annealing temperatures were modified to 58.1°C for HMGB2 and HMGB3, and 50.3°C for HMGB4. PCR reactions were run on a 1.5% agarose/TAE gel containing ethidium bromide (1:20,000) in 1x TAE solution and visualized by ultraviolet (UV) light.

Chapter III:

Shotgun Proteomics Analysis of Embryonic Neurospheres And the Identification of HMG-B Chromatin Proteins In Embryonic Neural Stem/Progenitor Cells

The first experiment of this project was to study and characterize the expression of HMG-B family members in NSCs. A neurosphere formation assay was employed to isolate and grow NSCs from the brains of embryonic E12.5 C57Bl6/wild type mice as previously described in the literature (Reynolds et al., 1992; Reynolds and Weiss, 1992, 1996). To gain further molecular insight into these proliferating NSCs the proteome of the NSCs was analyzed using quantitative shotgun proteomics analysis (Liao et al., 2009). Shotgun proteomics analysis is a powerful tool in which complex mixtures of proteins are cleaved using proteolysis, such as enzymatic proteolysis, and the peptide products of the proteolysis are identified using mass spectrometry and comparison against known mass spectrometry/peptide databases. This technique can also be used to identify proteins expressed in cells, and to quantify the abundance of each protein present in different cells. Despite the ability to use this powerful technique to identify and quantify protein abundance, there are technical

limitations associated with the approach. One limitation is that cell lysis and protein solubilization usually involves the use of detergents, such as sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS), which are not compatible with mass spectrometry. In light of this incompatibility, protein lysates not generated with detergents are less likely to dissolve lipophilic proteins. Therefore, the ability to detect these more lipophilic proteins by mass spectrometry is diminished, creating, theoretically, a bias in favor of detection of soluble hydrophilic proteins, but not insoluble lipophilic proteins. Previous studies have examined the use of special surfactants, including acid labile surfactants, to solubilize lipophilic proteins in cell lysates and that are compatible with mass spectrometry (Chen et al., 2007). The use of surfactants like Rapigest^{SF} (Waters) increases the detection of different proteins by shotgun proteomics analysis (Chen et al., 2007). Using mass spectrometry compatible surfactants, such as Rapigest^{SF} (Waters), and protein solubilizers, such as Invitrosol (Invitrogen), shotgun proteomics analysis was conducted using neurosphere lysates. This allowed us to study the proteome of proliferating embryonic NSCs. Additionally, neurosphere lysates were fractionated into membrane and soluble fractions using commercially available fractionation kits (Native membrane protein extraction kit, Calbiochem), including the use of acid-labile surfactants such as Rapigest to solubilize proteins, and was analyzed by quantitative shotgun proteomics to help further identify proteins that were not initially identified in whole cell neurosphere lysates. Using this approach, three technical replicates of neurosphere lysates were analyzed by shotgun proteomics analysis and led to the identification of several hundred

proteins expressed in proliferating NSCs, including numerous uncharacterized proteins in NSCs.

Material and Methods

Neurosphere Formation Assay, Passaging, and Differentiation

All experiments conform to the University guidelines on the ethical use of animals and were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee. Pregnant C57 wild type mice were euthanized under deep anesthesia at E12.5. Embryos were placed in ice-cold NSC Proliferation media composed of Neurobasal media containing Neurocult proliferation supplement (Stem Cell Technologies) and antibiotic/ antimycotic (Gibco). Embryonic mouse brains were dissected out and mechanically dissociated by trituration. Cells were centrifuged at 800 rpm for 5 minutes, supernatant was removed and the cell pellet was resuspended in 10mL of NSC proliferation media. Viable cells were counted by trypan blue staining. Primary neurospheres were grown in a 5% CO₂ chamber at 37° C by seeding 8×10^6 viable cells at a cell concentration of 2×10^5 /mL in NSC proliferation media containing 20ng/mL of recombinant human epidermal growth factor (rhEGF)(Sigma).

Primary neurospheres were passaged after 7 days in vitro using the Neurocult Chemical Dissociation Kit (Stem Cell Technologies), according to manufacturer protocol. Dissociated NSCs were filtered through a 40 μ m filter (BD Falcon) to remove any remaining debris, and trypan blue was used to determine viable NSC number. 2×10^6 NSCs were replated in vented T-75 flasks (BD

Falcon) at a cell concentration of 5×10^4 cells/mL in NSC proliferation media containing 20ng/mL rhEGF. NSCs from each passage were replated at the same cell (5×10^4 cells/mL) and EGF (20ng/mL) concentrations in NSC proliferation media.

Neurosphere differentiation assay was performed by cleaning glass coverslips with 2N NaOH, extensive washing and UV sterilization for 30 minutes, followed by coating coverslips with 100ug/mL poly-D-Lysine (Sigma) for one hour at room temperature and 20ug/mL Laminin (Sigma) in PBS for 3-4 hours at 37° C. After laminin coating, neurospheres were plated on glass coated coverslips and differentiated in Neurocult differentiation media (Stem Cell Technologies) without EGF supplementation. Differentiation media changes were done once per day per well, until cells were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde(PFA)/PBS solution and prepared for immunofluorescence.

Immunofluorescence

For immunofluorescence (IF) staining, proliferating and differentiated neurospheres were fixed with 4%PFA/PBS and washed three times with PBS. Immunofluorescence was performed as described in Chapter II – General Methods, except that spheres, not brain sections, were stained using this protocol. Specifically, proliferating spheres were stained with primary antibodies Rat anti-CD133 (Prominin1, Clone 13A4, 1:500, Ebioscience) and Rabbit anti-GFAP (1:1000, Millipore) in 0.3%BSA/0.2%TritonX/PBS solution overnight at 4°C. Differentiating spheres were stained with primary antibodies anti-GFAP and

anti-Beta3 tubulin (1:500, Millipore), and anti-CNP (1:100, Sigma) in 0.3%BSA/0.2%TritonX/PBS solution over night at 4°C. Primary antibodies were removed and all spheres were washed extensively with PBS and stained with species-specific highly cross absorbed secondary antibodies conjugated to Alexa488 (Invitrogen) or Rhodamine RedX or Cy3 (Jackson). All secondary antibody stains were performed in 0.3%BSA/0.2%TritonX/PBS solution at room temperature for 1 hour. Secondary antibodies were removed and spheres were wash with PBS, and glass coverslips with spheres were placed onto Superfrost plus micro slide (VWR) containing Fluormount G mounting media (Southern Biotech).

Quantitative Shotgun Proteomic Analysis

NSC Lysis

NSC lysis buffer was made using 8M Urea (Sigma) in 50mM Ammonium bicarbonate (pH7.5) (Sigma) using HPLC-grade water (Thermo Scientific). 1mg of RapiGest^{SF} Powder (Waters) was reconstituted with 50mM ammonium bicarbonate to make 2% RapiGest (w/v). 5x Invitrosol LC/MS protein solubilizer (Invitrogen MS10007) and complete Mini, EDTA-free protease inhibitor cocktail were purchased separately (Roche 11836170001). To make mass-spectrometry compatible NSC lysis buffer, protease inhibitor (1x), Invitrosol (1x), Urea (4M final) and RapiGest^{SF} (0.1% w/v final) were added to ammonium bicarbonate solution (50mM final). NSCs were lysed with 100µL of cold lysis buffer on ice, and a 25 gauge needle attached to a 1mL syringe (BD) was used to lyse cells

and shear DNA. A different needle and syringe was used for each biological NSC sample and all technical replicates. Lysates were incubated in a foam pad attached to a vortex for 30 minutes at 4° to facilitate the solubilization of proteins, centrifuged at 13200 rpm at 4° for 30 minutes, and supernatants were transferred to new ice-cooled non-stick microcentrifuge tubes and left on ice. Insoluble proteins remaining in the NSC debris pellet were solubilized by adding 100µL of NSC lysis buffer containing 6M Urea ([final]) to the remaining NSC pellet. Tubes containing insoluble protein pellets and additional lysis buffer were vortexed at 4° for 30 minutes, centrifuged at 13200 rpm at 4° for 30 minutes, and supernatants were pooled with their respective soluble protein supernatants on ice. For fractionated NSC lysates, NSCs were lysed and fractionated according to manufacturer protocol using the ProteoExtract native membrane protein extraction kit (Calbiochem). Protein determination was performed using the EZQ Protein Quantitation Kit (Invitrogen).

Digestion and Preparation of *Whole NSC* and *Soluble Fraction NSC* Protein Lysates

10µg of protein from each sample was precipitated using methanol-chloroform precipitation. Protein pellets were resuspended in 1x Invitrosol, heated to 60° for 5 minutes, cooled to room temperature, dissolved in acetonitrile (Sigma) and sonicated for 2 hours in a 37° water bath. Protein was digested with Trypsin (Sigma, 1:100) at 37° over night, and quenched the following day with 90% Formic acid (10% final). Peptide pellets were dried down by speed vacuum

to almost dry and resuspended in buffer A (5% acetonitrile/ 95%water/ 0.1%Formic Acid).

Digestion and Preparation of *Membrane NSC Protein Lysates*

10 μg of membrane protein was methanol-chloroform precipitated, resuspended in RapiGest, reduced using TCEP (2-Carboxylethyl-Phosphine), alkylated with iodoacetamide (IAM), and digested with trypsin (1:50) over night. RapiGest was hydrolyzed by adding 90% Formic Acid (10% final), and incubated in a shaking 37° water bath for 4 hours. Samples were dried down by speed vacuum and resuspended in buffer A.

1D LC MS/MS and Database Analysis

NSC peptides were analyzed using the LTQ XL linear ion trap mass spectrometer (Finnigan, Thermo Scientific). MS/MS spectra were extracted from the RAW file with ReAdW.exe (<http://sourceforge.net/projects/sashimi>). The resulting mzXML file contains all the data for all MS/MS spectra and can be read by the subsequent analysis software. The MS/MS data were searched with Inspect (Tanner et al., 2005) against a database containing a mouse database (IPI ver. 3.43 containing 54,215 entries) with added *E.coli* and common contaminant proteins (in total 4,605 proteins) in addition to a shuffled database of the aforementioned proteins. Only peptides with at least a p value of 0.01 were analyzed further.

Western Blot Analysis & Confirmation of Proteomics Data

Cell lysates from proliferating E12.5 neurospheres were generated according to the Methods section entitled “NSC Lysis” in this chapter, and the general western blot protocol described in Chapter II – General Methods was followed for protein detection. Specifically, several different western blots were performed to detect and confirm expression of proteins identified by shotgun proteomics, including intermediate filament vimentin, nuclear matrix protein matrin3, chromatin proteins HMGB1 and HMGB2, protein kinase C substrate myristoylated alanine rich C kinase substrate (MARCKS), RNA binding protein TARDBP, and heterochromatin protein 1 gamma.

RT-PCR Analysis

Cell lysates from proliferating E12.5 neurospheres were generated and mRNA isolated and analyzed by RT-PCR according to the methods sections entitled “RT-PCR Analysis” in the general methods sections in Chapter II – General Methods.

Results

HMG-B mRNAs AND PROTEINS ARE EXPRESSED IN PROLIFERATING NSCs

E12.5 neurospheres were immunoreactive for NSC markers CD133 and glial fibrillary acid protein (GFAP) (Figure 2A-D), were highly proliferative and capable of extensive self-renewal. NSCs were multipotent, and differentiated into GFAP+

astrocytes, BetalIII Tubulin+ neurons and CNP+ oligodendrocytes, when plated on laminin and poly-D-lysine (Figure 2E, F). Using mass spectrometry compatible components (RapiGest^{SF} and Invitrosol) as described above (Chen et al., 2007), the shotgun proteomics analysis identified 384 proteins expressed in soluble, membrane, and whole cell lysates of proliferating E12.5 neurospheres. The full list of proteins can be found in Table 1, including a heat map of the differential expression of proteins in proliferating E12.5 neurospheres according to cell compartment (soluble vs. membrane vs. whole cell lysate), as well as differential expression according to neurosphere passage (passage 2 vs. 8). The distribution of proteins in different subcellular compartments can be seen in Figure 3. This shotgun proteomics analyses identified several protein markers of NSCs, including GFAP, nestin, vimentin, and brain lipid binding protein (BLBP), as well as numerous proteins that have not been characterized in NSCs, such as the chromatin structural proteins HMGB1 and HMGB2.

The expression of some of the proteins identified in the proteomics analysis was confirmed by western blot analysis. The expression of vimentin was confirmed, as were several previously unreported proteins, including nuclear proteins such as matrin3 and chromatin structural proteins HMGB1 and HMGB2, myristoylated alanine rich C kinase substrate (marcks), heterochromatin protein 1-gamma (HP1- γ) and RNA binding protein TARDBP (Figure 4).

To further verify the expression of HMG-Bs in neurospheres, and explore whether the remaining members of the HMG-B family, HMGB3 and HMGB4, are also expressed in neurospheres, gene specific primers for all members of the

HMGB family were designed and used to conduct RT-PCR analysis for HMGB1, 2, 3, and 4 expression in proliferating neurospheres. Figure 5 is a diagram of the primer design used to generate specific HMGB primers to conduct RT-PCR analysis. RT-PCR analysis demonstrates that all HMGB mRNAs, HMGB1, 2, 3, and 4, were expressed in proliferating E12.5 neurospheres (Figure 6). All primers spanned exon-intron boundaries (except B4 which is an intron-less gene) and the size of all RT-PCR reaction amplification products were consistent with amplification of HMGB cDNA. Subsequent western blot analysis demonstrated that HMGB3 and HMGB4 proteins were expressed in proliferating neurospheres (Chapter IV, Figure 8), validating the RT-PCR data. In conclusion, three separate and independent methodologies, shotgun proteomic analysis, western blot analysis and RT-PCR analysis confirmed HMGB1 and HMGB2 mRNA and protein expression in proliferating E12.5 neurospheres, while two separate methodologies (western and RT-PCR analysis) confirm the expression of HMGB3 and HMGB4 in proliferating E12.5 neurospheres.

Figure 2: Immunofluorescence of (A) Dapi (B) CD133 (C) GFAP and (D) overlap in proliferating E12.5 neurospheres, and (E) GFAP, beta 3 tubulin and (F) CNP expression in differentiated neurospheres. White scale bars in (E) and (F) are 20 μm .

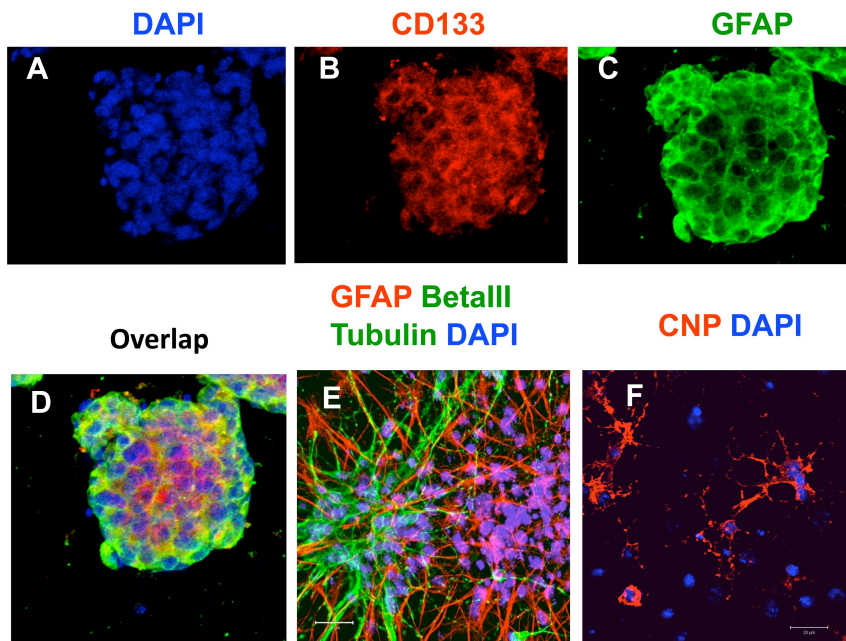


Figure 3: Subcellular distribution of proteins identified by shotgun proteomics analysis.

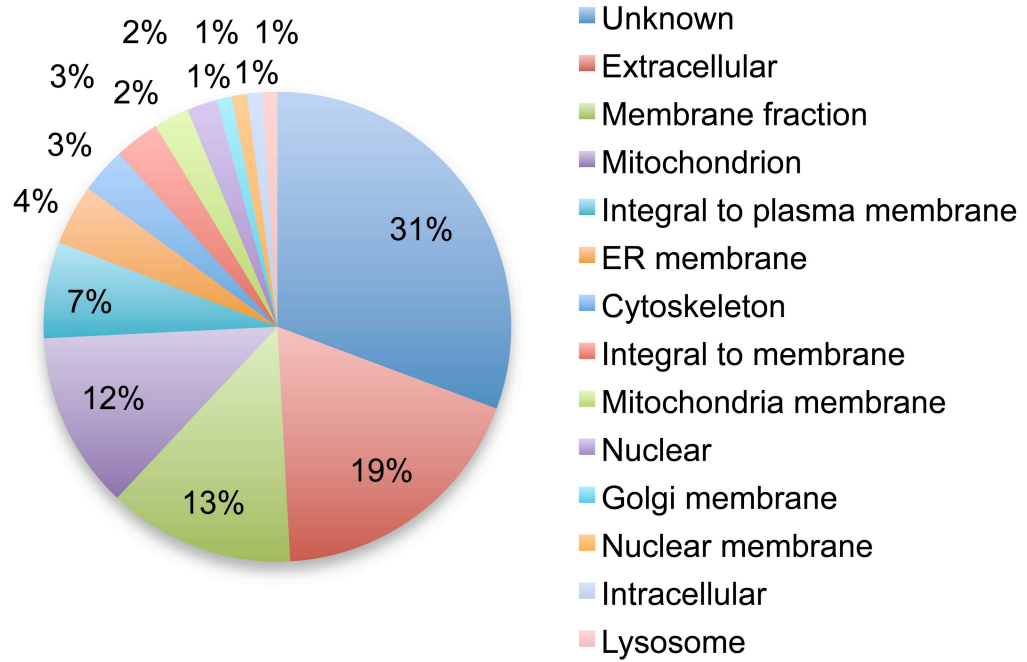


Figure 4: Western blot analysis of Vimentin, Matrin3, HMGB1, HMGB2, myristoylated alanine rich C kinase substrate (MARCKS), heterochromatin protein 1-gamma (HP1- γ) and TARDBP protein expression in cell lysates generated from E12.5 neurospheres. NSCs are labeled according to passage, e.g. p1, p2, p3 are with amount of loaded protein, e.g. 30 μ g. HeLa: HeLa cell lysates, SKNSH; Neuroblastoma cell line SKNSH cell lysates.

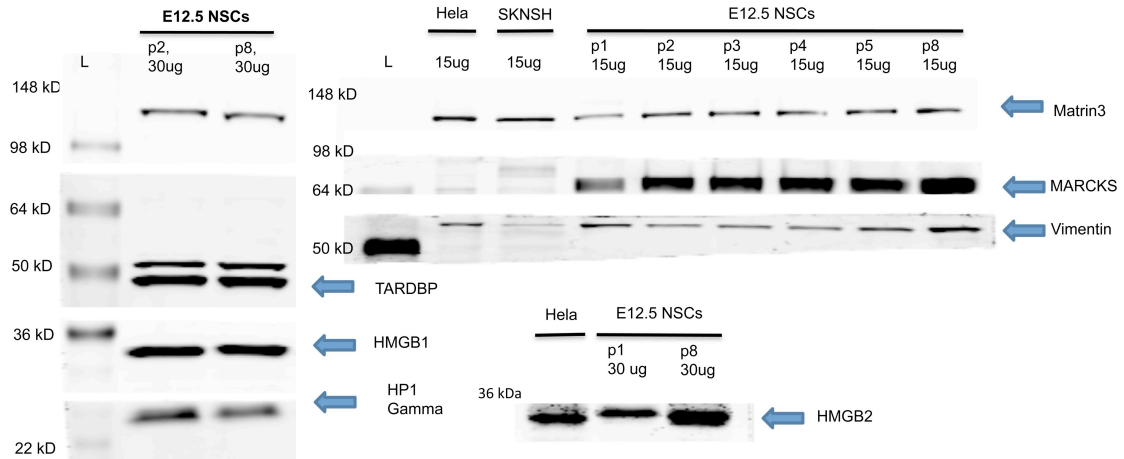


Figure 5: Diagram of primers designed to confirm HMGB1, 2, 3, and 4 expression by RT-PCR in proliferating E12.5 neurospheres.

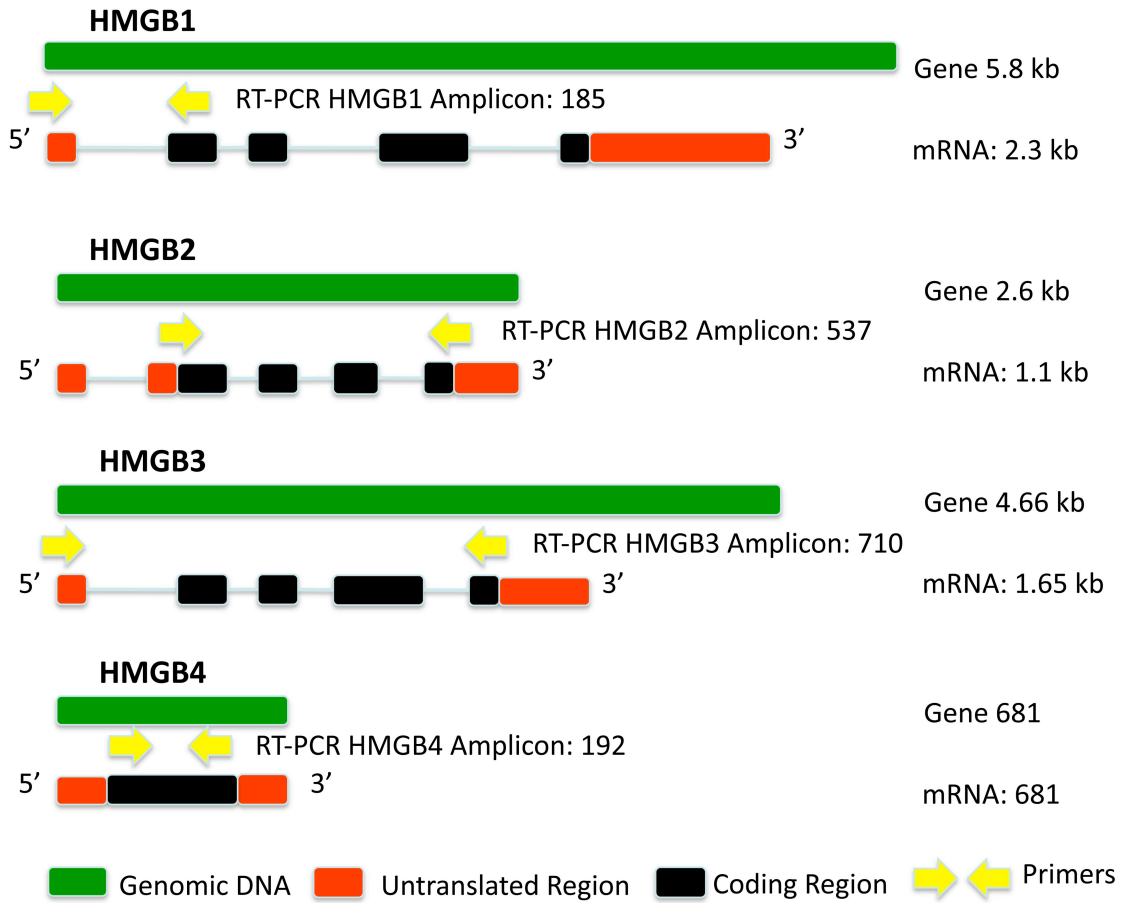
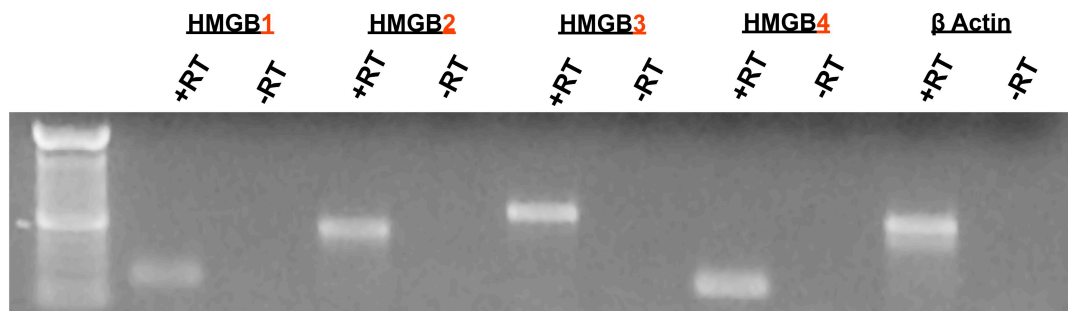


Figure 6: RT-PCR analysis of proliferating E12.5 neurospheres demonstrating expression of HMGB1, b2, b3, and b4 mRNA expression



Chapter IV:

Characterization of Temporal Changes in HMG-B Family Gene and Protein Expression In Embryonic NSCs Isolated During Embryonic Neural Development

The data presented in Chapter III demonstrate that HMGB-1 and HMGB-2 mRNA and protein were expressed in proliferating neurospheres, findings strongly consistent with previous transcriptional profiling studies which have identified HMG-Bs in progenitor cells *in vitro* (Fortunel et al., 2003) and in the SVZ *in vivo* (Lim et al., 2006). No study has examined the dynamics of HMG-B mRNA and protein expression in neural stem and progenitor cells, an essential study which would address whether expression of HMG-Bs are tightly regulated in progenitor cells, especially during critical cellular processes such as proliferation and differentiation. The recent study which identified HMGA2 as a regulator of NSC maintenance demonstrated that HMGA2 mRNA and protein were differentially expressed in the forebrain lateral wall during embryonic neural development and the SVZ of aging mice (Nishino et al., 2008), a critical result that led to the subsequent finding that HMGA2 is a regulator of NSC maintenance and exerts its effects in a specific temporal pattern. HMGA2 accomplishes this by altering p16^{Ink4a} expression *in vivo* and promoting NSC self-renewal in young but not aged mice. A study of the differential expression of

HMG-Bs in proliferating and differentiating NSCs would provide insight into the role of HMG-Bs in NSCs and whether they play a possible regulatory role in NSC maintenance and neurogenesis. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to characterize the expression of HMG-B family members in proliferating and differentiating NSCs and further characterize whether these changes in individual HMG-B expression in proliferating and differentiating NSCs were altered during different neural development time points known for dynamics changes in progenitor proliferation and differentiation.

HMGB mRNA and protein expression was studied by isolating NestinGFP neurospheres from the forebrain of NestinGFP transgenic mice at different time points during embryonic neural development. NestinGFP transgenic mice were generated previously and described elsewhere (Mignone et al., 2004). qRT-PCR and quantitative western blots were employed to study changes in HMGB mRNA and protein expression in proliferating and differentiating NSCs isolated during different time points during CNS development. Specifically, NestinGFP+ neurospheres were isolated between E12 and E17, a highly dynamic time period in neural development associated with NSC proliferation in the medial and lateral ganglionic eminences (MGE and LGE) and NSC differentiation in the form of striatal and cortical neurogenesis. In this manner changes in HMG-B mRNA and protein expression in proliferating and differentiating NSCs were characterized, as well as changes that were temporally specified, e.g. changed according to developmental time.

Methods

Neurosphere Formation Assay

Mouse NSCs were isolated from the forebrain of NestinGFP mice at day E12, E14.5, E15.5, and E17.5, and were prepared as described previously (NSC Isolation, Methods, Chapter III), except that each embryonic brain was cut in the ventral-dorsal plane immediately caudal to the telencephalon to ensure the separation of the telencephalon from the developing mid/hindbrain and spinal cord (to ensure the regional specificity of developing forebrain CNS tissue used to generate NSCs). To ascertain that embryos were of the correct developmental age, the developmental characteristics of each embryo were verified using the Theiler Atlas of Mouse Development (Theiler, 1989).

Gradient PCR, qRT-PCR Quantitative Western Blot Analysis

RNA was isolated, quantified, treated with DNase, reverse transcribed, and treated with RNase using methods previously described (RT-PCR Analysis, General Methods, Chapter II). cDNA was used to conduct quantitative real time RT-PCR (qRT-PCR) using the SYBRGreen PCR kit (Qiagen) with gene specific primers for HMGB1, B2, B3, and B4 to determine optimal primer annealing temperatures. HMG-B primers and β -Actin primer sequences were previously described (Chapter II). qRT-PCR reactions were run and read in a 7300 Real Time PCR System (Applied Biosystems). Cycling conditions for HMGB1 were as follows: 95°C for 15 min, 94°C for 15 sec (melting), 53.2°C for 30 sec (annealing), 72°C for 30 sec (extension), repeat for 40 cycles, 4° hold until end. Annealing

temperatures were modified to 58.1° for HMGB2 and HMGB3, and to 50.3° for HMGB4. Fold change in gene expression was calculated using the comparative CT method (Schmittgen and Livak, 2008). All qRT-PCR reactions were run in quadruplicate (4 technical replicates per sample). At least three different biological samples of NSCs at each time point in development were used for each experiment (n=3 experiments), including proliferation and differentiation experiments.

For quantitative westerns, proliferating and differentiating NSCs were lysed and protein determination was done by DC assay, loaded into 12 or 15% Tris Glycine SDS-PAGE gels as previously described (Western Blot Analysis, Chapter II). Membranes were incubated overnight at 4°C with primary antibodies Rabbit anti-HMGB1 (Abcam, 1:1000), Mouse anti-HMGB2 (Abcam, 1:200), Rabbit anti-HMGB3 (Epitomics, 1:2000), and Rabbit anti-HMGB4 (Abcam, 1:250). All membranes were incubated with mouse anti-alpha Tubulin (Sigma, 1:2000) as loading control. Scanning and visualization of membranes was performed as previously described (Chapter II).

Results

Neurospheres isolated from the forebrain of NestinGFP mice were positive for GFP fluorescence (Figure7 A-C), demonstrating the expression of GFP under the control of this neural stem cell promoter. HMGB mRNA levels are temporally specified in proliferating NestinGFP+ neurospheres isolated at various time points during neural development. HMGB1 and B2 mRNA levels are 5.9 fold and

11.7 fold higher, respectively, in proliferating progenitor cells at E12 than at E15.5 (Figures 7D, E), following an expression pattern similar to that of HMGA2 mRNA levels between E14.5 and P0 (Nishino et al., 2008). HMGB3 mRNA levels are 9.6 fold and 21.3 fold higher in proliferating E12 and E14.5 neurospheres, respectively, than proliferating E15.5 neurospheres (Figure 7F). HMGB4 mRNA levels are also changed in proliferating neurospheres, but the magnitude of this change was negligible (Figure 7G), suggesting that HMGB4 mRNA is not tightly controlled in proliferating neurospheres, as are HMGB1, 2 and 3. These results reveal time-dependant changes in HMGB1, 2, and 3 mRNA levels, but not B4, in proliferating progenitor cells during different time points in embryonic neural development.

To investigate the HMGB mRNA levels in differentiating NSCs, NestinGFP+ neurospheres were cultured from E12, E14.5 and E15.5 forebrains, differentiated on laminin and poly-D-lysine, and analyzed by qRT-PCR. Changes in HMGB mRNA expression in differentiating neurospheres were calculated relative to proliferating neurospheres at each developmental timepoint. Our data revealed that HMGB1 and b2 mRNA levels decrease in differentiating NSCs at all investigated time points during CNS development; E12, E14.5 and E15.5 (Figure 7). Irrespective at which developmental point the NSCs were isolated there was an approximate 5 fold decrease in HMGB1 mRNA levels, and an approximate 10 fold drop in HMGB2 mRNA levels, in differentiating NSCs (Figures 7H, I). HMGB3 mRNA levels decreased 10 fold in differentiating E12 NSCs, did not change significantly in differentiating E14.5 NSCs and decreased two-fold in

differentiating E15.5 NSCs (Figure 7J). Finally, HMGB4 mRNA levels were unchanged in differentiating NSCs at E12 and E14.5, but decreased in differentiating E15.5 NSCs (Figure 7K). These results indicate that differentiating NSCs have differential HMGB mRNAs levels,, but only HMGB3 and HMGB4 demonstrated time-dependant changes in mRNA levels in differentiating NSCs isolated during different time points in neural development. Alternatively, HMGB1 and HMGB2 mRNA levels were lower in differentiating NSCs at all time points examined during neural development.

To assess HMGB protein levels in proliferating and differentiating NSCs, quantitative western blots were performed. HMGB1 and HMGB2 protein levels remained constant in proliferating NSCs isolated from E12 to E17.5 (Figures 8A,B). Low HMGB3 protein levels were detected in proliferating E12 NSCs, sharply increased at E14.5, and remained stable in proliferating NSCs between E14.5 and E17.5 (Figure 8C), consistent with previously described qRT-PCR data (Figure 7F). HMGB4 protein levels were not detectable in E12 NSCs, but were present and stable between E14.5-E17.5 in proliferating NSCs (Figure 8D). Western blots analysis of differentiating E12 NSCs indicated that HMGB1 and HMGB2 protein levels after 48 hours of differentiation were 54.4% and 51.3%, respectively, compared to proliferating E12 NSCs (Figures 8E, F), consistent with qRT-PCR data (Figure 7H, I).

Figure 7: A-C) Isolation of forebrain NestinGFP neurospheres and expression of GFP in NestinGFP neurospheres. D-G) qRT-PCR analysis of HMGB1, 2, 3, and 4 gene expression in proliferating E12.5, E14.5, and E15.5 forebrain neurospheres. H-K) qRT-PCR analysis of HMGB1, 2, 3, and 4 gene expression in differentiating E12.5, E14.5 and E15.5 forebrain neurospheres. N=3 biological samples per time point. Values are Mean \pm SEM. * = $p < 0.05$ and ** = $p < 0.005$

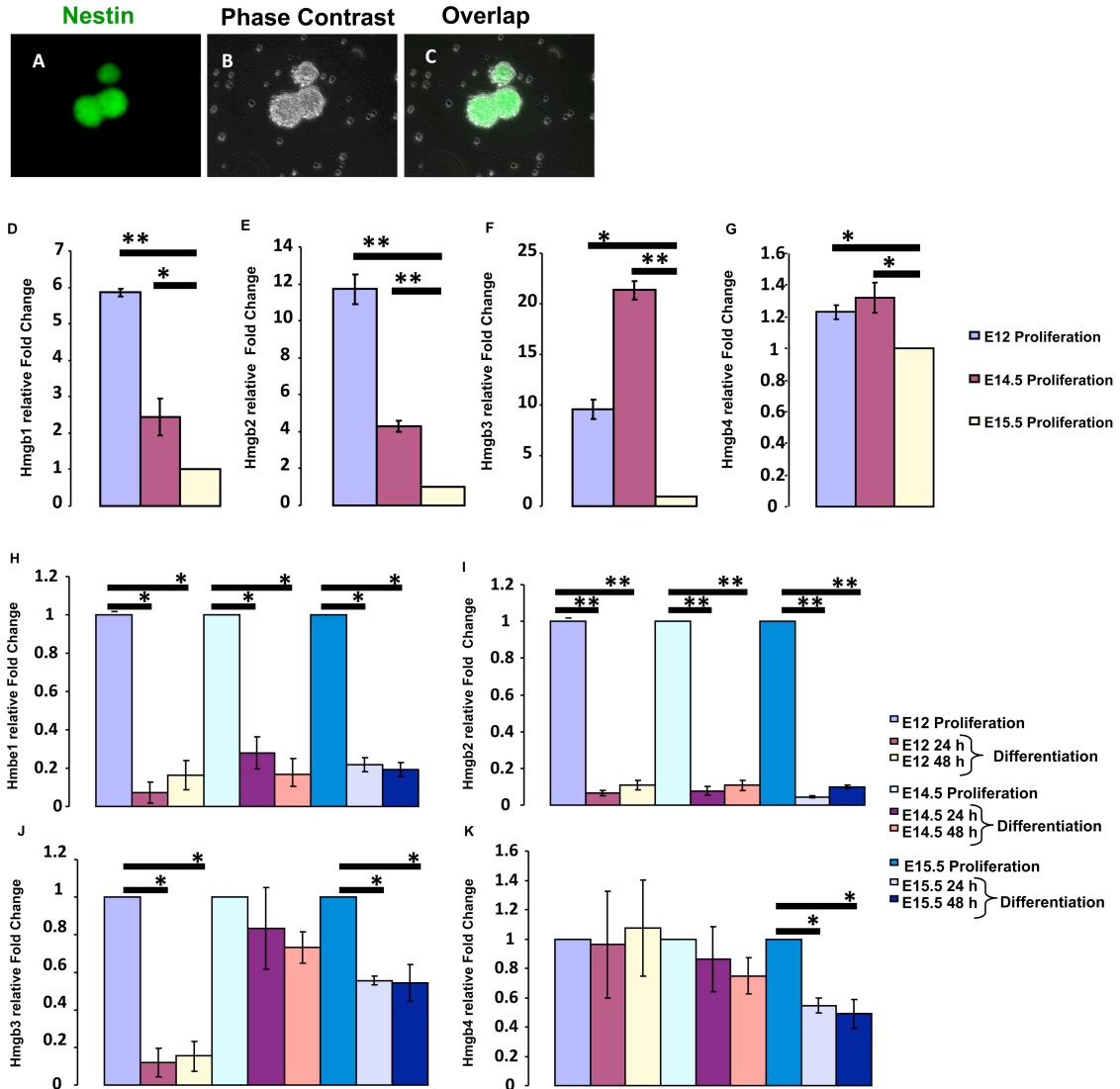
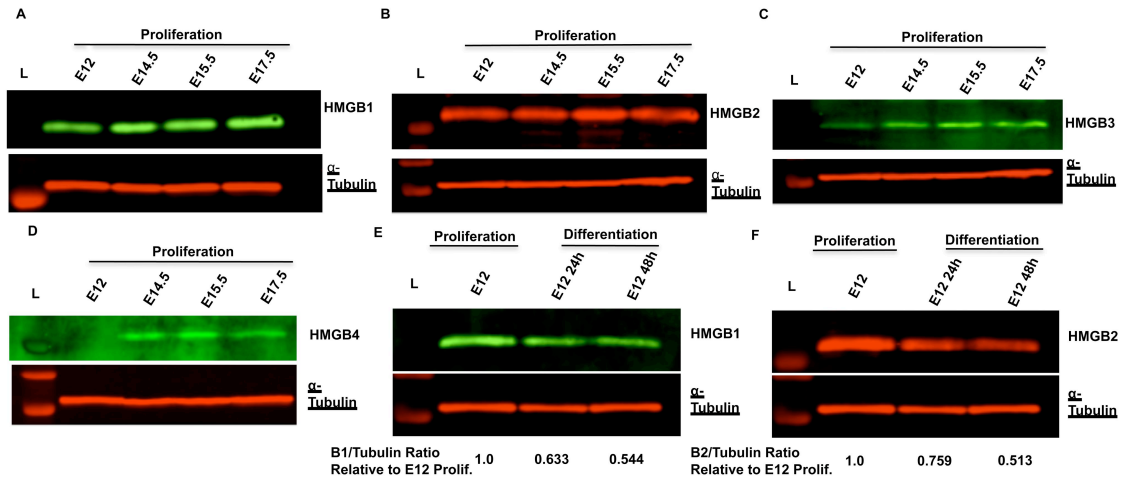


Figure 8: A-D) HMGB1, 2, 3, and 4 protein expression in proliferating E12, E14.5, E15.5 and E17.5 forebrain neurospheres. E-F) HMGB1 and HMGB2 protein expression in differentiating E12 forebrain neurospheres.



Chapter V:

Altered Subventricular Zone Neural Stem and Progenitor Cell Composition, Aberrant Olfactory Bulb Neurogenesis, and Ventriculomegaly in Young Adult Mice Lacking Chromatin Protein HMGB2

HMG-B mRNA and protein expression are temporally regulated in proliferating and differentiating neural progenitor cells. These dynamic changes in embryonic NSCs are robust, with decreases in HMGB1 and HMGB2 mRNA and protein levels in differentiating progenitors compared to proliferating neural progenitors (Fig 7, Fig 8). Among the largest magnitude changes in HMGB mRNA and protein levels in progenitor cells is HMGB2. HMGB2 mRNA levels decrease 12 fold in proliferating progenitor cells between E12 and E15.5 during neural development (Fig 7, page 42), and HMGB2 mRNA levels decrease almost 10 fold in differentiating neural progenitor cells compared to proliferating progenitor cells (Fig 7, page 42). These changes in HMGB2 levels suggests the possibility that HMGB2 is regulated in proliferating and differentiating progenitor cells because it may play a role in regulating these processes in neural progenitor cells. To address these possibilities, I studied the proliferation and differentiation of NSCs in HMGB2 knock out (HMGB2^{-/-}) mice, a knock out mouse characterized and described previously (Ronfani et al., 2001).

The expression of HMGB2 mRNA in the SVZ of young adult mice has been verified using northern blot analysis (Lim et al., 2006). We first confirmed the presence of HMGB2 at the protein level in neural progenitor cells *in vivo* using HMGB2 immunofluorescence and NestinGFP transgenic mice to detect HMGB2 protein expression in NestinGFP⁺ neural progenitor cells in the SVZ of young adult mice. These NestinGFP⁺ progenitor cells proliferate and give rise to neuroblasts which migrate to the OB and differentiate into neurons (Doetsch et al., 1997; Doetsch et al., 1999). Consequently, we examined the proliferation of SVZ cells in WT (HMGB2^{+/+}) and HMGB2^{-/-} mice to determine whether changes in proliferation in the SVZ occurred in the absence of HMGB2 expression. We evaluated the composition of NSCs, NPCs, and neuroblasts in the SVZ of young adult HMGB2^{-/-} mice to determine changes in progenitor cell number that may be explained by this SVZ hyperproliferation. Additionally, we studied the differences in the expression of different CDKIs, known regulators of NSCs and NPCs, in the SVZ in young adult HMGB2^{-/-} mice. Finally, we examined differences in olfactory bulb neurogenesis in young adult HMGB2^{-/-} mice. Our results indicate that mice lacking chromatin protein HMGB2 have a complex neural stem cell phenotype involving *in vivo* changes in expression of different neural stem cell markers, differences in expression of CDKIs in the SVZ, changes in OB granule cell layer neurogenesis, as well as gross abnormalities in neuro-anatomy, including several instances of massive ventriculomegaly.

Methods

In Vivo Proliferation and Differentiation Assays

To assess *in vivo* proliferation 2.5 month old WT and HMGB2^{-/-} mice were intraperitoneal injection (IP) injected with 150 mg/kg BrdU (Sigma) every 12 hours for 2.5 days (5 injections total) and euthanized 12 hours after final injection. Mice were deeply anesthetized using IP injection of 2.5% Avertin solution and transcardially perfused with PBS followed by 4% paraformaldehyde/PBS. Mice brains were dissected out and kept in 4%PFA/PBS at 4°C. Brains were sectioned along the midline and floating 50 μ meters thick sagittal sections were generated by vibratome. All brain sections were collected in series. To assess *in vivo* differentiation, 2 month old WT and HMGB2^{-/-} mice were injected by intraperitoneal injection (IP) with 150 mg/kg BrdU (Sigma) every 12 hours for 2 days (4 injections total) and euthanized 14 days after final injection, at 2.5 months. Perfusion and sectioning was performed as described above.

Immunofluorescence and Confocal Imaging

For proliferation immunofluorescence (IF) staining, one set of serial sections from each mouse were transferred to a new six well plate, washed with PBS, and antigen retrieval for BrdU staining and blocking with goat serum was performed as previously described (General Methods, Chapter II). Sections were stained with rat anti-BrdU antibody (Serotec, 1:300) and Rabbit anti-Ki67 (Abcam, 1:200) in 0.3%BSA/0.2%TritonX/PBS solution over night at 4°C. For differentiation (IF)

staining, serial sections were transferred to a new six well plate, washed with PBS, and BrdU antigen retrieval was performed as described above. Sections were blocked and then stained with rat anti-BrdU and mouse anti-NeuN (Millipore, 1:1000) in 0.3%BSA/0.2%TritonX/PBS solution over night at 4°C. For progenitor marker (IF) staining serial sections were transferred, washed in PBS, blocked and then stained with mouse anti-GFAP (Dako, 1:500) or rabbit anti-doublecortin (DCX)(Millipore, 1:400) in 0.3%BSA/0.2%TritonX/PBS solution over night at 4°C. For cell cycle marker (IF) staining, serial sections were transferred and washed with PBS and stained with either rabbit anti-p16^{Ink4a} (Santa Cruz, M-156, 1:100), mouse anti-p21^{Cip1/Waf1} (Santa Cruz, 1:100), rabbit anti-p53 (Santa Cruz, 1:100), or rabbit anti-p27^{Kip1} (NeoMarkers, 1:100) in 0.3%BSA/0.2%TritonX/ PBS solution over night at 4°C. All sections were washed extensively with PBS and stained with highly cross absorbed secondary antibodies used for dual staining, including highly cross absorbed anti-rat rhodamine red X (Jackson 1:500), anti-mouse FITC (1:200), anti-mouse Cy3 (1:500), anti-Rabbit Cy5 (1:500), and/or anti-rabbit Alexa 488 (Invitrogen, 1:2000). All secondary antibody incubations were performed in 0.3%BSA/0.2%TritonX/ PBS solution at room temperature for 1 hour. All sections were washed extensively with PBS following secondary antibody staining, were mounted on Superfrost plus micro slides (VWR), covered with Fluormount G mounting media (Southern Biotech) and covered with a cover glass (Fisher).

A Zeiss LSM 510 confocal microscope system with an Axiovert 200M inverted microscope was used to generate high magnification (100x) Z-stack images of

the entire thickness of sagittal brain sections containing the anterior SVZ (aSVZ), the proximal rostral migratory stream, and the granule cell layer and glomerular layers of the olfactory bulb (differentiation) of WT and HMGB2^{-/-} mice. All brain sections were matched. To determine the number of total proliferating progenitors (BrdU⁺, Ki67⁺, and BrdU⁺/Ki67⁺ cells) in the aSVZ, 10 total fields of view comprising the aSVZ were imaged using Z-stacks and the cells were quantified using the LSM Image Browser Software (Zeiss). Only proliferating SVZ cells located in the cell dense region approximating the ventricle were quantified, and cells >100μmeters from the ependymal layer were excluded so as not to quantify cells in the striatum. Composite images of aSVZ in WT and HMGB2^{-/-} mice were created by layering each high magnification field of view. To quantify BrdU⁺, NeuN⁺ and BrdU⁺/NeuN⁺ new born neurons in the OB GCL and GL, Z-stacks were generated from 3 random fields of view in each OB layer and analyzed using LSM software. For progenitor staining, GFAP, NestinGFP and doublecortin expression was stained examined in serial sections and images generated from both lateral and medial brain sections. Expression of p16^{Ink4a}, p21^{Cip1/Waf1}, p53, and p27^{Kip1} were stained and examined in serial sections and images generated from medial sagittal brain sections.

Statistics

All comparisons were conducted using two-tailed unpaired t tests, and statistical significance cut off for all comparisons was $p \leq 0.05$.

Results

***In Vivo* HMGB2 Expression in Nestin GFP+ SVZ Progenitors Cells**

HMGB2 protein expression in the SVZ of young adult mice was examined by staining brain sections of HMGB2^{+/+} NestinGFP mice for HMGB2 protein, and further assessing HMGB2 protein expression within Nestin⁺ SVZ progenitor cells. The results revealed that HMGB2 protein was expressed in the SVZ in young mice (Figure 9A-I), and that it was present in both NestinGFP⁺ SVZ progenitors cells and NestinGFP^{Neg} cells that were exiting the SVZ, including several cells that appeared to be entering the RMS (Figure 9A-I). The staining was punctate with a nuclear and perinuclear distribution. We note here that despite the expression of HMGB2 in several Nestin⁺ SVZ progenitor cells, not all Nestin⁺ SVZ cells expressed HMGB2; in several instances the cells that were brightest in HMGB2 expression were solitary Nestin⁺ progenitor cells in the SVZ, suggesting that a subpopulation of Nestin⁺ progenitor cells in the SVZ strongly express HMGB2 protein.

Young adult HMGB2^{-/-} mice exhibited ventriculomegaly and hyperproliferation in the anterior SVZ compared to age matched WT mice

NestinGFP⁺ SVZ progenitor cells proliferate and give rise to neuroblasts which migrate to the OB and differentiate into neurons (Doetsch et al., 1997; Doetsch et al., 1999). We examined whether changes in HMGB2 expression altered proliferation in the SVZ in regions where the presence of HMGB2 protein

was confirmed. Upon initial examination of several brains from young HMGB2^{-/-} mice, it was observed that 50% of HMGB2^{-/-} mice (7 out of 14 mice) displayed enlarged ventricles at 2.5 months of age, while only 10% of WT mice (1 out of 10) exhibited any detectable enlargement of the ventricles by that age (Figure 10A,B). To assess whether proliferation was affected in the SVZ in young HMGB2^{-/-} mice, we injected 2.5 month HMGB2^{-/-} and WT mice with the nucleoside analog BrdU (150µg/mg) and then stained serial brain sections for BrdU (S phase marker) and the pan cell-cycle proliferation marker Ki67. We enumerated BrdU⁺, Ki67⁺, and BrdU⁺/Ki67⁺ cells in the anterior SVZ (aSVZ) and found that the BrdU⁺, Ki67⁺ and BrdU⁺/Ki67⁺ cell numbers and cell densities were elevated in the aSVZ of 2.5 month old HMGB2^{-/-} mice relative to WT mice of the same age (Figure 11). HMGB2^{-/-} mice reached a mean cell density of 4×10^5 BrdU⁺/Ki67⁺ cells per mm³ in the aSVZ at 2.5 months, which is almost 100% higher than the WT mice [which have a mean cell density of 2×10^5 BrdU⁺/Ki67⁺ cells per mm³ in the aSVZ at 2.5 months (Mean \pm SEM, n=4 WT and n=5 B2^{-/-} null, p<0.005)].

NestinGFP+HMGB2^{-/-} mice have increased numbers of Nestin+GFAP+ NSCs and Doublecortin+ (DCX) Neuroblasts compared to WT Mice.

To further determine the nature of the hyperproliferating cells in the SVZ of young adult HMGB2^{-/-} mice, HMGB2^{+/-} transgenic mice (Ronfani et al., 2001) were crossed with NestinGFP⁺ transgenic mice (Mignone et al., 2004) to generate compound NestinGFP⁺HMGB2^{+/+} and NestinGFP⁺HMGB2^{-/-} mice.

This allowed us to study NestinGFP NSCs and NPCs in the SVZ of young mice in the presence or absence of HMGB2. We observed that a subset of NestinGFP+HMGB2^{-/-} also exhibited ventriculomegaly, consistent with our previous observations. Additionally, NestinGFP+HMGB^{+/+} appeared neuro-anatomically intact, similar to HMGB2^{+/+} (WT) mice, further suggesting that the continued appearance of ventriculomegaly in subsets of HMGB2^{-/-} mice would be specific to the loss of HMGB2.

Using compound NestinGFP+/HMGB2 transgenic mice, we stained for NSC cell marker GFAP, which was expressed in SVZ NSCs (type B cells)(Doetsch et al., 1997; Doetsch et al., 1999). We first examined lateral sagittal brain sections from WT and HMGB2^{-/-} mice. In NestinGFP+HMGB2^{+/+} mice, GFAP expression was clearly present in the SVZ and colocalized with NestinGFP+ processes of NSCs in the SVZ (Figure 12A). In the NestinGFP+HMGB2^{-/-} there was a dramatic increase in GFAP+ expression and GFAP+ processes in the SVZ; these GFAP+ processes appeared to arise from NestinGFP+ cell bodies in the SVZ (Figure 12B). Orthogonal views of the SVZ in NestinGFP+WT (Figure 12C,E) and NestinGFP+HMGB2^{-/-} (Figure 12D,F) mice and quantification of Nestin+GFAP+ NSC and Nestin+GFAP- NPC cell populations in the SVZ of these two mice indicated that HMGB2^{-/-} mice had higher numbers of Nestin+GFAP+ NSCs and lower numbers of Nestin+GFAP- NPCs than age matched WT mice (Figure 12G). Full resolution 3D reconstruction of the SVZ in WT and HMGB2^{-/-} mice at this age appeared consistent with this observation, showing increased Nestin+GFAP+ SVZ NSCs (Figure 13). Furthermore, GFAP

staining of brain sections from NestinGFP+HMGB2^{-/-} mouse without ventriculomegaly appeared to contain greater GFAP staining in the SVZ compared to age-matched WT mice (Figure 14), seemingly indicating that increased appearance of GFAP expression in SVZ NSCs persisted in the absence of ventriculomegaly in the HMGB2^{-/-} mice, although the degree of this increase in GFAP staining in these HMGB2^{-/-} mice without ventriculomegaly was smaller, and not as pronounced as the large increase in GFAP staining noted in HMGB2^{-/-} mice with ventriculomegaly.

In more medial brain sections there were additional changes in progenitor composition in the SVZ. In medial sagittal sections from NestinGFP+HMGB2^{-/-} the increase in GFAP expression persisted compared to WT mice (Figure 15A,B). Orthogonal views of SVZ near the RMS outlet (Figure 15C,D) and in the more ventral SVZ (Figure 15E,F) indicated that the Nestin+GFAP⁺ NSC population is higher in the HMGB2^{-/-} mouse and that Nestin+GFAP⁻ NPC population was lower in HMGB2^{-/-} mouse, with quantification of SVZ NSCs and NPCs confirming this observation (Figure 15G), consistent with observations made in lateral brain sections mentioned previously (Figure 12).

Furthermore, analysis of the distribution of total NestinGFP⁺ alone (without regard to GFAP expression) within the SVZ indicated that HMGB2^{-/-} medial sagittal sections appeared to contain fewer numbers of NestinGFP⁺ cells in the SVZ, both near the outlet to the RMS and more distally along the ventral axis (Figure 15D,F). Quantification of the NestinGFP⁻ cell population in the SVZ of HMGB2^{-/-} mice indicated higher numbers of this cell population compared to WT

mice (Figures 15G). Full resolution 3D reconstruction of the SVZ confirmed these findings, that there was more GFAP+ expression in HMGB2^{-/-} mice, and greater numbers of Nestin+GFAP+ NSCs compared to WT mice, but paradoxically, this cellular change in SVZ progenitor composition was also associated with increased numbers of NestinGFP⁻ cells in the SVZ of HMGB2^{-/-} mice compared to WT mice (Figure 15G, Figure 16).

We asked whether this population of NestinGFP⁻ cells in the SVZ of HMGB2^{-/-} mice were more advanced progenitor cells, and specifically if they were neuroblasts. We assessed the expression of the neuroblasts using the marker doublecortin (DCX), a transcription factor that labels SVZ neuroblasts (Hack et al., 2005). In lateral sagittal sections, DCX+ neuroblasts were present in SVZ and the outlet to the RMS in both WT and HMGB2^{-/-} mice, but the lateral HMGB2^{-/-} brain sections contained larger clusters of these DCX+ SVZ neuroblasts compared to WT mice (Fig. 17). In more medial sagittal brain sections, the SVZ of HMGB2^{-/-} mice contained larger numbers of DCX+ neuroblasts compared to WT brain sections (Figure 18). HMGB2^{-/-} SVZ contained large elongated cords of DCX+ SVZ cells in medial sagittal sections. These DCX+ cords were greatly enlarged in HMGB2^{-/-} mice compared to WT mice (Fig. 18). Measurement of the length of these DCX+ SVZ cells within the SVZ (from lateral ventricle to striatum) indicated the length of DCX+ cords within the WT SVZ was approximately 50μmeters, and in HMGB2^{-/-} mice it was approximately 100μm. Additionally, the number of DCX+ cells per high power field (hpf) in the SVZ was elevated in HMGB2^{-/-} mice compared to WT mice, with

almost 120 cells/hpf in WT SVZ and 180 cells/hpf in HMGB2^{-/-} SVZ (Figure 18C). These changes in DCX⁺ neuroblasts demonstrated that the changes in SVZ progenitor composition in HMGB2^{-/-} mice were not exclusive to NSCs and NPCs, and included changes in SVZ neuroblast cell number.

In light of these *in vivo* findings in HMGB2^{-/-} mice, we asked whether changes in known regulators of NSC proliferation and self-renewal were altered in HMGB2^{-/-} mice. As previously described, NSC proliferation and self-renewal are high in embryonic and young mice due to HMGA2 mediated repression of p16^{Ink4a} (Nishino et al., 2008). This led us to ask whether changes in HMGB2^{-/-} SVZ NSC and NPC cell number were mechanistically related to changes in p16^{Ink4a} *in vivo*. We evaluated p16^{Ink4a} protein levels using immunofluorescence, in previously described compound NestinGFP+HMGB2^{-/-} and WT mice. The expression of p16^{Ink4a} in the glomerular layer of the olfactory bulb was confirmed, which constituted a positive control for p16^{Ink4a} expression (Figure 19A). Our results indicated that there was no increase in p16^{Ink4a} protein levels in NestinGFP⁺ SVZ cells in HMGB2^{-/-} mice at 10 weeks compared to age-matched WT mice (Figure 19B,C). We also examined the protein levels of other CDKIs which have been previously described as negative regulators of NSC and NPC proliferation and self-renewal, including p21^{Cip1/Waf1}, p27^{Kip1} and upstream regulator of these to CDKIs, p53 (Doetsch et al., 2002b; Kippin et al., 2005; Meletis et al., 2006). p21^{Cip1/Waf1} was detected in SVZ progenitor cells that were leaving the SVZ and entering the RMS in 10 week old NestinGFP+WT mice (Figure 20C), but in age-matched NestinGFP+HMGB2^{-/-} mice p21^{Cip1/Waf1} protein

levels at the entrance to the RMS was reduced (Figure 20D). Additionally, we were able to detect p53 expression in the Nestin+HMGB2+/+ SVZ cells, confirming the *in vivo* findings of p53 expression in the SVZ in young adult mice (Meletis et al., 2006). The number of p53+NestinGFP+ SVZ progenitor cells were low in WT 10 week old mice, and NestinGFP+HMGB2-/- age-matched mice exhibited an increase in p53+NestinGFP+ cells compared to WT mice (Figure 20). Finally, we examined the expression of CDKI p27^{Kip1} in the SVZ of WT and NestinGFP+HMGB2-/- 10 week old mice. We detected a large decrease in p27^{Kip1} protein levels in NestinGFP+ SVZ progenitors cells in NestinGFP+ HMGB2-/- mice at 10 weeks of age compared to WT mice (Figure 21). Together, these results revealed the increased protein levels of p53 in NestinGFP+ SVZ progenitor cells in HMGB2-/- mice, and decreased protein levels of two CDKIs, p21^{Cip1/Waf1} and p27^{Kip1} in the SVZ of HMGB2-/- mice, suggesting that abnormal NSC and NPC cell number in the SVZ could be mechanistically related to changes in expression of these proteins in young HMGB2-/- mice.

Young HMGB2 knock out mice exhibited aberrant increases in olfactory bulb granule cell layer neurogenesis, but not glomerular layer neurogenesis

Increases in SVZ proliferation and changes in the composition of NSCs, NPCs, and neuroblasts in the SVZ of HMGB2-/- mice coupled with decreases in expression of CDKIs such as p21^{Cip1/Waf1} and p27^{Kip1} in HMGB2-/- mice suggested that HMGB2 plays a role in regulating proper proliferation of SVZ

progenitor cells *in vivo*; however, what effect HMGB2 has on neural progenitor leaving the SVZ and differentiating during olfactory bulb neurogenesis *in vivo* remains unclear. To examine OB neurogenesis in the young HMGB2^{-/-} mice we explored the differentiation of WT and HMGB2^{-/-} labeled cells *in vivo* as they differentiated into OB neurons. BrdU (150 μ g/mg) was injected every 12 hours for 2 days in two-month old WT and HMGB2^{-/-} mice. 14 days post injection, BrdU labeled progenitor cells had migrated through the RMS to the OB and differentiated into neurons in the granule cell layer (GCL) and the glomerular layer (GL). Mice were euthanized at 2.5 months. BrdU labeled cells that had recently differentiated into neurons were identified by staining for BrdU and the mature neuronal cell marker NeuN. Our results revealed that there was a 25% increase in BrdU⁺ cell density in the OB granule cell layer (GCL) of HMGB2^{-/-} mice compared to WT mice of the same age (Fig 22C), but a 4% increase in the total neuronal (NeuN) cell density in the GCL of HMGB2^{-/-} mice (Fig 22E). The cell density of BrdU⁺/NeuN⁺ in the GCL of the HMGB2^{-/-} mice remained elevated relative to WT mice, with BrdU⁺/NeuN⁺ GCL cell density 40% higher in HMGB2^{-/-} mice (Fig 22G). The percentage of new born neurons among all BrdU labeled cells was elevated in the GCL of HMGB2^{-/-} mice, and was approximately 84.3% after 14 days of differentiation relative to WT mice which were only 73.3% differentiated (Fig 22H), indicating some component of accelerated differentiation/maturation of new born GCL neurons in these young HMGB2^{-/-} mice. The percentage of new born neurons expressed among all GCL neurons in the HMGB2^{-/-} mice was 43.38% after 14 days of differentiation compared to

only 31.74% of all neurons in WT 2.5 month old mice (Fig 22 i). These results demonstrated that the proportion of new born GCL neurons among all neurons in HMGB2^{-/-} mice at 2.5 months was much larger than the proportion of new born GCL neurons in WT mice of the same age.

Despite these changes in GCL neurogenesis we were unable to detect changes in GL neurogenesis in HMGB2^{-/-} mice. BrdU⁺ cell density, NeuN⁺ cell density or BrdU⁺/NeuN⁺ cell density after 14 days of differentiation in the glomerular layer (GL) of the HMGB2^{-/-} olfactory bulb at 2.5 months of age remained largely unchanged compared to age matched WT mice (Fig 23). Additionally, when new born GL neurons were expressed as a percentage of BrdU or percentage of NeuN cells (Fig 23) there were no differences between WT and HMGB2^{-/-} mice at 2.5 months, suggesting normal GL neurogenesis in the HMGB2^{-/-} mice at this age.

Figure 9: HMGB2 immunofluorescence in young adult NestinGFP+ SVZ progenitors cells ventral to the RMS outlet (A-D) and at the RMS (E-H). Orthogonal view (I) of HMGB2 staining in NestinGFP^{Pos} SVZ cell from (H). All scale bars in white equal 20 μ m.

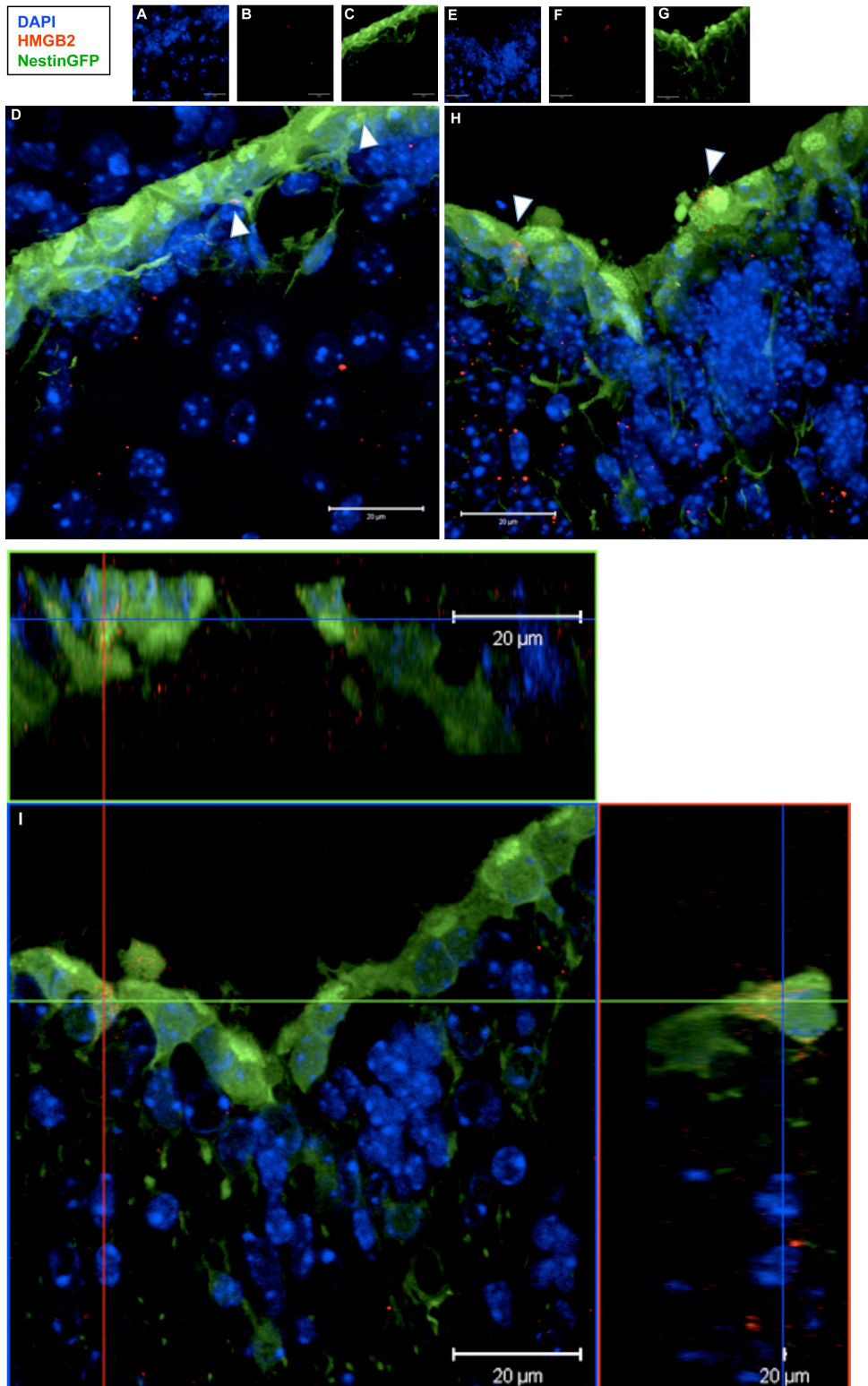


Figure 10: A) Low magnification and B) high magnification pictures of serial sagittal brain sections from WT and HMGB2^{-/-} mice at 10 week stained with DAPI demonstrating increased size of the ventricles in HMGB2^{-/-} mice compared to WT mice. Serial sections in (A) are ordered most lateral (1) to most medial (11).

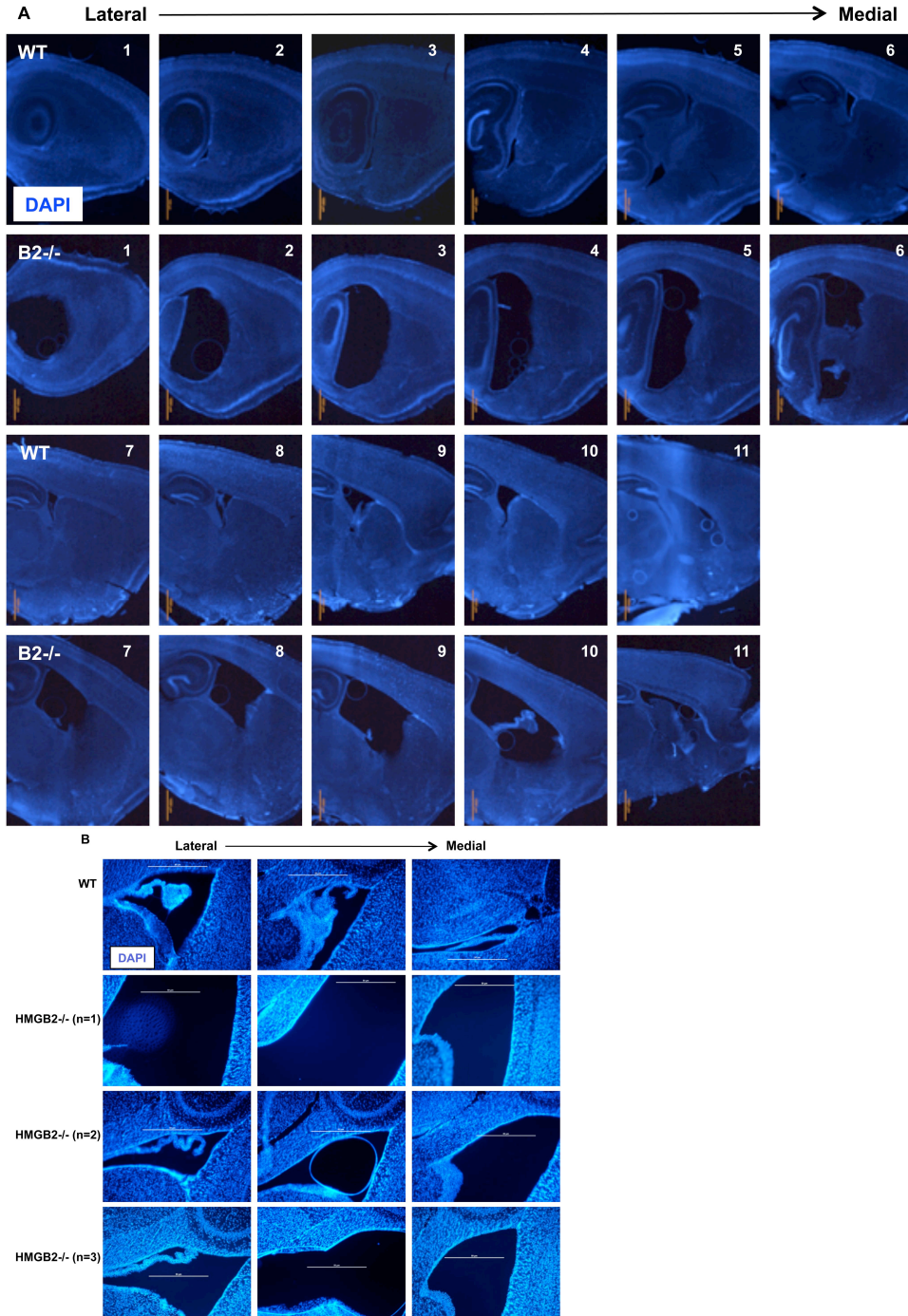


Figure 11: Composite high magnification images of A) WT and B) HMGB2^{-/-} mice at 10 weeks of age injected with BrdU and stained with anti-BrdU (red) and anti-Ki67 (green). Quantification of A) BrdU+ B) Ki67+ and C) BrdU+/Ki67+ SVZ cell densities in 10 week old WT and HMGB2^{-/-} mice. n=4 WT mice and n=5 HMGB2^{-/-} mice. All values are Mean±SEM and * = p<0.05 and ** = p<0.005.

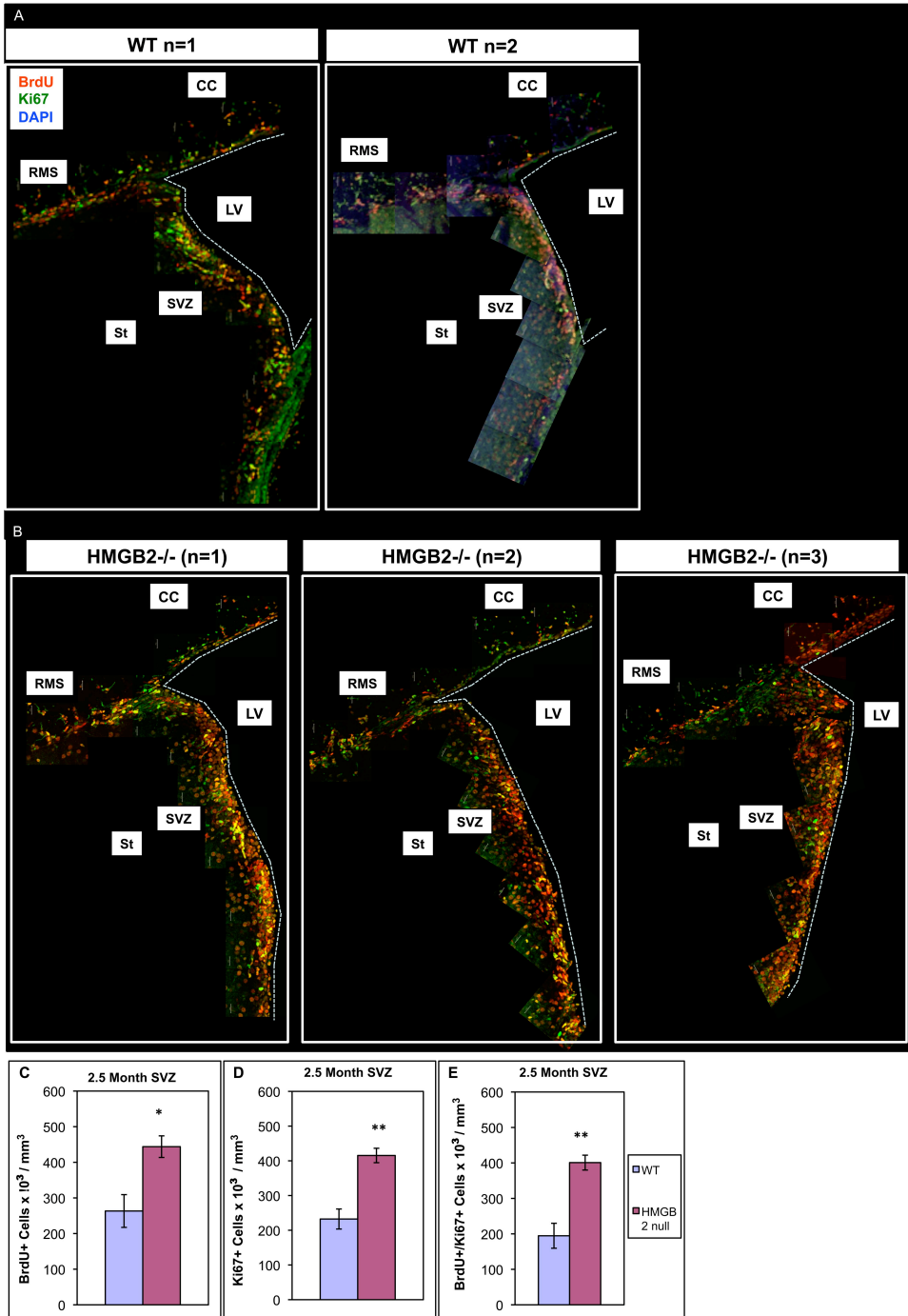
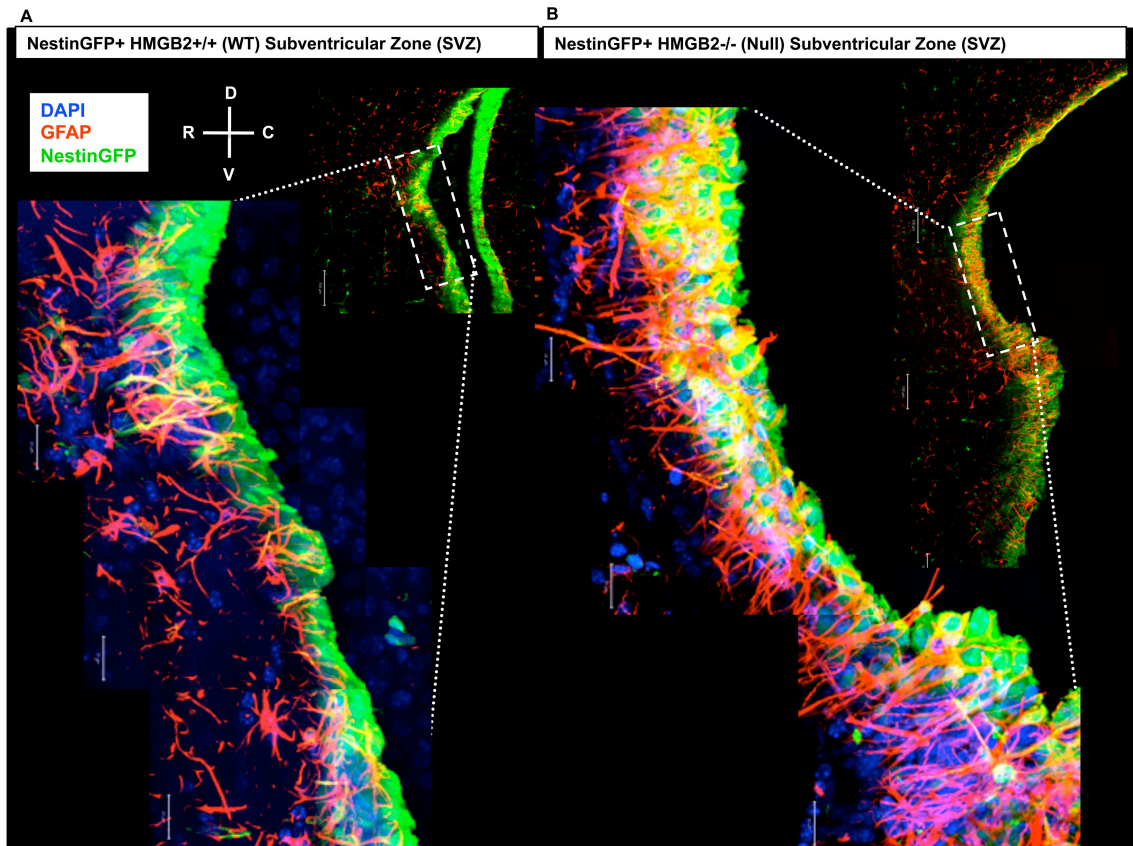


Figure 12: Composite high magnification images of the SVZ in **lateral** sagittal brain sections from a 10 week old (A) NestinGFP+HMGB2+/+ (WT) mouse and a (B) NestinGFP+HMGB2-/- mouse with ventriculomegaly. Sections are stained with anti-GFAP (red). (C,D) Orthogonal view of SVZ near the RMS outlet from (A) and (B). (E,F) Orthogonal view of the ventral SVZ, proximal to the RMS outlet from (A) and (B). G) Quantification of Nestin-, Nestin+, Nestin+GFAP+, and Nestin+GFAP- cell populations in the SVZ of WT (C,E) and HMGB2-/- mice (D,F). Nestin+GFAP+ NSCs are increased and Nestin+GFAP- NPCs are decreased in HMGB2-/- mice compared to age-matched WT mice. Scale bars equal 20µm.



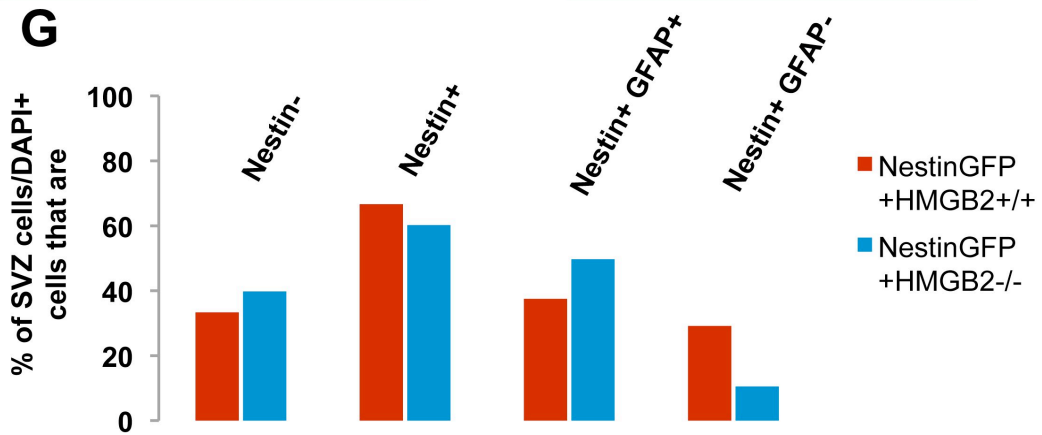
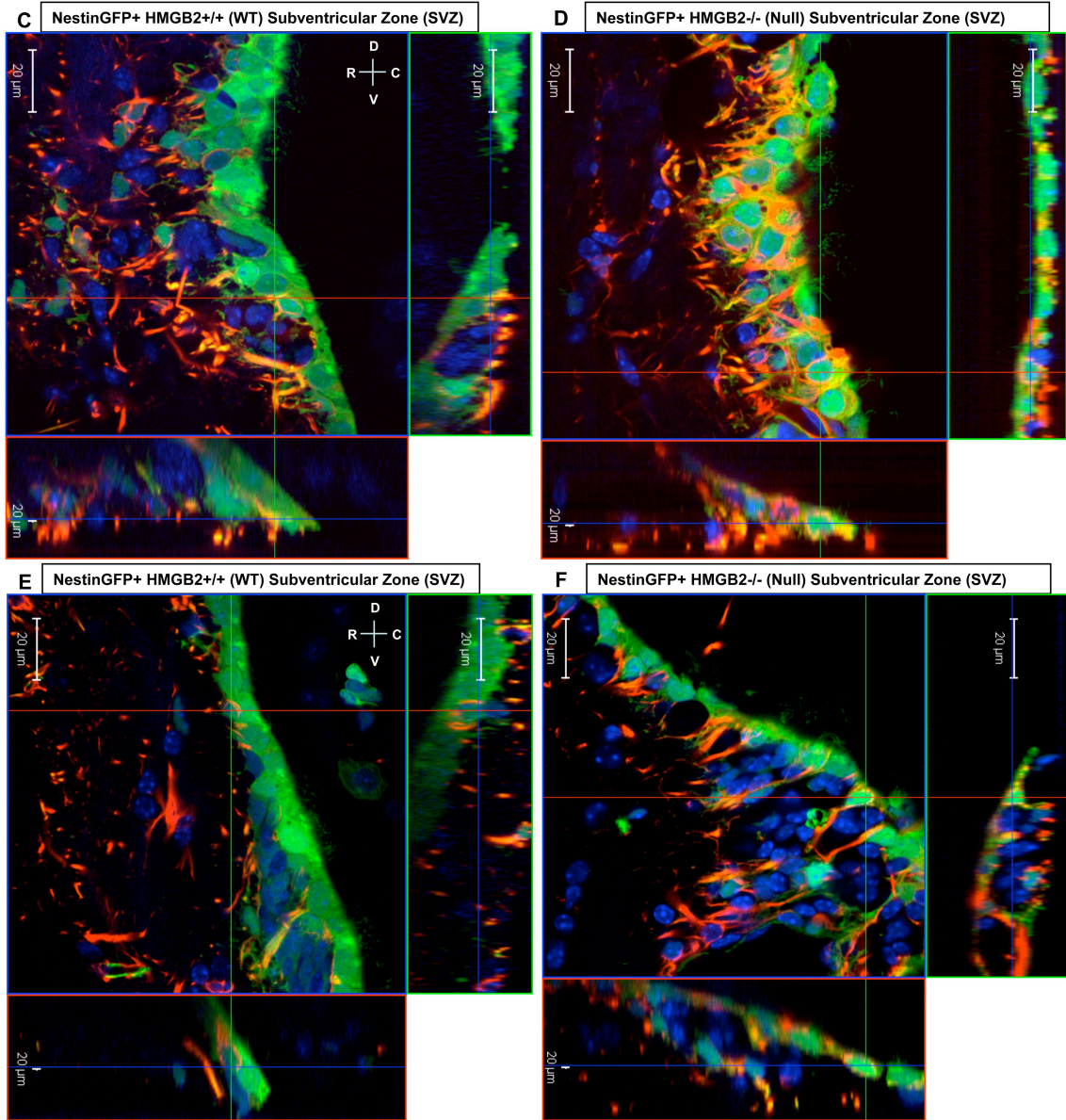


Figure 13: Full-resolution 3D reconstruction of the SVZ from a **lateral** sagittal brain section (from Figure 12A,B) demonstrating increased expression of NSC marker GFAP in a 10 week old NestinGFP+HMGB2^{-/-} mouse compared to an age-matched WT mouse.

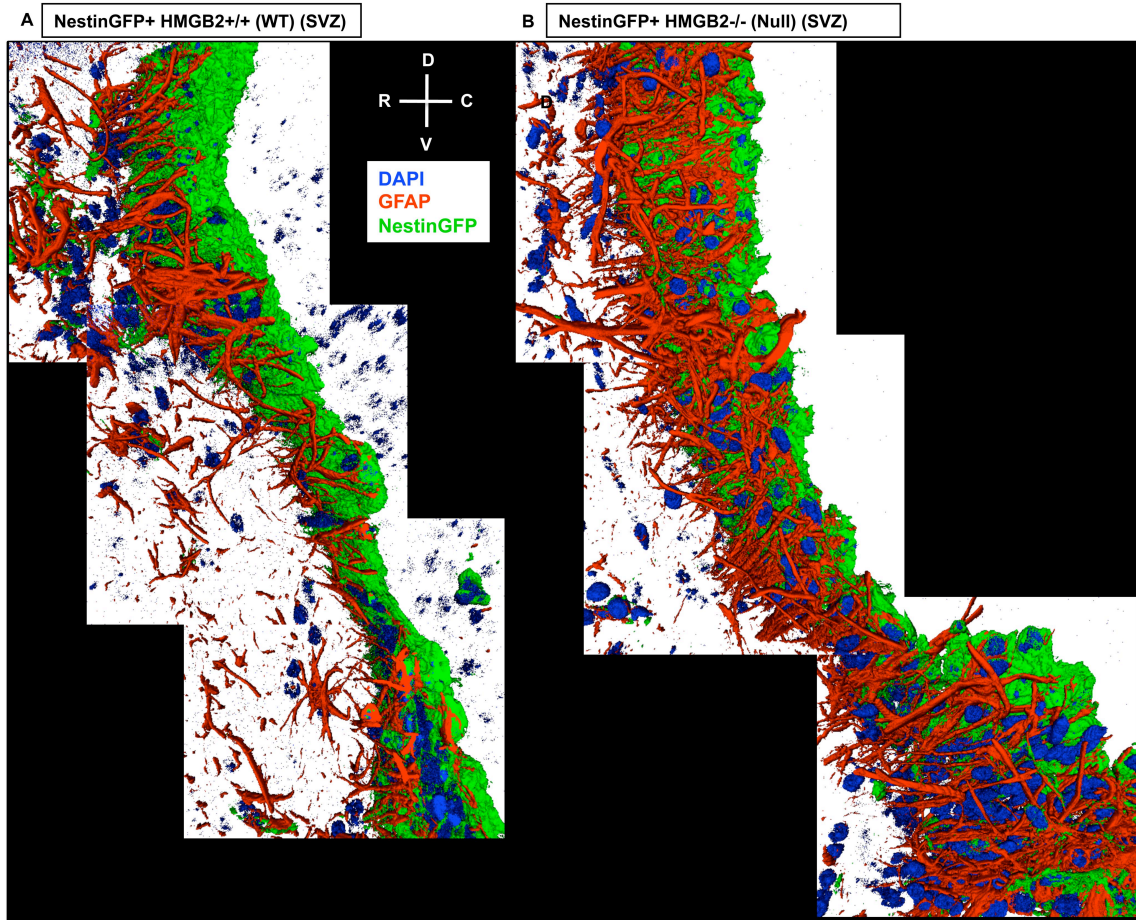


Figure 14: GFAP staining in the SVZ in **lateral** sagittal brain sections from 10 week old (A) NestinGFP+WT and (B) NestinGFP+HMGB2^{-/-} mice (without ventriculomegaly). Scale bars equal 20 μ m.

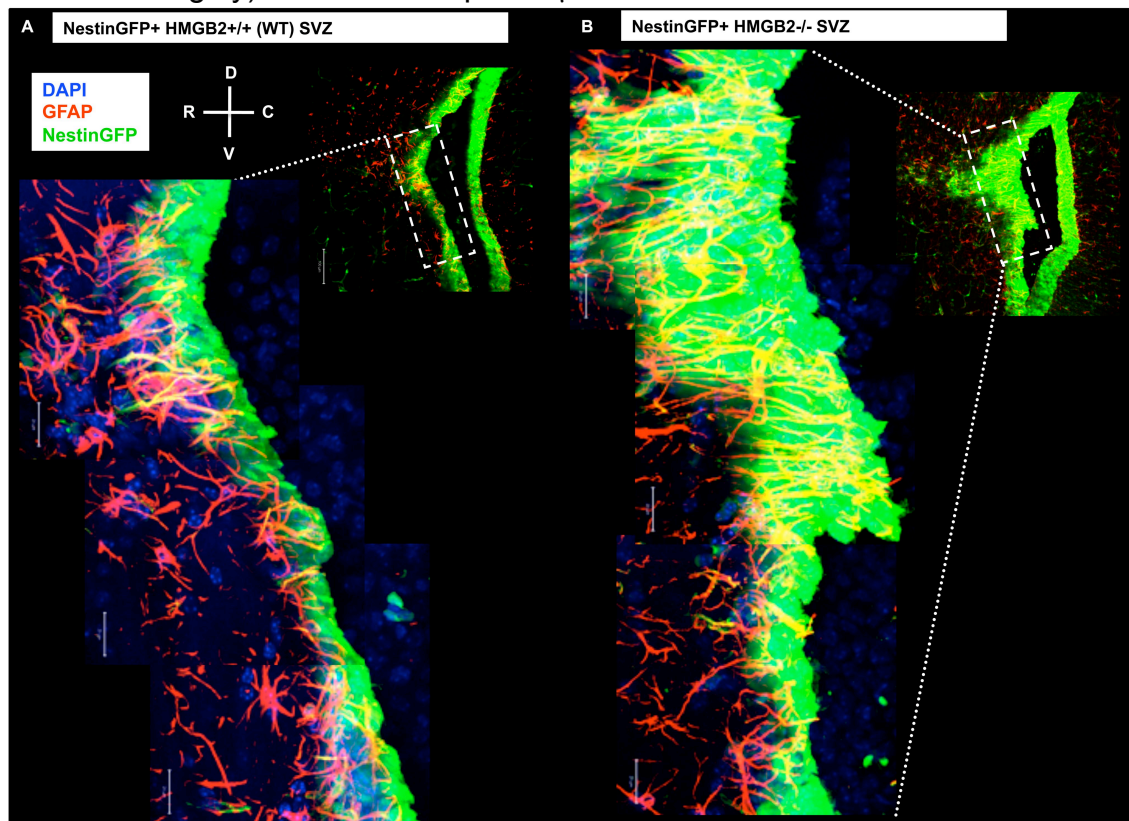
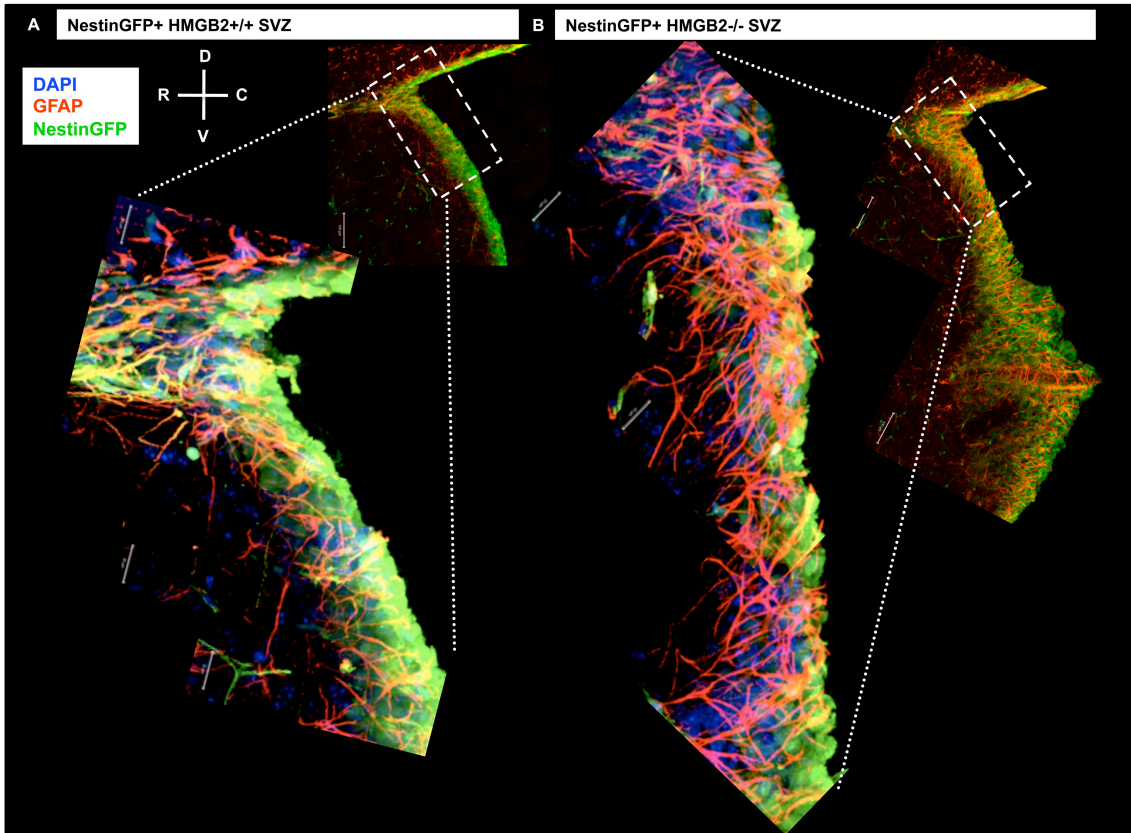


Figure 15: Composite high magnification images of **medial** sagittal brain section from a 10 week old A) NestinGFP+HMGB2+/+ (WT) mouse and B) NestinGFP+HMGB2-/- mouse with ventriculomegaly. Sections are stained with anti-GFAP (red). (C,D) Orthogonal view of SVZ near the RMS outlet from (A) and (B). (E,F) Orthogonal view of the ventral SVZ, proximal to the RMS outlet from (A) and (B). G) Quantification of Nestin-, Nestin+, Nestin+GFAP+, and Nestin+GFAP- cell populations in the SVZ cell of WT (C,E) and HMGB2-/- mice (D,F). Scale bars equal 20 μ m.



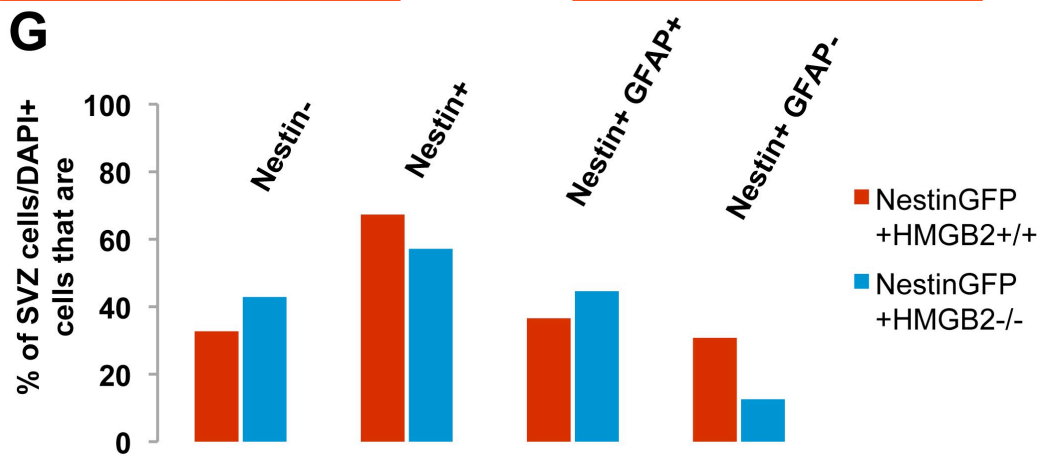
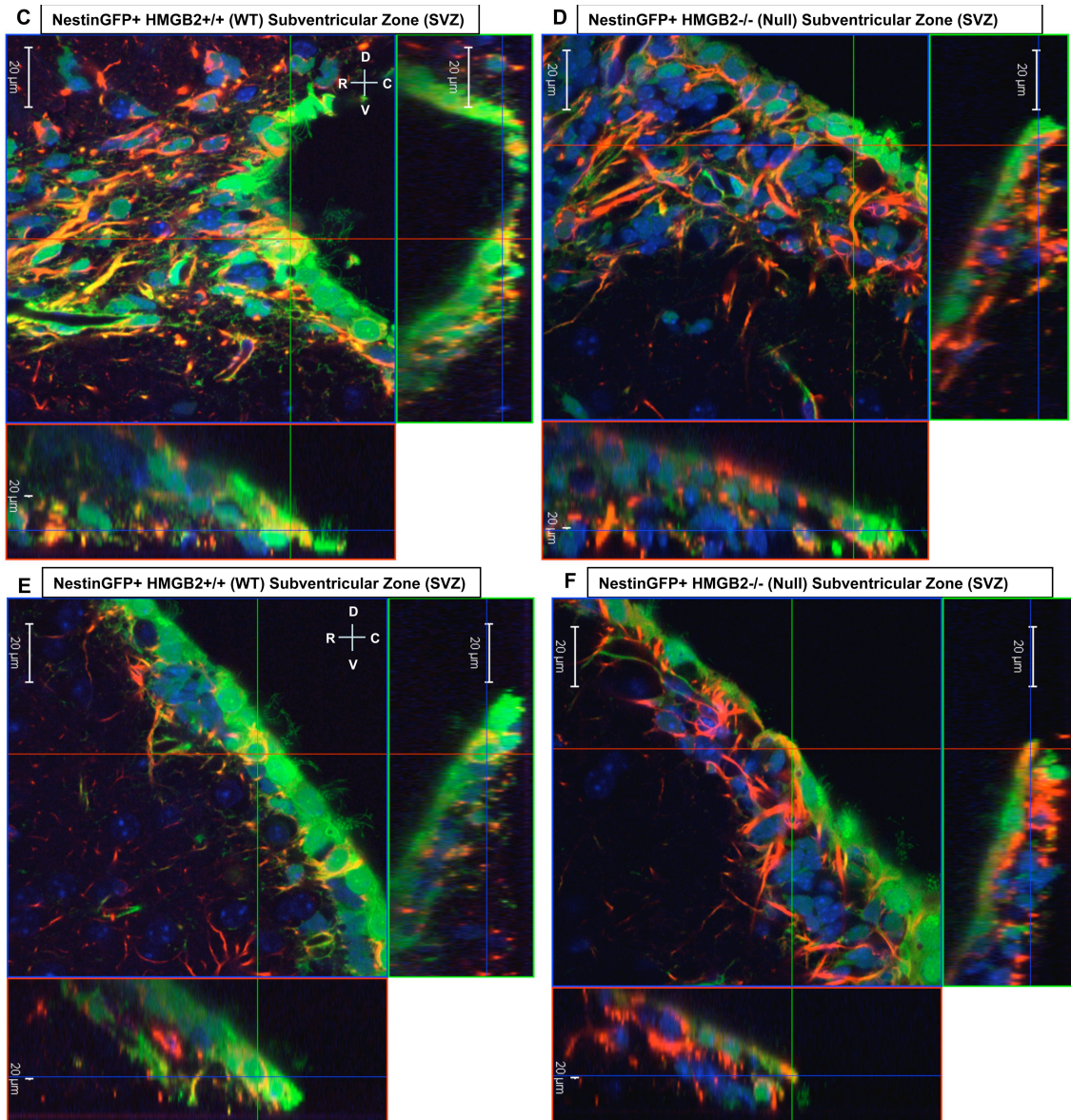


Figure 16: Full-resolution 3D reconstruction of **medial** sagittal brain section (from Figure 15A,B) indicating increased in Nestin+GFAP+ NSCs in 10 week old NestinGFP+HMGB2^{-/-} mice, but lower total NestinGFP+ cells in HMGB2^{-/-} mice compared to age-matched WT mice.

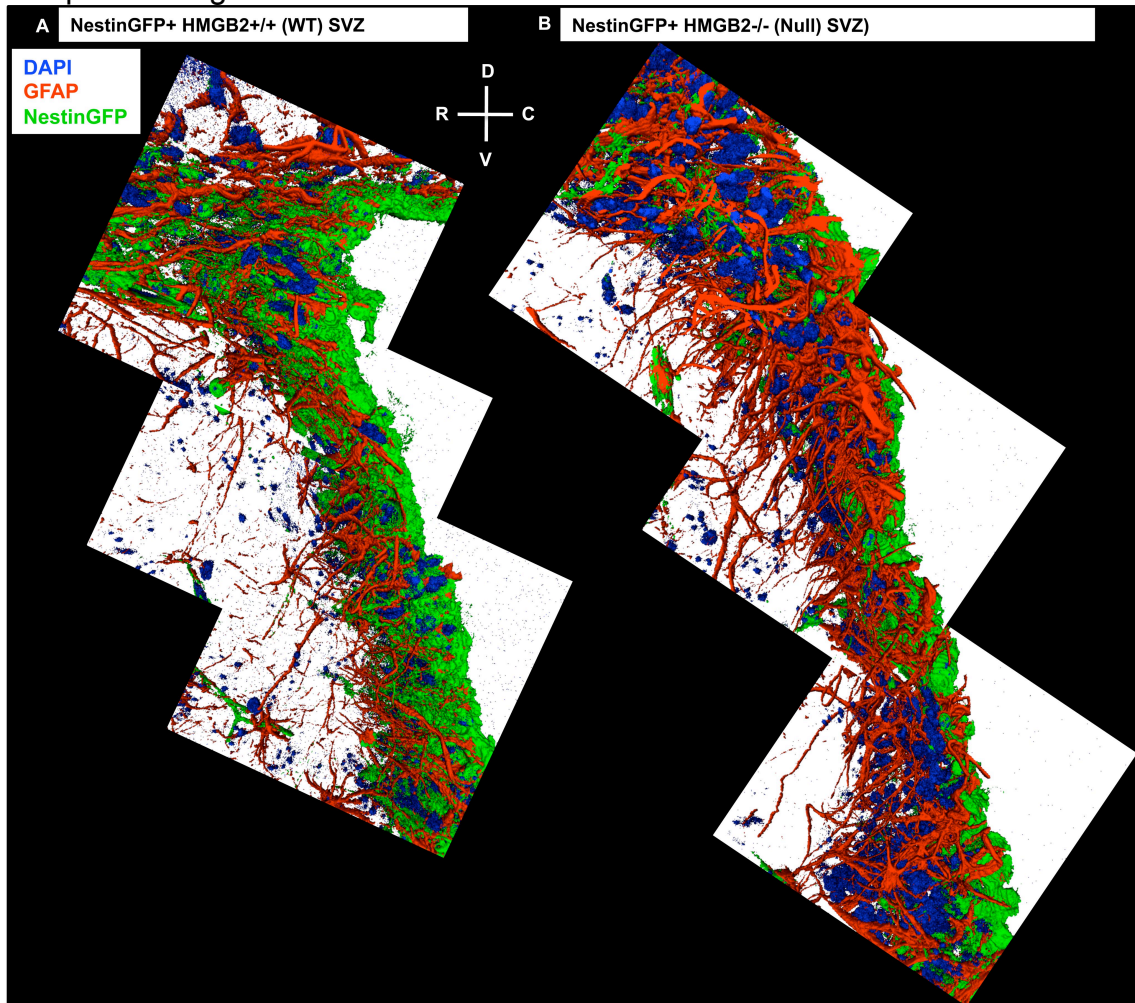


Figure 17: Doublecortin (DCX) staining in **lateral** sagittal brain sections from a 10 week old (A) WT and (B) HMGB2^{-/-} mouse (with ventriculomegaly). Scale bars equal 20 μ m.

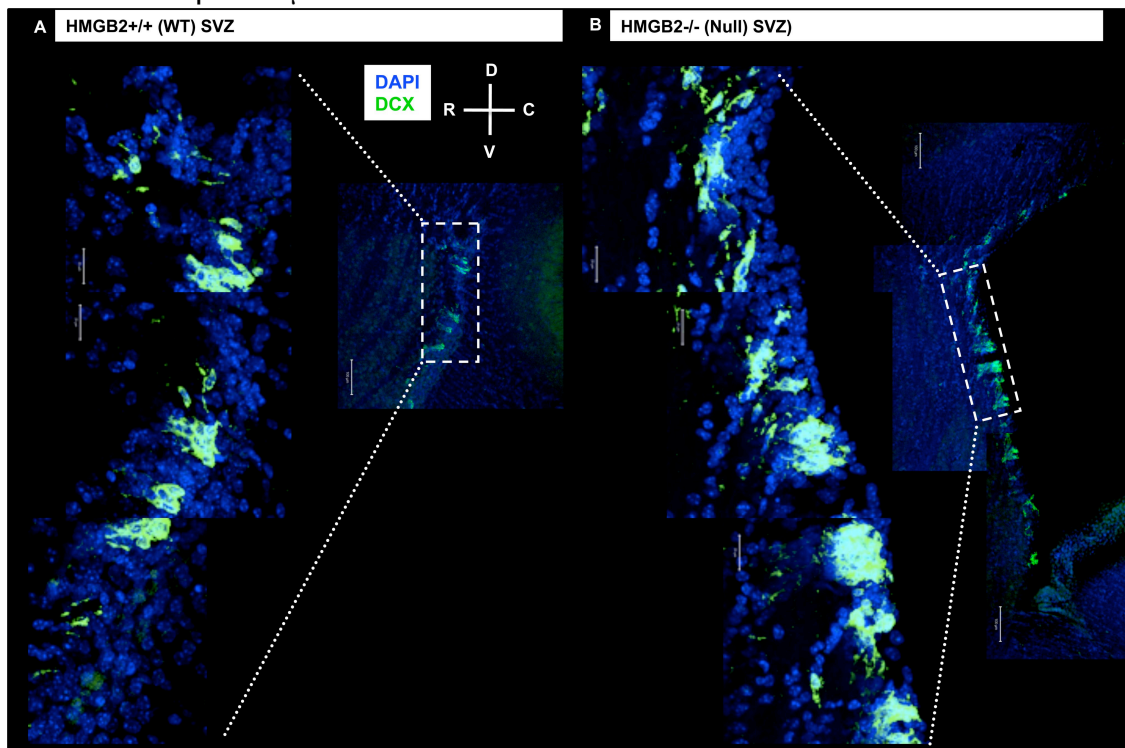


Figure 18: Doublecortin (DCX) staining in **medial** sagittal brain sections from a 10 week old (A) WT and (B) HMGB2^{-/-} mouse (with ventriculomegaly), and (C) quantification of DCX⁺/hpf in WT and HMGB2^{-/-} SVZ in (A) and (B). Scale bars equal 20 μ m.

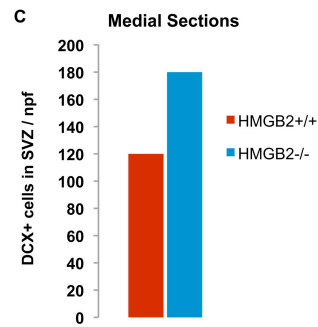
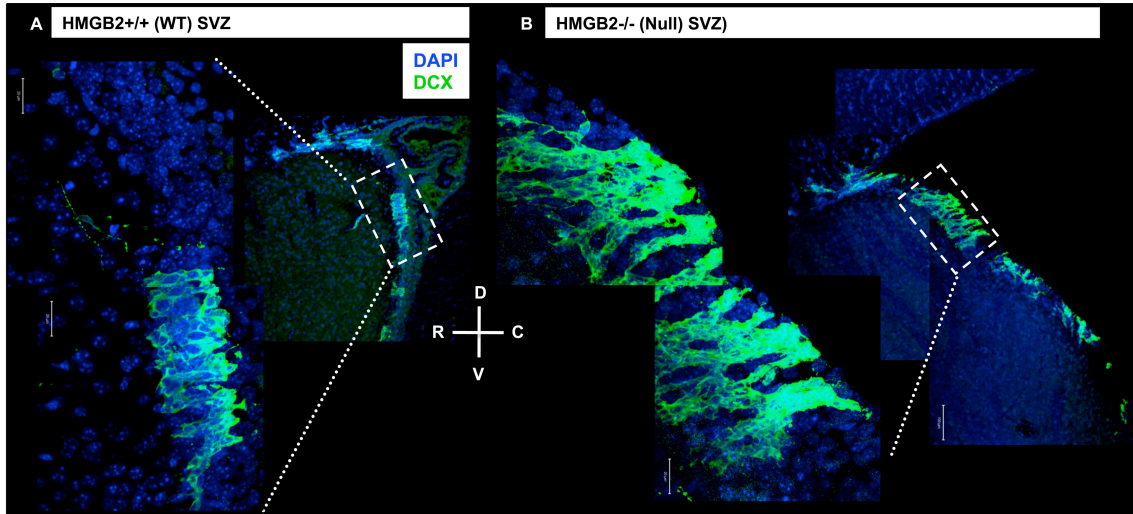


Figure 19: High magnification composite images of p16^{Ink4a} staining in 10 week old (A) NestinGFP+WT olfactory bulb (positive control) (B) NestinGFP+WT SVZ and (C) NestinGFP+HMGB2^{-/-} SVZ. Composite images from (A) and (B) are enlarged in (D) and (E) with NestinGFP channel turned off to visualize p16^{Ink4a} staining in the SVZ of WT and HMGB2^{-/-} mice. White scale bars equal 20 μmeters.

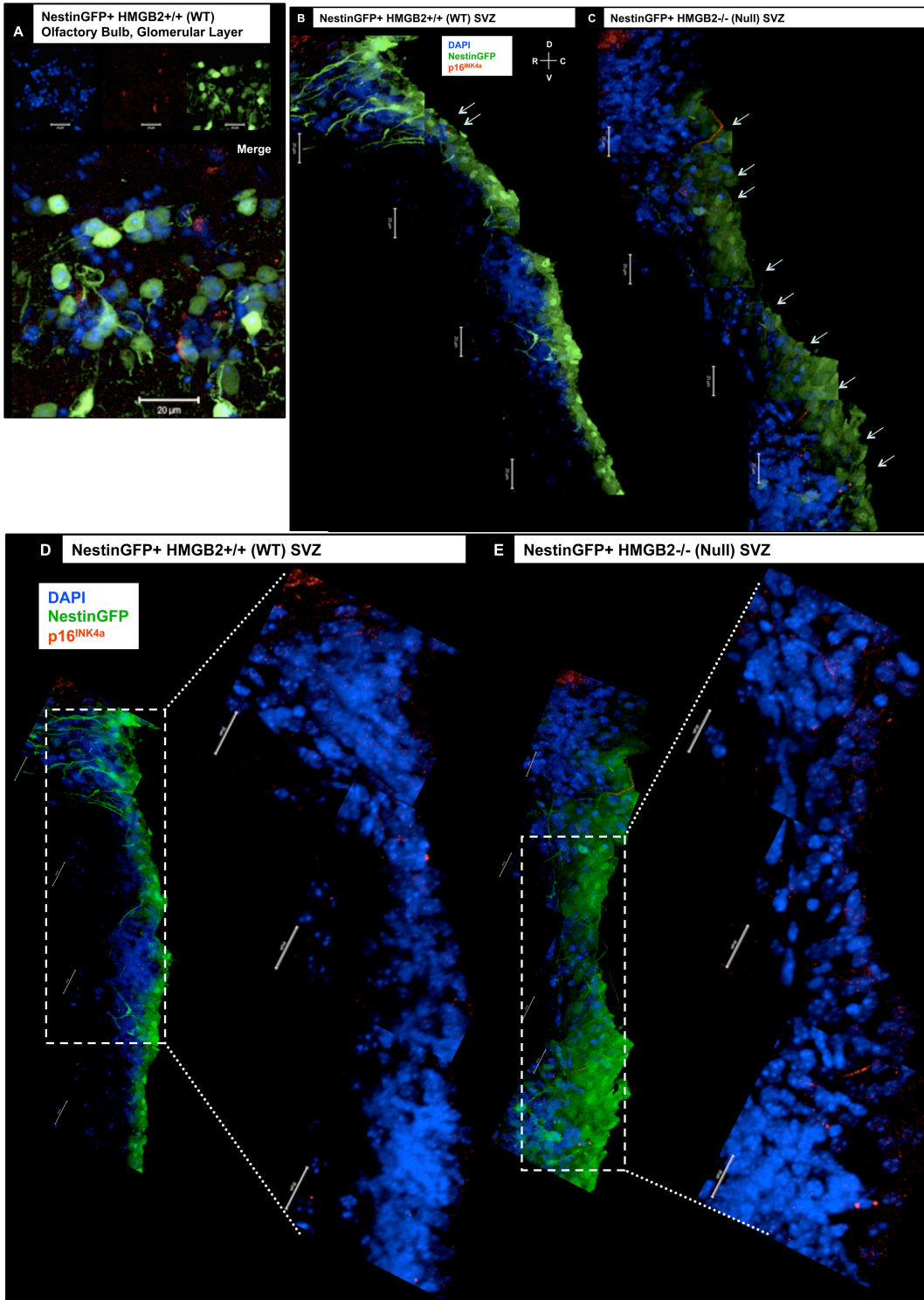


Figure 20: High magnification composite images of p53 and p21^{Cip1/Waf1} staining in 10 week old (A) NestinGFP+WT and (B) HMGB2^{-/-} mice. Composite images of (C) WT and (D) HMGB2^{-/-} SVZ with NestinGFP channel turned off to visualize decreases in p21^{Cip1/Waf1} staining in the SVZ RMS outlet and increases in p53 expression in the SVZ of HMGB2^{-/-} mice. Scale bars equal 20 μ m.

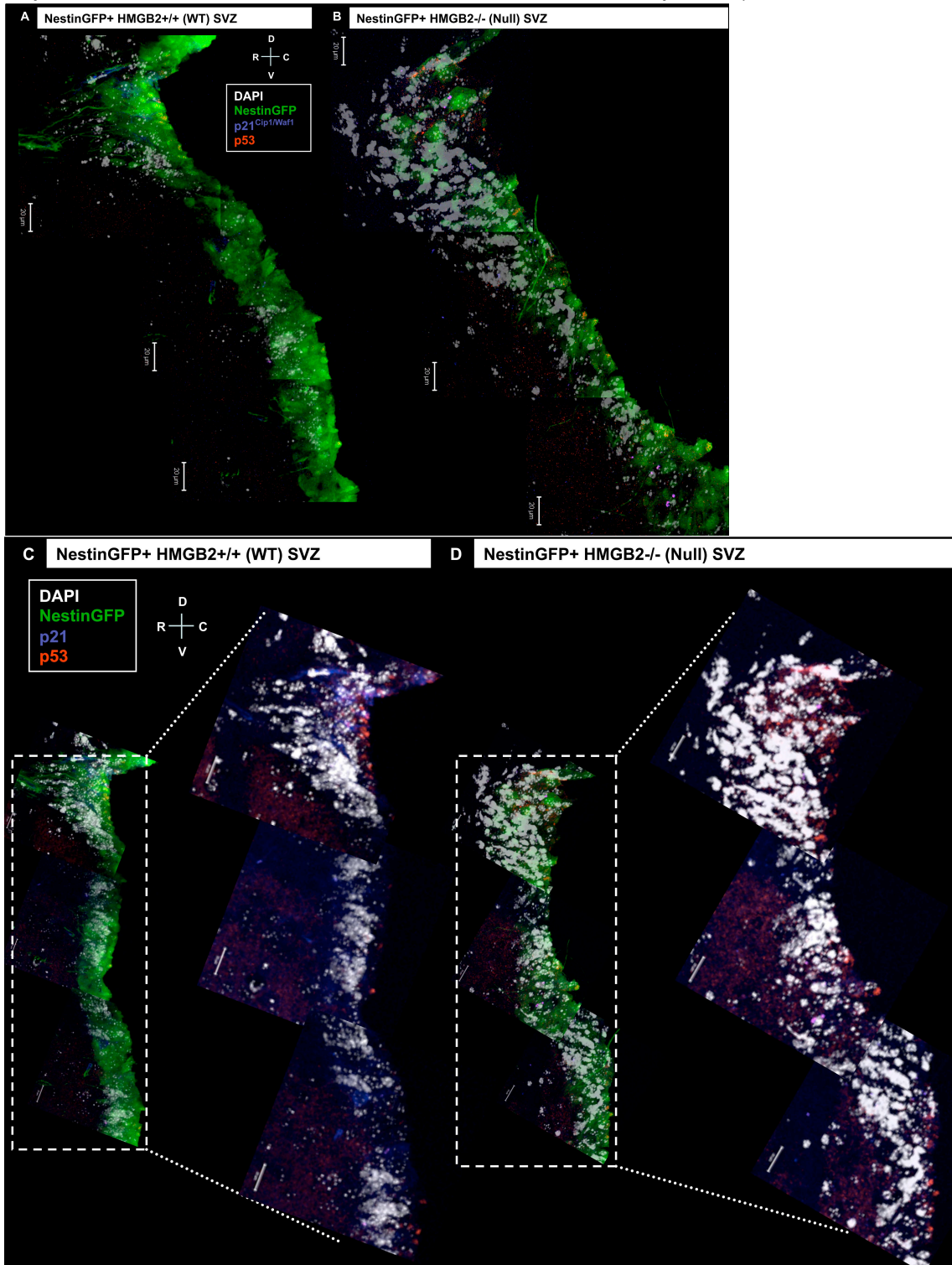


Figure 21: Composite high magnification images of p27^{Kip1} staining in the SVZ of 10 week old (A) NestinGFP+WT and (B) HMGB2^{-/-} mice, including staining at the SVZ RMS outlet in (C) WT and (D) HMGB2^{-/-} mice. Scale bars equal 20 μ m.

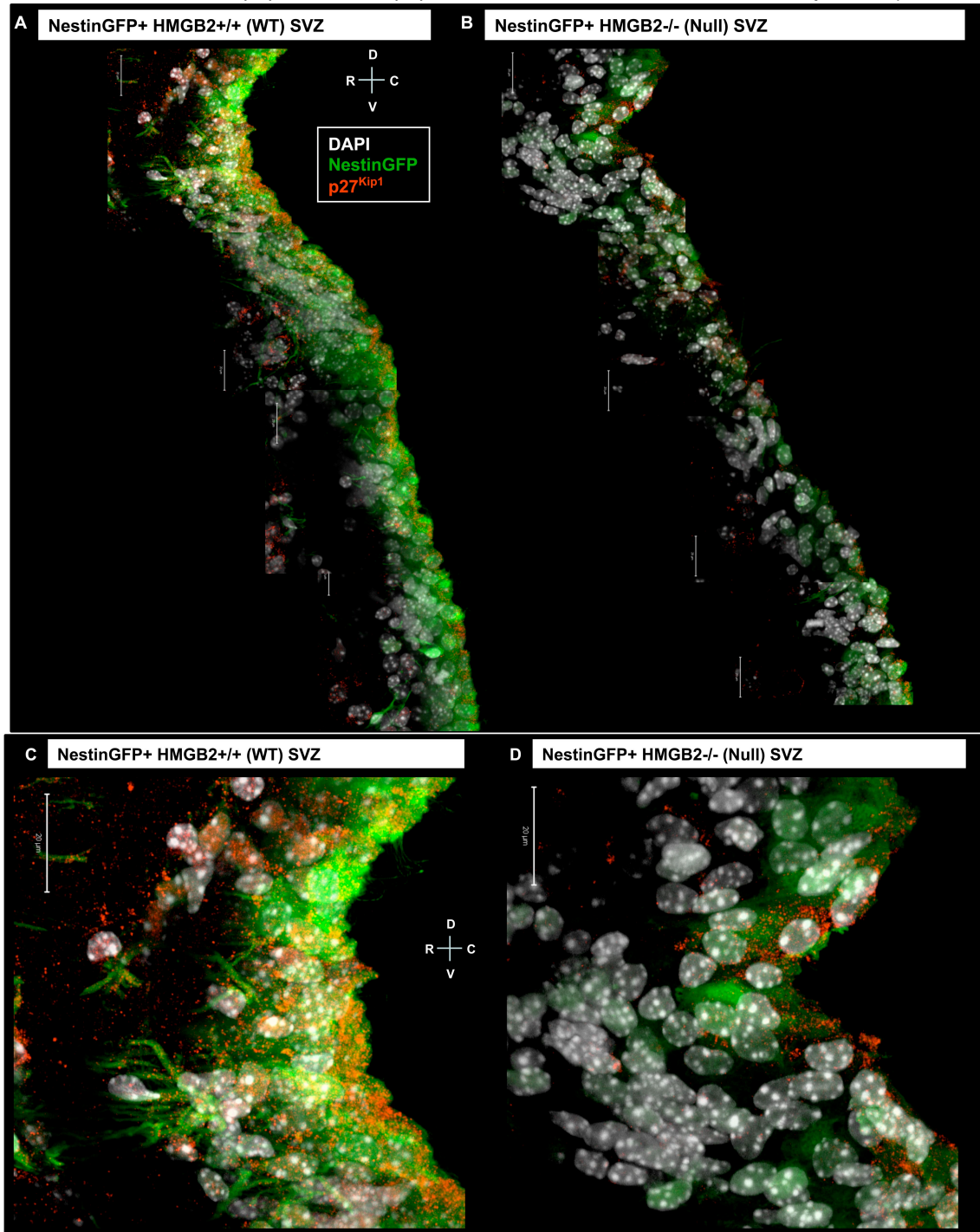


Figure 22: BrdU and NeuN staining in 10 week old (A) WT and (B) HMGB2^{-/-} mice injected 14 days prior with BrdU and (B-I) quantification of BrdU⁺, NeuN⁺, and BrdU⁺NeuN⁺ cells in the olfactory bulb granule cell layer (GCL). All values are Mean \pm SEM. n= 2-3 mice per genotype. Scale bar equals 20 μ meters.

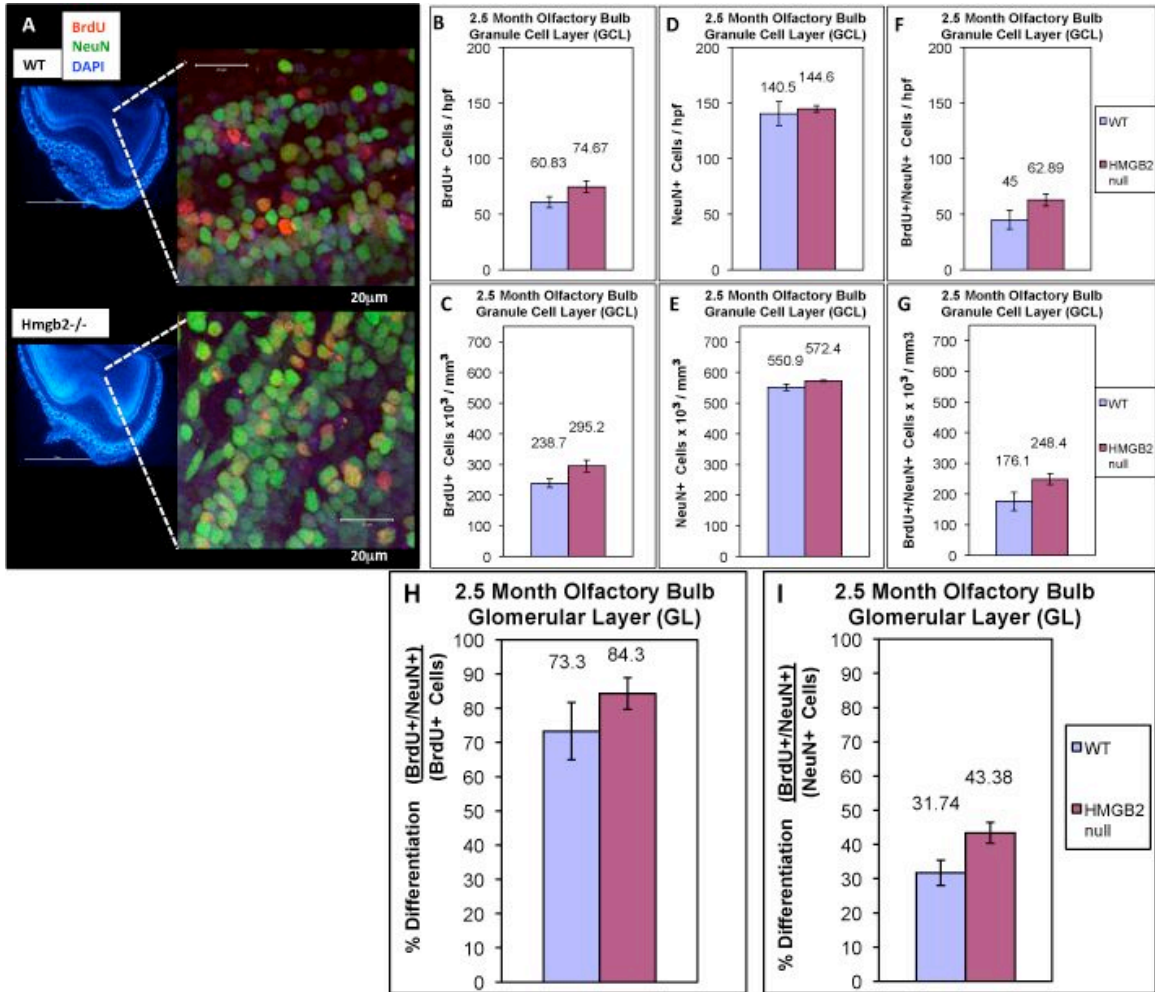
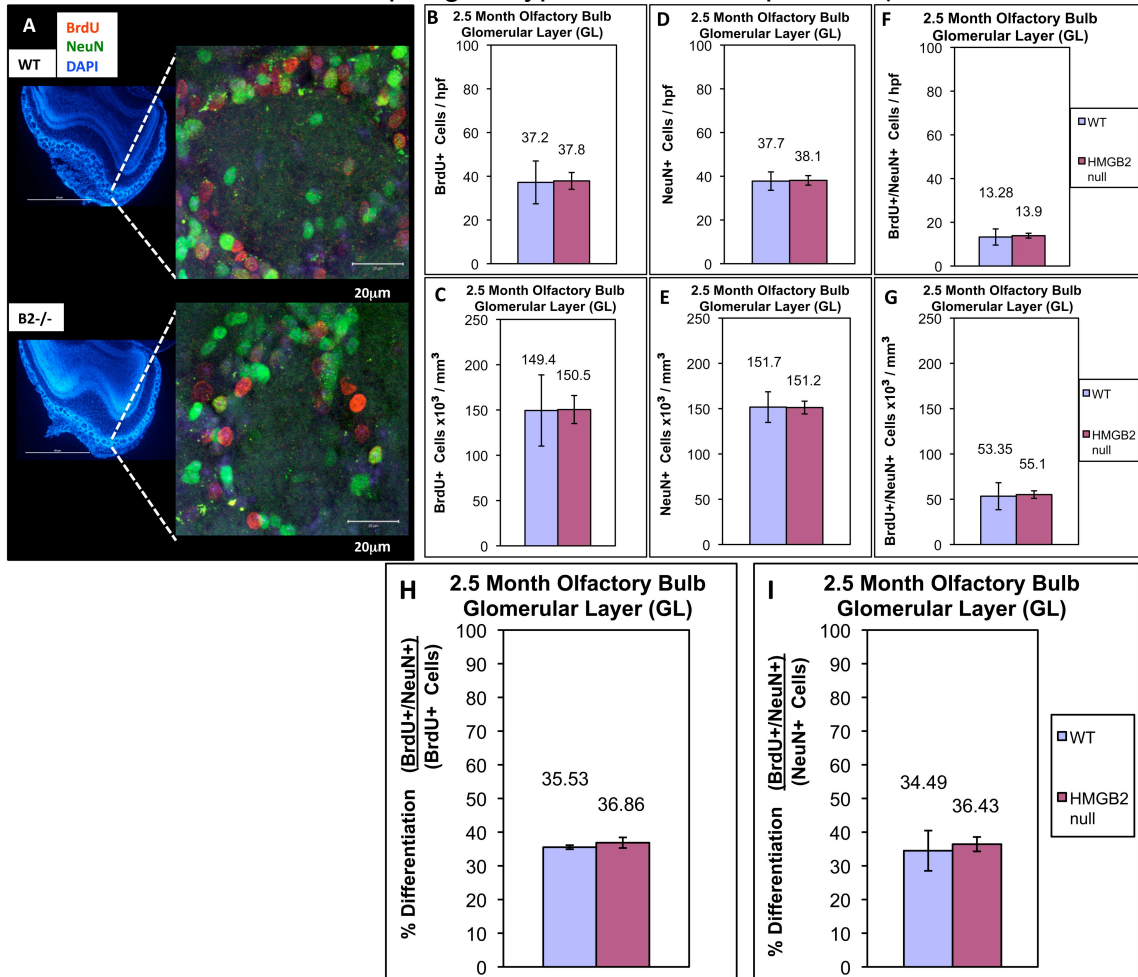


Figure 23: BrdU and NeuN staining in 10 week old (A) WT and (B) HMGB2^{-/-} mice injected 14 days prior with BrdU and (B-I) quantification of BrdU⁺, NeuN⁺, and BrdU⁺NeuN⁺ cells in the olfactory bulb glomerular layer (GL). All values are Mean \pm SEM. n= 2-3 mice per genotype. Scale bar equals 20 μ meters.



Chapter VI:
**Loss of Global p73 Expression Impairs Proliferation of Nestin+ Neural Stem
and Progenitor Cells in the Dentate Gyrus of Young Adult Mice**

Previous work has demonstrated that adult dentate NSCs have astrocyte like properties, express intermediate filaments nestin and GFAP, and have a distinct radial glial morphology (Seri et al., 2001; Seri et al., 2004). In contrast, early dentate neural progenitors continue to express nestin but lose radial glial morphology and lose the expression of GFAP. These findings were confirmed by other groups, which also demonstrated that the Nestin+GFAP+ positive cells have passive non-inactivating membrane currents consistent with astrocytes (Filippov et al., 2003). Subsequent work demonstrated that dentate Nestin+GFAP+ positive NSCs are distinct from Nestin+/GFAP- progenitors which possess delayed and inward-rectify currents which can inactivate (Wang et al., 2005). Finally, dentate nestin positive NSCs with radial glial morphology are distinct from nestin positive progenitors which have lost their radial glial morphology and express early markers of neuroblast, such as PSA-NCAM. These Nestin+/PSA-NCAM+ late neural progenitors have a distinctly high input resistance that distinguishes them from both neural stem cells and immature granule neurons (Fukuda et al., 2003). The findings demonstrate that dentate NSCs are a distinct population of cells that possess a unique and distinguishable

radial glial morphology, that express markers of mature astrocytes (GFAP), and that have a unique electrophysiological profile which distinguishes them from early and late nestin positive neural progenitor cells.

Neurogenesis in the DG occurs when NSCs in the subgranular zone (SGZ) proliferate and give rise to progenitor cells which migrate and differentiate into the new granule neurons in the granule cell layer of the DG (Eriksson et al., 1998; Kornack and Rakic, 1999; Seri et al., 2001; Seri et al., 2004). These newborn granule neurons are functional, and possess functional synaptic inputs, action potentials, and other properties of functional granule neurons (van Praag et al., 2002). Although dentate neurogenesis is involved in memory formation (Shors et al., 2001; Jessberger et al., 2009) and plays a role in mood disorders (Santarelli et al., 2003), the precise role of dentate neurogenesis in the CNS is not fully understood.

Yang and colleagues have previously generated and described a global p73 knockout mouse (Yang et al., 2000). p73 is a member of the p53/p63/p73 family of tumor suppressor proteins. One family member, p53, previously described, regulates NSC proliferation and self-renewal in the SVZ of young mice (Meletis et al., 2006), while a second member, p63, regulates proper stem cell maintenance in skin (Blanpain and Fuchs, 2007; Yi et al., 2008). p73^{-/-} mice appear to suffer from a wide number of chronic bacterial infections, but exhibit no increase in spontaneous tumor formation. The neural phenotype of the p73^{-/-} mice is striking; congenital hydrocephalus and dramatically abnormal hippocampal neuroanatomy. The CA1 and CA2 regions of the hippocampus have multiple

wave-like gyrations, with the abnormal hippocampal neuroanatomy more pronounced in the caudal segments along the rostral-caudal axis (Yang et al., 2000). The dentate gyrus has a hypertrophied appearance, with an extended suprapyramidal blade, and a missing infrapyramidal blade.

One potential mechanistic explanation for the hippocampal dysgenesis in the p73^{-/-} mice is a defect in post-natal NSC proliferation and maintenance. As previously described, hippocampal neurogenesis continues during post-natal development and adulthood and plays an integral role in the birth of newborn functional granule neurons in the dentate gyrus. Recent work has demonstrated that the loss of genes that control sonic hedgehog (Shh) signaling, such as Kif3a and Smoothed (Smo), cause a failure in post-natal neurogenesis and the development of a hypotrophic dentate gyrus (Han et al., 2008). The Smo null post-natal neurogenesis defect and hypotrophic dentate gyrus is caused by the failure of GFAP⁺ radial glial NSCs to develop in the dentate gyrus after embryonic development (Han et al., 2008). Both Kif3a and Smo null mice lack GFAP⁺ dentate NSCs and both have impaired progenitor proliferation as assessed by BrdU incorporation and staining of proliferation markers Mash1 and PSA-NCAM, thus providing a connection between dentate NSC formation/proliferation with proper development of postnatal dentate neuroanatomy. The Kif3a and Smo null mice share similarities with the neural phenotype of p73^{-/-} mice, which led us to hypothesize that p73 plays a role in proper dentate NSC/progenitor proliferation and maintenance. Consequently, we studied neural progenitor proliferation in WT and p73^{-/-} null

mice to further clarify whether loss of global p73 expression impairs NSC and/or neural progenitor cell proliferation in the context of p73^{-/-} hippocampal dysgenesis.

We used NestinGFP transgenic mice created previously and described elsewhere (Mignone et al., 2004) to study dentate progenitor proliferation within a variable p73 (WT and null) genetic background. We have generated compound NestinGFP/p73 transgenic mice and used them to study and quantify dentate NSC and NPC proliferation in these different p73 genetic backgrounds.

Methods

Compound NestinGFP+p73^{+/+} and NestinGFP+p73^{-/-} transgenic mice were generated and separated into two groups according to genotype. Mice were housed under standard conditions with free access to food and water and standard 12-hour light cycles. Six-week-old mice were injected with BrdU (150 μ m/mg) by intraperitoneal injection every 2 hours for 8 hour (4 injections) and sacrificed 24 hours after the final BrdU injection. For sacrifice, mice were deeply anesthetized and transcardially perfused as previously described. Mice brains were dissected out and kept in 4%PFA/PBS at 4 degrees. 50 μ m sagittal brain sections were collected in series, and stored in 1%PFA/PBS at 4°C until staining.

Immunofluorescence

For immunofluorescence (IF) staining, one set of serial sections from each mouse were transferred to a new six well plate, washed with PBS, and antigen retrieval for BrdU staining was performed as previously described (General Methods, Chapter II). Sections were stained with Rat anti-BrdU antibody (Serotec, 1:300) in 10% goat serum/0.3% BSA/0.2% Triton X/PBS solution overnight at 4°C. For dual staining, rat anti-BrdU and rabbit anti-GFAP (Millipore, 1:1000) were used in 10% goat serum/0.3%BSA/0.2%TritonX/PBS solution. All sections were incubated in primary antibody staining solution overnight at 4°C, washed extensively with 1x PBS, and stained with species-specific secondary antibody solution including anti-Rat Rhodamine Red X (Jackson) and anti-Rabbit Cy5 (Jackson, 1:500) in 0.3%BSA/0.2%TritonX/1xPBS solution. All secondary antibody staining were done as previously described (General Methods, Chapter II). To assess changes in progenitor survival, TUNEL staining (Roche) of brain sections was performed as directed according to manufacturer protocol. WT brain sections were permeabilized with 0.2%tritonX/PBS and treated for 15 minutes with DNase (Invitrogen), washed with PBS, and used as a positive control for TUNEL detection. Withholding TUNEL secondary antibody staining (withholding fluorophore) was used as a TUNEL negative staining control. All TUNEL stains were followed as directed by manufacturer protocol.

Imaging and Quantification

11 serial brain sections were examined per mouse. A Zeiss LSM 510 confocal microscope system was used to generate Z-stack images of the entire thickness of all sagittal brain sections from both the p73^{+/+}NestinGFP⁺ and p73-

/-NestinGFP+ groups. To determine the number of total proliferating progenitors in the WT and p73^{-/-} mice, the total number of BrdU⁺/Nestin⁺ cells in the dentate subgranular zone (SGZ) from each mouse was quantified using the LSM Image Browser Software (Zeiss). To determine the number of total proliferating neural stem cells (NSCs) and total proliferating NPCs in WT and p73^{-/-} mice the total number of BrdU⁺/Nestin⁺/GFAP⁺ (NSCs) cells and total BrdU⁺/Nestin⁺/GFAP⁻ (NPCs) cells in the SGZ were quantified using the LSM software. Nestin⁺ cells located outside the SGZ, such as the hilus or in the granule cell layer (GCL) were not included in our quantification.

Results

Nestin⁺/p73^{-/-} mice are phenotypically similar to p73^{-/-} mice; p73^{-/-} Nestin⁺ Progenitors Appear to have an aberrant morphology and appear to be fewer in number than Nestin⁺ SGZ WT Progenitors.

Yang and colleagues have previously described the hippocampal dysgenesis in p73^{-/-} mice as a hypertrophied DG with extended suprapyramidal blade and missing infrapyramidal blade. Here, the same phenotype was observed in NestinGFP⁺/p73^{-/-} mice. Similar wave-like gyrations in the CA1, CA2, and CA3 of the hippocampus were observed in NestinGFP⁺/p73^{-/-} mice, and an extended superpyramidal blade. In addition to these previous observations, there are additional differences in the SGZ of NestinGFP⁺/p73^{-/-} mice compared to WT mice, including changes in progenitor morphology and cell number that have not been previously noted, and are apparent using these compound transgenic

NestinGFP+p73^{-/-} mice. The SGZ of the upper blade appeared to contain fewer nestin⁺ progenitors than the upper blade of the WT mouse (Figure 24), and the lower p73 blade appeared to have an SGZ but the SGZ was greatly truncated, and contained a very small number of nestin⁺ progenitors compared to WT mice (Figure 24). Additionally, no granule cell layer (GCL) was apparent above this profoundly truncated lower blade SGZ.

The NestinGFP+p73^{-/-} mice had both Nestin⁺ neural stem cells that elaborated long processes and reached the molecular layer, and nestin progenitors that did not (Figure 24), demonstrating that p73^{-/-} mice retained the ability to produce adult dentate neural stem and progenitor cells in the young adult hippocampus. Despite the presence of these cells, the NestinGFP+p73^{-/-} progenitors appeared distinct from WT progenitors because there were fewer absolute numbers of cells with neural stem cell morphology, e.g. Nestin⁺ cells with large somas that elaborated long processes that reached the molecular layer. The appearance of fewer adult dentate stem and progenitor cells in p73^{-/-} mice suggested a possible impairment of p73^{-/-} neural stem/progenitor cells in vivo.

Loss of Global p73 Expression Impairs Proliferation of Dentate Progenitor cells; Proliferation of both NSCs and NPCs in p73^{-/-} mice are impaired compared to WT mice.

To study changes in dentate neural stem and progenitor proliferation in p73^{-/-} mice, we injected BrdU (150mg/kg, 4 injections) into 6 week old Nestin/p73^{-/-}

and Nestin/p73^{+/+} mice to label proliferating nestin⁺ dentate progenitor cells. The number of BrdU⁺/Nestin⁺ cells in the dentate in 6-week-old p73^{-/-} mice decreased by 61% compared to age-matched WT mice (Figures 25). The mean number of BrdU⁺/Nestin⁺ cells in the DG per mouse was 1720 \pm 119 cells (WT) and 666 \pm 97.5 cells in p73^{-/-} mice ($n \geq 3$, $p=0.0024$)(Figure 25). We subdivided the dentate nestin⁺ progenitor population into neural stem and neural progenitor cells by staining for GFAP in addition to BrdU so that we could quantify the number of proliferating neural stem cells (BrdU⁺/Nestin⁺/GFAP⁺) and proliferating neural progenitor cells (BrdU⁺/Nestin⁺/GFAP⁻) in the WT and p73^{-/-} 6-week-old mice. We found that the number of proliferating dentate NSCs decreased by 75% in p73^{-/-} 6-week-old mice (Figure 26). The mean number of BrdU⁺/Nestin⁺/GFAP⁺ proliferating NSCs dropped from 386 \pm 51.1 cells (WT) to 92 \pm 7.2 cells in p73^{-/-} DG ($n \geq 3$, $p=0.0047$)(Figure 26). We also found that the number of proliferating DG neural progenitor cells decreased by 57% in p73^{-/-} 6 week-old mice compared to WT mice (Figure 26). The mean number of BrdU⁺/Nestin⁺/GFAP⁻ proliferating progenitor cells decreased from 1334 \pm 95.4 cells (WT) to 574 \pm 104.2 cells in p73^{-/-} mice ($n \geq 3$, $p=0.0058$)(Figure 26). TUNEL staining and cleaved-caspase 3 visualization in NestinGFPp73^{+/+} and NestinGFPp73^{-/-} mice demonstrated no increase in Tunel⁺NestinGFP⁺ cells or cleaved-caspase 3⁺NestinGFP⁺ cells in the DG of p73^{-/-} mice compared to age-matched WT mice (Figure 27), indicating that the changes in proliferating NSCs and NPCs in the DG of 6 week old p73^{-/-} mice were not accompanied with changes in DG progenitor survival.

Figure 24: 6 week old SGZ in p73^{-/-} and WT mice.

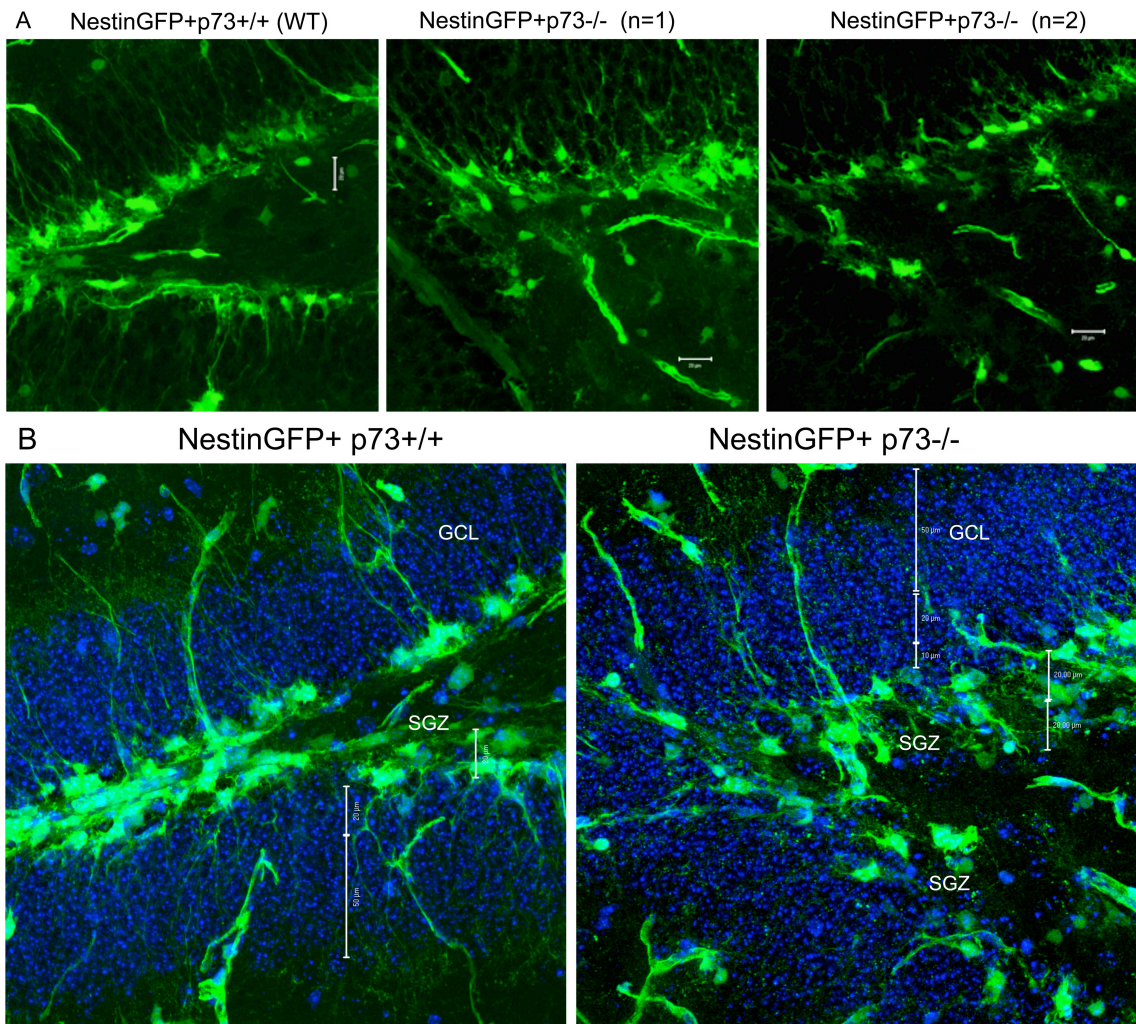


Figure 25: BrdU staining in 6 week old (A) NestinGFP+WT and (B) p73^{-/-} mice previously injected with BrdU and (C) quantification of proliferating BrdU+NestinGFP+ DG progenitor cells in WT and p73^{-/-} mice.

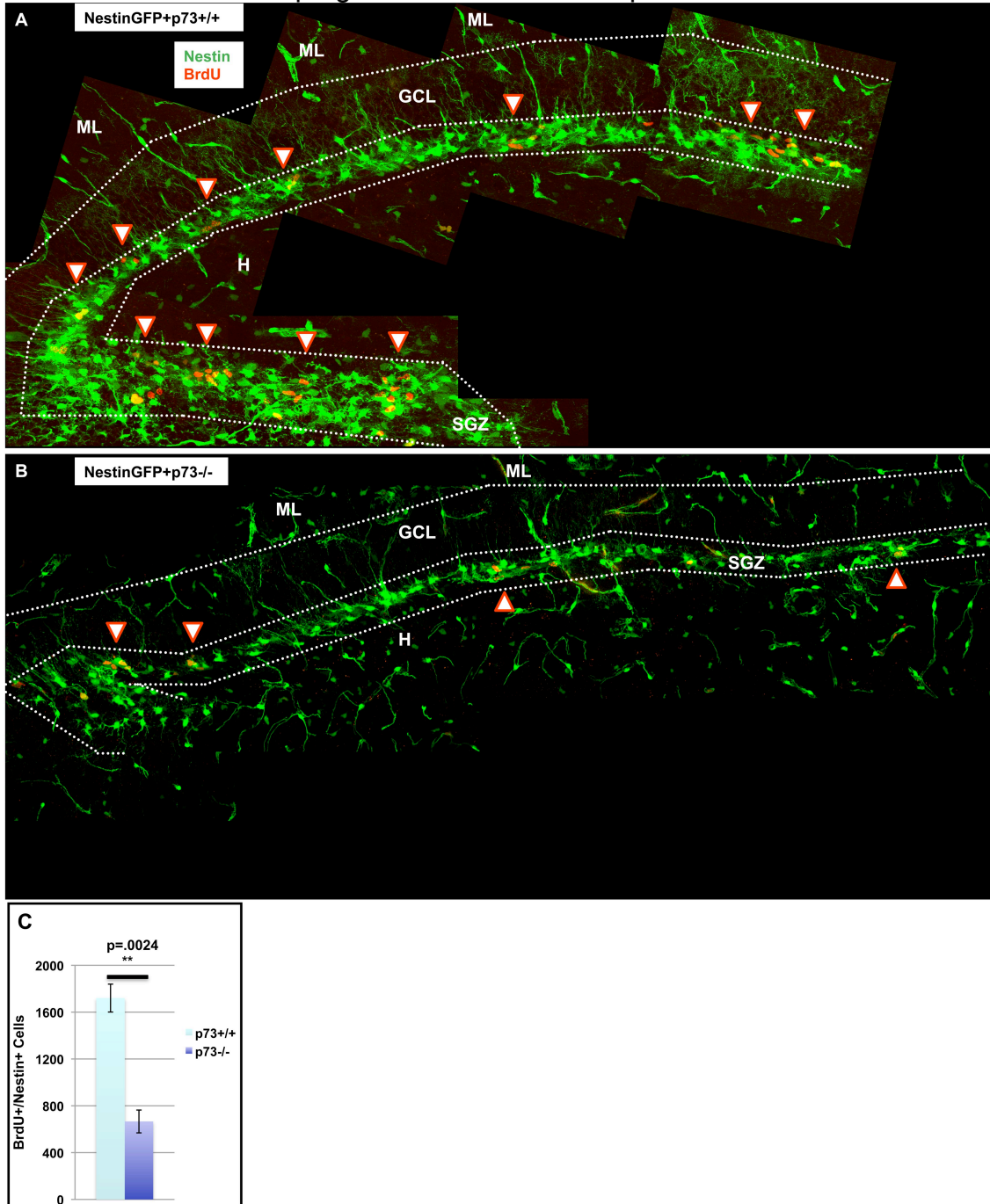


Figure 26: BrdU and GFAP staining in 6 week old (A) NestinGFP+WT and (B) p73^{-/-} mice, and quantification of proliferating (C) BrdU+NestinGFP+GFAP+ NSCs and (D) BrdU+NestinGFP+GFAP⁻ NPCs in the DG of WT and p73^{-/-} mice. Scale bars equal 20 μ m.

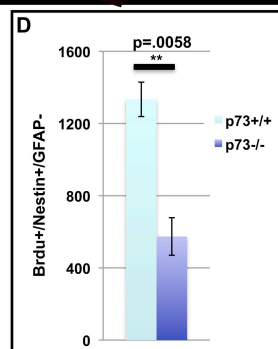
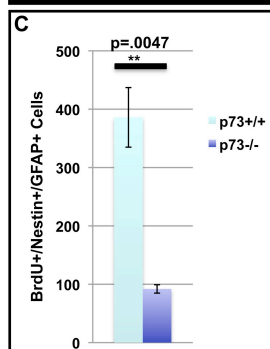
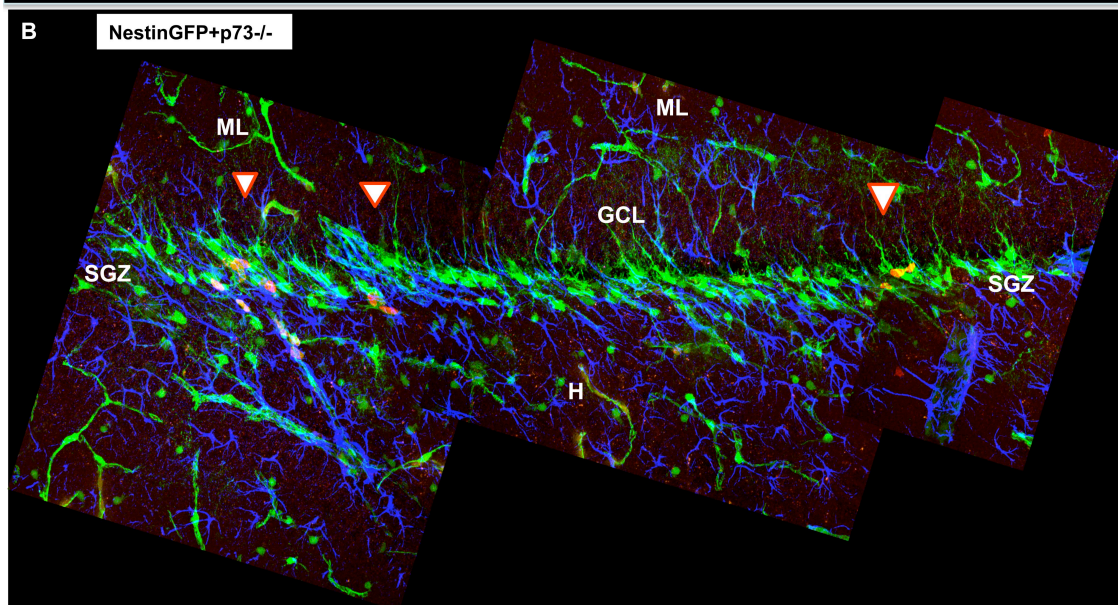
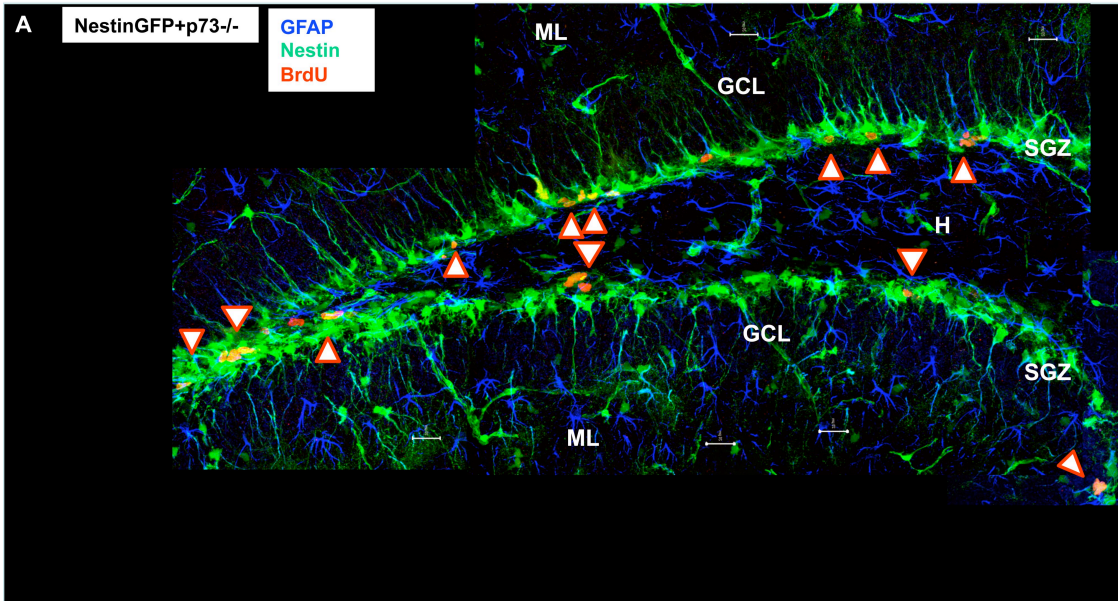
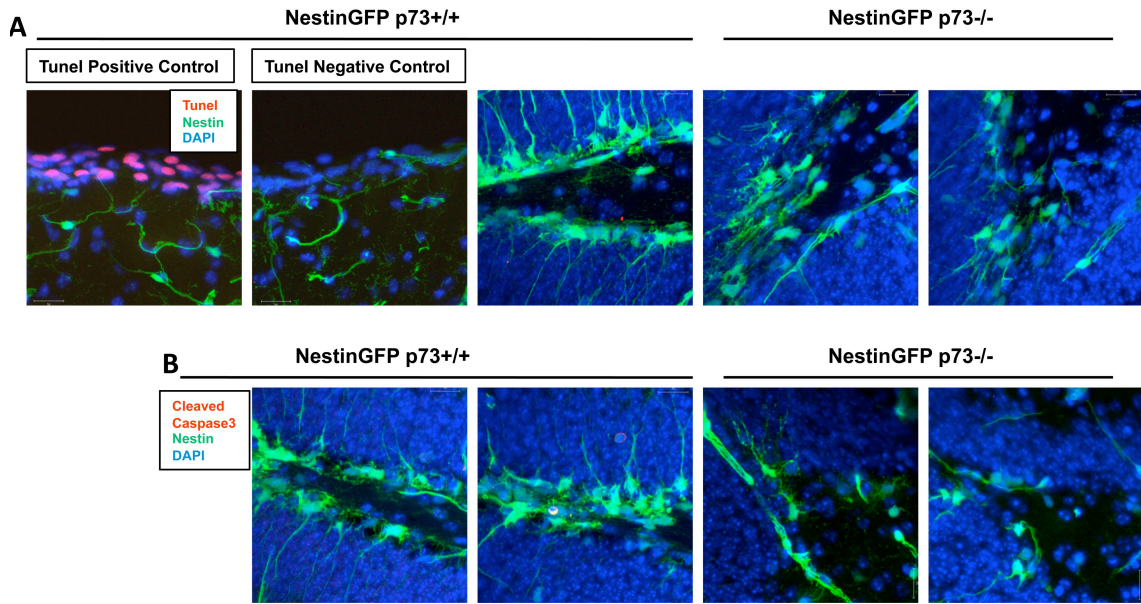


Figure 27: (A) TUNEL and (B) cleaved caspase 3 staining in 6 week old NestinGFP+WT and p73^{-/-} mice.



Chapter VII: General Discussion of HMGB2 and Adult Neurogenesis

Previous studies have demonstrated an association between HMG-B chromatin proteins and NSCs *in vitro* and *in vivo* (Ramalho-Santos et al., 2002; Fortunel et al., 2003; Karsten et al., 2003; Gurok et al., 2004; Lim et al., 2006), but a full description of HMG-B gene and protein expression in progenitors cells and their functional role regulating NSC/NPC cell processes has not been explored or reported in the scientific literature. The purpose of this project was to: 1) characterize the expression of HMG-B family members in NSCs, 2) test the hypothesis that HMGB2 regulates proper maintenance of adult SVZ NSCs and NPCs, and 3) test the hypothesis that changes in HMGB2-dependant progenitor maintenance *in vivo* is mechanistically related to changes in expression of different CDKs in the adult SVZ progenitor cells.

An initial study was conducted to examine the proteome of neural progenitor cells and identify proteins whose role in progenitor function remained unexamined. Quantitative shotgun proteomics analysis of proliferating E12.5 neurospheres was performed and led to the identification of 384 proteins expressed in proliferating progenitors, including several proteins not previously reported. These uncharacterized proteins included nuclear matrix protein matrin3, chromatin structural proteins HMGB1 and HMGB2, myristoylated

alanine-rich C kinase substrate (Marcks), a protein kinase C substrate involved in regulating actin filament crosslinking (Blackshear, 1993) that plays a role in embryonic radial glial proliferation and positioning during mouse cortical development (Weimer et al., 2009) was also prominently expressed in NSCs. Marcks-like protein (MLP), also a substrate for protein kinase C, was identified as well. Mutations in MARCKS and MLP have been associated with neural tube defects (Stumpo et al., 1998). Chromobox1 (Cbx1), the mammalian homolog of *Drosophila* heterochromatin protein HP1- β , that regulates NSC proliferation and plays a role in mouse cortical development (Aucott et al., 2008), was also identified, as was Chromobox3 (Cbx3) (mammalian HP1- γ). The analysis identified numerous arginine-serine rich RNA splicing factors (Sfrs1, Sfrs3, Sfrs4, Sfrs7, Sfrs9, and Sfrs10) and RNA binding proteins including fused-in-sarcoma (Fus) and Tar43-DNA-binding protein (Tardbp), suggesting a prominent role for RNA function and metabolism in NSCs.

We focused on the chromatin structural proteins of the HMG-B family and confirmed that all HMGB mRNAs and proteins were present in proliferating NSCs. Subsequent attempt to characterize the expression of HMG-B family members in these progenitors revealed that HMGB1, 2, and 3 mRNA and protein expression are dynamic and change substantially in proliferating and differentiating NSCs. The HMGB1 and B2 gene expression patterns resembled the expression pattern of HMGA2 in NSCs (Nishino et al., 2008). HMGA2 expression is higher in the NSC proliferative compartment of the embryonic telencephalon (ventricle zone) than in the differentiated compartment (cortex),

similar to our findings that B1 and B2 expression was enriched in proliferating progenitor cells, and both mRNA and protein expression decreased in differentiating progenitors. This result suggests the possibility that HMGB1 and B2 are functioning in a manner analogous to HMGA2 in progenitor cells, potentially regulating progenitor proliferation in a manner similar to HMGA2, mediated in part by changes in p16^{Ink4a} expression.

These findings, in conjunction with previous data demonstrating strong expression of HMGB2 in the SVZ, led to the hypothesis that HMGB2 expression is enriched in proliferating NSCs and NPCs because it plays a role in regulating proper maintenance of SVZ NSCs and NPCs. To test this hypothesis, WT and HMGB2^{-/-} mice were used to conduct *in vivo* proliferation assays to test progenitor proliferation in the SVZ *in vivo*, which demonstrated that young 10 week old HMGB2^{-/-} mice have higher numbers of proliferating cells in the SVZ than age-matched WT mice. In conjunction with these findings it was noted that subsets of HMGB2^{-/-} mice at 10 weeks of age have ventriculomegaly, a phenotype rarely observed in age-matched WT mice.

To help define the cell identity of these hyperproliferating SVZ cells, HMGB2 transgenic mice were crossed with NestinGFP transgenic mice to generate compound NestinGFPHMGB2 WT and HMGB2^{-/-} mice to study differences in SVZ progenitor cell number in these variable HMGB2 genetic backgrounds. Using these compound transgenic mice, there is a strong increase in the expression of GFAP in the SVZ of HMGB2^{-/-} mice, indicating that expression of this NSC marker increases in HMGB2^{-/-} mice. In lateral brain sections, HMGB2-

/- mice had higher numbers of NestinGFP+GFAP+ NSCs in the SVZ, but lower numbers of NestinGFP+GFAP- NPCs compared to WT mice. HMGB2^{-/-} mice also contained higher numbers of type A DCX+ neuroblasts in the SVZ compared to WT mice.

It remained mechanistically unclear why HMGB2^{-/-} mice have aberrant SVZ hyperproliferation and an increase expression of NSC and neuroblast markers in the SVZ. A comparison of young HMGB2^{-/-} mice with HMGA2^{-/-} mice to gain further mechanistic insight into the HMGB2^{-/-} SVZ phenotype indicates that young HMGA2^{-/-} mice have fewer proliferating (BrdU+) SVZ progenitor cells than WT mice due to the loss of HMGA2 mediated repression of p19^{Arf} and p16^{Ink4a} expression, a phenotype rescued in vivo by the compound loss of p19^{Arf} and p16^{Ink4a} (Nishino et al., 2008). In contrast, young HMGB2^{-/-} mice have greater numbers of proliferating (BrdU+, Ki67+) cells in the SVZ than WT mice, the opposite SVZ phenotype of HMGA2^{-/-} mice. Additionally, loss of p16^{Ink4a} alone does not lead to an increase in the number of BrdU+ proliferating SVZ progenitors in young adult mice (Molofsky et al., 2006). Therefore, the SVZ phenotype of young HMGB2^{-/-} mice does not phenocopy HMGA2^{-/-} or p16^{Ink4a}^{-/-} mice. To examine whether there were differences in p16^{Ink4a} expression in the HMGB2^{-/-} SVZ in vivo, WT and HMGB2^{-/-} sections were stained for p16^{Ink4a}. Changes in p16^{Ink4a} expression in the SVZ of 10 week old HMGB2^{-/-} mice were not detected, suggesting an alternative mechanistic explanation besides p16^{Ink4a} were responsible for the HMGB2^{-/-} neural phenotype.

These results suggested a distinct molecular pathway for HMGB2 in regulating NSC proliferation and progenitor cell number in vivo. Alternative regulatory pathways that may explain the HMGB2^{-/-} SVZ phenotype include changes in expression in the CIP/KIP family of cyclin dependant kinase inhibitors (CDKIs) and/or changes in p53 family expression. Loss of the CIP/KIP family member p21^{Cip1} causes hyperproliferation in the SVZ in young adult mice (Kippin et al., 2005). Loss of CIP/KIP family member p27^{Kip1} causes an increase in BrdU+ proliferating cells in the SVZ of 9 week old mice (Doetsch et al., 2002b). Loss of tumor suppressor protein p53 leads to an increase in SVZ proliferation in young p53^{-/-} mice (Meletis et al., 2006). These knockout mice demonstrate NSC phenotypes that resemble components of the SVZ phenotype observed in young HMGB2^{-/-} mice, suggesting a possible role for HMGB2 in p21^{Cip1}/ p27^{Kip1}/p53 mediated NSC/progenitor proliferation. p21^{Cip1} and p27^{Kip1} are gene targets of p53, and previous work has shown that HMGB1 and HMGB2 regulate transcription of target genes of members of the p53 family, including gene targets of p53 and p73(Stros et al., 2002). It remained unclear whether HMGB1 and B2 mediate p53 gene target expression in SVZ NSCs and/or NPCs; such a molecular dynamic would provide one possible mechanistic explanation for why young HMGB2^{-/-} phenocopy p21^{Cip1}, p27^{Kip1}, and p53 knockout mice: young HMGB2^{-/-} SVZ hyperproliferation may be due to aberrant gene expression of p53 target genes, including p21^{Cip1} and p27^{Kip1}; alternatively (potentially) the hyperproliferation may be due to aberrant upstream p53 gene expression itself that affects the downstream elements p21^{Cip1} and p27^{Kip1}. To examine whether

there were differences in p21^{Cip1}, p27^{Kip1}, and p53 expression in the HMGB2^{-/-} SVZ in vivo, WT and HMGB2^{-/-} sections were analyzed for changes in SVZ protein levels of the different factors. Changes in p21^{Cip1}, p27^{Kip1}, and p53 protein levels in the SVZ of 10 week old HMGB2^{-/-} mice were detected; protein levels of p21^{Cip1} and p27^{Kip1} CDKIs in the SVZ were lower in HMGB2^{-/-} mice compared to WT control, and p53 protein levels appears higher in the SVZ of HMGB2^{-/-} mice than age-matched WT controls. These data suggest that altered proliferation of neural progenitor cells in the SVZ of HMGB2^{-/-} is due to dysregulation of HMGB2 mediated expression of CDKIs, including p21^{Cip1/Waf1} and p27^{Kip1}.

These results can be integrated and explained using different models of SVZ stem and progenitor proliferation. In model A the loss of HMGB2 protein expression leads to the loss of proper gene expression of p53 target genes, causing a decrease in p21^{Cip1/Waf1} and p27^{Kip1} protein expression, which leads to hyperproliferation and self-renewal (asymmetric cell division) of type B NSCs. This increase in proliferation and asymmetric cell divisions of type B NSCs would lead to higher numbers of type B NSCs and type C NPCs. Unfortunately this model is too simplistic for our data and does not address why HMGB2^{-/-} mice have lower numbers of type C NPCs, and higher numbers of DCX+ neuroblasts in the SVZ. In model B, the loss of HMGB2 protein expression leads to loss of proper gene expression of p53 target genes, causing a decrease in p21^{Cip1/Waf1} and p27^{Kip1} protein levels, which leads to hyperproliferation and self-renewal (asymmetric cell division) of type B NSCs and a hyperproliferation and

symmetrical cell division of type C NPCs into type A neuroblasts. This second model would lead to the increase in NSC cell number, a decrease in type C NPC cell number and an increase in type A neuroblasts, a possibility that reproduces the cell distribution of stem and progenitor cells in the SVZ of HMGB2^{-/-} mice. The third model that may explain the HMGB2^{-/-} neural phenotype may be that type B NSCs and give rise to DCX⁺ neuroblasts directly, bypassing type C NPCs. In this model, increase in the division of type B NSCs directly into type A neuroblasts would reproduce the cell distribution noted in the HMGB2^{-/-} SVZ of increased NSCs, lower NPCs, and higher neuroblasts.

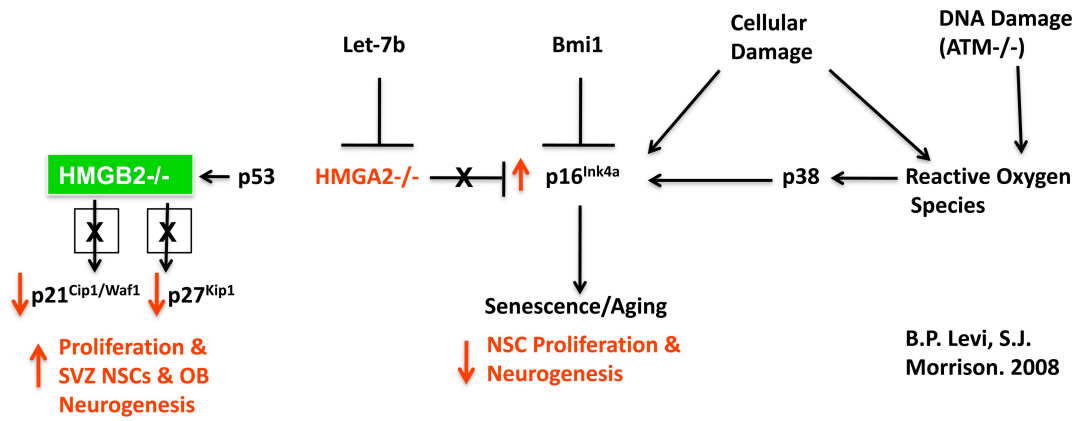
Finally, these data on changes in p21^{Cip1/Waf1}, p27^{Kip1} and p53 expression in HMGB2^{-/-} mice can be integrated with previous data on HMGA2 mediated p16^{Ink4a} expression to propose a new comprehensive model of NSC proliferation in young adult mice. In this proposed new model (Fig 28), HMGA2 promotes the proliferation of NSCs by reducing levels of p16^{Ink4a} as previously described (Nishino et al., 2008), while HMGB2 represses the proliferation of SVZ NSCs by promoting the proper expression of p21^{Cip1/Waf1} and p27^{Kip1} (Fig 28).

In conclusion, HMGB chromatin structural proteins are differentially expressed in proliferating and differentiating embryonic NSCs. Loss of HMGB2 in young mice is associated with altered SVZ stem and progenitor cell number in vivo, including SVZ hyperproliferation, increased numbers of SVZ NSCs and neuroblasts, increased numbers of new born neurons in the olfactory bulb granule cell layer, and ventriculomegaly in a subset of HMGB2^{-/-} mice,

demonstrating a novel role for HMGB2 in proper proliferation of SVZ neural progenitor cells, and GCL olfactory bulb neurogenesis, in young adult mice.

Figure 28: Proposed integrated model/mechanism of HMGBa2/HMGB2/CDKI expression in NSC proliferation in young adult mice.

Proposed Integrated HMGA2/HMGB2/CDKI Mechanism of Neural Stem Cell Proliferation in the SVZ of Young Adult Mice



Chapter VIII: Future Directions

Future studies on HMGB2^{-/-} mice should focus on additional experiments that would further elucidate the mechanism by which neural stem and progenitor cell proliferation and olfactory bulb neurogenesis are altered by the loss of HMGB2. Future studies on HMGB2^{-/-} mice should focus on introducing the expression of different CDKIs, such as p21^{Cip1/Waf1} and p27^{Kip1}, in SVZ neural progenitor cells to determine whether proper expression of these CDKIs downstream of HMGB2 in HMGB2^{-/-} neural progenitor cells can cause NSC /NPC /neuroblast cell numbers in the SVZ to revert back to WT levels. For example, HMGB2^{-/-} SVZ neural progenitor cells can be infected with control virus or experimental virus expressing p21^{Cip1/Waf1} or p27^{Kip1} under the control of a nestin promoter and analyzed by immunofluorescence and confocal imaging. Quantification of NSC /NPC /neuroblast cell numbers in the SVZ of HMGB2^{-/-} mice would allow for the determination of whether expression of these CDKIs allow HMGB2^{-/-} NSCs /NPCs /neuroblast cell numbers to revert back to WT levels. Alternatively, the re-introduction of HMGB2 expression in the SVZ of HMGB2^{-/-} mice can be done by infecting SVZ cells with a virus expressing HMGB2, and NSC/NPC/neuroblasts cell number can be examined in a similar manner. Additionally, re-introducing expression of HMGB2 *in vivo* using a viral approach has the benefit of being able

to analyze CDKI expression in the SVZ. For example, HMGB2^{-/-} mice infected with control and experimental virus expressing HMGB2 can be analyzed by western blot analysis as well as tissue immunofluorescence to determine whether p21^{Cip1/Waf1} and p27^{Kip1} protein expression is augmented as a result of re-introducing HMGB2 expression in the SVZ. These experiments will play an integral role in providing definitive proof that HMGB2 regulates p21^{Cip1/Waf1} and p27^{Kip1} in SVZ neural progenitor in vivo.

More recent work on HMGB2 has demonstrated that HMGB2 also plays a role in regulating cell survival in vivo. The loss of HMGB2 causes premature osteoarthritis, which is due to the accelerated loss of articular cartilage in HMGB2^{-/-} mice (Taniguchi et al., 2009). A subsequent study demonstrated that HMGB2 plays a role in the Wnt/Beta-Catenin signaling pathway, that HMGB2 increases Lef-1 binding to its target sites and “potentiates the transcriptional activation of the Lef-1-beta-catenin complex”(Taniguchi et al., 2009). This interplay between HMGB2 and the Wnt/beta-catenin signaling pathway leads to the suppression of apoptosis of chondrocytes in the articular cartilage. The survival of chondrocytes promotes the proper maintenance of the articular cartilage over time (during aging). HMGB2^{-/-} mice do not have HMGB2 protein to facilitate proper interaction with the Lef-1-beta-catenin complex and therefore have increases apoptosis of chondrocytes in the articular cartilage. Impaired survival of chondrocytes leads to the premature loss of articular cartilage in aging mice and the subsequent formation of premature osteoarthritis (Taniguchi et al., 2009). These results are striking and very pertinent to neurogenesis because the

Wnt/beta-catenin signaling pathway is a known regulator of NSC proliferation and self-renewal in vivo (Qu et al.; Lie et al., 2005; Kuwabara et al., 2009). Future studies should examine whether changes in Wnt/beta-catenin signaling occurs in the SVZ in HMGB2^{-/-} mice compared to WT mice, whether these changes in Wnt/beta-catenin signaling are the molecular basis for changes in the proliferation (and possibly the survival of) NSCs, NPCs, and neuroblasts in the SVZ in young and aged HMGB2^{-/-} mice.

This project has focused on the role of HMGB2 in regulating proliferation of SVZ progenitor cells, but little is known about the regulation of HMG-B gene expression and protein synthesis. Our data demonstrated a decrease in HMGB1 and B2 mRNA levels in proliferating NSCs between E12 and E15.5, while HMGB1 and B2 protein expression remained stable during the same time, presumably due to the long half lives that the HMGB proteins are reported to have (~65 hours). An alternative mechanistic explanation may exist which could explain these findings; that HMGB1 and B2 expression in proliferating NSCs, like HMGA2, are negatively regulated by microRNA(s). We briefly explored this hypothesis using web-based analytical tools. Using MicroCosym Targets Version 5 and miRBase (Enright Lab, European Bioinformatics Lab), analytical tools that search for microRNA binding sites in target mRNAs (Griffiths-Jones et al., 2006; Griffiths-Jones et al., 2008) we found putative microRNA binding sites in HMGB1 and HMGB3 mRNA, and 45 different miRNA binding sites in HMGB2 (data not shown). Among them were several binding sites for members of the Let-7 family of microRNAs, including Let-7a,f,g and Let7-b, a known negative regulator of

HMGA2 expression in NSCs (Nishino et al., 2008). It remains unclear what, if any, role microRNAs have in the regulation of HMGB1 or B2 expression in proliferating NSCs, and whether a second microRNA-HMG axis involving microRNAs and HMG-Bs exists in proliferating NSCs. Future experiments to examine whether Let-7 microRNAs negatively regulate HMGB2 in NSCs would help provide a clearer molecular mechanism for HMGB2 mediated NSC/NPC proliferation and self-renewal.

Finally, this project has focused most exclusively on the role of HMGB2 in proper SVZ progenitor proliferation and maintenance, and did not specifically address whether a function role for HMGB1, HMGB3, and HMGB4 proteins exists in adult SVZ NSCs and NPCs during proliferation and OB neurogenesis. HMGB1^{-/-} mice were created and previously described and appear to die shortly after birth due to hypoglycemia (Calogero et al., 1999). HMGB3^{-/-} mice were created and previously described, and appear to have a defect in proper maintenance of hematopoietic stem cells (HSCs)(Nemeth et al., 2003). Loss of HMGB3 disrupts the proper proliferation and differentiation of myeloid and lymphoid progenitor cells (Nemeth et al., 2005; Nemeth et al., 2006). Despite these findings in HMGB3^{-/-} HSCs, and previous reports demonstrating that NSCs also express HMGB3 (Fortunel et al., 2003), no study has been conducted on the role of HMGB3 in proper NSC and neural progenitors *in vivo*. Future work should also focus on the role of HMGB3 in proper NSC proliferation, and to determine whether loss of HMGB3 also causes disruptions in the balance of proliferation vs. differentiation in neural progenitor cells (in a similar manner in

which this occurs in the hematopoietic compartment). Crossing NestinGFP transgenic mice and HMGB3^{-/-} transgenic mice to create compound transgenic mice would allow for the examination of NestinGFP progenitor cells in the variable HMGB3 WT and null genetic background, and provide further data on the role of HMGB3 in proper neural stem and progenitor cell proliferation and differentiation in vivo.

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