

Distinct effects of tubulin isotype mutations on neurite growth in *Caenorhabditis elegans*

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Running title: Tubulin mutations and neurite growth

Key words: Microtubules, tubulins, Neurite growth, Touch receptor neurons, *Caenorhabditis elegans*

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Abstract

Tubulins, the building block of microtubules (MTs), play a critical role in both supporting and regulating neurite growth. Eukaryotic genomes contain multiple α and β tubulin isotypes, and their dominant missense mutations cause a wide range of neurodevelopmental defects in humans. Thus, identifying the specific functions of each tubulin isotype and evaluating how particular mutations would change those functions during neuronal morphogenesis is fundamental for understanding MT functions in the nervous system. Using the *C. elegans* touch receptor neurons (TRNs), we analyzed the effects of 67 missense mutations in the *mec-12*/ α -tubulin and *mec-7*/ β -tubulin genes on neurite growth. Three types of mutations emerged: 1) loss-of-function mutations, which are found throughout the molecule and cause mild defects in neurite growth; 2) antimorphic mutations, which map to the GTP binding site and intradimer and interdimer interaction interfaces and significantly reduced MT stability, causing severe defects in the growth of all TRN neurites; and 3) neomorphic mutations, which map to the exterior surface and increased MT stability, causing ectopic neurite growth. Such structure-function analysis revealed a causal relationship between tubulin structure and interactions and MT stability, which in turn affects neuronal morphogenesis. Importantly, we engineered several disease-associated human tubulin mutations into *C. elegans* genes and examine their impact on neuronal development at cellular level. We also discovered a MT-destabilizing α -tubulin isotype TBA-7, whose loss led to the formation of hyperstable MTs and the generation of ectopic neurites; the lack of potential sites for polyamination and polyglutamination on TBA-7 may be responsible for this destabilization.

Introduction

Microtubules (MTs) play important roles in many aspects of neurite development, including the formation, extension, guidance, and maintenance of neurites (reviewed in DENT *et al.* 2011; PROKOP 2013; SAINATH AND GALLO 2015). The “search and capture” model (MITCHISON AND KIRSCHNER 1984) suggests that the dynamic instability of MTs allows them to explore the growth cone periphery until they are captured by stabilized actin filaments or membrane receptors enriched at the side of the growth cone responding to a guidance cue (TANAKA *et al.* 1995; CHALLACOMBE *et al.* 1996; SCHAEFER *et al.* 2008; QU *et al.* 2013). This capture transiently stabilizes MTs against catastrophe and enables MT elongation in the direction that the growth cone has turned. In addition to providing physical support for the neurite growth that follows the changes in actin dynamics, MTs also play an instructive role for neurite guidance. Since local application of the MT-stabilizing drug paclitaxel (also known as taxol) induced growth cone attraction and of the MT-destabilizing drug nocodazole induced repulsion (BUCK AND ZHENG 2002), signals that act by altering MT stability appear to directly initiate growth cone turning. Indeed, the guidance molecule Wnt can induce growth cone remodeling by changing the organization of MT structure through the inactivation of MT-plus end binding protein Adenomatous Polyposis Coli (PURRO *et al.* 2008). These results indicate that the regulation of MT dynamics is crucial for neurite growth and guidance, but how MT stability is controlled either locally at specific sites of the growth cone or globally in the entire neuron is not well understood.

As the building blocks of MTs, α - and β -tubulins are crucial determinants of MT stability. Eukaryotic genomes contain multiple tubulin genes encoding different isotypes (SULLIVAN 1988; MCKEAN *et al.* 2001) that are expressed in spatially and temporally distinct patterns (LEANDRO-

GARCIA *et al.* 2010). Different tubulin isotypes confer specific dynamic properties on MTs in tubulin polymerization assays *in vitro* (PANDA *et al.* 1994) and are not functionally equivalent *in vivo* in *Drosophila* (HOYLE AND RAFF 1990) or in single-celled organisms, such as *Tetrahymena thermophile* (PUCCIARELLI *et al.* 2012). These observations support the “multi-tubulin hypothesis,” which proposes that distinct tubulin isotypes impart specific properties onto MTs, so they can perform particular cellular functions (FULTON AND SIMPSON 1976; CLEVELAND 1987). Moreover, tubulins also undergo a range of complex post-translational modification, which affect the dynamics of MTs and their interaction with other proteins (reviewed by SONG AND BRADY 2015). In neurons specifically, stable axonal MTs are more detyrosinated, acetylated, and glutamylated, whereas the dynamic MTs in the growth cone are more tyrosinated (LIAO AND GUNDERSEN 1998; KONISHI AND SETOU 2009). Tubulin isotypes and modifications at the C-terminal tail also control the velocity and processivity of MT motor proteins and microtubule depolymerization rates *in vitro* (SIRAJUDDIN *et al.* 2014). Therefore, post-translational modifications on different tubulins by a set of enzymes may generate a “tubulin code” that can be read by microtubule-associated proteins (MAPs), which regulate the organization of MTs and their interaction with other cellular components (VERHEY AND GAERTIG 2007; YU *et al.* 2015).

The clinical importance of tubulin genes in the development of the nervous system has been highlighted by the recent finding that patients carrying mutations in α - and β - tubulin genes showed microcephaly, lissencephaly, pachygyria, and other cortical malformations, as well as a range of axon guidance defects, including agenesis or hypoplasia of the corpus callosum, internal capsule, commissural fibers, and corticospinal tracts, depending on the mutations (TISCHFIELD *et al.* 2011). So far, based on three summaries (BAHI-BUISSON *et al.* 2014; LIU AND DWYER 2014; CHAKRABORTI *et al.* 2016), 60 point mutations in α -tubulin genes (51 in TUBA1A, 1 in

TUBA3E, and 8 in TUBA4A), one splicing-affecting intronic deletion in TUBA8, 48 point mutations in β -tubulin genes (2 in TUBB2A, 24 in TUBB2B, 19 in TUBB3, and 3 in TUBB5), and one exonic deletion in TUBB2B are known to cause tubulin-related neurological disorders in heterozygous carriers (Table S4); all mutations, except for the TUBA8 deletion, appear to have dominant-negative effects. Although mutated residues are found throughout the molecules, many are found in region predicted to mediate either GTP binding, heterodimer stability, inter-dimer interaction, or association with motor proteins and other MAPs (TISCHFIELD *et al.* 2011). Despite some *in vitro* studies on the effects of the mutations on tubulin folding, heterodimer assembly, and MT growth (JAGLIN *et al.* 2009; TIAN *et al.* 2010; TISCHFIELD *et al.* 2010), very few *in vivo* studies can systematically test how these different tubulin mutations impact axon guidance and extension in living organisms. Moreover, the complexity of the mammalian nerve system makes the analysis of the developmental consequences of these tubulin mutations very difficult.

Here, we use the morphologically simple and well-defined touch receptor neurons (TRNs) in the nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans* to model the effects of tubulin mutations on neurite growth. By analyzing a large collection of missense mutations in several tubulin genes, we found that these mutations caused three morphologically distinct defects in TRN neurite outgrowth: 1) the shortening of all TRN neurites; 2) the specific shortening of posteriorly-directed neurites; and 3) the production of ectopic posteriorly-directed neurites. The structural location of the mutated residue correlated with the resulting phenotype. Many tubulin mutations characterized in our study affect the same amino acid residue or region as the disease-causing mutations. We generated several such human mutations in *C. elegans* tubulin genes through genome editing and found that they also caused distinct neurite growth defects that fall into the above categories. Thus, our system may be used to understand the different effects of the clinically identified

tubulin mutations and to facilitate their classification. Moreover, we found that null mutations in two α -tubulin genes led to very different phenotypes, supporting the hypothesis that tubulin isoforms perform specific and often non-overlapping roles in neurite development.

Results

A genetic screen for TRN neurite growth defects

The six mechanosensory TRNs (ALML/R, PLML/R, AVM, and PVM) in *C. elegans* are a useful model to study axonal outgrowth and guidance because of their well-defined morphology (CHALFIE AND SULSTON 1981). The ALM and PLM neurons are two pairs of embryonically derived, bilaterally symmetric cells, whereas the AVM and PVM neurons arise from postembryonic lineages. All six neurons have a long anteriorly-directed neurite (AN); in addition, the two PLM neurons have a posteriorly-directed neurite (PN), making them bipolar. Except in PVM, the AN branches at its distal end; we refer to this branch as the synaptic branch.

Previous studies had identified several components needed for proper TRN outgrowth: UNC-6/Netrin (HEDGECOCK *et al.* 1990), LIN-44/Wnt proteins (HILLIARD AND BARGMANN 2006), and a few other signaling molecules (DU AND CHALFIE 2001). To systematically search for genes involved in the regulation of neurite growth, we performed an extensive genetic screen to isolate mutants with defects in TRN neurite extension. We mutagenized a strain (TU4069) carrying the *uIs134* transgene, which allows RFP expression from the TRN-specific *mec-17* promoter, and screened the progeny of individual F1 animals representing 20,200 haploid genomes. Although we focused on isolating mutants whose TRNs had morphological defects, we also obtained mutants with abnormal numbers of fluorescently labeled cells. This screen yielded 80 mutants. We identified the phenotype-causing mutations for 62 mutants; the remaining mutants either were of low penetrance (7) or did not yield a confirmable mutation (11). The

characterized mutations represented 26 genes. Mutations in 8 genes caused the loss of TRN marker expression or its expression in extra cells, and mutations in 2 genes specifically affected the development of the postembryonic AVM and PVM neurons (Table S1); most of these mutant phenotypes were previously described and thus are not discussed here. Mutations in the remaining 16 genes resulted in various TRN neurite extension defects, which were organized into seven phenotypic categories (A-G, Table S2). This screen is likely to be near saturation because 1) the number of haploid genomes examined is 10 times the reciprocal of the average mutation rate (5×10^{-4}) for null alleles (BRENNER 1974); and 2) nine of the ten genes represented by multiple alleles had three or more alleles.

The 16 genes whose products regulate neurite outgrowth and guidance (Table S2) encode proteins that affect either extracellular signaling to the TRNs, intracellular signaling, or effectors that are directly involved in cytoskeleton rearrangement and growth cone movement. Molecules affecting extracellular signaling include the guidance protein LIN-44/Wnt and its receptor LIN-17/Frizzled, and three proteins, UNC-23, MUA-3, and SUP-26 not acting within the TRNs. PLM neurites in *lin-44* and *lin-17* mutants failed to navigate towards the anterior (category D) because of the repellent activity of the Wnt signal (HILLIARD AND BARGMANN 2006; ZHENG *et al.* 2015a). *unc-23* (category G) and *mua-3* (category B) are only expressed in muscle cells (BERCHER *et al.* 2001; PAPSDORF *et al.* 2014), and their mutant phenotypes could not be rescued by TRN-specific expression of the wild-type gene. Similarly, mutations in *sup-26* (category B), which encodes a RNA-binding protein and is expressed in most somatic cells (MAPES *et al.* 2010), could not be rescued by TRN-specific expression of the wild-type gene. We have not investigated how these molecules affect neurite outgrowth and guidance in a non-cell autonomous manner.

Genes encoding molecules that are presumably involved with intracellular signaling include *unc-51*, *mec-15*, *dsh-1*, *egl-5*, *unc-73*, and *tiam-1*. *unc-51* encodes a serine/threonine-protein kinase; mutation of *unc-51* caused general outgrowth and guidance defects (category A; DU AND CHALFIE 2001). *mec-15*, which is needed for touch sensitivity (Au and Chalfie, 1989), encodes a F-box protein with WD repeats and so is likely to mediate ubiquitination and protein degradation (category E; BOUNOUTAS *et al.* 2009b). Mutation of *mec-15* caused shortening of both PLM neurites. We previously reported that DSH-1/Dishevelled (category B) negatively modulates the activity of Wnt signaling to allow posterior outgrowth against the Wnt gradients (ZHENG *et al.* 2015a) and that *egl-5* (category B), which encodes a Abd-B-like Hox transcription factor, promotes PLM differentiation by inducing the growth of PLM-PN and at least one downstream effector (ZHENG *et al.* 2015b). We also identified guanine nucleotide exchange factors (GEFs) [UNC-73/Trio (category E) and TIAM-1 (category B)], which controls neurite extension towards the anterior and posterior, respectively (ZHENG *et al.* 2016).

In this study, we describe the role of the downstream effectors of directional neurite outgrowth, the presumed targets of extracellular and intracellular signaling: primarily tubulin isoforms (MEC-7/ β -tubulin, MEC-12/ α -tubulin, and TBA-7/ α -tubulin) and kinesin motor proteins (KLP-7 and KLP-11). MEC-7 and MEC-12 are expressed at high levels in the TRNs (HAMELIN *et al.* 1992; MITANI *et al.* 1993), which contain large diameter (15-protofilament, 15-p) MTs instead of the typical 11-protofilament (11-p) MTs found in all other cells (CHALFIE AND THOMSON 1979; SAVAGE *et al.* 1994). Combining the alleles isolated in our screen, created through genome editing, and previously obtained by our lab (SAVAGE *et al.* 1994) and the million mutation project (THOMPSON *et al.* 2013), we collected in total 78 alleles representing 48

different missense mutations in *mec-7* and 19 in *mec-12* (Table 1) and found that these mutations led to various outgrowth defects (category A, B, and C defined in Table S2).

***mec-7*/β-tubulin, but not *mec-12*/α-tubulin, is needed to form 15-p MTs**

Previous studies suggested that the α-tubulin MEC-12 and the β-tubulin MEC-7 form the TRN-specific 15-p MTs that assemble into bundles to fill up the TRN neurites and are required for the mechanosensory functions of TRNs (CHALFIE AND THOMSON 1979; CHALFIE AND AU 1989; SAVAGE *et al.* 1994; BOUNOUTAS *et al.* 2009a). We first examined the MT structures of the *mec-12(tm5083)* and *mec-7(ok2152)* deletion alleles using electron microscopy (EM; Figure 1A and S1). *mec-12* and *mec-7* knockout animals had on average 7 and 6 MTs, respectively, in a cross section of the ALM neurite compared to 31 MTs in the wild type animals (Figure 1B). MTs in *mec-12(tm5083)* animals had the same diameter as the 15-p MTs in the wild-type animals, whereas the diameter of MTs in *mec-7(ok2152)* animals was much smaller (16.6 nm; Figure 1). These results suggest that although the abundance of MTs is dependent on both MEC-12 and MEC-7, the formation of 15-p MTs requires MEC-7 but not MEC-12; other α-tubulin genes may compensate for the loss of MEC-12. In the absence of MEC-7, however, the 15-p MTs in TRNs are replaced by smaller, presumably 11-p, MTs.

The *mec-7* result is similar to our previous observations on *mec-7(e1506)* animals (the e1506 mutation alters the start codon and results in no detectable *mec-7* mRNA; CHALFIE AND THOMSON 1982; SAVAGE *et al.* 1994). In contrast, the *mec-12* result was unexpected, because the *mec-12[(e1607 (G144S))]* allele, which was regarded as the null allele in several previous studies (BOUNOUTAS *et al.* 2009a; BOUNOUTAS *et al.* 2011; HSU *et al.* 2014), had very few (~2) MTs, all of which had the small diameter (CHALFIE AND AU 1989; also this study). We found that *e1607* and several previously characterized missense alleles were in fact antimorphic (*anti*) gain-of-

function alleles and their phenotypes in neurite growth was also different from the *mec-12* loss-of-function (*lf*) mutants (see below).

Loss-of-function mutations in *mec-7*/β-tubulin but not *mec-12*/α-tubulin cause defects in posteriorly directed neurite growth

To test whether MEC-12 and MEC-7 were needed for neurite growth, we examined the outgrowth in animals with *mec-12* and *mec-7* null alleles. No defects in TRN outgrowth were found in animals mutant for four presumably null *mec-12* alleles [the knockout allele (*tm5083*) and three frameshift mutations (*u1026*, *u1027*, and *u1028*; Figure S1A)] (Figure 2). These results suggest that MTs made without MEC-12 can still respond normally to guidance cues and support neurite morphogenesis. Because *C. elegans* genome contains nine α-tubulin genes, other tubulin isotypes may compensate for the loss of MEC-12. One such candidate is TBA-7/α-tubulin, which is expressed and functions in TRNs (see below); however, *mec-12*; *tba-7* double mutants were still capable of forming and growing normal TRN neurites, suggesting further genetic redundancy.

Null mutations in *mec-7* (*ok2152*, *u156*, and *u440*; Figure S1B) only slightly affected the growth of anteriorly-directed neurites but markedly shortened the PLM-PN (Figure 2B). This result suggests that PLM-AN and PLM-PN, which arise at the same time in the embryo, have different tubulin requirements. Normally the PLM-AN extends anteriorly past the vulva to within 50 μm of ALM cell body. Lockhead et al. (2016) reported that the gap between the end of PLM and ALM cell body was wider in *mec-7 lf* mutants due to the shortening of the PLM-AN (LOCKHEAD et al. 2016). We also found a similar modest widening of the gap in *mec-7(ok2152)* animals, but 92% of the PLM-ANs still extended beyond the vulva (Figure 2B and D). Moreover, no shortening of the ALM-AN was seen. A more penetrant and striking defect, however, was the

fact that 78% of PLM-ANs in *mec-7(ok2152)* lacked a synaptic branch, which normally arises posterior to the vulva (Figure 2A and S2). In our analysis, 12 missense mutations (Table 1), including the newly isolated *u1020* (G34S) allele, caused a similar *mec-7* null phenotype.

The above results and EM data suggest that 1) the reduction of MT numbers in *mec-12 lf* mutants does not affect neurite development; 2) the smaller, generic 11-p MTs in *mec-7 lf* mutants are capable of supporting general neurite growth in TRNs; 3) the presence of 15-p MTs is essential for the normal extension of PLM-PN.

In addition to neurite growth, MTs are important for many other functions in TRNs, which were studied before using a few *mec-12* and *mec-7* missense alleles (BOUNOUTAS *et al.* 2009a; HSU *et al.* 2014). In this study, we systematically confirmed their phenotypes using the knockout mutants and also compared the null alleles with *gf* alleles for those phenotypes (Figure 3). Deletion of either *mec-12* or *mec-7* resulted in touch insensitivity, defects in the localization of pre-synaptic vesicles, and severe loss of MT acetylation, a mark for stable MTs. Since MEC-12 is the only α -tubulin isotype that contains the acetylation site (lysine 40) in *C. elegans*, the TRN-specific 15-p MTs are likely the only MTs that can be acetylated. The loss of *mec-7* and *mec-12* also induced a global reduction in protein levels through a mechanism dependent on the dual leucine zipper-bearing kinase DLK-1 (BOUNOUTAS *et al.* 2011). Interestingly, mutations in *dlk-1* restored the normal protein expression in *mec-7* and *mec-12* null mutants but failed to rescue the PLM-PN growth defects in *mec-7(ok2152)* animals (Figure 3D). Therefore, this PLM-PN defect is most likely a direct effect of the loss of MEC-7 and not the result of secondary changes in protein levels.

Several *mec-12* partial *lf* mutations affected only a subset of MT functions. *mec-12(e1605)* animals carrying the H192Y missense mutation were defective in mechanosensation but had

retained normal 15-p MT structures, tubulin acetylation, axonal transport, protein levels, and neurite growth patterns (Figure S3; BOUNOUTAS *et al.* 2009a). Similarly, *mec-12* mutants carrying the *u63* (E415K) or *gm379* (G416E) alleles were partially touch-insensitive but kept the large diameter MTs; however, these animals showed mistargeting of synaptic vesicles presumably because alterations in the EEGE (amino acid 414-417) motif increased affinity with the motor dynein (HSU *et al.* 2014). *u63* and *gm379* mutations also caused a slight decrease in tubulin acetylation and a partial reduction in protein production; *gm379* allele led to very mild defects in the growth of PLM-PN (Figure S3). These mutations may be useful in understanding some specific aspects of MT functions.

Antimorphic mutations in *mec-7*/β-tubulin led to severe, general defects in neurite outgrowth

We identified 19 strong *mec-7(anti)* gain-of-function missense mutations (Table 1) that caused severe shortening of all TRN neurites (Figure 2B); the ALM-AN did not reach the pharynx, the PLM-AN terminated before reaching the PVM cell body and the PLM-PN was shortened (Figure 2D). We also identified 4 weak *mec-7(anti)* mutants (Table 1), in which ALM-AN did not extend beyond the nerve ring and PLM-AN did not reach the vulva. All of these alleles, except the recessive *u430* (A97V) mutation, were either dominant or semi-dominant. Early studies of one of the dominant *mec-7* alleles, *e1343* (P171L), found that the mutants contained very few (2.8 ± 0.5 in a cross section) MTs (CHALFIE AND THOMSON 1982), which suggests that the *anti* mutations may block MT polymerization and thereby cause the severe neurite outgrowth defects. In fact, when compared to the *mec-7(ok2152)* null allele, these *anti* mutations caused stronger defects not only in neurite outgrowth, but also in touch sensitivity, synaptic vesicle transport, tubulin acetylation, and protein expression levels (Figure 3).

Mutations in *dlk-1* could block the reduction in global expression but failed to rescue the neurite growth defects (Figure 3D).

The amino acid residues mutated in the antimorphs are located in three regions on the structure of an $\alpha\beta$ tubulin dimer determined by electron crystallography (NOGALES *et al.* 1998): 1) the GTP/GDP binding pocket, 2) the intradimer interface, and 3) the lateral or longitudinal interdimer interface. All of which are important for tubulin polymerization. For example, *u430* (A97V), *u911* (P171S), *u957* (P171L), and *u262* (N226Y) mutations alter amino acids in direct contact with the GTP molecule, and *u48* (S176F) and *u449* (V179A) change amino acids in the B5 (the fifth β -strand)-to-H5 (the fifth α -helix) loop, which is crucial for forming the GTP/GDP binding pocket (Figure 4C). Two other mutations *u445* (M300V) and *u98* (M300T) substitute M300, which is located in a loop near the GTP binding site and may participate in positioning H7 (the seventh α -helix) with its critical N226, and thus indirectly affect GTP binding.

The second group of mutated residues in *mec-7(anti)* alleles is located in the intradimer interface, where β -tubulin makes contact with α -tubulin to form the heterodimer (red residues in Figure 4D). *u283* (P243L), *u958* (G244S), *n434* (N247I), and *u162* (D249N) mutations all affect the residues on the H7-to-H8 loop, which interacts extensively with residues on H1 and H2 of α -tubulin. Two other dominant mutations *gk286000* (A314V) and *u955* (A352T) changed residues that located on B8 and B9, respectively, which are physically adjacent to the H7-to-H8 loop at the interface. In addition, two prolines mutations, *u910* (P357L) and *u956* (P358L) possibly disrupted the B9-to-B10 loop (a.a. 356-361) critical for the positioning of B9.

The third group of *mec-7(anti)* alleles include *e1527* (V286D), *u18* (A393T), and *gk285997* (A393V), which affect residues involved in the lateral (V286) and longitudinal (A393)

interdimer interaction between one α/β -tubulin heterodimer and the neighboring one on the MTs. These mutations may interfere with the interaction between tubulin dimers.

Overall, the above β -tubulin antimorphs likely act as dominant-negative mutants by forming a poisonous α/β dimer, whose incorporation into MTs could terminate MT polymerization and induce instability; the mutated β -tubulin either cannot properly bind to GTP (the first group) or form misshaped α/β heterodimers that block the growing end of MTs (the second group) or disrupt the stacking of tubulin dimers (the third group). Therefore, changes in tubulin structure led to compromised MT elongation, which caused severe defects in neurite outgrowth, highlighting the importance of functional MTs in neuronal morphogenesis.

Antimorphic mutations in *mec-12*/ α -tubulin led to specific defects in posteriorly directed neurite growth

Similar to the *mec-7(anti)* mutations, we identified 5 *mec-12(anti)* mutations that also mapped to the GTP binding pocket [*u76* (D69N), *u950* (S140F), and *u1021* (G144S); labeled in red in Figure 4B], the intradimer interface [*u1016* (E97K); Figure 4D], or the interdimer interface [*u1019* (G354E)]. However, these *mec-12* antimorphs are mostly recessive, except for *u1019*, and did not cause strong, general defects in TRN neurite outgrowth. Instead, these mutations led to the specific shortening of PLM-PN, similar to the defects observed in *mec-7* null animals. Electron microscopy studies revealed that the *mec-12(anti)* mutants have very few small diameter MTs (*e.g.* ALM neurons in *u1021* animals had on average 2.7 MTs in a cross section and 15% of the 72 sections examined had no MTs; the diameter of MTs was 17.9 nm on average; Figure 1B). Therefore, *mec-12(anti)* mutations have distinct phenotypes from the *lf* alleles, which retained 15-p MTs and had no defects in neurite formation. The *e1607* (G144S) allele, which was previously thought to be a null allele, had the same molecular lesion as antimorph

u1021 and caused the shortening of PLM-PN (Figure 2E) and the loss of 15-p MTs (CHALFIE AND AU 1989); these results further confirm that *e1607* should not be regarded as a *lf* allele.

In addition, the *mec-12* antimorphs also resulted in touch insensitivity, reduction in tubulin acetylation, synaptic vesicle mistargeting, and decrease in TRN protein levels; these phenotypes were much stronger than the phenotypes of *mec-12* null alleles and were comparable to those produced by *mec-7* null mutations but not *mec-7 anti* mutations (Figure 3). One possible explanation for this phenotype is that MEC-12/ α -tubulin preferentially or exclusively binds to MEC-7/ β -tubulin, and MEC-12 mutant proteins could only sequester and disable MEC-7 but not other β -tubulin isotypes. As a result, either *anti* mutations in *mec-12* or *lf* mutations in *mec-7* could eliminate the specialized, large diameter, stable MTs that require the MEC-12/MEC-7 heterodimer, but neurite growth could still be supported by regular MTs formed with other α - and β -tubulin isotypes. Consistent with this hypothesis, *mec-7(lf); mec-12(anti)* double mutants did not show additive effects with regards to the neurite growth defects compared to either single mutant (Figure 2E).

The specific shortening of PLM-PN in *mec-7* null mutants and *mec-12* antimorphs may be caused by higher sensitivity of the posteriorly neurites to changes in microtubule stability compared to the anteriorly directed neurites. The normal 15-p MTs exist in great numbers and form bundles, which may provide stronger support for neurite growth than the few 11-p MTs found in the mutants. In fact, treatment with the MT-destabilizing drug colchicine (1mM) led to a similar shortening of the PLM-PN, phenocopying these mutations (Figure S4).

Neomorphic mutations in *mec-7* and *mec-12* resulted in the growth of ectopic neurites

A third category of *mec-7*/ β -tubulin mutations resulted in novel phenotypes, different from the effects of either *mec-7 lf* or *anti* mutations; these neomorphic (*neo*) alleles caused the

growth of an extra posteriorly directed neurite in ALM neurons, as well as the overextension of the PLM-PN. Three such alleles [*u170* (E407K), *u278* (C303Y), and *ky852* (P220S)] were previously reported (SAVAGE *et al.* 1994; KIRSZENBLAT *et al.* 2013), and three more [*gk895768* (T149I), *gk286003* (R162Q), and *u1017* (L377F)] were identified in this study. L377 and E407 are located on the H11 and H12 helices, respectively, both of which are on the exterior side of MTs and may, therefore, bind motor proteins and other MAPs (Figure 4E). R162 on the H4-to-B5 loop and C303 on the H9-to-B8 loop are also exposed on the MT surface, whereas T149 and P220 are located inside the tubulin structure and may be important for the folding of the protein. Among these six alleles, *u278* (C303Y) produced the strongest phenotype; the ectopic posterior neurite of ALM neurons often extended posteriorly to the PLM cell body (Figure 2B).

Interestingly, the C303S mutation in allele *gk286001* did not lead to similar excessive growth (Table 1), suggesting that tyrosine's bulky phenolic ring may be responsible for the phenotype.

We also found four *mec-12*/ α -tubulin *neo* alleles [*gk170196* (P32S), *gk915672* (E196K), *u917* (V260I), *gk515972* (V323I)], which generated similar but less severe phenotypes than the *mec-7(neo)* alleles, since the ectopic ALM-PN was shorter in the *mec-12* mutants than in the *mec-7* mutants (Figure 2F). This observation supports the notion that MEC-12 may be less critical than MEC-7 in controlling MT dynamics and neurite growth. E196 and V260 are located on loops on the exterior surface, whereas P32 and V323 may be involved in protein folding (Figure 4F).

The production of the ectopic ALM-PN requires both *mec-7* and *mec-12*. The *mec-12* null alleles suppressed the ALM posterior outgrowth in *mec-7(neo)* mutants, and *mec-7 lf* mutation similarly suppressed the effect of *mec-12(neo)* alleles (Figure 6A). We also conducted a suppressor screen to search for mutations that can suppress the strong phenotype of ALM-PN

growth in *mec-7(u278 neo)* mutants. After screening 16,000 haploid genomes, we isolated three suppressors: 1) an intragenic mutation in *mec-7* [*u1040* (G98E)], 2) a *lf* mutation in *mec-12* [*u1041* (G246E)], and 3) a *lf* mutation in *mec-15* [*u1042* (R27*)]. The identification of *mec-7* and *mec-12* mutations as suppressors suggests that the incorporation of the MEC-7/MEC-12 heterodimers into the MTs is required for the generation of the excessive neurite; the role of *mec-15*, which codes for an F-box protein with WD repeats, is described below.

Neomorphic mutations in *mec-7* and *mec-12* increase MT stability

These neomorphic tubulin mutations appeared to increase the stability of MTs, as first suggested by KIRSZENBLAT *et al.* (2013) for *mec-7*. Supporting this hypothesis, pharmacological stabilization of MTs with paclitaxel induced the growth of ALM-PN, although at a low frequency (KIRSZENBLAT *et al.* 2013), and destabilizing MTs with colchicine can partially suppress this ectopic growth in *mec-7(ky852)* mutants (KIRSZENBLAT *et al.* 2013) and in *mec-7(u278)*, *mec-7(u1017)*, and *mec-12(u917)* animals (Figure 6A). Moreover, these mutants also showed increased tubulin acetylation (Figure 3C), an indication of stable MTs (SONG AND BRADY 2015). *mec-7(u278)* and *mec-7(u170)* mutants had large diameter MTs (slightly larger than in wild-type cells), but fewer of them (Figure 1B). Moreover, the MT bundles in the mutants are more closely spaced than the wild type and are not surrounded by the electron-lucent region seen in the wild type (SAVAGE *et al.* 1994); we quantified these differences by showing that the distance between two closest center points of MTs is smaller in *mec-7* neomorph compared to the wild type and that MTs occupied a bigger proportion of the cross-sectional area of the neurite in the mutants (Figure 1B). In fact, the TRN neurite in these mutants is about 50% thinner than the wild type animals. The observation that tightly packed 15-p MT bundles filled up most of the space in the TRN neurites is consistent with increased MT stability, which

presumably allowed the excessive neurite growth towards the posterior, overcoming the normal inhibition of this growth in the wild-type ALM neurons.

Another line of evidence indicating higher stability of MTs in *mec-7* and *mec-12* neomorphs came from their increased resistance to colchicine. This MT-destabilizing drug caused the similar level of reduction in both touch insensitivity and PLM-PN length at a higher concentration in the *neo* mutants than in the wild type animals (Figure S4). Because the majority of the altered residues in the *neo* alleles are located on the exterior surface of MTs, these mutations may interfere with the binding of motor proteins or MAPs to the MTs and therefore cause changes in MT stability.

The *mec-7* and *mec-12* *neo* alleles also caused some of the same phenotypes that *lf* mutations do, such as touch insensitivity, synaptic vesicle mistargeting, and reduced TRN protein levels, suggesting that an optimal stability of MTs is needed for their proper functions. Furthermore, the fact that these phenotypes can occur in conjunction with either impaired (in *anti* mutants) or excessive (in *neo* mutants) neurite growth support to the hypothesis that the role of MTs in regulating neurite development is genetically separable from other MT functions.

Modeling the effects of tubulin mutations using the TRN neurites

Our genetic analysis shows that missense mutations in tubulin genes can have distinct effects on MT stability and neurite growth pattern, and those different phenotypes appear to correlate with the positions of the altered residues in the tubulin structure. Such structure-function analyses were carried out before for yeast α -tubulin TUB1 and for *Drosophila* testis-specific β -tubulin β Tub85D (FACKENTHAL *et al.* 1995; RICHARDS *et al.* 2000) but not for tubulins in the nervous system. Moreover, recent discovery of over a hundred missense mutations in tubulin genes in patients with a range of neurological disorders prompted us to

examine the cellular impact of specific tubulin mutations on neurons. Combining the convenience of genome editing in *C. elegans* and the ease of observing TRN morphology as the readout of MT stability and neurite growth, we could systematically study the effects of those human tubulin mutations. To provide proof of concept, we generated five clinically observed β -tubulin mutations (S172P, P173L, A302T, P380S, and E410K) in *mec-7* through CRISPR/Cas9-mediated gene editing (Materials and Methods; Figure 5A) and found that these mutations indeed caused distinct phenotypes on TRN morphogenesis.

S172P and P173L mutations in human TUBB3 were found in heterozygous patients with microcephaly, polymicrogyria, cortical dysplasia, and agenesis of the corpus callosum, which are defects in neuronal migration and axon growth (JAGLIN *et al.* 2009; POIRIER *et al.* 2010; BAHIBUISSON *et al.* 2014). *In vitro* studies found that tubulin heterodimer containing the β -tubulin S172P mutant could not be incorporated into MTs (JAGLIN *et al.* 2009), indicating that the mutated protein is nonfunctional. Consistent with these findings, the *u1056* (S172P) mutation of *mec-7* led to a recessive *loss-of-function* Mec-7 phenotype in the TRNs, which showed significantly shortened PLM-PN and slightly shortened PLM-AN with branching defects (Figure 5B, i). Surprisingly, the *u1057* (P173L) allele did not cause any TRN morphological or functional defects (Figure 5B, ii). The difference between the mutant phenotypes in humans and worms is puzzling, since both S172 and P173 are located on the GTP binding B5-to-H5 loop (Figure 4C), which is identical in *C. elegans* MEC-7 and human TUBB3 (Figure S5). Perhaps the differences arise from differences in MT structure and organization: the *C. elegans* TRNs have 15-p MTs that are bundled, whereas human neurons have 13-p MTs that are not bundled. In fact, when 15-p MTs were converted to 13-p MTs and the bundle was disrupted in *mec-17* (α -tubulin acetyl-transferase) mutants (TOPALIDOU *et al.* 2012), both MEC-7 S172P and P173L

mutations led to decreased MT stability and the loss of ALM-PN (Figure 5B, iii). This result suggests that P173L mutation indeed compromises MT stability in TRNs under sensitized conditions.

Heterozygous A302T and R380C mutations in human TUBB3, which affect residues on the external surface of the MTs, were associated with moderate congenital fibrosis of the extraocular muscles 3 (CEFOM3), anterior commissure hypoplasia, and corpus callosum hypoplasia. Mutation of A302 and R380 in yeast led to the formation of highly stable, benomyl-resistant MTs (TISCHFIELD *et al.* 2010). Consistent with these observations, we found that the same mutations of MEC-7 produced a *neo* phenotype (the generation of an ectopic ALM-PN; Figure 5B, iv and v).

TUBB3 E410K mutation was also found in patients with severe CEFOM3 and hypoplasia of anterior commissure and corpus callosum, but these patients also suffer from facial weakness and progressive axonal sensorimotor polyneuropathy (TISCHFIELD *et al.* 2010). In yeast, MTs containing β -tubulin with the E410K substitution were less stable and less resistant to benomyl and had markedly decreased plus-end accumulation of kinesin-like motor proteins, compared to MTs with A302T and R380C mutations (TISCHFIELD *et al.* 2010). In *C. elegans*, MEC-7(E410K) produced a distinct neurite growth phenotype: ALM-AN and PLM-AN, but not PLM-PN were significantly shortened, which indicates reduced MT stability; but the PLM-PN was not affected, making the phenotype also different from that of the *mec-7* antimorphs, which cause general defects in MT polymerization (Figure 5B, vi). Since E410 is also exposed to the exterior of MTs like A302 and R380 (Figure 4E), these results suggest that the cellular impact of the missense mutations would depend on the specific amino acid change instead of the location of the affected residues alone.

The loss of *tba-7*/α-tubulin also caused excessive posterior neurite growth

C. elegans genome contains nine α-tubulin genes (*mec-12*, *tba-1*, *tba-2*, and *tba-4* through *tba-9*) and six β-tubulin genes (*ben-1*, *mec-7*, *tbb-1*, *tbb-2*, *tbb-4*, and *tbb-6*). Our screen yielded mutants in only three of these genes: *mec-7*, *mec-12*, and *tba-7*. The missense *tba-7* allele *u1015* (G92D) caused the growth of an ectopic ALM posterior neurite, resembling the phenotype of *mec-7* and *mec-12 neo* alleles. This *tba-7* allele is likely a *lf* allele, because it failed to complement with *gk787939* (Q230*), which is presumably a null and produced similar phenotype as *u1015* (Figure S1C). We also examined mutants of other tubulin isotypes, and did not find morphological defects in the TRNs (we did not test for redundancy among the genes; Table S3).

tba-7 was expressed in the TRNs, and the excessive growth phenotype of *tba-7(u1015)* could be rescued by expressing *tba-7(+)* from the TRN-specific *mec-17* promoter, indicating that TBA-7 acts cell-autonomously in the TRNs (Figure S6). *tba-7 lf* mutants did not exhibit touch insensitivity, synaptic vesicle mistargeting, or reduced protein levels, suggesting that the general function of TRN MTs was not affected and that the primary function of TBA-7 is to regulate neurite growth (Figure S7). We hypothesized that the loss of TBA-7 led to the formation of hyperstable MTs, similar to the *mec-7* and *mec-12 neo* mutations. Supporting this hypothesis, electron microscopy studies revealed that, like *mec-7(neo)* mutants, *tba-7(u1015)* animals retained the large diameter 15-p MTs and have closely packed MT bundles, which occupied a larger-than-normal area of a neurite cross-section (Figure 1). *tba-7 lf* mutants also retained normal tubulin acetylation levels (Figure S7C) and had increased resistance to colchicine (Figure S4), which confirmed the presence of stable MTs. Treatment with 1 mM colchicine fully

suppressed in the growth of ALM-PN in *tba-7(u1015)* animals, and either *lf* or *gf* mutations in *mec-7* or *mec-12* could do so as well (Figure 6A).

The amino acids sequences of α -tubulin TBA-7 and MEC-12 are 82% identical and 94% similar; they mainly differ in a N-terminal region and the C-terminal tail (Figure 6C). Domain swapping experiments showed that changing L31 of TBA-7 to Q found in MEC-12 or replacing the C-terminal DANDNGD (a.a. 435-441 in TBA-7) sequence with MEDNGEEG (a.a. 440-447 in MEC-12) partially impaired the function of TBA-7 proteins to restrict excessive neurite growth; and TBA-7 proteins with both L31Q mutation and the C-terminal replacement completely lost the ability to rescue the *tba-7 lf* phenotype (Figure 6D). Q31 in MEC-12 is a potential site for polyamination (SONG *et al.* 2013) and E445 of the GEE motif (a.a. 444-446 in MEC-12, but absent in TBA-7) is a target for polyglutamination (EDDE *et al.* 1990). Post-translational modifications at these two sites could increase the stability of neuronal MTs (SONG AND BRADY 2015). Interestingly, replacing the a.a. 35- 47 region of TBA-7 with the sequence from MEC-12 that contains lysine 40 (the site for α -tubulin acetylation) did not affect the TBA-7 function (Figure 6D), suggesting that the absence of MT acetylation site in TBA-7 was not responsible for its activity in preventing ectopic neurite growth.

Since TBA-7 lacks some modification sites (e.g. Q31 and E445) that could stabilize MTs, our results suggest that TBA-7 may be a MT-destabilizing tubulin isotype, as compared to MEC-12. In wild-type animals, TBA-7 incorporation into the 15-p MTs with MEC-7 and MEC-12 may reduce MT stability; when TBA-7 is not available, more MEC-12 and possibly other α -tubulin isotypes replace TBA-7 and this replacement alters MT dynamics to produces hyperstable MTs.

The *tba-7(u1015 lf); mec-7(u1017 neo)* double mutant had an ALM-PN that was similar in length to that in *mec-7(u1017)* single mutants (Figure 6A), but the double mutant additionally

produced up to 4 and 5 short ectopic neurites sprouting from the ALM and PLM cell bodies, respectively; this phenotypes was rarely observed in *mec-7(u1017)* animals (Figure 6E and F). These results suggest that an additive effect occurs in the double mutant. Treating *tba-7(u1015)* and *mec-7(u1017)* single mutants with paclitaxel did not produce the double mutant phenotype, probably because the effect of paclitaxel on neurite growth is weak (KIRSZENBLAT *et al.* 2013).

Mutations in MT-associated Kinesins affect TRN neurite growth

Since motor proteins and MAPs regulate MT dynamics (AKHMANOVA AND STEINMETZ 2015), we expected mutations in MAP genes to cause similar phenotype to those of some of the tubulin mutations. Indeed, GHOSH-ROY *et al.* (2012) found and we have confirmed that the loss of the MT-depolymerizing kinesin *klp-7* induced the growth of an ectopic posterior neurite in ALM neurons (Figure 6B). KLP-7 belongs to the kinesin-13 family of catastrophe factors that bind to MT plus-ends and promotes depolymerization, thus generating dynamic microtubules (HAN *et al.* 2015). Importantly, as with the tubulin neomorphs, we found that the growth of the ectopic ALM-PN in *klp-7* mutants was suppressed by *mec-7* and *mec-12 lf* mutations but not enhanced by *mec-7 neo* mutations. These results suggest that the mutated MEC-7 proteins may render MTs hyperstable by reducing their interaction with KLP-7 or by making the MTs insensitive to the action of KLP-7.

Our screen yielded a mutation in a second kinesin gene, *klp-11*. The putative *klp-11* null allele *u1024* (Q53*) caused a moderate shortening of ALM-AN and PLM-AN without affecting PLM-PN; in the mutants, ALM-AN failed to extend beyond the metacarpus of the pharynx and PLM-AN did not reach the vulva (Figure S8). A *klp-11* deletion allele, *tm374*, gave the same phenotype. *klp-11* codes for a homolog of human KIF3B, a subunit of the plus end-directed kinesin-II motor complex. Although Kinesin-II motor mainly drives intraflagellar transport in the

cilia, studies have also shown that Kinesin-II can function in fast, anterograde axonal transport of vesicles in *Drosophila* (TAKEDA *et al.* 2000) and is required for axon growth and regeneration in mouse (GUMY *et al.* 2013). These data are consistent with KLP-11 being a positive regulator of neurite growth in TRNs. The selectivity of the *klp-11* effect on the ANs and not the PNs may relate to the polarity of the MTs they contain. MTs in the anterior neurites of TRNs have uniform polarity with all the plus ends oriented outward from the cell body, whereas the MTs in the PLM-PN have mixed polarity, containing both minus-end-out and plus-end-out MTs (CHALFIE AND THOMSON 1979; HSU *et al.* 2014). Thus, the use of minus end-directed motor proteins could support the growth of PLM-PN in the absence of KLP-11. Moreover, the moderate shortening of the ANs also suggests redundancy among the kinesin motor proteins. These results support the hypothesis that MTs promote TRN neurite growth by serving as tracks for the transport of membrane-bound vesicles.

The F-box containing protein MEC-15 is required for tubulin neomorphic phenotype

The putative *mec-15* null allele *u1008* (Q194*) was isolated from our main screen because the mutation caused the shortening of both PLM-AN and PLM-PN. Another null allele *u75* (Q118*) caused the same phenotype (Figure 7A). *mec-15* encodes a protein that contains a F-box at the N-terminus and four WD-40 repeats in the middle. Previous work from our lab found that *mec-15* is required for touch sensitivity and chemical synapse development in TRNs (BOUNOUTAS *et al.* 2009b). We found that the ALM-AN and PLM-AN in *mec-15* mutants could not fully extend the synaptic branch (Figure 7A), which may have caused the defects in synaptic development.

From the screen for suppressors of *mec-7(u278)* neomorph, we identified another *mec-15* null allele *u1024* (R27*), which strongly suppressed the growth of ectopic ALM-PN in *mec-*

7(u278 neo) animals. This suppression is cell-autonomous and depends on the F-box of MEC-15; the expression of the wild-type MEC-15 from the TRN-specific *mec-18* promoter in *mec-15(lf)*; *mec-7(u278 neo)* double mutants restored the ectopic ALM-PN, but the expression of MEC-15 proteins that lacked or had a truncated the F-box domain could not (Figure 7C and D). Since F-box is the substrate recognition subunit of the Skp, Cullin, F-box containing E3 ubiquitin ligase complex (known as the SCF complex), our results suggest that ubiquitination is involved in stabilizing the MTs in *mec-7(neo)* mutants. One hypothesis is that some unidentified MT-destabilizing molecule is normally ubiquitinated and targeted for degradation in a MEC-15-dependent manner. This unknown protein would be abnormally accumulated in TRNs to reduce MT stability, which caused the shortening of the main neurites and their branches in *mec-15(lf)* single mutants and the suppression of ALM-PN in *mec-15(lf); mec-7(u278 neo)* double mutants; the double mutants no longer have the hyperstable MTs. We also observed similar suppression of the ectopic growth of ALM-PN in *mec-15(lf); mec-7(u1017 neo)*, *mec-15(lf); tba-7(lf)*, and *mec-15(lf); klp-7(lf)* double mutants (Figure 7D), supporting the hypothesis that MEC-15-dependent ubiquitination is needed for the increase of MT stability in the regulation of neurite growth.

Tubulin mutations induce excessive neurite growth independent of MEC-17/ α -TAT

Our lab previously reported that the α -tubulin acetyl-transferase (α -TAT) MEC-17, which acetylates MEC-12 in the MTs, is required for the formation of 15-p MTs, as well as MT bundling and organization (TOPALIDOU *et al.* 2012). Although the loss of MEC-17 does not significantly reduce MT acetylation due to the redundancy with its paralog ATAT-2, *mec-17* null mutants showed defects in touch sensitivity, neurite growth and morphology, and vesicle transport; these defects were rescued by expressing a catalytically inactive version of MEC-17,

indicating that non-enzymatic activity of MEC-17 is responsible for normal neurite formation (TOPALIDOU *et al.* 2012; NEUMANN AND HILLIARD 2014).

Although the ALM neurons in *mec-17(lf)* mutants also grew an ectopic posterior neurite, the Mec-17 phenotype is quite different from the phenotypes of the *mec-7* or *mec-12 neo* mutants in the following ways. 1) the ALM-PN in *mec-17* animals grows beginning at the L4 stage, whereas it was present as early as the L1 stage in *mec-7* and *mec-12 neo* mutants, and *tba-7* and *klp-7 lf* mutants; 2) the ALM-PN in *mec-17* null mutants was longer at 25 °C than at 15 °C, whereas the opposite was seen in tubulin neomorphs, which have a longer ALM-PN at 15 °C than at 25 °C (Figure 8A); 3) excessive swelling and looping of the TRN neurites were observed in *mec-17* mutants (TOPALIDOU *et al.* 2012) but not the other mutants; 4) *mec-17* mutants had twice as many actively growing MTs as the wild-type animals, indicating increased dynamics (NEUMANN AND HILLIARD 2014), whereas the other mutants presumably caused the formation of hyperstable MTs. Interestingly, treatment with paclitaxel, which decreases MT dynamics, partially suppressed the growth of ALM-PN in *mec-17(lf)* mutants but not in *mec-7* and *mec-12 neo* mutants or *tba-7* or *klp-7 lf* animals (Figure 8B). Moreover, when we combined the *mec-17(ok2109 lf)* allele with the *mec-7(u1017 neo)* allele or *tba-7(u1015 lf)* allele, additive effects were observed for the length of both ALM-PN and PLM-PN (Figure 8C). Together, our data indicate that the loss of MEC-17 and the mutations in tubulin isotypes may induce excessive, posteriorly directed neurite growth through different mechanisms.

One such difference in mechanism is the differential dependency on the guanine nucleotide exchange factor TIAM-1, which promotes the growth of a posteriorly directed neurite in the bipolar PLM neurons (ZHENG *et al.* 2016). *tiam-1* null mutations suppressed the growth of ALM-PN in *mec-17(lf)* mutants but not in *mec-7* and *mec-12 neo* mutants and *tba-7(lf)* mutants

(Figure 8D). Because TIAM-1 promotes neurite extension through the Rac1 GTPase, which presumably regulates the dynamics of actin cytoskeleton (ZHENG *et al.* 2016), the loss of MEC-17 may activate TIAM-1 and induce actin remodeling, whereas the MT-stabilizing tubulin mutations do not evoke TIAM-1 to promote posterior outgrowth.

Discussion

Neuronal morphogenesis requires an optimal MT stability

MTs both support and regulate neurite growth. As the building block of MTs, α - and β -tubulins determine the structural properties of MTs and also mediate their interaction with motor proteins and MAPs. As a result, any alteration in the tubulin proteins can potentially lead to changes in MT dynamics, which then affects neurite formation, guidance, and extension. In this study, we analyzed the effects of 67 tubulin missense mutations on neurite development in *C. elegans* touch receptor neurons. Based on the phenotypes, we categorized these mutations into three classes: loss-of-function (*lf*), antimorphic (*anti*), and neomorphic (*neo*) mutations. 1) *lf* mutations cause only mild neurite growth defects by reducing MT stability moderately; 2) *anti* mutations block MT polymerization and cause severe neurite growth defects; 3) *neo* mutations cause excessive neurite growth by inducing hyperstable MTs (Figure 9). The directionality of the excessive neurite in ALM reflects its potential to grow towards the posterior. In fact, about 30% of the adult ALM neurons have a very short (less than one cell body length) posterior protrusion, and manipulation of cellular signaling (e.g. activating the small GTPase Rac or altering the recycling endosome pathway) can induce the production of ALM-PN (ZHENG *et al.* 2015b; ZHENG *et al.* 2016). Thus, the ectopic growth of ALM-PN may serve as an indication for altered cytoskeletal organization.

The correlation between the amount of neurite growth and the stability of MTs suggests that MT structure and dynamics are major determinants of neurite growth. Given the great number of proteins involved in both positively and negatively regulating MT assembly and disassembly (MIMORI-KIYOSUE 2011), our results support that an optimal level of MT stability is required for proper neuronal morphogenesis. This hypothesis is further supported by the finding that negative regulators of MT stability, such as the α -tubulin isotype TBA-7 and the MT-destabilizing kinesin-13 KLP-7, prevent excessive TRN neurite growth.

We suspect that other MT destabilizers are also important for TRN neurite development and that these destabilizing proteins are, in turn, regulated by the F-box containing protein MEC-15, perhaps by its involvement in ubiquitination and protein degradation. Loss of *mec-15* results in TRNs with shorter ANs and PNs. Since *mec-15(lf)* is epistatic with regard to neurite growth to the *mec-7(neo)*, *mec-12(neo)*, *tba-7(lf)*, and *klp-7(lf)* mutations, MEC-15 is likely to reduce the amount of, as yet, unknown MT destabilizers.

Structure-function analysis of tubulin mutations

The large number of missense mutations analyzed in this study allowed us to perform structure-function analysis of neuronal tubulin proteins in living animals. Mapping the altered amino acid residues onto the *Bos taurus* tubulin α/β heterodimer structure 1JFF (NOGALES *et al.* 1998), we found that *lf* mutations mostly affect residues located in the interior of the structure and possibly disrupt protein folding. *anti* mutations affect residues that participate in GTP binding, intradimer interaction, or interdimer interactions. *neo* mutations mostly alter residues on the exterior surface and probably perturb the association of motor proteins and MAPs with MTs (Figure 4 and 9).

Although similar structure-function relationship studies were conducted before in yeast α -tubulin *TUB1* and β -tubulin *TUB2* and *Drosophila* testis-specific $\beta 2$ -tubulin (REIJO *et al.* 1994; FACKENTHAL *et al.* 1995; RICHARDS *et al.* 2000), our work provides another model to study the properties of tubulin proteins. In fact, our findings are consistent with those previous studies. For example, yeast *TUB1* mutations that caused supersensitivity to the MT-destabilizing drug benomyl mainly altered amino acids involved in GTP binding (e.g. D70) and intradimer (e.g. E98) and interdimer interaction; the change of equivalent residues in MEC-12 (D69 and E97) were identified in *mec-12 anti* mutants. Similarly, some *Drosophila* $\beta 2$ -tubulin mutations (S25L and G96E) that made MTs less stable (FACKENTHAL *et al.* 1995) affected the same or the adjacent residue in *mec-7* antimorphs [*u319* (S25F) and *u430* (A97V)]. On the other hand, yeast *TUB1* mutations that conferred benomyl-resistance mostly affect the residues exposed to the outer surface of the MTs (RICHARDS *et al.* 2000), and *mec-7 neo* mutations similarly led to increased resistance to colchicine. Therefore, comparative studies using the three different organisms can help identify key residues in the tubulin structure responsible for various MT functions.

Modeling the effects of neuronal tubulin mutations

We have used the *C. elegans* TRNs as a model to study neuronal MTs, which are much more stable and have different types of post-translational modification than the MTs in dividing cells (BAAS *et al.* 2016). Clinical studies in the past five years identified more than 100 missense mutations in tubulin genes that cause a wide spectrum of neurodevelopmental disorders, such as microcephaly, lissencephaly, polymicrogyria, and cortical malformation, along with severe defects in axon guidance and growth, including the complete or partial absence of corpus callosum, defects in commissural fiber tracts, and degeneration of motor and sensory axons

(TISCHFIELD *et al.* 2011; CHAKRABORTI *et al.* 2016). Patients carrying different tubulin mutations often display distinct symptoms, but the complexity of the human nervous system makes it difficult to analyze the impact of specific mutations at the cellular level.

Combining CRISPR/Cas9-mediated genome editing with *in vivo* examination of TRN morphology, we were able to create several disease-causing human β -tubulin mutations in the *C. elegans mec-7* gene and examined their effects on neurite growth at a single neuron resolution. Our phenotypic evaluation was largely consistent with previous characterization of those mutations, suggesting that the TRN system could be instrumental to model the effects of human tubulin mutations identified in the clinic.

In fact, many disease-causing tubulin mutations alter amino acids that are physically adjacent to or located in the same region as the ones affected in our mutants, suggesting that they may affect MT stability in similar ways. By mapping 51 TUBA1A, 24 TUBB2B, and 19 TUBB3B mutations that were clinically identified onto the tubulin structure, we could correlate the location of some of the affected residues with the resulting clinical manifestation (Table S4). For example, 7/8 (87.5%) mutations that alter residues involved in GTP binding caused complete agenesis of corpus callosum, an indication of severe defects in axonal growth, whereas only 5/23 (21.7%) changes of residues in the interior of the structure and 10/32 (31.2%) mutations of residues involved in MAP binding did so (Table S4).

However, position of the mutated residues alone could not determine the effects of the missense mutation; each specific mutation should be evaluated individually. For example, the B5-to-H5 loop of β -tubulin (from V170 to V179) is in contact with the GTP molecule and four strong *mec-7 anti* mutations (P171S, P171L, S176F, and V179A) were mapped to this loop. Unexpectedly, S172P mutation led to a *lf* phenotype and P173L mutation caused no defects in

TRNs. One possible explanation is that S172 and P173 are further away from the GTP binding site and thus are less important than P171 and S176.

The identity of the residue replacing the wild type one also plays a critical role. For instance, *u278* (C303Y) was the strongest *mec-7* neomorph, but *gk286001* (C303S) had no effect at all; since both tyrosine and serine have the polar hydroxyl group, the bulky phenyl group of the tyrosine may be responsible for disrupting some MT functions. Moreover, the *u1058* (A302T) mutation also caused a strong *mec-7(neo)* phenotype. A302 and C303 on the H9-to-B8 loop are exposed to the exterior of MTs but are not located on the major landing surface (H11 and H12) for motor protein and MAPs. Our results suggest that A302 and C303 may represent a previously unrecognized site of interaction between the MTs and their associated proteins. Even for residues located on H11 and H12, the effects of their mutation can be different. *u1059* (R380S) is a *mec-7* neomorph, whereas *u1060* (E410K) allele produced an antimorph-like phenotype, suggesting that the impact of the missense mutation depends on how the interaction of MTs with the motor proteins or MAP is affected by the amino acid change.

MT-destabilizing tubulin isotype and “multi-tubulin hypothesis”

The presence of multiple tubulin genes in eukaryotic genomes, their subtle differences in the protein sequences, and their functional differences led to the “multi-tubulin hypothesis.” In multicellular organism, the tubulins may have distinct expression patterns, *e.g.* *Drosophila* β 2-tubulin is only expressed in the male germline (KEMPHUES *et al.* 1980); human TUBB3B is highly enriched in the nervous system, whereas TUBB2B is expressed in many tissues (SULLIVAN AND CLEVELAND 1986). In single-cell organisms like *Tetrahymena*, different β -tubulin isotypes are spatially separated; some are only used to make the nuclear MTs of the mitotic apparatus, and some are only detected in the MTs of somatic cilia and basal bodies

(PUCCIARELLI *et al.* 2012). Our studies, however, found that two distinct α -tubulin isotypes (MEC-12 and TBA-7) could have different functions when both incorporated into the same MTs in the same neurons; MEC-12 promotes stability and TBA-7 promotes instability.

The abundance of large diameter 15-p MTs in the TRNs requires MEC-12, but the role of TBA-7 is to increase MT dynamics and to prevent the ectopic growth of posteriorly directed neurites in ALMs. Thus, TBA-7 is a MT-destabilizing tubulin isotype, and this destabilizing activity depends on the absence of potential polyamination and polyglutamination sites that could increase MT stability. Our results are consistent with early *in vitro* experiments suggesting that TUBB3 (also known as β_{III}) also promotes MT dynamics; removal of TUBB3 from the brain extract resulted in a tubulin mixture that assembled much more rapidly than the unfractionated control (BANERJEE *et al.* 1990), and MTs assembled from the purified $\alpha\beta_{III}$ heterodimers were considerably more dynamic than MTs made from the $\alpha\beta_{II}$ and $\alpha\beta_{IV}$ dimers (PANDA *et al.* 1994). However, the long-standing question is whether some tubulin isotypes do destabilize MTs *in vivo*. Our findings suggest the answer is yes. A balanced incorporation of multiple tubulin isotypes into the same MT structure is critical to generate MTs with the optimal stability.

The absence of post-translational modification sites in tubulin isotypes may lead to functional diversity. In addition to TBA-7, among the other eight *C. elegans* α -tubulin isotypes, TBA-8 and TBA-5 also lack the Q31 for polyamination, and TBA-6 lacks the E445 for polyglutamination; all nine human α -tubulins have Q31, but TUBAL3 has a short C-terminal tail and does not contain potential polyglutamination sites (Figure S9). The incorporation of those tubulin isotypes may be a general regulatory mechanism to control MT stability.

Moreover, *mec-12* and *tba-7* do not appear to be redundant, because the *tba-7 lf* mutation alone produced uncontrolled growth. Moreover, both *mec-12 lf* mutants and *mec-12; tba-7*

double *lf* mutants retained the ability to grow out a normal amount of neurites, suggesting strong genetic redundancy among the α -tubulins with regards to supporting neurite growth.

Different contributions of tubulin isotypes to MT dynamics were also observed in *C. elegans* embryogenesis (HONDA *et al.* 2017). The spindle MTs required two β -tubulins (TBB-1 and TBB-2), but TBB-2 was incorporated into the MTs twice as much as TBB-1; the loss of TBB-2 caused a dramatic decrease in MT growth rate and an increase in catastrophe frequency, leading to highly unstable MTs, whereas the loss of TBB-1 only slightly reduced growth rate. These data support the “multi-tubulin concept” that different tubulin isotypes have distinct functions in the same cells.

Materials and Methods

Strains and genetic screens

C. elegans wild type (N2) and mutant strains were maintained at 20 °C as previously described (BRENNER 1974). Alleles listed in Table S1 and S2 were isolated by visually screening for mutants with TRN differentiation defects using TU4069, which carries *uIs115 [mec-17p::RFP]* for the visualization of the TRNs, as the starter strain and ethyl methanesulfonate as the mutagen. Mutants were outcrossed with wild type, and the phenotype-causing mutations were identified as previously described by whole-genome resequencing (ZHENG *et al.* 2013) or by complementation tests with reference alleles. *mec-7* alleles *e1343*, *e1505*, *e1527*, *e1522*, *n434*, *u10*, *u18*, *u22*, *u48*, *u58*, *u98*, *u127*, *u129*, *u162*, *u170*, *u223*, *u225*, *u278*, *u234*, *u249*, *u262*, *u275*, *u283*, *u305*, *u319*, *u428*, *u429*, *u430*, *u433*, *u449*, and *u445*, and *mec-12* alleles *e1605*, *e1607*, *u50*, *u63*, *u76*, and *u241* were previously isolated (CHALFIE AND SULSTON 1981; CHALFIE AND AU 1989; SAVAGE *et al.* 1994) and re-examined in this study.

u1056 to *u1060* alleles were created through CRISPR/Cas9-mediated homologous recombination (DICKINSON *et al.* 2013). Guide RNAs were designed according to the target sequence closest to the desired codon change (Figure 5A). Recombination templates were created by cloning the *mec-7* coding region and 466 bp 3'UTR sequence into the Sall and BamHI sites of pBlueScript II SK (+) vector and then introducing the desired missense mutation (red in Figure 5A), along with synonymous mutations (blue in Figure 5A) that change the guide RNA target sites, using the Q5 Site-Directed Mutagenesis Kit from New England Biolabs (NEB; Ipswich, MA). pDD162 constructs expressing Cas9 and specific guide RNAs were injected together with the corresponding recombination template and marker *myo-2p::RFP* into TU4069 animals. F1s expressing RFP in the muscle were singled out and genotyped to identify heterozygotes with successful edits, and F2s carrying homozygous mutations were then isolated and examined for TRN morphology.

The *gk* alleles of *mec-7* and *mec-12* listed in Table 1 were generated in the million mutation project (THOMPSON *et al.* 2013) and obtained from the Caenorhabditis Genetics Center, which is funded by NIH Office of Research Infrastructure Programs (P40 OD010440). *k1p-7(tm2143)*, *k1p-11(tm374)*, and *mec-12(tm5083)* were generated by the National Bioresource Project of Japan, and *mec-12(gm379)* was kindly provided by Dr. Chun-Liang Pan at the National Taiwan University.

Additional *mec-12* null alleles (*u1026*, *u1027*, and *u1028*) were generated by CRISPR/Cas9-mediated genome editing targeting 5'-GAAGTAATTTTCGATTCACATCGG-3' in exon 2 of *mec-12* as described above (DICKINSON *et al.* 2013). Frameshift-causing mutations were identified by sequencing the *mec-12* locus (Figure S1).

A second screen was conducted using TU4879 [*mec-7* (*u278*); *uIs115* (*mec-17p::RFP*)] as the starter strain, and mutants with significantly shortened ALM-PN were isolated. *mec-7* [*u1040* (G98E)], *mec-12* [*u1041* (G246E)], and *mec-15* [*u1042* (R26*)] were obtained from this screen as suppressors of *mec-7*[*u278* (C303Y) *neo*] mutants.

Constructs and Transgenes

A *tba-7::GFP* reporter (TU#1632) was made by cloning a 1.2 kb *tba-7* promoter and the entire coding region from the genomic DNA to wild-type genomic DNA into the Gateway pDONR221 P4-P1r vector; the resulting entry vector, together with the pENTR-GFP, pENTR-*unc-54*-3'UTR, and destination vector pDEST-R4-R3 were used in the LR reaction to create the final expression vectors. *mec-17p::tba-7*(+) (TU#1629) was created by cloning a 1.9 kb *mec-17* promoter and the *tba-7* coding sequence into pDONR221 P4-P1r and pDONR221 vectors, respectively, and assembling these entry vectors with pENTR-*unc-54*-3'UTR and the destination vector. Details about the Gateway cloning method by Life Technologies can be found at www.invitrogen.com/site/us/en/home/Products-andServices/Applications/Cloning/Gateway-Cloning.html. *tba-7*(+) locus, including the 1.2 kb promoter, coding region, and a 911-bp 3'UTR, was cloned using *Sall* and *NotI* into pBlueScript II SK(+) vector; NEB Q5 site-directed mutagenesis kit was then used to generate constructs expressing the TBA-7 variants shown in Figure 6D.

To rescue the *mec-15* mutants, we amplified the *mec-15*(+) locus that includes a 3.2 kb promoter, coding region, and a 951 bp downstream region and injected the purified PCR product to perform the rescue experiments. We used previously described TU#891 [*mec-18p::mec-15*(+)] construct (BOUNOUTAS *et al.* 2009b) to perform cell-specific rescue and to generate constructs that express truncated MEC-15 proteins shown in Figure 7C.

Transgenes *uls31[mec-17p::GFP]* III, *uls115[mec-17p::RFP]* IV, and *uls134[mec-17p::RFP]* V were used to visualize TRN morphology (ZHENG *et al.* 2015a). *jsIs821[mec-7p::GFP::RAB-3]* was used to assess synaptic vesicle localization (BOUNOUTAS *et al.* 2009b).

Electron microscopy

We re-analyzed previously collected cross-section images of ALM neurites from wild type animals (N501, N631, N933, and N934 from the Hall lab collection) and from *mec-7* neomorphic mutants *u170* and *u278* (SAVAGE *et al.* 1994). The wild type animals had been fixed by either chemical immersion fixation without tannic acid (samples N501, N631; HALL 1995) or by high-pressure freezing/freeze substitution (HPF/FS) including tannic acid (samples N933, N934; TOPALIDOU *et al.* 2012). The *mec-7* neomorphic alleles had also been fixed by chemical immersion, without tannic acid.

For this study, we fixed *mec-7 lf (ok2152)*, *mec-12 lf (tm5083)*, and *tba-7 lf (u1015)* adults using an HPF/FS protocol that included a first fixation in 0.5% glutaraldehyde + 0.1% tannic acid and a second fix in 2% osmium tetroxide + 0.1% uranyl acetate (UAc), both at -90 °C, followed by staining in 1% UAc in acetone at 0 °C. We also fixed adults of *mec-12(anti)* mutants, *u950*, *u76*, and *u1021*, using HPF/FS using a similar protocol, but without tannic acid. Eighty-nanometer transverse sections were collected at multiple positions along the ALM anterior neurite and post-stained with uranium acetate and lead citrate. A Philips CM10 electron microscope with an attached Morada digital camera (Olympus) was used to acquire the images.

For each animal, we counted the number of MTs in the ALMs and measured the MT diameter on sections collected from at least five different positions along the ALM-AN; data from ALML and ALMR were combined. For each strain, we examined sections from at three different animals. For wild-type animals, *tba-7 lf* mutants, and *mec-7* neomorphs, we used at

least ten sections to measure the distance between two closest MT centers and the proportion of MT-occupied area to the cross-sectional area of the neurite.

Phenotype Scoring and Statistical Analysis

We measured the length of TRN neurites in at least 30 fourth stage larvae or young adults grown at 20° C, except where otherwise stated. Relative length of posteriorly directed neurites was calculated by dividing the neurite length by the diameter of the cell body. Defects in TRN anterior neurite length were assessed by counting the percentage of cells whose neurites failed to reach the vulva (for PLM) or the posterior pharyngeal bulb (for ALM); at least 50 cells were examined for each strain.

Fluorescence intensity of the RFP expressed from the *uIs134* transgene in the ALM cell body was used to measure TRN protein levels; intensity was calculated after manual background subtraction using ImageJ as previously described (CHEN AND CHALFIE 2015). Synaptic vesicle localization was quantified by calculating the percentage of animals in each of the four phenotypical categories: 1) normal localization to the PLM synaptic branch; 2) reduced intensity of the synaptic marker at the synapses as partial defect; 3) complete loss of normal localization to the synapse as complete defect; 4) localization to the PLM-PN as mistargeting. At least 50 adult animals were examined.

Acetylated α -tubulin staining using antibody [6-11B-1] (abcam, Cambridge, MA) was performed and analyzed as previously described (TOPALIDOU *et al.* 2012). For colchicine treatment, animals were grown in standard NGM agar plates containing different concentrations (from 0.06 mM to 2 mM) of colchicine before phenotypic analysis as described before (BOUNOUTAS *et al.* 2009a). Similarly, 100 nM paclitaxel was added to the NGM agar plates, L1 animals were placed onto the plates, and young adults were examined for TRN morphology.

PyMOL (SCHRODINGER 2015) was used to view the structure of α/β tubulin dimer (1jff.pdb; NOGALES *et al.* 1998) and to label affected residues in *mec-7* and *mec-12* mutants,. For statistical analysis, ANOVA and the post hoc Dunnett's test or Tukey-Kramer test were used to identify significant difference between the mutants and wild type animals in multiple comparisons. Student's *t* test was used to find significant difference between two samples in paired comparisons. Single and double asterisks indicated $p < 0.05$ and $p < 0.01$, respectively. The χ^2 test was used for the categorical data to find significant difference between different strains.

Acknowledgements

We thank Dan Dickinson, Chun-Liang Pan, and Andrew Chisholm for sharing reagents. This work was supported by NIH Grant GM30997 (to M.C.) and OD 010943 (to D.H.H.). Core facilities for electron microscopy were supported by NICHD P30 HD71593 for the RFK-IDDRC at Albert Einstein College of Medicine.

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Gene	Allele	Mutation	Structural function	Classification	Morphological defects	Touch sensitivity	Expression
<i>mec-7</i>	<i>u319</i>	S25F	Tubulin folding	weak antimorph	moderately shortened neurites	-	semidominant
	<i>u305, u1020</i>	G34S	Lumen-facing loop	If	short PLM-PN	±	recessive
	<i>gk906464</i>	G38E	Lumen-facing loop	N/A	no defects	+	N/A
	<i>u58, u223</i>	P61L	Lateral interaction	weak antimorph	moderately shortened neurites	—	semidominant
	<i>u249</i>	P61S	Lateral interaction	weak antimorph	moderately shortened neurites	—	semidominant
	<i>gk337318</i>	V64I	Tubulin folding	N/A	no defects	+	N/A
	<i>u430</i>	A97V	GTP binding	antimorph	short TRN neurites	—	recessive
	<i>u222</i>	G109E	Lateral interaction	weak antimorph	moderately shortened neurites	—	semidominant
	<i>u429, u433</i>	G141E	Tubulin folding	If	short PLM-PN	—	recessive
	<i>gk595364</i>	G141R	Tubulin folding	If	short PLM-PN	—	recessive
	<i>u275</i>	G148R	Tubulin folding	If	short PLM-PN	—	recessive
	<i>gk895768</i>	T149I	Tubulin folding	neomorph	ectopic ALM-PN	±	recessive
	<i>gk286003</i>	R162Q	MAP binding	neomorph	ectopic ALM-PN	±	recessive
	<i>u911</i>	P171S	GTP binding	antimorph	short TRN neurites	—	dominant
	<i>u957, u127, e1343</i>	P171L	GTP binding	antimorph	short TRN neurites	—	semidominant
	<i>u1056</i>	S172P*	GTP binding	If	short PLM-PN	—	recessive
	<i>u1057</i>	P173L*	GTP binding	N/A	no defects	+	N/A
	<i>u48</i>	S176F	GTP binding	antimorph	short TRN neurites	—	semidominant
	<i>u449</i>	V179A	GTP binding	antimorph	short TRN neurites	—	semidominant
	<i>u10</i>	S188F	Tubulin folding	If	short PLM-PN	±	recessive
	<i>u225</i>	T214P	Tubulin folding	If	short PLM-PN	±	recessive
	<i>ky852</i>	P220S	Tubulin folding	neomorph	ectopic ALM-PN	—	semidominant
	<i>u262</i>	N226Y	GTP binding	antimorph	short TRN neurites	—	semidominant
	<i>gk286002</i>	P243S	Intradimer interaction	If	short PLM-PN	±	recessive
	<i>u283</i>	P243L	Intradimer interaction	antimorph	short TRN neurites	—	dominant
	<i>u129, u958</i>	G244S	Intradimer interaction	antimorph	short TRN neurites	—	dominant
	<i>n434</i>	N247I	Intradimer interaction	antimorph	short TRN neurites	—	dominant
	<i>u162</i>	D249N	Intradimer interaction	antimorph	short TRN neurites	—	dominant
	<i>e1505</i>	G269D	Tubulin folding	If	short PLM-PN	±	recessive
	<i>e1527</i>	V286D	Lateral interaction	antimorph	short TRN neurites	—	dominant
	<i>u445</i>	M300V	Tubulin folding	antimorph	short TRN neurites	—	semidominant
	<i>u98</i>	M300T	Tubulin folding	antimorph	short TRN neurites	—	semidominant
	<i>u1058</i>	A302T*	MAP binding	neomorph	ectopic ALM-PN	±	semidominant
	<i>u278</i>	C303Y	MAP binding	neomorph	ectopic ALM-PN	—	semidominant
	<i>gk286001</i>	C303S	MAP binding	N/A	no defects	+	N/A
	<i>gk286000</i>	A314V	Tubulin folding	antimorph	short TRN neurites	—	semidominant
	<i>e1522</i>	F317I	Tubulin folding	If	short PLM-PN	±	recessive
	<i>u234</i>	R318Q	Tubulin folding	If	short PLM-PN	±	recessive
	<i>u955</i>	A352T	Intradimer interaction	antimorph	short TRN neurites	—	dominant
	<i>u910, gk373602</i>	P357L	Tubulin folding	antimorph	short TRN neurites	—	dominant

	<i>u956</i>	P358L	Tubulin folding	antimorph	short TRN neurites	–	dominant
	<i>u428</i>	G369E	Tubulin folding	lf	short PLM-PN	–	recessive
	<i>u1017</i>	L377F	MAP binding	neomorph	the growth of ectopic ALM-PN	±	recessive
	<i>u1059</i>	R380S*	MAP binding	neomorph	the growth of ectopic ALM-PN	±	recessive
	<i>u18</i>	A393T	Longitudinal interaction	antimorph	short TRN neurites	–	dominant
	<i>gk285997</i>	A393V	Longitudinal interaction	antimorph	short TRN neurites	–	dominant
	<i>u170</i>	E407L	MAP binding	neomorph	the growth of ectopic ALM-PN	±	recessive
	<i>u1060</i>	E410K*	MAP binding	antimorph	shortened TRN-ANs	–	semidominant
<i>mec-12</i>	<i>gk170196</i>	P32S	Lumen-facing loop	neomorph	the growth of ectopic ALM-PN	±	recessive
	<i>gk170195</i>	S50N	Lumen-facing loop	N/A	no defects	+	N/A
	<i>gk636747</i>	R60H	Lumen-facing loop	N/A	no defects	+	N/A
	<i>u76</i>	D69N	GTP binding	antimorph	short PLM-PN	–	recessive
	<i>u1016</i>	E97K	Intradimer interaction	antimorph	short PLM-PN	–	recessive
	<i>u950, gk672907</i>	S140F	GTP binding	antimorph	short PLM-PN	–	recessive
	<i>gk600523</i>	G142E	GTP binding	lf	no defects	±	recessive
	<i>u1021, e1607</i>	G144S	GTP binding	antimorph	short PLM-PN	–	recessive
	<i>gk583647</i>	L152F	Tubulin folding	N/A	no defects	+	N/A
	<i>u50, e1605</i>	H192Y	MAP binding	partial lf	no defects	–	recessive
	<i>gk915672</i>	E196K	MAP binding	neomorph	the growth of ectopic ALM-PN	±	recessive
	<i>u1041</i>	G246E	Tubulin folding	lf	no defects	±	recessive
	<i>u917</i>	V260I	MAP binding	neomorph	the growth of ectopic ALM-PN	±	recessive
	<i>gk854211</i>	P307L	MAP binding	N/A	no defects	+	N/A
	<i>gk515972</i>	V323I	Longitudinal interaction	neomorph	the growth of ectopic ALM-PN	±	recessive
	<i>u241, u1019</i>	G354E	Longitudinal interaction	antimorph	short PLM-PN	–	recessive
	<i>gk341552</i>	G365E	Lumen-facing loop	N/A	no defects	+	N/A
	<i>u63</i>	E415K	MAP binding	partial lf	no defects	±	recessive
	<i>gm379</i>	G416E	MAP binding	partial lf	no defects	±	recessive

Table Legends

Table 1. The *mec-7* and *mec-12* mutations analyzed in this study. Several mutations are represented by multiple alleles, whose phenotypes were found to be similar. For touch sensitivity, + indicate the average response to 5 anterior stimuli is above 4; ± indicate the average is between 4 and 1; – indicate the average is below 1. Partial *lf* alleles of *mec-12* showed some but not all of the *lf* phenotypes (see the text). Asterisks indicate that the mutation was originally found in humans and was created in *mec-7* gene through CRISPR/Cas9-mediated genome editing. Mapping of the amino acid residues to the structural domains was done according to Tischfield *et al.* (2011).

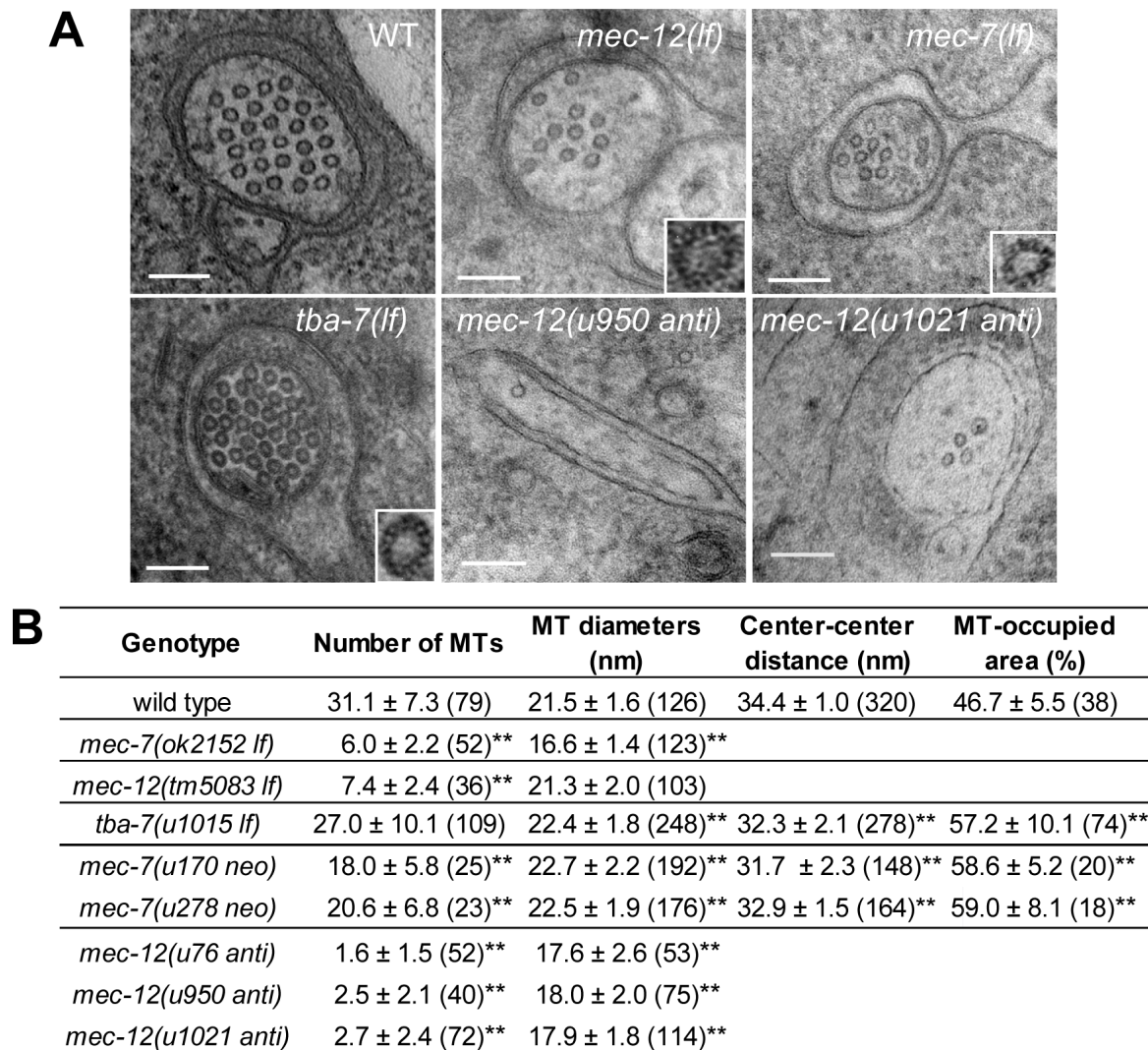


Figure 1. MT structures in tubulin mutants. (A) Cross sectional images of ALM-AN in wild type and, *mec-12(tm5083 lf)*, *mec-7(ok2152 lf)*, *tba-7(u1015 lf)* *mec-12[u950 (S140F) anti]* and *mec-12[u1021 (G144S) anti]* mutants. MT structures in *mec-7(anti)* mutants were analyzed by Chalfie and Thomson (1982). Insets in the lower right corner of *mec-12(lf)*, *mec-7(lf)*, and *tba-7(lf)* animals show the protofilament structure of tannic acid stained MTs (4-fold enlarged). Scale bar = 100 nm. (B) Measures of MT structure and organization. Numbers of observations are shown in parentheses, and a Dunnett's test was performed to compare the mutants with the wild type. Throughout the figures, one asterisk represents a statistical significance of $p < 0.05$ and two asterisks indicate $p < 0.01$. [Note: Our earlier studies found that wild-type TRN MTs had much larger diameters than we find here (29.6 ± 0.4 nm; Chalfie and Thomson 1979). We could not explain the discrepancy between these and our current results. We are, nonetheless, very confident in the current calibration.]

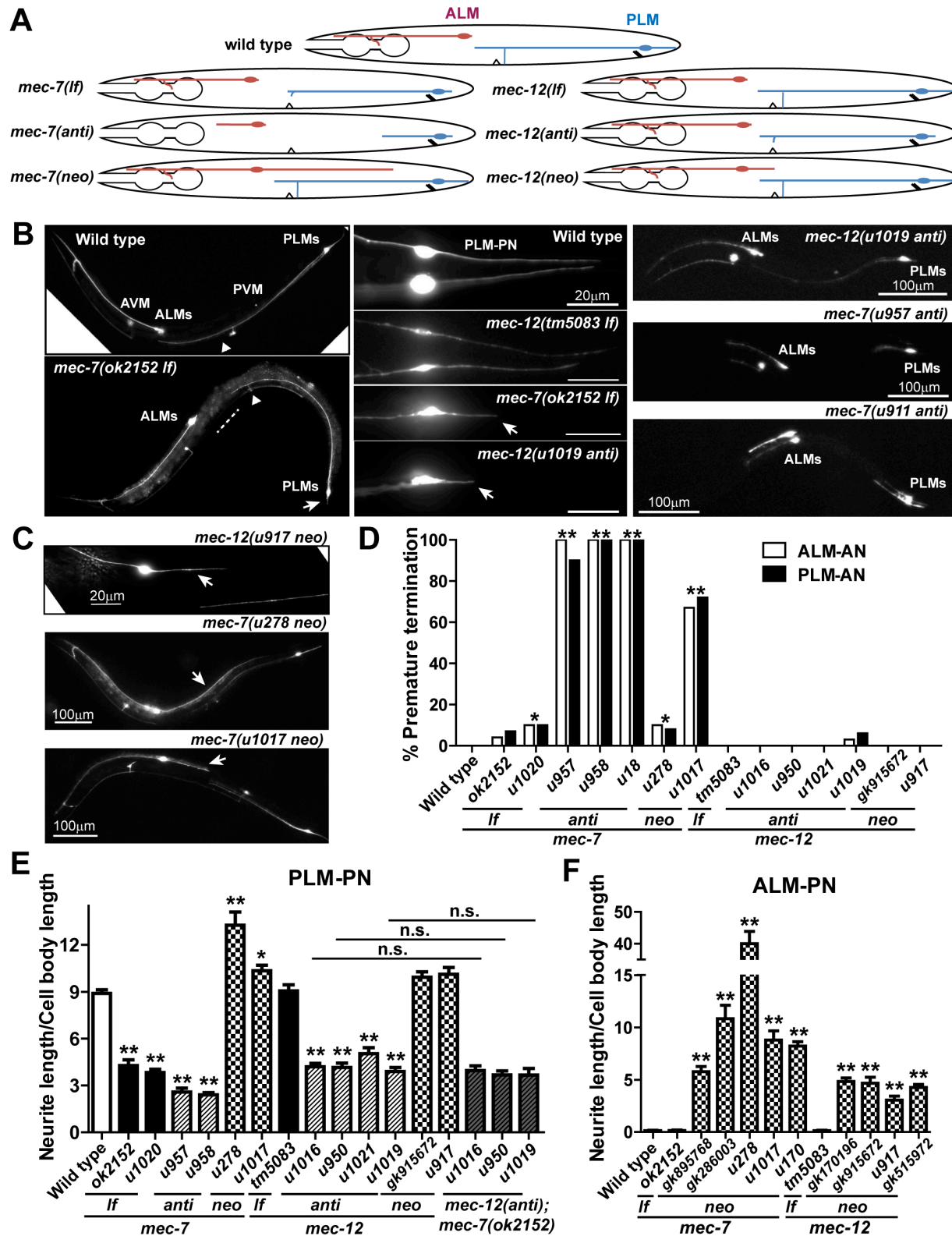


Figure 2. *mec-7* and *mec-12* mutations affect TRN neurite length. (A) Schematic diagram of ALM and PLM morphology in *mec-7* and *mec-12* *lf*, *anti*, and *neo* mutants. (B) On the left panel, compared to the

wild-type animals, *mec-7(ok2152 lf)* animals showed an increased gap between PLM-AN and ALM cell body (dashed line) and significantly shortened PLM-PN (arrows). PLM-AN still extends beyond the position of the vulva indicated by the triangle. The middle panel showed PLM posterior neurites in the various animals. Arrows pointed to the shortened PLM-PN. The right panel displayed the TRN morphologies in *mec-12[u1019 (G354E) anti]*, *mec-7[u957 (P171L) anti]*, and *mec-7[u958 (G244S) anti]* animals. (C) TRN morphology of *mec-12[u917 (V260I) neo]*, *mec-7[u278 (C303Y) neo]*, and *mec-7[u1017 (C377F) neo]* animals. Arrows point to the ectopic ALM-PN. (D) The percentage of ALM and PLM cells that had significantly shortened anterior neurites (ALM-AN not reaching the posterior pharyngeal bulb and PLM-AN not extending beyond the vulva). Amino acid changes in the alleles can be found in Table 1. A χ^2 test for categorical data was used to compare mutants with the wild type. (E-F) The relative length of PLM-PN or ALM-PN in *mec-7* and *mec-12 lf, anti*, and *neo* mutant animals, as well as the double mutants of *mec-7(ok2151 lf)* with *mec-12 neo* alleles. Dunnett's test was used to analyze the data.

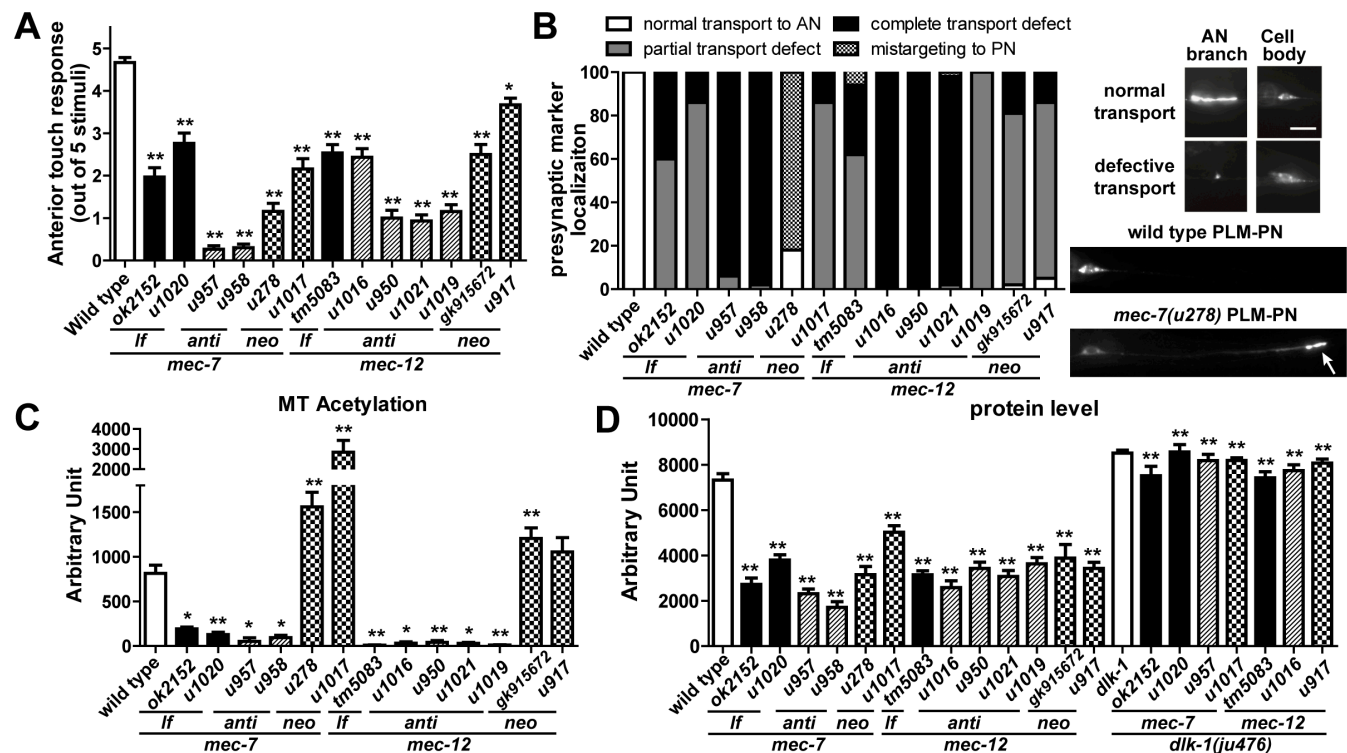


Figure 3. Effects of *mec-7* and *mec-12* mutations on TRN development and functions. (A) The average number of anterior touch responses of *mec-7* and *mec-12* *lf*, *anti*, and *neo* mutants at the anterior side. (B) Defective targeting of the synaptic vesicle marker RAB-3::GFP in *mec-7* and *mec-12* mutant PLM neurons. RAB-3::GFP signal is found in patches where PLM-AN branches synapse onto target neurons in the wild-type ventral nerve cord. This targeting was partially or completely lost in many of the mutants; this loss in *mec-7(lf)* and *mec-12(anti)* mutants could be partly caused by the lack of PLM synaptic branch. In *mec-7(u278; C303Y)* mutants, however, the marker was mistargeted to the distal end of PLM-PN (arrow). (C) Immunofluorescent intensity of antibody labeling of acetylated α -tubulin. (D) Fluorescent intensity of the TRN marker *uIs134 [mec-17p::RFP]* in various *mec-7* and *mec-12* mutants and their doubles with *dlk-1 lf (ju476)* allele. Dunnett's tests were performed to compare the mutants with the wild type animals, and *t* tests with Bonferroni correction were used to identify significant difference between the tubulin single mutants and *dlk-1; mec-7* or *dlk-1; mec-12* double mutants.

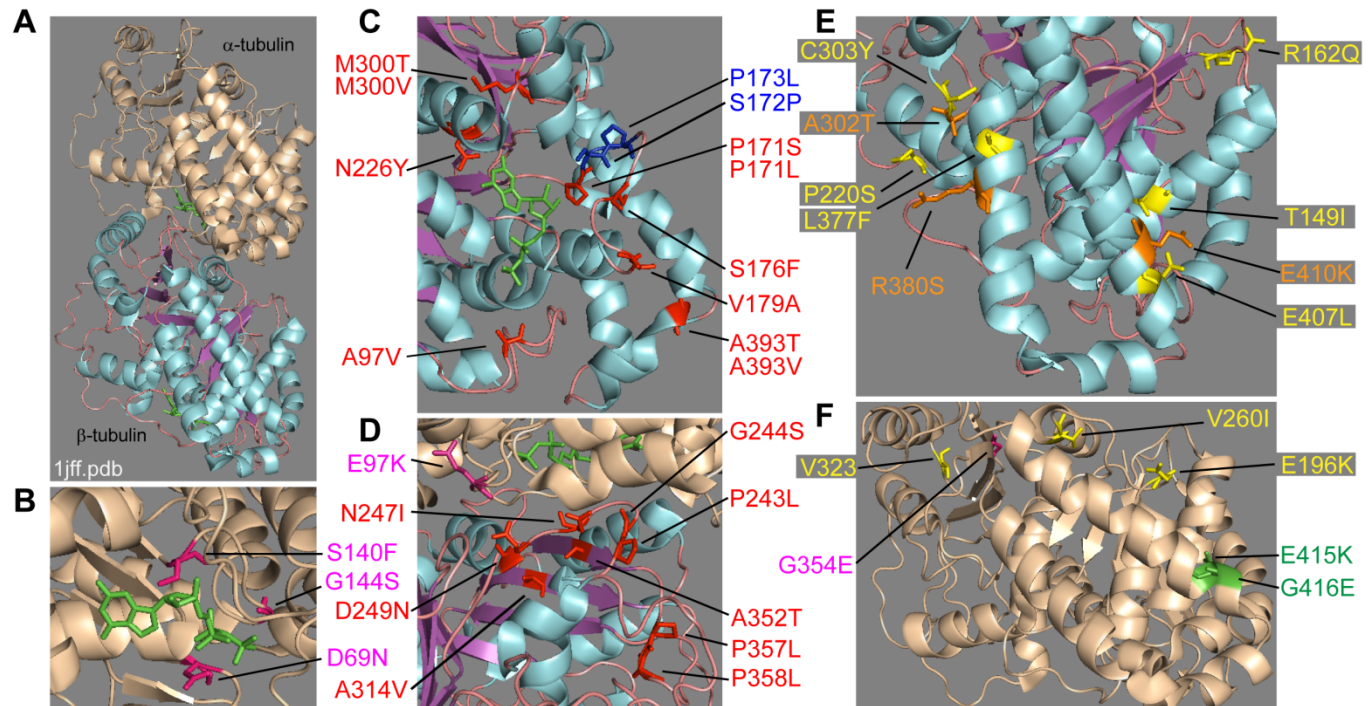


Figure 4. Position of amino acid residues changed in *mec-7* and *mec-12* mutants. (A) The structure of the α/β tubulin dimer (1jff.pdb) visualized using PyMOL. α -tubulin is in wheat, and β -tubulin is in cyan, magenta, and pink, which labels α -helices, β -sheets, and loops, respectively. GTP is labeled in green. (B-C) Amino acid changes around the GTP binding pocket in *mec-7* (red) and *mec-12* (pink) antimorphs. P173L and S172P (blue) are disease-associated mutations found in human TUBB3 that were engineered in *mec-7* to test their effects. (D) *mec-7* (red) and *mec-12* (pink) *anti* mutations mapped to intradimer interface. (E-F) Amino acid alterations in *mec-7* (E, yellow) and *mec-12* (F, yellow) *neo* alleles. A302T, R380S, and E410K (orange) were clinically identified TUBB3 mutations. E415 and G416 (green), mutated in *mec-12* partial *lf* alleles, are located at the exterior surface of α -tubulin.

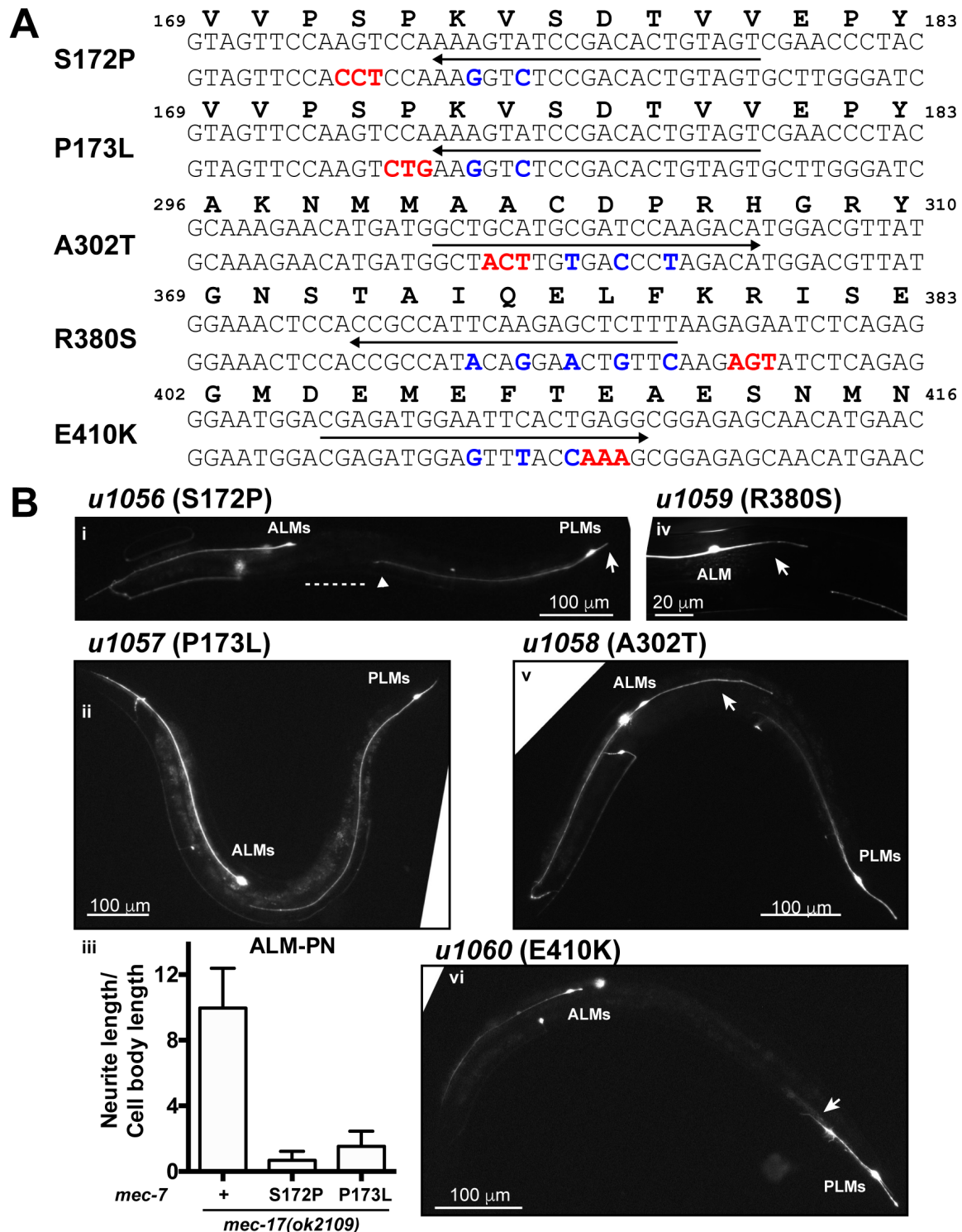


Figure 5. Modeling human tubulin mutations in *C. elegans* TRNs. (A) Sequence changes designed to introduce TUBB3 missense mutations in *mec-7* gene. For each mutation, the line with an arrow underscores the 20 bp DNA sequence for the guide RNA target, and the directionality of the arrow

indicates the strand of the target. The bottom DNA sequence contains the desired nonsynonymous (red) and synonymous mutations (blue) on the homologous repair template. Amino acids sequence with the positional information was shown on the top. (B) TRN morphologies of animals carrying the engineered missense mutations. For *u1056I* (i), dashed line, triangle, and the arrow indicate the gap from PLM-AN to ALM cell body, the position of the vulva, and the shortened PLM-PN, respectively. (iii) shows the length of ALM-PN in *mec-17; mec-7(u1056)* and *mec-17; mec-7(u1057)* double mutants. For *u1058* (v) and *u1059* (vi), arrows point to the ectopic ALM-PN. For *u1060*, the arrow points to the severely shortened PLM-AN.

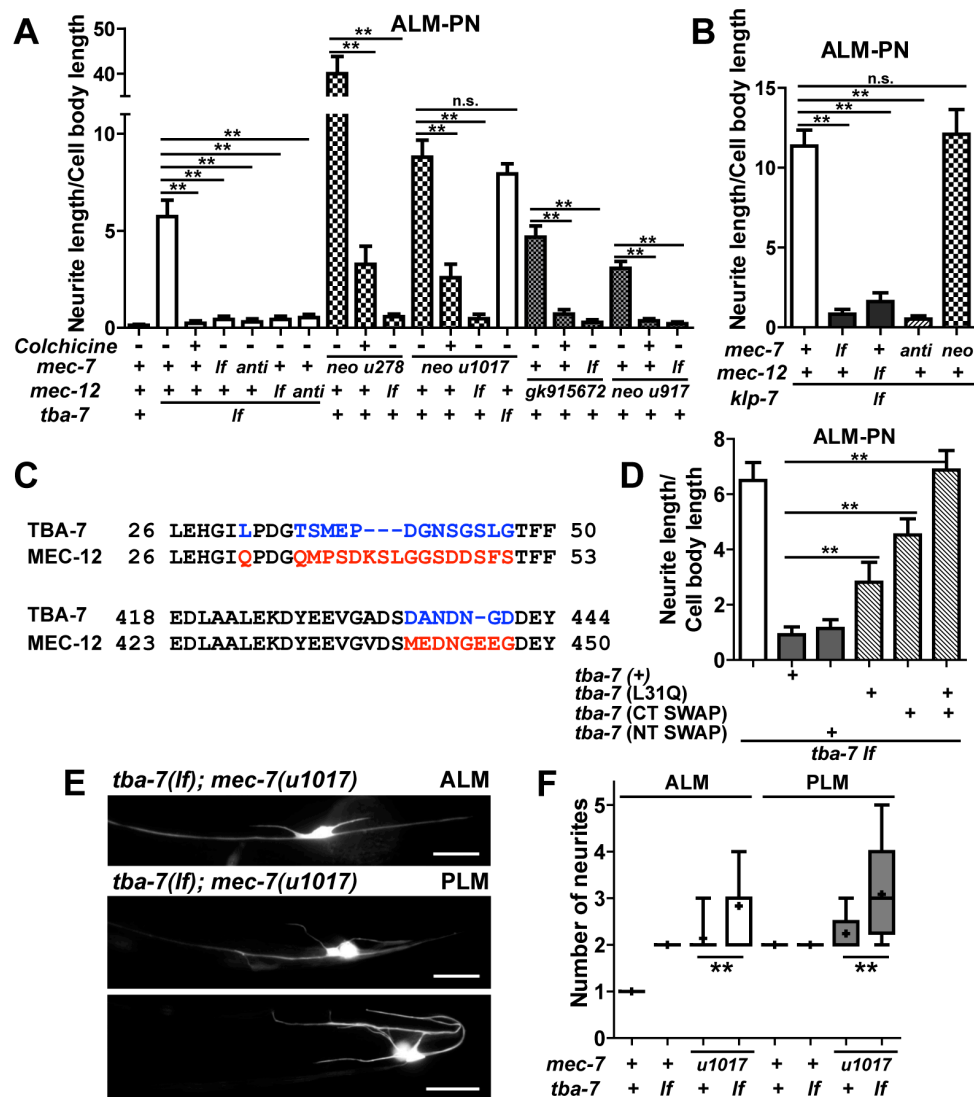


Figure 6. Mutations in *mec-7*, *mec-12*, *tba-7*, and *klp-7* result in the growth of ectopic ALM posterior neurites. (A) The length of ALM-PN in *tba-7(u1015 lf)* and *mec-7* and *mec-12* neomorphic alleles and the effect of 1 mM colchicine and *mec-7(ok2152 lf)*, *mec-7(u957 anti)*, *mec-12(tm5083 lf)*, and *mec-12(u1016 anti)* mutations. (B) The length of ALM-PN in *klp-7 lf (tm2143)* mutants and their double mutants with *mec-7(ok2152 lf)*, *mec-7(u957 anti)*, *mec-12(tm5083 lf)*, and *mec-7(u1017 neo)*. (C) The differences between the TBA-7 and MEC-12 amino acid sequences in the alignment were labeled in color. (D) The length of ALM-PN in *tba-7(u1015 lf)* carrying the transgene expressing the wild type or mutant TBA-7 proteins. TBA-7 (CT SWAP) had DANDNGD (a.a. 435-441) replaced by MEDNGEEG, TBA-7 (NT SWAP) had TSMEPDGNSGSLG (a.a. 35-47) replaced by QMPSDKSLGGSDDSFS, and TBA-7 (L31Q + CT SWAP) carried both mutations. (E) Sprouting of neurites from the ALM and PLM cell bodies in *tba-7(u1015 lf); mec-7(u1017 neo)* double mutants. (F) The average number of neurites emanating from the cell bodies in *tba-7(u1015 lf)* and *mec-7(u1017 neo)* single mutants and their double mutants.

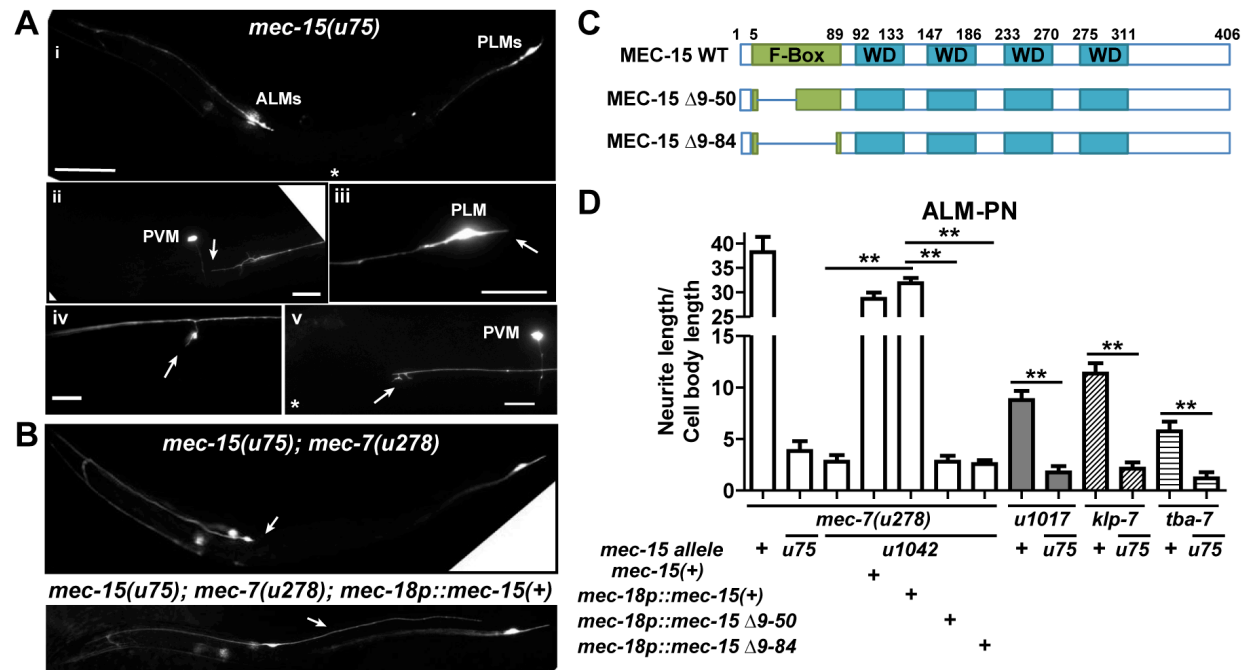


Figure 7. F-box protein MEC-15 promotes neurite growth. (A) TRN morphology in *mec-15(u75 lf)* mutants (i; scale bar = 100 μ m). PLM-AN was shortened and did not extend beyond PVM (ii); PLM-PN was also significantly shortened (iii). Synaptic branches of ALM-AN (iv) and PLM-AN (v) could not fully extend in *mec-15* mutants. Scale bar = 20 μ m in (ii) through (v). (B) The growth of ALM-PN (arrows) in *mec-7(u278 neo)* mutants was suppressed by *mec-15(lf)* mutations and was restored in the double mutants by expressing wild-type MEC-15 under a TRN-specific *mec-18* promoter. (C) Protein structures of the wild type MEC-15 and F-Box mutants. F-Box and the four WD-40 repeats (WD) were labeled in green and blue, respectively. (D) The length of ALM-PN in various strains. Asterisks indicate significant difference in Tukey-Kramer test.

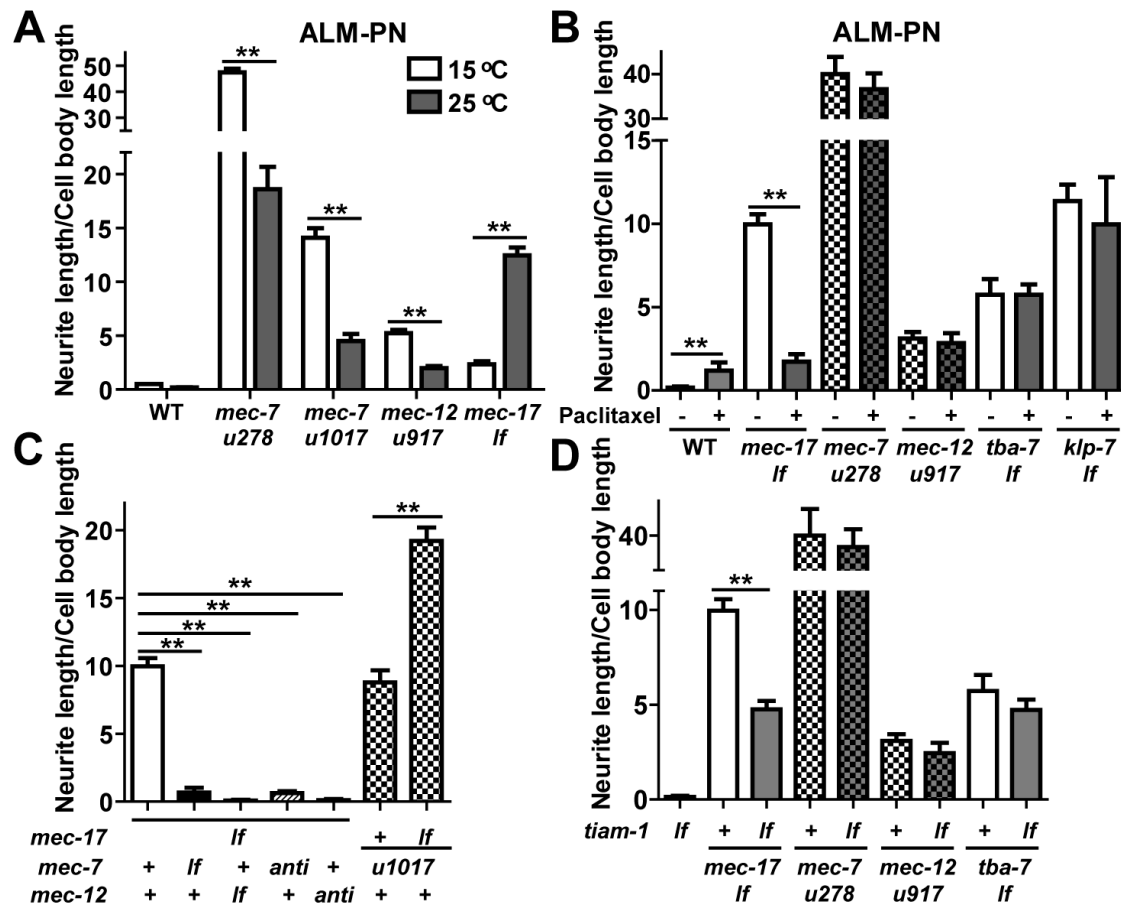


Figure 8. *mec-17 lf* mutations and tubulin *neo* mutations induce the growth of ectopic ALM-PN through different mechanisms. (A) The length of ALM-PN in *mec-17(ok2109 lf)* and tubulin *neo* mutants grown at 15°C and 25°C. Data for the rest of the figure were collected from animals grown at 20°C. (B) The length of ALM-PN in *mec-17(ok2109 lf)*, *mec-7(u278 neo)*, *mec-12(u917 neo)*, *tba-7(u1015 lf)*, and *klp-7(tm2143 lf)* animals treated with or without 100 nM paclitaxel. (C) *mec-17(ok2109 lf)* mutants and their double mutants with *mec-7(ok2152 lf)*, *mec-7(u957 anti)*, *mec-12(tm5083 lf)*, *mec-12(u1016 anti)*, and *mec-7(u1017 neo)*. (D) The length of ALM-PN in *mec-17(ok2019 lf)*, *mec-7(u278 neo)*, *mec-12(u917 neo)*, and *tba-7(u1015 lf)* mutants and their double mutants with *tiam-1(u914 lf)*. Asterisks indicate significant difference in Tukey-Kramer test.

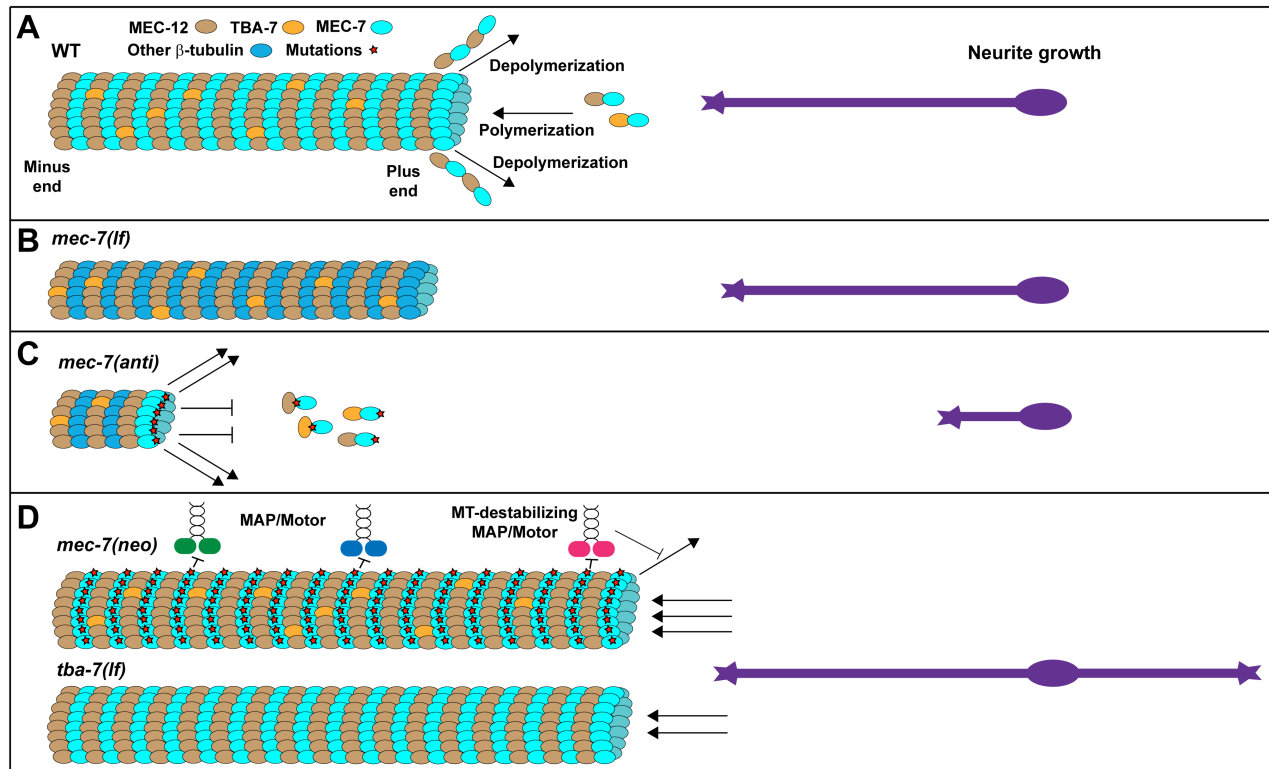


Figure 9. A model for the effect of MT dynamics on neurite development. (A) In wild-type animals, 15-p MTs are mostly made of MEC-12/ α -tubulin and MEC-7/ β -tubulin. Another α -tubulin TBA-7 is also incorporated into the MTs, probably to increase the dynamics. (B) In the absence of MEC-7, the abundant 15-p MTs are replaced by a few 11-p MTs, which use other β -tubulins for polymerization and can still support neurite growth. Whether those β -tubulins are normally incorporated into the MTs is unclear. (C) *mec-7(anti)* mutations produce dominant-negative MEC-7 proteins with defects in the GTP binding pocket or the intradimer or interdimer interfaces. Such MEC-7 mutants can either sequester all α -tubulin or form toxic heterodimers that can terminate MT elongation upon incorporation. Thus, MT polymerization is blocked and neurite growth is disrupted in *mec-7(anti)* animals. (D) *mec-7(neo)* mutations mostly map to the exterior facing surface of the tubulin structure. When incorporated into the MTs, those MEC-7 mutant proteins may affect the binding of MAPs or motor proteins (e.g. Kinesin 13 family protein KLP-7) by either binding poorer to destabilizing proteins or better to stabilizing proteins. The net result would be hyperstable MTs. The loss of TBA-7 presumably allowed more MEC-12 to be incorporated into the MTs, which led to increased MT stability. Abnormally elevated MT stability caused excessive neurite growth.