NFIA is a gliogenic switch enabling rapid derivation of functional human astrocytes from pluripotent stem cells

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The mechanistic basis of gliogenesis, which occurs late in human development, is poorly understood. Here we identify nuclear factor IA (NFIA) as a molecular switch inducing human glial competency. Transient expression of NFIA is sufficient to trigger glial competency of human pluripotent stem cell-derived neural stem cells within 5 days and to convert these cells into astrocytes in the presence of glial-promoting factors, as compared to 3–6 months using current protocols. NFIA-induced astrocytes promote synaptogenesis, exhibit neuroprotective properties, display calcium transients in response to appropriate stimuli and engraft in the adult mouse brain. Differentiation involves rapid but reversible chromatin remodeling, glial fibrillary acidic protein (GFAP) promoter demethylation and a striking lengthening of the G1 cell cycle phase. Genetic or pharmacological manipulation of G1 length partially mimics NFIA function. We used the approach to generate astrocytes with region-specific or reactive features. Our study defines key mechanisms of the gliogenic switch and enables the rapid production of human astrocytes for disease modeling and regenerative medicine.

Astrocytes are the most abundant glial cell type in the human brain, and their dysfunction is a driver in the pathogenesis of both neurodevelopmental and neurodegenerative disorders. The study of human astrocytes has proved challenging owing to their limited availability and regional heterogeneity. Astrocytes are derived from late neural stem cells (NSCs). During early development, NSCs are fate-restricted to exclusively produce neurons, while at later stages they undergo a switch from neurogenic to gliogenic competency, resulting in progressive production of astrocytes and oligodendrocytes. The molecular nature of the gliogenic switch has remained elusive, and its timing varies across species, from 7 days in the mouse to 6–9 months in humans. These species-specific differences are reflected in methods for in vitro differentiation of pluripotent stem cells (PSCs), with the derivation of human astrocytes requiring 3–6 months. Differentiation into NSCs results in a long neurogenic phase followed by a late gliogenic switch, mimicking the timeline of human glial development. Previous studies report the need to culture human PSC (hPSC)-derived NSCs for up to 24 weeks before obtaining large populations of functional astrocytes following differentiation. Following extended culture, the gliogenic switch occurs spontaneously but the molecular mechanism underlying the switch remains unclear. The protracted time for acquiring glial competency presents a roadblock in basic and translational studies of human astrocytes.

To monitor the period when astrocytes develop during hPSC differentiation, we generated a knock-in reporter line targeting the aquaporin-4 (AQP4) locus with a nuclear green fluorescent protein (H2B-GFP) (Supplementary Fig. 1). Previous strategies for generating astrocytes from hPSCs include the exposure of factors such as LIF, CNTF, BMP or serum to NSCs to trigger glial differentiation. The onset of glial differentiation was moderately accelerated in NSCs treated with serum (Supplementary Fig. 2), and we tested whether such acceleration was correlated with changes in the expression of candidate factors including NFIA (Fig. 1a) previously implicated in glial fate acquisition.

To directly test whether these genes impact glial competency or differentiation, we used a homogeneous and stable neurogenic NSC population termed long-term human embryonic stem cell-derived neural stem cells (lt-hESNSCs, referred to as LTNSCs in this study). Unlike NSCs, LTNSCs do not spontaneously undergo the gliogenic switch following long-term culture but remain in the neurogenic phase (Supplementary Fig. 3), making them ideal for identifying factors involved in the gliogenic switch. While knockout of LIN28B did not show any obvious effect, overexpression of NFIA profoundly altered LTNSC morphology (Supplementary Fig. 4a,c) and correlated with expression of NFIA protein and CD44, a marker of glial competency, although it did not result in GFAP-positive cells (Fig. 1b). A subset of NFIA-expressing cells activated the AQP4-H2B-GFP reporter (Supplementary Fig. 4b). We hypothesized that overexpression of NFIA would trigger glial competency but block differentiation toward astrocytes. We performed a time course study in which LTNSCs were cultured in the presence (dox+) or absence (dox–) of NFIA expression. After 5 days, cells were switched to (dox–) either in a glial-promoting condition (+LIF) or in NSC maintenance medium (+epidermal growth factor/fibroblast growth factor 2 (EGF/FGF2)). Notably, continued expression of NFIA (dox+) prevented LTNSCs from expressing GFAP even in the presence of LIF (Fig. 1c, Supplementary Fig. 5a,b). In contrast, removal of doxycycline led to a decline in NFIA expression for both conditions, but GFAP expression was strongly induced only in the (+LIF) group and only after NFIA was sufficiently downregulated (Fig. 1c). We found that LIF was most efficient in generating GFAP-positive cells and in activating the AQP4-H2B-GFP reporter compared to other glial differentiation factors (Supplementary Fig. 5a,b). These results show that glial competency in neurogenic human NSCs can be achieved at as early as 5 days by transient expression of NFIA, compared with 90–180 days using current protocols.

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We determined the timing and efficiency of astrocyte generation using NFIA. While there was a robust increase in GFAP expression, not all cells were immediately immunoreactive to GFAP.

We used intracellular fluorescent activated cell sorter to determine the absolute numbers of GFAP-positive and CD44-positive cells at different passages after NFIA induction (Supplementary Fig. 6b).
We achieved >60% GFAP-expressing cells by 56 days of culture (d56) and nearly 100% GFAP-positive cells after 77 days (d77) (Fig. 1d,e). We determined that the success of astrocyte generation was dependent on the transduction efficiency of the NFIA virus in NSCs. To further improve the efficiency of generating astrocytes from hPSCs (Supplementary Fig. 6c), we generated an inducible NFIA hPSC-line (NFIA-hPSC, Supplementary Fig. 7a). NFIA is not expressed in hPSCs and was induced by dox treatment to identify properly targeted clones (Supplementary Fig. 7b). Immunoblot analysis showed that NFIA levels were higher in the inducible line compared to transduced LTNSCs (Supplementary Fig. 7c).

To determine efficiency, we differentiated the inducible NFIA-hPSCs into cortical NSCs (Supplementary Fig. 6c) and induced NFIA for 10 days (Supplementary Fig. 7d,e). Over this time period, 65% of cells became CD44 positive. LIF treatment for 15 days led to 42% of cells expressing GFAP (Supplementary Fig. 7f–h). Immunostaining of the resulting cells showed expression of S100β and GFAP and loss of the proliferation marker Ki-67 (Supplementary Fig. 7i). Finally, to test the suitability of the protocol for disease modeling, we differentiated isogenic control and patient-specific iPSCs harboring a mutation in the SOD1 gene (A4V) toward cortical versus spinal cord progenitor identity18–21 and confirmed their distinct antero-posterior marker expression (Supplementary Fig. 8a,b). By infecting the progenitors with NFIA, we observed the expression of GFAP-positive cells by 6–7 days of differentiation (Supplementary Fig. 8c) resulting in regionally distinct astrocytes (Supplementary Fig. 8d). This reaffirms that NFIA induction is a robust strategy for generation of astrocytes of specific regional identity across control and disease hPSCs.

The cells derived from NFIA-induced NSCs yielded astrocytes with complex morphology (Fig. 1f) that expressed a panel of genes representing astrocyte identity (Fig. 1g). To further determine whether NFIA-induced astrocytes matched those observed in vivo, we performed gene expression profiling (Fig. 1h). A broad set of RNA-sequencing data from NFIA-induced astrocytes at various stages of differentiation was compared to published datasets from hPSCs (Supplementary Fig. 9a,b). We confirmed the distinct astrocyte-specific genes shared among three independent astrocyte studies22–24. This analysis showed close correlation between NFIA-induced astrocytes and fetal astrocytes (Fig. 1b, Supplementary Fig. 9c,d and Supplementary Table 1).

We examined the functionality of NFIA-induced astrocytes. Astrocytes play critical roles during central nervous system development, including neuronal maturation25, maintenance of metabolic homeostasis and regulation of inflammation26. Several genes associated with the formation of functional synapses27 were upregulated (Supplementary Fig. 9e), suggesting that these cells exhibit functional properties in neuronal maturation. Immature neurons co-cultured in the presence of NFIA-induced astrocytes showed evidence of accelerated maturation by the increased expression and appearance of punctate SYN1 (synapsin-I) (Fig. 2a) and upregulation of an active zone marker MUNC13.128 (Fig. 2b). Additionally, the co-localization of pre- and postsynaptic markers, such as SYN1 and HOMER, indicated the formation of structural synapses (Fig. 2c and Supplementary Fig. 10). NFIA-induced astrocytes also promoted neuronal survival when subjected to glutamate excitotoxicity (Supplementary Fig. 11)29. Notably, following cytokie treatment, we could trigger the upregulation of reactive astrocyte (A1)-specific transcripts (Supplementary Fig. 12a,b) and complement (C3) secretion131 (Fig. 2d). Morphologically, astrocytes cultured in different passages appeared to transition from large flat cells to cells with long and complex processes (Supplementary Fig. 13a).

NFIA-induced astrocytes can be stimulated to elicit calcium transients30 in response to specific stimuli. Commercially available primary astrocytes isolated from human fetal brains (19–23 post-conception weeks) displayed morphology similar to NFIA-induced astrocytes; however, only a few cells responded to the stimuli (Supplementary Fig. 14a). In contrast, NFIA-induced astrocytes responded robustly to KCl and ATP (Fig. 2e and Supplementary Fig. 14a–d) with increasing ATP responsiveness over time (Supplementary Fig. 14h). When in co-culture with hPSC-derived neurons, NFIA-induced astrocytes adopted a more ramified appearance (Supplementary Fig. 13b), showed increased AQP4-H2B-GFP signal (Supplementary Fig. 14f) and the response to ATP increased twofold (Fig. 2g). In addition, the magnitude of the glutamate response was enhanced, suggesting a synergistic interaction between the two cell types in mutually driving both glial and neuronal maturation (Fig. 2f,g).

We tested whether NFIA-induced astrocytes would promote the functional maturation of immature hPSC-derived cortical neurons (Supplementary Fig. 15a). Whole-cell recordings from cortical neurons and cortical neurons cultured with NFIA-induced astrocytes revealed a resting membrane potential of −56.1±2.5 and −72±2.2 mV, respectively (Fig. 2h). Similarly, the input resistance of cortical neurons significantly decreased following co-culture with NFIA-induced astrocytes, further suggesting a more mature phenotype in the presence of astrocytes (Fig. 2i). To monitor the impact on synaptic maturation, we recorded basal spontaneous miniature excitatory postsynaptic currents (mEPSCs) (Supplementary Fig. 15b) and observed a decrease in inter-event interval (Supplementary Fig. 15c) and an increase in mEPSC frequency from 0.22±0.01 to 0.39±0.02 Hz (Fig. 2j) in neurons co-cultured with glia, indicating increased synaptic activity. We also observed an increase in amplitude (12.5±0.2 versus 13.6±0.2 pA) (Fig. 2k) and time course of decay (6.7±0.3 versus 7.6±0.3 ms) (Supplementary Fig. 15d) in mEPSCs from neurons in the presence of glia.

Finally, we transplanted 10000 NSCs, NFIA-induced glial progenitors, and astrocytes in the adult mouse cortex and corpus callosum. At 2 weeks post-transplantation, the glial progenitors migrated extensively from the graft core along white matter tracts (Fig. 2l) whereas neurogenic NSCs resulted in a dense graft composed largely of neurons (Supplementary Fig. 16a–c). The grafted NFIA-induced cells maintained expression of both AQP4-H2B-GFP and GFAP, and displayed morphological features characteristic of human astrocytes by 6 weeks post-transplantation (Fig. 2m and Supplementary Fig. 16d–f), with complex morphologies and extensive GFAP-positive projections spanning multiple cortical regions31 (Supplementary Fig. 16g).

The above in vitro and in vivo data demonstrate that transient NFIA expression generates functional, region-specific human astrocytes on demand at high speed and with efficiency. Furthermore, they show that NFIA is a key component of the molecular switch for triggering human glial competency. To explore the NFIA mechanism of action, we returned to our initial observation that transient NFIA expression triggers glial competency but does not induce endogenous NFIA expression (refer to Fig. 1c). Once doxycycline is removed and cells are maintained in NSC media, they lose glial competency (Fig. 3a) and return to a neurogenic state (Fig. 3b). We confirmed that NFIA expression is lost after 3 days of culture without doxycycline (d9) (Fig. 3d). Based on gene expression data by RNA sequencing, we observed
NFIA-induced astrocytes are functional. a. Immunofluorescence staining of MAP2 and synapsin-1 (SYN1) on neurons cultured with or without NFIA-induced astrocytes (n = 3 biologically independent experiments). b. Immunoblot analysis of markers of maturity, MUNC13.1 and SYN1, in neurons cultured with or without astrocytes (n = 3 biologically independent experiments). c. Bar chart representing the quantification of SYN1 and HOMER1 puncta on TUJ1-positive neurons (n = 8 biologically independent experiments, mean values are represented in the bar graph) cultured with or without astrocytes for 28 days. One-way ANOVA *(P < 0.05), **(P < 0.01), ****(P < 0.001). d. Bar chart representing the amount of complement (C3) released from NFIA-induced or primary astrocytes treated with IL1α, tumor necrosis factor and C1q for 24 h (n = 3 biologically independent experiments, mean values are presented in bar graph). e. Ratiometric plots of purified NFIA-induced astrocytes (60 days) incubated with the Fura-2 calcium dye and stimulated with ATP, KCl and glutamate. Ratios were calculated on GFP-positive nuclei. All data points are plotted as a heatmap below. f. Ratiometric plots of NFIA-induced astrocytes co-cultured with neurons incubated with Fura-2 calcium dye and stimulated with ATP, KCl and glutamate. Ratios were calculated on GFP-positive nuclei. All data points are plotted as a heatmap below. g. Quantification of the number of astrocytes responding to ATP, KCl or glutamate induced astrocytes co-cultured with neurons incubated with Fura-2 calcium dye and stimulated with ATP, KCl and glutamate. Ratios were calculated on GFP-positive nuclei. All data points are plotted as a heatmap below. h. Quantification of mean input resistance. Student’s t-test P = 0.0000186, n = 23, 39. i. Quantification of mean input resistance. Student’s t-test P = 0.010, n = 10, 8. j. Mean frequency of neurons with or without astrocytes. Mann–Whitney rank sum P = 0.000155. k. Cumulative distribution of all mEPSC amplitudes recorded. For control neurons 341 mEPSCs were recorded from ten neurons and, for neurons in the presence of glia, 629 mEPSCs were recorded from six neurons. All electrophysiology was performed on three biologically independent experiments. l. Immunofluorescence of NFIA-induced glial progenitors transplanted into mouse cortex depicts migration through the corpus callosum (n = 3 biologically independent animals). Scale bar, 50 μm. m. Immunofluorescence of NFIA-induced astrocytes demonstrates co-expression of AQP4-H2B-GFP, GFAP and the human-specific marker SC-121 (n = 3 biologically independent animals). Scale bar, 10 μm.
three major clusters among the samples throughout the time course (Fig. 3e and Supplementary Table 2). Of these, neuroepithelial-stage NSCs, LTNSCs (d0) and samples reverted to dox– clustered together, supporting the notion that the NFIA pulse cannot maintain glial competency following NFIA withdrawal.

Notably, NFIA expression for 6 days induced a chromatin accessibility landscape similar to that of hPSC-derived astrocytes (d200) or glial-competent NSCs (d80) (Fig. 3f). Differential chromatin accessibility was associated with a clear shift in the enrichment of transcription factor-binding motifs. SOX and ZNF354C motifs were enriched in the d0 (dox–) and the d12 (reverse) conditions, and AP-1, NFIX and NFI half-site motifs were highly enriched in the d6 (dox+) and astrocyte conditions (Supplementary Fig. 17). Unexpectedly, the GFAP promoter did not show differential

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**Fig. 3 | NFIA cannot maintain the glial-competent state.** a, FACS plot of CD44-expressing cells treated with continuous doxycycline, or doxycycline removed, demonstrates that CD44 expression is lost after doxycycline removal. b, Immunofluorescence staining for NFIA, GFAP and TUBB3 in NSCs, NFIA-induced NSCs and NFIA-induced NSCs with doxycycline removal (n = 3 biologically independent experiments). c, Schematic representation of cells induced with NFIA and attaining glial competency followed by reversal to glial incompetency with doxycycline withdrawal. d, Quantitative PCR data of NFIA expression. e, Sample distance plot for RNA expression of NSCs at different timepoints related C. f, Sample distance plot for chromatin accessibility compared to glial-competent NSCs (gcNSCs) and hPSC-derived astrocytes (200 days of in vitro culture). g, Example assay for transposase-accessible chromatin using sequencing (ATAC-seq) tracks at the GFAP locus depicting the lack of chromatin accessibility in several NSC samples. h, Bisulfite sequencing of the promoter region of the GFAP promoter (P1 and P2) suggests that CD44-positive cells resulting from overexpression of NFIA leads to demethylation of a specific CpG on the GFAP promoter (green circles).
accessibility (Fig. 3g, bottom), even though our previous experiments showed robust induction of GFAP in the presence of LIF after only a short pulse of NFIA but not with LIF treatment alone. However, bisulfite sequencing of the GFAP promoter consistently highlighted one CpG in the GFAP promoter with a loss of methylation in CD44-positive cells (Fig. 3h) and was similarly unmethylated in astrocytes but not in LTNSCs. This CpG matches a STAT3 binding site that is predicted to inhibit STAT3 binding when methylated. These data suggest that NFIA induces glial competency by multiple modes, including the regulation of chromatin accessibility and DNA demethylation.

We examined the differential gene expression programs induced by NFIA overexpression and following NFIA withdrawal in LTNSCs using RNA sequencing and the functional annotation analysis software: Database for Annotation, Visualization, and Integrated Discovery (DAVID) [29]. Hierarchical clustering of all differentially expressed genes during the time course displayed three major clusters with distinct temporal profiles (Fig. 4a, labeled I, II and III). Cluster I includes genes associated with glial differentiation (Supplementary Fig. 18a). Genes associated with oligodendrocyte differentiation were absent from Cluster I. Cluster II comprises genes directly affected by NFIA expression that are rapidly lost following NFIA reduction (Supplementary Fig. 18b). Cluster III encompasses genes downregulated following expression of NFIA. These genes were specifically enriched for cell cycle-related processes, such as cell division, chromosome segregation, DNA repair and replication (Fig. 4b). NFIA triggered a negative regulation of cell cycle-specific genes (Fig. 4c), which was reversed after NFIA removal (Fig. 4d and Supplementary Fig. 19a).

We studied whether functional changes in cell cycle progression were the key to acquisition of glial competency. A large proportion of cells accumulated in G1 following NFIA expression in LTNSCs (Fig. 4e). Although expression of CCNA1 was upregulated with NFIA (Supplementary Fig. 19b), there was a striking decrease in CCNA1 protein and marked increase in CDKN1A (p21) (Fig. 4f). Progressive lengthening of G1 was reported as a characteristic feature of the developing rodent cortex [29–30] from early embryonic (neurogenic) to later fetal (gliogenic) stages—a transition during which hPSC-derived NSCs showed progressive endogenous expression of NFIA (Supplementary Fig. 20a). To directly measure cell cycle lengthening, we used the FUCCI-O vector to determine the time spent by cells in G1 [29]. Time-lapse analysis demonstrated that a large proportion of cells showed lengthening of the G1 phase in the (dox+) condition compared to uninduced cells (Supplementary Movies 1, 2 and Supplementary Fig. 20b). We also explored whether reduction of NFIA levels would result in a more moderate G1 length compatible with acquiring glial fate. Indeed, when we titrated NFIA levels by varying dox concentrations, the percentage of cells in G1 gradually decreased along with reduced dox levels, and GFAP expression was induced only at lower dox concentrations in the presence of LIF (Supplementary Fig. 20c,e).

To examine whether pharmacological modulation of the cell cycle in the absence of NFIA expression is sufficient to trigger the gliogenic switch, we treated cells with olomoucine (Olo), a small molecule known to lengthen G1 timing in vitro [31]. Treatment of LTNSCs with Olo increased the percentage of cells in G1 (Supplementary Fig. 21a) but did not immediately activate expression of glial competency genes (Supplementary Fig. 21b). However, when Olo-treated LTNSCs were either maintained or induced to differentiate for an additional 12 days, we detected increased expression of glial competency genes and GFAP-positive cells (Supplementary Fig. 21c,d). Conversely, we knocked down FZR1(CDH1), which shortens the G1 cell cycle phase [32,33]. Short hairpin RNA (shRNA) constructs targeting FZR1 showed efficient knockdown of the transcript (Fig. 4g), did not affect levels of NFIA expression and decreased the percentage of cells in G1 (Fig. 4h). Indeed, the knockdown of FZR1 partially prevented NFIA-mediated induction of CD44 and GFAP expression (Fig. 4i,j).

Finally, we explored the identity of candidate upstream activators of NFIA. Transforming growth factor beta (TGFβ) signaling has been implicated in timing of cell fate decisions in the spinal cord [34] and is known to modulate G1 arrest [35]. TGFβ1 treatment of neurogenic NSCs induced the expression of NFIA (Fig. 4k) and enrichment for cells in the G1 phase of the cell cycle (Fig. 4l). We treated neurogenic NSCs with TGFβ1 followed by culture in LIF-containing medium for 2 weeks, which resulted in the appearance of GFAP+ cells (Fig. 4m). These results indicate that TGFβ1-mediated induction of NFIA and concomitant G1 lengthening are sufficient to trigger gliogenesis. However, the resulting levels of NFIA expression, speed and efficiency did not match the results obtained with ectopic NFIA expression, suggesting that further investigation into additional extrinsic factors is required to fully substitute for forced NFIA expression.

While it has become routine to model neurodevelopmental or neurodegenerative diseases [36–40] with hPSC-derived neurons, the use of hPSC-derived astrocytes in such studies has remained limited [41]. This is due, in part, to the extremely protracted onset of the gliogenic switch in humans as compared to rodent cells, which is recapitulated in vitro and makes such studies laborious, costly and inefficient. Our work presents a simple, effective strategy based on the use of a single factor to drive glial competency and astrocyte differentiation (Fig. 4n). Our ability to combine overexpression of NFIA with patterning of early-stage NSCs enables the rapid derivation of region-specific astrocytes and will be of particular interest in studying the contribution of astrocytes to disorders affecting distinct brain regions, such as in Parkinson’s disease, Alzheimer’s disease, and other neurodegenerative conditions.
disease or amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. Such region-specific astrocytes can be further harnessed for the study of distinct trophic support, as reported for primary astrocytes derived from discrete brain regions46,47.

One potential concern in using NFIA to fast-forward human neural development is whether the resulting cell types match bona fide, in vivo–derived astrocytes or represent an artifactual in vitro cell type. We demonstrate faithful transcriptional identity and robust functional features of NFIA-induced astrocytes, including calcium responses to relevant stimuli that not only match but exceed the performance of primary human fetal astrocytes. In addition, we show that NFIA-induced astrocytes reliably induce maturation of hPSC-derived neurons, a functional property commonly associated with mature, adult-like astrocytes4. Therefore, the NFIA protocol yields astrocyte populations highly relevant for human molecular, physiological and disease-related studies.

Contrary to the role of NFIA overexpression in promoting competency for astrocyte differentiation, NFIA, when expressed at high levels, prevents further differentiation into astrocytes unless it is downregulated. We presume this is partially due to high levels of NFIA leading to G1 cell cycle arrest. It is possible that this finding explains the low efficiency of astrocyte induction in
previous ectopic expression studies in the chicken spinal cord, and that NFIA levels need to be carefully titrated or followed by NFIA withdrawal to achieve optimal results. NFIA null mutant mice show a near complete loss of GFAP expression in the adult brain. A similar phenotype is observed in nuclear factor IB (NFIB) mutant mice. The probable redundancy of NFIA and NFIB in vivo may explain why single mutant mice do not exhibit a more severe early developmental glial specification phenotype. Further exploration of the interaction among TGFβ, NFIA/B and other factors in establishing the coordinated modulation of the cell cycle that promotes glial competency during in vivo development will be of particular interest. Another intriguing finding is that transient overexpression of NFIA is not sufficient to activate an irreversible, endogenous glial competency program in the absence of STAT or BMP signal activators. These results indicate that NFIA may act in concert with other factors such as SOX9 to further stabilize the gliogenic program.

Our mechanistic studies demonstrate that NFIA can rapidly trigger a chromatin state similar to that of astrocytes. The gene expression data reveal that NFIA induces transcription of a broad set of genes related to glial specification. Following release of NFIA overexpression, several genes associated with astrocyte identity remain upregulated for at least 3 days, suggesting that NFIA may open the chromatin landscape at these particular genes to poised them for activation in response to extrinsic factors. We found the NF1 – motif to be highly enriched in the accessible chromatin with NFIA expression. Other highly enriched motifs, such as AP-1/JunB, require further study of their potential role in other astrocyte differentiation or the maintenance of glial competency. The role of NFIA as a negative cell cycle regulator was recapitulated in part by pharmacological or genetic modulation of the G1 phase. The role of the cell cycle in modulating cell fate decisions in undifferentiated hPSC populations has been described previously. Our data demonstrate that NFIA expression lengthens G1, and that high NFIA levels trigger G1 arrest. Further exploration of the interaction among TGFβ, NFIA and other factors in establishing the coordinated, progressive modulation of the cell cycle that promotes the glial-competent state during development will be of particular interest.

Online content
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Author contributions
J.T. contributed to the conception, study design, data analysis and interpretation, writing of the manuscript, bioinformatics, development and execution of directed differentiation strategies from hPSCs, generation of LTNSCs, cell cycle analysis and calcium imaging. E.L.G contributed to maintenance of hPSCs and directed differentiation of spinal cord progenitors. S.R.G contributed to cell cycle analysis and astrocyte activation assays. E.M.G contributed to transplantation studies and data analysis. K.A.A. and P.A.G contributed to electrophysiology and assessment of neuronal maturation. J.A.S. contributed to the conception, study design, data analysis and interpretation and writing of the manuscript.

Competing interests
The Memorial Sloan-Kettering Cancer Center has filed a patent application (WO2018175574A1) on the methods described in the manuscript. L.S. is the scientific cofounder of Bluerock Therapeutics.

Additional information
Supplementary information is available for this paper at https://doi.org/10.1038/s41587-019-0035-0.
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Methods

Cell culture. Human pluripotent stem cells (both embryonic and induced) were maintained on vitronectin-coated dishes in Essential 8 (E8) medium (Thermo) as previously described. Induced PSCs were purchased from Coriell, Patient-normal lines Nos. 41865, 41866 and patient-ALS (AV) lines Nos 35659, 35673 and 35677. Cells were used for differentiation between passages 30–50 and passed twice every week. Cells were subjected to mycoplasma testing every 2–3 months. Neural stem cells, LTNSCs and glial progenitors were maintained on poly-L-ornithine/laminin/fibronectin-coated dishes in NSC medium consisting of N2 media with 10 ng/ml–1 Fibroblast growth factor 2 (FGF2), 10 ng/ml–1 epidermal growth factor (EGF) and 1:1,000 B27 supplement. LTNSCs were used between passages 15–20 and passed every week.

Human pluripotent stem cell-derived astrocytes were maintained on poly-L-ornithine/laminin/fibronectin-coated dishes in astrocyte media consisting of N2 medium with 10 ng/ml–1 of HB-EGF (R&D Systems, No. 259-HE). After sorting, CD44-positive cells were passaged every week for 4 weeks and then every other week until astrocyse processes started to detach. Commercial fetal astrocytes (SciCell) were initially maintained in a commercial medium containing serum (SciCell). The serum-containing medium was switched to N2 with 10 ng/ml–1 of HB-EGF for at least two passages before experiments were performed.

Generation of NFIA- and SOX9-inducible constructs and lentiviral production and infection. NFIA and SOX9 were cloned from cdna by using hPSC-derived astroglial progenitors (d90). FLW-tet-O-GFP (Addgene, No. 30130) was digested with the restriction enzyme EcoRI to remove the GFP fragment, and either NFIA or SOX9 was inserted using traditional ligation cloning. Plasmids containing NFIA, SOX9, FUSCIO-0 or M2-rIITA (Addgene, No. 20342), the packaging vector psPAX2 (Addgene, No. 12260) and the envelope pMDL2G (Addgene, No. 12259) were transfected into 293 T cells X-tremeGene HP (Sigma) at a molar ratio of 1:2:1. Virus was harvested at 48 and 72 h post-transfection and concentrated using AMICON Ultra-15 Centrifugal Filter Units (Millipore). NSCs were plated at 3.5 × 105 cells per cm2 on poly-L-ornithine/laminin/fibronectin-coated dishes. The cells were incubated with viral particles generated (as described above) for 16–20 h. The medium was then switched to NSC medium with 1–2 μg/ml–1 doxycycline and daily medium change for a minimum of 5 days. Cells were then detached using 0.05% trypsin and washed several times in preparation for CD44 labeling.

Intracelluar FACS analysis and sorting. For both live and fixed sorting, cells were dissociated using 0.05% trypsin and washed twice with phosphate buffered saline (PBS).

Fixed GFAP and CD44 analysis. Using the BD Cytofix/Cyto Perm kit (BD), 1 × 106 cells were resuspended in 1 ml Cytofix and placed on ice for 1 h. The cells were then washed twice with 1× Cyto Perm Buffer and resuspended in 100 μl of 1× Cyto Perm Buffer. Alexa 647–conjugated CD44 (Biolegend) and unconjugated GFAP (Dako) were added to the cells, as described by the manufacturer, and incubated for 40 min on ice. The cells were then washed twice with 1× Cyto Perm Buffer and resuspended in 100 μl of 1× Cyto Perm Buffer for secondary labeling. For labeling of GFAP, Alexa 488 or 555 was added to the cells for 30 min on ice. Cells were washed twice with sort buffer and submitted to the sorter. CD44-positive cells were maintained in astrocyse induction medium (N2 with 10 ng/ml–1 heparin-bound EGF (R&D Systems) and 10 ng/ml–1 leukemia inhibitory factor (Peprotech) without doxycycline.

Neuro-ectodermal differentiation of hPSCs towards ventral spinal cord. Similar to the dorsal forebrain, 2.5–3.0 × 104 cells per cm2 were plated onto Matrigel (BD Biosciences)-coated dishes in E8 containing 10 μM ROCK inhibitor (No. Y-27632). The following day (day 0), the cells were switched to Essential 8 medium containing 100 nM LDN193189 (LDN, Stemgent) and 10 μM SB341542 (SB, Tocris LS8). The medium was changed every day for nine additional days (d8) as previously described. To better promote an anterior forebrain fate (that is, for iPSCs), we added 2 μM of XAV939 (Stemgent) in addition to LSB for 3 days (d8–d2) then from d3–8 maintained the cells in LSB without XAV939.

Generation of cortical rosettes/NSCs. From d8, the cells are dissociated with Accutase for 30 min at 37 °C and passed through a 40 μm cell strainer. The cells were resuspended in N2 medium with brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF), ascorbic acid, sonic hedgehog (SHH) and fibroblast growth factor 8 (FGF8) (N2-BASF8), and plated at 5 × 104 cells on air-dried poly-L-ornithine/laminin/ fibronectin-coated plates in 20 μl droplets. The droplets were incubated at 37 °C for 15–20 min. N2-BASF8 medium containing 10 μM ROCKi medium was overlaid on the droplets and the medium changed every day. Rosette formation was expected within 2–3 days (d12).

Following rosette formation, cells were dissociated with Accutase and replated at relatively high density (3.5–4.0 × 105 cells per cm2) to prevent spontaneous differentiation. Cultured cells were assayed for correct regional patterning, differentiated or frozen.

Expression analysis. Fixed and live cells were incubated with the secondary antibody for 30 min. Nuclei were identified by staining the cells with Hoechst 33342 (Molecular Probes) and Alexa 488, Alexa 555 or Alexa 647 (Thermo) were added to the cells with incubation for 30 min. Nuclei were stained by staining the cells with 4’,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI, Thermo). A list of antibodies used in this study is given in Supplementary Table 3.

Immunoblot. Cells were harvested and lysed with RIPA buffer, and protein was quantified using Precision Red (Cytoskeleton, Inc). Ten micrograms of protein was loaded to analyze protein expression. Full scans of blots for Fig. 2b (Supplementary Fig. 22), Fig. 4f (Supplementary Fig. 23), Fig. 4k (Supplementary Fig. 24) and Supplementary Fig. 7c (Supplementary Fig. 25) are available.

Cytokine treatment of human astrocytes. Astrocytes were plated at 2 × 105 cells per cm2 and treated with 3 ng/ml–1 IL-1β (Sigma), 30 ng/ml–1 tumor necrosis factor (Cell Signaling, Tech) and 400 ng/ml–1 C1q (MyBioSource) for 24 h. The medium was isolated and spun down to remove debris, and C3 levels were measured using the Human Complement C3 ELISA Kit (Abcam) as per the manufacturer's instructions.
Cell cycle analysis. Cells with dissociated nuclei were isolated using resuspension buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl, 30 mM NaCl, 20 mM MgCl₂) and subsequently the resuspension buffer with 1% NP-40 for cell cycle analysis. Propidium iodine (250 ng/ml) was added to the cells followed by analysis with FACS. A minimum of 10,000 events were analyzed per condition. Data acquired were imported and analyzed by Flowjo software.

Transplantation of NSCs, glial precursors and astrocytes into adult cortex. All surgeries were performed according to National Institutes of Health guidelines and were approved by the local Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee, the Institutional Biosafety Committee and the Embryonic Stem Cell Research Committee. A total of eight (or 20) [CF1] NOD-SCID IL2-Rγc null mice (20–35 g; Jackson Laboratory) received cell transplantation. Mice were anesthetized with isoflurane 3% at a maintenance flow rate of 2–3%. A total of 7.5–10^4 H1-GFP-derived astrocytes in 2 μl were transplanted through a 5 μl Hamilton syringe at a rate of 1 μl/min by an infusion pump attached to a stereotactic micromanipulator, into the genu of the corpus callosum (coordinates: AP +0.740, ML −1.00, DV −2.30 from bregma). A total of 2×10^4 LTNSCs 2 μl were transplanted into the subcortical gray matter, striatum (coordinates AP 150,000 cells per cm² and co-cultured for an additional 5 days. Cells were then dissociated and replated to generate neural rosettes, and further differentiated hPSCs towards a neuro-ectodermal fate (see above). Neuro-ectodermal cells were then dissociated and replated to generate neural rosettes, and further differentiated into neurons with dox for 5 days and sorted for CD44. Cells were isolated and bisulfite conversion and sequencing.

Tissue processing. Mice were euthanized with an overdose of pentobarbital given intraperitoneally, then transcardially perfused with PBS followed by paraformaldehyde 4%. Brains were removed after gentle dissection, mounted overnight in 4% paraformaldehyde then soaked in 30% sucrose for 2–3 days. Brain coronal sectioning (30 μm at −20°C) was performed by cryostat after embedding with Optimal Cutting Temperature (OCT) (Sakura Finetek).

Calcium imaging. Human pluripotent stem cell-derived neural stem cells, astrocytes or primary astrocytes (ScienCell) were plated onto poly-l-ornithine/laminin/fibronectin-coated 0.5 mm black AT dishes (Biotechps) and used for calcium imaging as previously described19 between days 60 and 120. Cultures were incubated with 5 μM Fura-2 (Thermo) for 30 min at 37°C and dishes were mounted on a Δ Heated Lid w/Perfusion system (Biotechps). Cultures were perfused with normal Tyrode's solution (pH 7.4) containing 125 mM NaCl, 5 mM KCl, 25 mM glucose, 25 mM HEPES, 1 mM CaCl₂ and 0.1% (w/v) bovine serum albumin. Cultures were supplemented with glutamate (100 μM), ATP (30 μM) or KCl (65 mM) for 1 min and imaged every 30 s at 340 and 380 nm at a minimum of seven positions. Time-lapse images were analyzed using FIJI (ImageJ) by calculating the signal ratio between 380 and 340 nm.

Glutamate excitotoxicity assay. Cortical neurons were derived by differentiating hPSCs towards a neuro-ectodermal fate (see above). Neuro-ectodermal cells were then dissociated and replated to generate neural rosettes, and further differentiated into neurons by treatment with 10 μM of a γ-secretase inhibitor (DAPT). Neurons were then replated and assayed for maturation markers or glutamate excitotoxicity19 with or without astrocytes. For glutamate excitotoxicity studies, 100,000 neurons per cm² were plated on poly-l-ornithine/laminin/fibronectin dishes in N2 medium with BDNF, ascorbic acid and GDNF. Neuronal insulted astrocytes were added at 150,000 cells per cm² and co-cultured for an additional 5 days. Cells were then treated with 100 or 500 μM (final) glutamate for 1 h in Kanges' buffered salt solution and recovered in N2 medium with BDNF, ascorbic acid and GDNF. Resazurin was added 48 h after glutamate treatment to determine cell viability.

Bisulfit conversion and sequencing. LTNSCs infected with NFIA were treated with dNTPs for 5 days and sorted for CD44. Cells were isolated and bisulfite conversion was performed using the EZ DNA Methylation- Direct Kit (Zymo) as described by the manufacturer. Primers for the regions of the GPAT STAT3 binding site were described previously20. Briefly, P1 and P2 correspond to −1,500 bp from the start site of GPAT (P1 forward: 5′|GGGTTGCTGCATTCTGC| and P2 forward: 5′|GTAATTTGGGTGGGT|, P1 reverse: 5′|CGGTACTGCATGTCCACA|P2 reverse: 5′|CGGTACTGCATGTCCACA|, P2 reverse: 5′|CGGTACTGCATGTCCACA|. The GPAT promoter region was amplified using ZymoTaq Premix (Zymo) and cloned into the TOPO Zero Blunt vector (Invitrogen). A minimum of ten colonies per condition were sent for sequencing.

Electrophysiology. Whole-cell recordings were performed as described previously21, with slight modifications. Briefly, neurons were visualized using a Zeiss microscope (Axioskop) equipped with a x4 objective and x40 water immersion. Neurons were recorded at 23–24°C. Input resistance was measured from voltage response elicited by intracellular injection of a current pulse (–100 pA, 200 ms). Membrane voltage was low-pass filtered at 5 kHz and digitized at 10 kHz, using a Multiclamp 700B amplifier connected to a DigiData1322 A interface (Axon Instruments) using Clampfit 10.2 software (Molecular Devices). Liquid junction potentials were calculated and corrected offline22. During recording, neurons were perfused with freshly prepared artificial cerebrospinal fluid (126 mM NaCl, 26 mM NaHCO3, 3.6 mM KCl, 1.2 mM NaH2PO4, 1.5 mM MgCl2, 2.5 mM CaCl2, and 10 mM glucose), and the solution was saturated with 95% O2–5% CO2. Pipette solution for all recordings contained 140 mM CsCl, 10 mM NaCl, 10 mM HEPES, 0.5 mM EGTA, 3 mM Mg-ATP, 0.2 mM Na-GTP and 10 mM Na2-phosphocreatine. pH adjusted to 7.3 with CO2. Bicuculline methochloride (20 μM, Tocris), 1 μM strychnine (HCI) (Sigma) and 0.5 μM tetrodotoxin (TTX, Alomone Labs) were added to the artificial cerebrospinal fluid for mEPSC recordings to block gamma-aminobutyric acid receptors, glycine receptors and Na channels, respectively. Neurons were held at −80 mV and continuous recording of mEPSCs was made using Axoscope software (Molecular Devices). Data processing and analysis were performed using MiniAnalysis (Synaptosoft) and Clampfit 10 (Molecular Devices). Events were detected by setting the threshold value, followed by visual confirmation of mEPSC detection. Statistical analysis was performed using Student’s t-test or Mann–Whitney rank sum test as necessary, with a significant difference at P<0.05. Data are expressed as mean ± standard error.

Reporting Summary. Further information on research design is available in the Nature Research Reporting Summary linked to this article.

Data availability
The data and reagents in this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request. All FASTQ files and Supplementary files were uploaded to National Center for Biotechnology Information Gene Expression Omnibus under accession code GSE104232.

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**Statistical parameters**

When statistical analyses are reported, confirm that the following items are present in the relevant location (e.g. figure legend, table legend, main text, or Methods section).

| n/a | Confirmed |
|-----|-----------|
| ❌☐ | The exact sample size (n) for each experimental group/condition, given as a discrete number and unit of measurement |
| ☑☐ | An indication of whether measurements were taken from distinct samples or whether the same sample was measured repeatedly |
| ☑☐ | The statistical test(s) used AND whether they are one- or two-sided |
| ☑☐ | Only common tests should be described solely by name; describe more complex techniques in the Methods section. |
| ☑☐ | A description of all covariates tested |
| ☑☐ | A description of any assumptions or corrections, such as tests of normality and adjustment for multiple comparisons |
| ❌☐ | A full description of the statistics including central tendency (e.g. means) or other basic estimates (e.g. regression coefficient) AND variation (e.g. standard deviation) or associated estimates of uncertainty (e.g. confidence intervals) |
| ☑☐ | For null hypothesis testing, the test statistic (e.g. F, t, r) with confidence intervals, effect sizes, degrees of freedom and P value noted Give P values as exact values whenever suitable. |
| ☑☐ | For Bayesian analysis, information on the choice of priors and Markov chain Monte Carlo settings |
| ☑☐ | For hierarchical and complex designs, identification of the appropriate level for tests and full reporting of outcomes |
| ☑☐ | Estimates of effect sizes (e.g. Cohen's d, Pearson's r), indicating how they were calculated |
| ☑☐ | Clearly defined error bars State explicitly what error bars represent (e.g. SD, SE, CI) |

*Our web collection on statistics for biologists may be useful.*

**Software and code**

Policy information about [availability of computer code](#).

**Data collection**

External RNA sequencing data was downloaded using the SRA Toolkit (NCBI).

**Data analysis**

ATAC-Seq analysis was performed following the workflow: https://www.encodeproject.org/atac-seq/ which was aligned to hg38 and uses MACS (v2.2.1) and HOMER (v4.9.1) software for peak and motif identification. The IGV browser (v2.3.97) was used to visualize peak locations.

RNA-Seq analysis was performed following the workflow: https://www.bioconductor.org/help/workflows/rnaseqGene/ which was aligned to hg38 and uses Bowtie2 (v2.2.5) for alignment, HTSeq (v0.6.1p1) for generation of a counts table and DESeq2 (v1.20.0) for differential gene expression analysis. The IGV browser (v2.3.97) was used to visualize RNA sequencing mapping. The Imaris software was used to identify overlap of pre and post synaptic proteins using signal thresholding.

Fiji/ImageJ (v2.0.0-rc-68) was used to analyze and quantify the calcium imaging as well as analysis of the FUCCI-O timelapse movies. Flowjo (v10.4) software was used to gate and quantify the number of cells.
Data

Policy information about availability of data

All manuscripts must include a data availability statement. This statement should provide the following information, where applicable:
- Accession codes, unique identifiers, or web links for publicly available datasets
- A list of figures that have associated raw data
- A description of any restrictions on data availability

Data generated during this study is deposited at NCBI GEO (Both ATAC-seq and RNA-seq) under accession number GSE104232.

Field-specific reporting

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Life sciences study design

All studies must disclose on these points even when the disclosure is negative.

Sample size: A minimum of 3 independent biological replicates were analyzed for the study. The choice of 3 was the minimum in terms of reproducibility and manageable within the time frame. We believe the sample size was sufficient as our experiments were highly reproducible within those 3 experiments.

Data exclusions: hPSC differentiations where cultures did not meet the expected identity were discarded. Samples that resulted in poor RNA or protein quality were discarded. Although the exclusions were not pre-established, our goal was to trigger the gliogenic switch in neural stem cells as well as other regionally distinct neural stem cell populations. If we could not generate them for any particular reason, these differentiations would not be able to address our main question. Technically, if we could not isolate good quality and quantity of RNA or protein we could not extract information from these samples.

Replication: Aside from technical issues, the findings for NFIA-induced experiments were reproducible through a minimum of 3 biological replicates in LTNSCs. Astrocytes generated from NFIA were replicated and extended to other pluripotent stem cell lines (both ES and iPS).

Randomization: Experiments were not randomized however additional members of the laboratory have performed independent experiments using this method and have successfully generated astrocytes.

Blinding: Experiments were not blinded because we sought to investigate the role of NFIA in triggering glial competency and the results were clear where neural stem cells exposed to NFIA lead to astrocyte differentiation versus neural stem cells not exposed remain as stem cells or becomes neurons.

Reporting for specific materials, systems and methods

Materials & experimental systems

n/a  Involved in the study
☑ ☐ Unique biological materials
☑ ☐ Antibodies
☑ ☐ Eukaryotic cell lines
☒ ☐ Palaeontology
☑ ☐ Animals and other organisms
☑ ☐ Human research participants

Methods

n/a  Involved in the study
☒ ☐ ChiP-seq
☑ ☐ Flow cytometry
☒ ☐ MRI-based neuroimaging
**Unique biological materials**

Policy information about availability of materials

Obtaining unique materials There are no restrictions on availability of materials as the majority were commercial. Our unique reagent (FUW-NFIA, FUW-SOX9) will be submitted to Addgene.

**Antibodies**

| Antibodies used | Antigen Supplier Catalog Number | Host Species | Clone name | Assay | Dilution |
|-----------------|--------------------------------|--------------|------------|-------|----------|
| NFIA | Sigma HPA006111 | Rabbit Polyclonal | Immunofluorescence | 1:500 |
| GFAP | Biolegend 829401 | Chicken Polyclonal | Immunofluorescence | 1:1000 |
| GFAP | Dako 2033429-2 | Rabbit Polyclonal | Immunofluorescence | 1:1000 |
| GFP | Abcam ab13970 | Chicken Polyclonal | Immunofluorescence | 1:1000 |
| SLC1A2 | Abcam ab1416 | Rabbit Polyclonal | Immunofluorescence | 1:1000 |
| SYN1 | Sigma S193 | Rabbit Polyclonal | Immunofluorescence and Western Blot | 1:250 |
| MUNC13.1 | Synaptic Systems 126103 | Rabbit Polyclonal | Western Blot | 1:1000 |
| human cytoplasm | Takara “Y40410 “ | Mouse unknown | Immunofluorescence | 1:500 |
| human GFAP | Takara Y40420 | Mouse unknown | Immunofluorescence | 1:500 |
| CCNA1 | Santa Cruz sc-271645 | Goat Polyclonal | Western Blot | 1:1000 |
| CDKN1A | Thermo MAS-14949 | Mouse R.229.6 | Western Blot | 1:1000 |
| GAPDH | Fitzgerald 10R-G109A | Mouse 6C5 | Western Blot | 1:10000 |
| POU5F1/OCT4 | Cell Signaling Technology 2750S | Rabbit Polyclonal | Immunofluorescence | 1:250 |
| SOX2 | Biolegend 630802 | Rabbit Polyclonal | Immunofluorescence | 1:250 |
| PLZF | R&D MAB2944 | Mouse 6318100 | Immunofluorescence | 1:250 |
| AQP4 | Santa Cruz “sc-9888 “ | Goat Polyclonal | Immunofluorescence | 1:100 |
| MAP2 | Sigma M1406 | Mouse AP-20 | Immunofluorescence | 1:250 |
| NESTIN | NeuroMics “MO15012 “ | Mouse 196908 | Immunofluorescence | 1:500 |
| OTX2 | NeuroMics GT15095 | Goat Polyclonal | Immunofluorescence | 1:500 |
| FOXG1 | Neuracell NCFAB | Rabbit Polyclonal | Immunofluorescence | 1:500 |
| ZO-1 | BD Biosciences 610966 | Mouse 1/ZO-1 | Immunofluorescence | 1:500 |
| CD44 | Cell Signaling Technology 3570 | Mouse 156-3C11 | Immunofluorescence | 1:500 |
| CD44 | Biolegend 103018 | Mouse IM7 | FACS | 1:500 |
| HOMER1 | Synaptic Systems | Mouse 160 011 | Mouse unknown | Immunofluorescence | 1:100 |
| HOXB4 | DSHB 112 | Mouse unknown | anti-Hoxb4 | Mouse unknown | Immunofluorescence | 1:100 |

**Validation**

| Antigen Validated by Manufacturer | NFIA human validated |
|----------------------------------|----------------------|
| NFAP human validated             |                      |
| GFAP human validated             |                      |
| GFP yes                          |                      |
| SLC1A2 human validated           |                      |
| SYN1 human validated             |                      |
| MUNC13.1 human validated        |                      |
| human cytoplasm human validated  |                      |
| human GFAP human validated       |                      |
| TUJ1 human validated             |                      |
| CCNA1 human validated            |                      |
| CDKN1A human validated           |                      |
| GAPDH human validated            |                      |
| POU5F1/OCT4 human validated      |                      |
| SOX2 human validated             |                      |
| PLZF human validated             |                      |
| AQP4 tested in mouse             |                      |
| MAP2 human validated             |                      |
| NESTIN human validated           |                      |
| OTX2 human validated             |                      |
| FOXG1 validated                  |                      |
| ZO-1 human validated             |                      |
| CD44 human validated             |                      |
| CD44 human validated             |                      |
| HOMER1 human validated           |                      |
| HOXB4 human validated            |                      |

**Eukaryotic cell lines**

Policy information about cell lines

Cell line source(s) H9 (WA-09), H1(WA-01) from the University of Wisconsin, Madison. MEL1 from University of Queensland. 41865-iPSC
Cell line source(s) | ("WT1"), 35659-iPSC ("ALS1"), 35673-iPSC ("ALS2"). Additional iPSCs 41866-iPSC ("WT2") and 35677-iPSC ("ALS3") were obtained from Coriell.

Authentication | hESCs were cell line authenticated by STR, the iPSC lines were not.

Mycoplasma contamination | All cell lines are regularly tested for mycoplasma and are negative.

Commonly misidentified lines (See ICLAC register) | No commonly misidentified lines are used in this study.

### Animals and other organisms

**Policy information about studies involving animals; ARRIVE guidelines recommended for reporting animal research**

**Laboratory animals** | Mus musculus, NOD.Cg-Prkdc<scid>Il2rg<tm1Wjl>/SzJ both female and male. Age of mice: 6-8 weeks.

**Wild animals** | None.

**Field-collected samples** | None.

### Flow Cytometry

**Plots**

- The axis labels state the marker and fluorochrome used (e.g. CD4-FITC).
- The axis scales are clearly visible. Include numbers along axes only for bottom left plot of group (a ‘group’ is an analysis of identical markers).
- All plots are contour plots with outliers or pseudocolor plots.
- A numerical value for number of cells or percentage (with statistics) is provided.

**Methodology**

- **Sample preparation** | See Flow Report document
- **Instrument** | See Flow Report document
- **Software** | See Flow Report document
- **Cell population abundance** | See Flow Report document
- **Gating strategy** | See Flow Report document

- Tick this box to confirm that a figure exemplifying the gating strategy is provided in the Supplementary Information.
Flow Cytometry Reporting Summary

Data presentation

For all flow cytometry data, confirm that:

1. The axis labels state the marker and fluorochrome used (e.g. CD4-FITC).
2. The axis scales are clearly visible. Include numbers along axes only for bottom left plot of group (a 'group' is an analysis of identical markers).
3. All plots are contour plots with outliers or pseudocolor plots.
4. A numerical value for number of cells or percentage (with statistics) is provided.

Methodological details

5. Describe the sample preparation. For live sorts: samples were dissociated with 0.5% Trypsin, inactivated with media containing 10% serum and resuspended in sort buffer (PBS, 2% fetal bovine serum, 1mM EDTA). Primary antibodies (CD44-A647-conjugated)

For intracellular FACS analysis: Samples were dissociated with 0.5% Trypsin, inactivated with media containing 10% serum and washed 2 times with PBS. Samples were fixed in the CytoFix solution (BD) for 1 hour on ice. After fixation, cells were washed 3 times with PBS and stored at 4 degree.

For cell cycle analysis: Samples were dissociated with 0.5% Trypsin, inactivated with media containing 10% serum and washed 2 times with PBS. Nuclei were then isolated.

6. Identify the instrument used for data collection. Samples were sorted using the FACS Aria IIu (BD). Analysis were performed on either the LSR II or Fortessa 3 (BD).

7. Describe the software used to collect and analyze the flow cytometry data. The software used to collect data was FACS Diva and the subsequent analysis of the .fcs files were performed using Flowjo 10.

8. Describe the abundance of the relevant cell populations within post-sort fractions. CD44 positive cell fractions underwent post sort analysis and was found to have > 95% purity.

9. Describe the gating strategy used. The gating strategy is as follows:
   1. Cells are filtered for debris using SSC-A/FSC-A
   2. Cells are then filtered by SSC-W/SSC-H to isolate singlets
   3. For live sorts, cells had to be DAPI negative
   4. Neurogenic neural stem cells (for example, CD44 negative) are used as a control for CD44 positive sorting.

Tick this box to confirm that a figure exemplifying the gating strategy is provided in the Supplementary Information.