The Collagens DPY-17 and SQT-3 Direct Anterior-Posterior Migration of the Q Neuroblasts in *C. elegans*.

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Abstract

Cell adhesion molecules and their extracellular ligands control morphogenetic events such as directed cell migration. The migration of neuroblasts and neural crest cells establishes the structure of the central and peripheral nervous systems. In *C. elegans*, the bilateral Q neuroblasts and their descendants undergo long-range migrations with left/right asymmetry. QR and descendants on the right migrate anteriorly, and QL and descendants on the left migrate posteriorly, despite identical patterns of cell division, cell death, and neuronal generation. The initial direction of protrusion of the Q cells relies on the left/right asymmetric function of the transmembrane receptors UNC-40/DCC and PTP-3/LAR in the Q cells. Here we show that Q cell left/right asymmetry of migration is independent of the GPA-16/G α pathway that regulates other left/right asymmetries including nervous system L/R asymmetry. No extracellular cue has been identified that guides initial Q anterior versus posterior migration. We show that the Collagens DPY-17 and SQT-3 control initial Q direction of protrusion. Genetic interactions with UNC-40/DCC and PTP-3/LAR suggest that DPY-17 and SQT-3 drive posterior migration and might act with both receptors or in a parallel pathway. Analysis of mutants in other Collagens and extracellular matrix components indicated that general perturbation of Collagens and the ECM did not result in directional defects, and that the effect of DPY-17 and SQT-3 on Q direction is specific. DPY-17 and SQT-3 are components of the cuticle, but a role in the basement membrane cannot be excluded. Possibly, DPY-17 and SQT-3 are part of a pattern in the cuticle and/or basement membrane that is oriented to the anterior-posterior axis of the animal and that is deciphered by the Q cells in a left-right asymmetric fashion. Alternatively, DPY-17 and SQT-3 might be involved in the production or stabilization of a guidance cue that directs Q migrations. In any case, these results describe a novel role for the DPY-17 and SQT-3 Collagens in directing posterior Q neuroblast migration.

Introduction

The migration of neuroblasts and neurons after their births establishes the structure of the central nervous system (e.g. the cerebral and cerebellar cortices) and peripheral nervous system (e.g. migration of neural crest cells to form the dorsal root ganglia). In *C. elegans*, the Q neuroblasts and their descendants undergo long-range migrations in a left-right (L/R) asymmetric fashion (reviewed in (MIDDELKOOP AND KORSWAGEN 2014)). The bilateral Q neuroblasts are born in the posterior lateral region of the animal as the sisters of the V5 hypodermal seam cells in embryogenesis. In the L1 larva, QR on the right polarizes and migrates to the anterior before its first division, after which the QR descendants continue to migrate anteriorly and divide to produce 3 neurons, AQR, SDQR, and AVM (Figure 1A) (Sulston and Horvitz 1977; Chalfie and Sulston 1981; Chapman et al. 2008; Sundararajan and Lundquist 2012). QL on the left polarizes and migrates posteriorly; QL descendants migrate posteriorly and undergo an identical series of divisions as QR to produce the three neurons PQR, SDQL, and PVM (Figure 1B), analogous in form and function to those produced on the right from QR (Sulston and Horvitz 1977; Chalfie and Sulston 1981; Chapman et al. 2008; SUNDARARAJAN AND LUNDQUIST 2012).

While similar in origin and development, QL and QR have an inherent L/R asymmetry that controls anterior-posterior (A/P) migration (HONIGBERG AND KENYON 2000; SUNDARARAJAN AND LUNDQUIST 2012). In QL, the transmembrane receptors UNC-40/DCC and PTP-3/LAR act in parallel to drive posterior migration, whereas in QR these molecules mutually inhibit one another's roles in posterior migration, resulting in anterior QR polarization and migration (SUNDARARAJAN AND LUNDQUIST 2012). The nature of the L/R asymmetric function of these molecules in QL versus QR is unknown, but it might involve the Fat-like Cadherin CDH-4 (SUNDARARAJAN *et al.* 2014).

The $G\alpha$ protein GPA-16 controls many L/R asymmetry events in *C. elegans*, including internal organ asymmetry of the gut and gonad, which is often reversed in *gpa-16* mutants (BERGMANN *et al.* 2003; AFSHAR *et al.* 2005; BRINGMANN *et al.* 2007). Here we find that Q cell A/P migration is not affected in *gpa-16* mutants, even in animals with reversed gut-gonad asymmetry. This suggests that GPA-16 is not involved in Q cell L/R asymmetry. A L/R asymmetry in the extracellular matrix (ECM) cuticle involving the

chirality of collagenous cuticle fibers is also not affected by GPA-16 (BERGMANN *et al.* 1998). Possibly, Q cell and cuticle L/R asymmetry are controlled by a distinct mechanism not involving GPA-16 or by a mechanism that acts upstream of GPA-16.

Components of the ECM often serve as ligands for transmembrane guidance and cell adhesion receptors. While the transmembrane receptors UNC-40/DCC and PTP-3/LAR act in Q cells as guidance receptors, no extracellular factor has been identified that controls the direction of Q migration. Body wall muscle cells produce SPON-1/F-spondin and a signal dependent upon NFM-1/Merlin, both of which control the protrusive ability of the Q cells but do not affect direction (JOSEPHSON *et al.* 2016b; JOSEPHSON *et al.* 2017). Wnt ligands control Q descendant migrations (ZINOVYEVA *et al.* 2008; JI *et al.* 2013; JOSEPHSON *et al.* 2016a) but do not apparently affect initial Q protrusion and migration.

Here we report that the extracellular matrix cuticle Collagens DPY-17 and SQT-3 (Novelli et al. 2004; Novelli et al. 2006) are required for initial Q cell direction of protrusion. Basement membrane (BM) Collagens have been broadly implicated in nervous system development, cell migration, and cell adhesion in vivo and in vitro (HAGG et al. 2001; HURSKAINEN et al. 2010; RASI et al. 2010). DPY-17 is most similar to human Collagen alpha-1(XXIV) (COL24A1) and is composed of a single Collagen triple helix repeat and a nematode cuticle Collagen N-terminal domain. The function of COL24A1 is not known, although it is associated with osteoblast differentiation as expected for a Collagen involved in bone formation (MATSUO et al. 2008). A human GWAS study on Hallux Valgus, a heritable syndrome of foot malformation, identified an expression quantitative trait locus in COL24A1 (ARBEEVA et al. 2020), suggesting a possible role in morphogenesis. SQT-3 is most similar to human Collagen alpha-1(XXI) (COL21A1) and contains two Collagen triple helix repeats and a nematode cuticle Collagen N-terminal domain. The role of COL21A1 is also not understood, but human GWAS studies on atypical psychosis and non-syndromic cleft lip/palate implicate a role for COL21A1 (MOHAMAD SHAH et al. 2016; MOHAMAD SHAH et al. 2019). Our results indicate that DPY-17 and SQT-3 Collagens provide instructive directional migration information for Q neuroblast A/P migration. Furthermore, we show that DPY-17 acts genetically with UNC-40/DCC and PTP-3/LAR to control Q neuroblast direction of

migration in a manner consistent with having a role in both pathways, a novel role for an ECM Collagen.

A survey of other extracellular matrix molecules for roles in Q migration direction was undertaken. We found that some components had no effect (e.g. the cuticle Collagens DPY-10, DPY-13, and SQT-1), whereas some controlled the ability to migrate, but not direction (e.g. the Laminin α EPI-1 and the basement membrane Collagen LET-2). These results point to a specific role of DPY-17 and SQT-3 Collagens in directing Q migration, and not a general disruption of Collagens in the ECM or general disruption of the ECM. Mutations in the basement membrane Collagen gene *emb-9* caused Q directional defects, as did mutations in genes affecting the production of Heparan Sulfate Proteoglycans (HSPGs), suggesting multiple ECM factors control Q migration. In sum, this work describes a unique instructional role for DPY-17 and SQT-3 Collagens in directional cell migration in development.

Methods

Genetics. *C. elegans* were grown using standard techniques and all experiments performed at 20°C. The following mutations and transgenes were used: LGI: *gpa-16(it143)M+*, *unc-40(n324)*, *mec-8(e398)*. LGII: *dpy-10(e128)*, *sqt-1(sc103 and e1350)*, *ptp-3(mu245)*, *lqls244[Pgcy-32::cfp]*, *ayls9[Pegl-17::gfp]* LGIII: *dpy-17(e164*, *e1295* and *e1345)*, *dpy-31(e2919)*, *emb-9(b117*, *b189*, *g23*, *hc70*, and *g34)*, *hse-5(tm472* and *ok2493)* LGIV: *dpy-13(e184)*, *unc-129(ev554)*, *epi-1(rh92*, *rh233*, and *rh27)*, *col-99(ok1204)* LGV: *sqt-3(e2924*, *e2926*, and *sc63)*, *dbl-1(nk3)*, *lqls58[Pgcy-32::cfp]*. LGX: *him-4(e1266*, *rh319*, and *e1267)*, *let-2(g25*, *g37*, and *b246)*, *lqls97[Pscm::mCherry]*. The temperature sensitive lethal *emb-9* and *let-2* alleles were grown at permissive 15°C and shifted to non-permissive 25°C as late embryos. *gpa-16(it143)* mutants were grown at 25°C.

L1 synchronization and Q cell imaging. L1 larvae were synchronized by hatching as previously described (CHAPMAN *et al.* 2008; JOSEPHSON *et al.* 2016a). Gravid adults and larvae were washed from plates, on which many eggs had been laid. After one hour, newly-hatched larvae were washed from plates and allowed to develop for 4 h (for the 4-4.5 h timepoint). L1 larvae were mounted for microscopy and imaging of Q cell position and morphology using the *ayls9[Pegl-17::gfp]* or *lqls97[Pegl-17::mCherry]* transgene.

Scoring of AQR and PQR migration. AQR and PQR, neuronal descendants of QR and QL, respectively, migrate the longest distances of Q descendants into the head and tail of the animal. AQR migrates anteriorly to a region near the anterior deirid and the posterior pharyngeal bulb. PQR migrates posteriorly past the anus into the phasmid ganglia in the tail. AQR and PQR position was scored as previously described (CHAPMAN *et al.* 2008; JOSEPHSON *et al.* 2016a). The animal was divided into five regions in the anterior-posterior axis: Position 1 is the normal position of AQR; position 2 is posterior to position 1 but anterior to the vulva; position 3 is near the vulva; position 4 is the position of Q cell birth; and position 5 is the normal position of PQR posterior to

the anus. AQR and PQR position was scored in 100 animals of each genotype (Table 1).

Results

QL and QR left-right asymmetry of migration does not involve GPA-16. The Q cells are born in the embryo as the sisters of the V5 epidermal seam cells. Before migration, they reside between the V4 and V5 seam cells in the posterior of the animal (Figure 1). Migration of QL and QR displays left-right (L/R) asymmetry. In wild-type, QL migrates posteriorly and divides over the epidermal seam cell V5, and QR migrates anteriorly and divides over the epidermal seam cell V4 (Figure 1A-C) (CHAPMAN *et al.* 2008; SUNDARARAJAN AND LUNDQUIST 2012; MIDDELKOOP AND KORSWAGEN 2014). Embryonic left/right (L/R) chirality is established at the 4-cell stage in the ABa and ABp blastomeres (ROSE AND GONCZY 2014). This involves asymmetric L/R placement of the mitotic spindle poles in these cells by the Gα protein GPA-16 (BERGMANN *et al.* 2003; AFSHAR *et al.* 2005; BRINGMANN *et al.* 2007). In *gpa-16(it143)* temperature-sensitive mutants, L/R asymmetric organ placement is frequently reversed, including L/R gut-gonad asymmetric placement.

We asked if QL and QR L/R asymmetry of posterior versus anterior migration involved GPA-16. In *gpa-16(it143)* mutants at 25°C, initial QL and QR protrusion and migration were unaffected. QL protruded and migrated posteriorly, and QR protruded and migrated anteriorly (n = 50 for each). Furthermore, the Q descendants AQR and PQR migrated normally, even in animals with reversed gut-gonad L/R asymmetry (Table 1). Thus, the L/R asymmetry of QL and QR migration does not involve GPA-16.

The DPY-17 and SQT-3 collagens affect Q cell anterior-posterior migration. *dpy-17* encodes a cuticular collagen similar to collagen alpha-1 (XXIV) (COL24A1) (Novelli *et al.* 2004). *dpy-17(e164)*, a predicted null mutant, displayed defects in AQR and PQR migration. AQR sometimes migrated posteriorly, and PQR sometimes migrated anteriorly (Table 1). The *dpy-17(e1295)* mutant displayed similar defects, and the hypomorphic *dpy-17(e1345)* mutant showed fewer defects (Table 1).

Initial Q migration was also affected by *dpy-17*. In *dpy-17(e164)*, 6/100 QL migrated anteriorly and divided over V4 (Figure 1D, and 6/100 QR migrated posteriorly and divided over V5 (Figure 1E). These data indicate that the collagen DPY-17 controls initial Q cell A/P directional protrusion and migration.

sqt-3 encodes a cuticular collagen similar to collagen alpha-1(XXI) (COL21A1). Genetic and biochemical studies suggest that DPY-17 and SQT-3 interact in the same collagen structures, possibly in hetero-oligomeric trimers (Novelli et al. 2004). sqt-3 mutants e2924 and e2906 showed AQR and PQR reversals to a level similar to dpy-17(e164) (Table 1). sqt-3(e2924) is a likely null allele (Novelli et al. 2004). The dominant sqt-3(sc63) mutation results in a dominant left-handed Roller phenotype but showed no AQR or PQR migration reversals alone (Table 1).

dpy-17(e164); sqt-3(e2924) double mutants displayed AQR and PQR migration defects that were not significantly different than either single mutant alone (Table 1), suggesting that they act in the same pathway. This is consistent with DPY-17 and SQT-3 affecting the same collagen structures as previously reported (Novelli et al. 2004). dpy-17(e164) double mutants with dominant sqt-3(sc63) displayed significantly increased PQR migration defects compared to dpy-17(e164) alone (31%; Table 1), suggesting that sqt-3(sc63) might have a dominant-interfering effect on PQR migration that is revealed in the absence of DPY-17.

Mutations in the cuticle collagen genes *dpy-10*, *sqt-1*, and *dpy-13* showed no AQR or PQR migration defects (Table 1), suggesting this effect on migration direction is specific to DPY-17 and SQT-3, and not general disruption of collagen in the ECM. The DPY-31 BMP-1/Tolloid-like metalloprotease acts with SQT-3 and DPY-17 in cuticle formation and in connective tissue integrity involving the TGFβ molecule DBL-1 (Novelli *et al.* 2004; Fotopoulos *et al.* 2015). *dpy-31(e2919)* and *dbl-1(nk3)* predicted null mutants displayed no AQR or PQR migration defects, nor did *unc-129(ev554)*, which is predicted to encode a TGFβ-like molecule that controls axon guidance (Colavita *et al.* 1998) (Table 1). These data suggest that the role of DPY-17 in directed Q migration is independent of DPY-31, DBL-1, and UNC-129, although redundancy of function among these molecules cannot be excluded.

DPY-17 and SQT-3 interact genetically with UNC-40 and PTP-3. The transmembrane receptors UNC-40/DCC and PTP-3/LAR control Q directional migration. *unc-40/DCC* and *ptp-3/LAR* mutants show defects in QL and QR migration such that QL sometimes polarizes and migrates anteriorly, and QR sometimes polarizes and

migrates posteriorly (Honigberg and Kenyon 2000; Sundararajan and Lundquist 2012; Sundararajan *et al.* 2014). This results in misdirected Q descendant AQR and PQR migration (Table 1). In *unc-40; ptp-3* double mutants, posterior migration was nearly completely abolished, with most QL/QR and AQR/PQR cells migrating to the anterior (Sundararajan and Lundquist 2012). This led to the idea an of an inherent L/R asymmetry of UNC-40/DCC and PTP-3/LAR function: In QL, UNC-40/DCC and PTP-3/LAR are redundantly required for posterior migration, and in QR, they mutually inhibit each other to prevent posterior migration (Sundararajan and Lundquist 2012).

In *dpy-17(e164); unc-40(n324)* double mutants, defective anterior migration of PQR was significantly enhanced (Table 1: 44% wild-type position 5 compared to 16%; 48% in position 1 in the anterior compared to 80%). *dpy-17(e1295); unc-40(n324)* showed a similar significant effect, but hypomorphic *dpy-17(e1345); unc-40* did not (Table 1). *sqt-3(e2924); unc-40(n324)* double mutants also showed significant enhancement of PQR migration defects. These results suggest that DPY-17 and SQT-3 act in parallel to UNC-40/DCC in posterior migration.

dpy-17(e164); ptp-3(mu245) doubles showed significantly enhanced PQR anterior migration defects, but to a lesser extent than dpy-17; unc-40. Defective AQR posterior migration was enhanced in dpy-17; ptp-3 (p=0.052), an effect not observed in dpy-17; unc-40. These results indicate that DPY-17 might act in parallel to UNC-40 in posterior PQR migration. Interaction with PTP-3 was more complex, with DPY-17 potentially acting in parallel for both posterior PQR migration and anterior AQR migration.

EPI-1/Lamininα**5** and HIM-4/Hemicentin affect the ability of AQR and PQR to migrate. EPI-1 and HIM-4 are extracellular matrix constituents known to control cell migration (FORRESTER AND GARRIGA 1997; FORRESTER *et al.* 1998; ZHU *et al.* 1999; VOGEL AND HEDGECOCK 2001; KALIS *et al.* 2010; VIVEIROS *et al.* 2011; GHOSH AND STERNBERG 2014). *epi-1* mutants displayed high-frequency defects in AQR and PQR migration, but few directional defects (Table 1). In other words, *epi-1* affected the ability of AQR and PQR to execute their migrations but did not affect direction of migration. *epi-1(rh233)* did not enhance directional migration defects of *unc-40(n324)* (Table 1).

Rather, the double mutant displayed an additive phenotype in which misdirected cells failed to complete their migrations at a higher frequency (*i.e.* in *unc-40(n324)*, 48% of misdirected PQRs migrated completely anteriorly to the position 1, whereas only 13% did so in *epi-1(rh233)*; *unc-40(n324)* double mutants, *p* < 0.0001). *him-4* mutants displayed low-frequency failures in AQR and PQR migration. One allele of three analyzed displayed one misdirected PQR in position 3 in the mid-body. One allele, *him-4(rh319)*, significantly enhanced PQR defects of *unc-40* and *ptp-3*, but another, *him-4(e1266)* did not. did not significantly affect AQR and PQR migration defects of *unc-40* or *ptp-3*. Together, these data suggest that EPI-1 is required for the ability of cells to migrate, but is not involved in the direction of migration. HIM-4 also controls the ability of cells to migrate, but might also have a role in PQR direction of migration, although the effect is not as strong as DPY-17.

EMB-9/CollagenIVα5 controls PQR directional migration. *emb*-9 mutants display a variety of developmental defects, including defective migration of the gonadal distal tip cells (GRAHAM *et al.* 1997; KAWANO *et al.* 2009; KUBOTA *et al.* 2012). Three temperature-sensitive *emb*-9 mutants displayed low-frequency reversals of PQR migration, as well as incomplete AQR migration (Table 1). LET-2/CollagenIVα5/6 also regulates gonadal distal tip cell migration (GRAHAM *et al.* 1997; GUPTA *et al.* 1997; CRAM *et al.* 2006). *let-2* mutants showed low-frequency failures of AQR and PQR migration, but no directional defects (Table 1). Previous studies showed the basement membrane collagen CLE-1/CollagenXVIII, which organizes nervous system and synapse structure (ACKLEY *et al.* 2001; ACKLEY *et al.* 2003) had no role in Q migration (SUNDARARAJAN *et al.* 2015).

C. elegans COL-99/COL13A1 is a member of the conserved MACIT family of Collagens (Membrane-Associated Collagens with Interrupted Triple Helices) (Tu et al. 2015; TAYLOR et al. 2018), which contain a transmembrane domain. COL-99 regulates axon fasciculation, outgrowth, and ventral nerve cord left-right asymmetry (TAYLOR et al. 2018; TAYLOR AND HUTTER 2019). col-99 mutants displayed no defects in AQR or PQR migration (Table 1).

HSE-5 acts in parallel to UNC-40/DCC in posterior PQR migration. The heparan sulfate epimerase HSE-5 was previously shown to control directional QR and QL migration and AQR/PQR migration (SUNDARARAJAN *et al.* 2015; WANG *et al.* 2015) (Table 1). *hse-5* mutants significantly enhanced PQR directional migration defects of *unc-40*, and significantly enhanced AQR directional defects of *ptp-3*. *hse-5* significantly suppressed PQR directional defects of *ptp-3*. This complex genetic interaction could reflect the role of HSE-5 in modifying the function of multiple extracellular heparan sulfate proteoglycans with distinct roles in Q migrations.

MEC-8/RBPMS controls directional AQR/PQR migration. The MEC-8 RNA binding protein and mRNA processing factor is involved in the processing of mRNAs, including that of the extracellular heparan sulfate proteoglycan UNC-52/Perlecan, which is involved in gonadal distal tip cell migration (LUNDQUIST 1994; LUNDQUIST 1996; SPIKE *et al.* 2002; MERZ *et al.* 2003). *mec-8(e398)* displayed low-frequency defects in AQR and PQR directional migration but did not significantly enhance *unc-40* or *ptp-3* (Table 1). In fact, *mec-8* significantly suppressed PQR defects of *ptp-3*, similar to *hse-5*.

Discussion

Q cell L/R asymmetry is independent of GPA-16. Here we have found that the L/R asymmetry of migration of the Q neuroblasts is independent of a known mechanism or embryonic L/R asymmetry involving the $G\alpha$ protein GPA-16 (BERGMANN et al. 2003; AFSHAR et al. 2005; BRINGMANN et al. 2007). QR descends from the right embryonic blastomere ABpr, and QL from the left ABpl, the very L/R asymmetry that GPA-16 controls in the early embryo. However, GPA-16 does not affect Q cell L/R asymmetric migration. Previous studies showed that the extracellular matrix cuticle displays L/R chirality which is also not dependent on GPA-16 (BERGMANN et al. 1998). The C. elegans cuticle is composed of collagens and other extracellular matrix molecules (PAGE AND JOHNSTONE 2007). The cuticle displays L/R chirality, as seen in the chiral orientation of cuticle fibers in electron micrographs and the L/R chirality of Roller mutants, which affect cuticular components including collagens (BERGMANN et al. 1998). Cuticular L/R chirality, including that of *Roller* mutants, is not affected by *gpa-16* mutation, suggesting a distinct mechanism not involving GPA-16 (BERGMANN et al. 1998). Possibly, whatever mechanism controls cuticular L/R chirality might also control Q neuroblast L/R asymmetry of migration. This mechanism could act in parallel to GPA-16 to control the L/R asymmetry of distinct tissues, or the ECM chirality mechanism might be earlier than the GPA-16 mechanism, such that GPA-16 is a ramification of the earlier event that controls both ECM chirality and GPA-16-mediated chirality.

The cuticular collagens DPY-17 and SQT-3 control direction of Q migration. We found that mutations in two genes encoding cuticular collagens, *dpy-17* and *sqt-3*, control anterior-posterior direction of migration of the Q neuroblasts and of their descendants, AQR and PQR. That the *dpy-17*; *sqt-3* double null mutant resembles each single mutant alone suggests that DPY-17 and SQT-3 act together in the same pathway, consistent with previous results suggesting that they might contribute to the same collagen structures, possibly in heterotrimers (Novella *et al.* 2004).

While Wnts control anterior-posterior migration of the Q descendants (SILHANKOVA AND KORSWAGEN 2007; ZINOVYEVA *et al.* 2008; MENTINK *et al.* 2014; JOSEPHSON *et al.* 2016a), they do not control initial direction of Q migration. SPON-1/F-

spondin and a signal produced in muscles by NFM-1/Merlin that interacts with SLT-1/Slit control the ability of Q cells to migrate, but are not involved in direction of migration (JOSEPHSON *et al.* 2016b; JOSEPHSON *et al.* 2017). The transmembrane Fat-like Cadherin CDH-4 acts non-autonomously to control Q cell direction (SUNDARARAJAN *et al.* 2014), but DPY-17 and SQT-3 collagens represent the first extracellular molecules identified that control direction of initial Q migration.

A third collagen, EMB-9, also controlled AQR and PQR direction of migration, but the collagen LET-2 did not. Furthermore, mutations in three additional cuticular collagen genes, *dpy-10*, *dpy-13*, and *sqt-1*, did not affect AQR/PQR migration, indicating that general collagen perturbation was not the cause of Q migration defects in *dpy-17* and *sqt-3*, but rather a specific role of DPY-17 and SQT-3 in controlling direction of initial Q migration and AQR/PQR migration.

How might collagens control Q cell direction of migration? DPY-17 and SQT-3 are cuticular collagens that each contain the nematode cuticular collagen domain. How might the cuticle guide anterior-posterior migration? Possibly, L/R chirality in the cuticle itself (BERGMANN et al. 1998) might provide guidance information to the Q cells which, after birth, are in contact with the cuticle. Alternatively, DPY-17 and SQT-3 might also be components of the extracellular matrix basement membrane that separates the Q cells and other hypodermis from muscle. The basement membrane serves as a substrate for cell and growth cone migration, including the Q cells, which migrate beneath the hypodermis. In support of this idea, DPY-17 acts with the Fibrillin MUA-3 to maintain connective tissue function and organellar adhesion involving the basement membrane (FOTOPOULOS et al. 2015). Possibly, DPY-17 and SQT-3 are part of an A/P pattern in the basement membrane tied to the anterior-posterior embryonic axis (Figure 3). One intriguing idea is that Collagen fibers in the basement membrane align with the A/P axis of the animal, and that QL and QR might respond differently to this potential A/P pattern in the basement membrane. A third possibility is that DPY-17 and SQT-3 might be involved in the production of an unidentified extracellular guidance cue that controls direction. Indeed, DPY-17 acts with the DPY-31/Tolloid metalloproteinase to generate a DBI-1/TGFβ growth factor in a model of Marfan disease (RAMIREZ AND DIETZ

2007; Fotopoulos *et al.* 2015). However, neither DPY-31 nor DBL-1 affected Q directional migration. Another potential mechanism involves a cuticular pattern established by DPY-17 and SQT-3 that is transmitted to the basement membrane. This idea is exemplified by *Roller* mutations that introduce left- or right-handed helical twists in the body of the animal (PAGE AND JOHNSTONE 2007). *Roller* mutations are often in genes that encode cuticule collagens and result in a twist in the cuticle due to defects in collagen processing and crosslinking (YANG AND KRAMER 1999; PAGE AND JOHNSTONE 2007). Indeed, *sqt-3(sc63)* is a dominant right-hand Roller (Novelli *et al.* 2004). That internal organs such as muscles and gut, which have no direct contact with the cuticle, are also twisted in Roller mutants indicates that the cuticular twist is reflected in the basement membrane, upon which internal organs are situated. Possibly, a pattern in the cuticle involving DPY-17 and SQT-3 is transmitted to the basement membrane, which influences direction of Q migration.

DPY-17 and SQT-3 interact genetically with the UNC-40/DCC and PTP-3/LAR receptors. UNC-40/DCC and PTP-3/LAR are transmembrane receptors that act in the Q cells and control initial direction of migration (HONIGBERG AND KENYON 2000; MIDDELKOOP et al. 2012; SUNDARARAJAN AND LUNDQUIST 2012). In QL, UNC-40 and PTP-3 act redundantly to drive posterior migration; in QR, they mutually inhibit one another, allowing for anterior migration (SUNDARARAJAN AND LUNDQUIST 2012). The Fat-like Cadherin CDH-4 might regulate this response (SUNDARARAJAN et al. 2014). dpy-17 and sqt-3 enhance PQR directional migration defects of unc-40 in a manner similar to ptp-3, suggesting that DPY-17/SQT-3 might act in the PTP-3 pathway. However, dpy-17 also enhanced PQR defects of ptp-3, suggesting it functions at least partially in parallel to PTP-3 as well. Possibly, DPY-17 acts in both pathways or defines a third pathway in posterior migration. dpy-17 also enhanced AQR defects of ptp-3, a phenotype not observed in *dpy-17*; *unc-40* doubles. DPY-17 might act in parallel to PTP-3 in anterior AQR migration, potentially in mutual inhibition of UNC-40/DCC, resulting in increased posterior migration of AQR. The L/R asymmetric function of UNC-40/DCC and PTP-3/LAR might control how the Q cells respond to the DPY-17/SQT-3 pattern (Figure 3).

EPI-1/laminin and **HIM-4/hemicentin** affect migration, but not direction. *epi-1* and *him-4* mutants displayed defects in the ability of AQR and PQR to complete their migrations but did not affect direction as did *dpy-17* and *sqt-3*. The additive phenotype of *epi-1*; *unc-40* double mutants is consistent with a role in migration but not direction. These results suggest that the extracellular matrix serves as a source of guidance information for migrating cells (DPY-17, SQT-3), as well as permissive substrate required for migration (EPI-1, HIM-4). This reinforces the notion that DPY-17 and SQT-3 have specific roles in directing cell migration, and that general perturbations to the ECM do not cause directional defects.

Factors regulating heparan sulfate proteoglycans control Q cell direction of migration. The heparan sulfate epimerase HSE-5 is predicted to catalyze the epimerization of d-glucuronic acid (GlcA) to I-iduronic acid (IdoA) in the heparan side chains of heparan sulfate proteoglycans. HSE-5 was previously shown to control directional QR and QL migration and AQR/PQR migration (SUNDARARAJAN *et al.* 2015; WANG *et al.* 2015). *hse-5* displayed complex genetic interactions with *unc-40* and *ptp-3*, consistent with the possibility of HSE-5 acting with multiple HSPGs in different aspects of AQR and PQR migration.

The RNA processing factor MEC-8 regulates the alternative splicing of *unc-52*, which encodes the basement membrane HSPG UNC-52/Perlecan, with functional consequences on body wall muscle development (LUNDQUIST *et al.* 1996). *mec-8* mutants displayed low-frequency defects in AQR/PQR migration direction but did not enhance *unc-40* or *ptp-3* significantly. However, *mec-8* suppressed PQR migration defects of *ptp-3* similar to *hse-5*. Possibly, UNC-52 controls AQR/PQR directional migration. Hypomorphic *unc-52* alleles, caused by mutations in exons affected by *mec-8*, did not cause AQR or PQR defects (SUNDARARAJAN *et al.* 2015), and *unc-52* null mutants arrested before *gcy-32::cfp* expression in AQR and PQR (data not shown). No single or double mutant in genes encoding HSPGs resulted in AQR/PQR directional defects (SUNDARARAJAN *et al.* 2015), but it remains possible that UNC-52/Perlecan is involved.

The results presented here show that the Collagens DPY-17 and SQT-3 instruct A/P migration of the Q neuroblasts. An intriguing idea is that DPY-17 and SQT-3 might be part of a pattern in the A/P axis of the ECM that instructs Q migration, either in the basement membrane or in the cuticle. Alternately, they could be involved in the production of an as-yet unidentified guidance cue that instructs Q migrations. In any event, these results demonstrate that Collagens are involved in providing instructional guidance information to neuroblasts *in vivo*.

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Figure Legends

Figure 1. Q neuroblast migration. A) A schematic representation of QR and descendant migration (after (Chapman et al. 2008; Sundararajan and Lundquist 2012)). Anterior is left; dorsal is up. Q cells and descendants are green; the hypodermal seam cells are magenta; the pharynx is grey. "V" is the position of the vulva; "A" is the position of the anus. Timepoints after hatching are indicated. QR is born in embryogenesis as the sister of the V5 seam cell and resides between the V4 and V5 seam cells at hatching. At 1-2.5 h, QR protrudes anteriorly over the V4 seam cell. At 3-3.5 h, the QR cell body migrates anteriorly along the protrusion to reside above V4. At 4-4.5 h, QR undergoes the first cell division, to produce AQR, which migrates anteriorly to the anterior deirid ganglion near the pharynx. B) Schematic of QL migration as described in (A). At 1-2.5 h, QL protrudes posteriorly over V5. At 3-3.5 h, the QL cell body migrates posteriorly along the protrusion to reside over V5. At 4-4.5 h, QL undergoes the first division, and subsequent divisions and posterior migrations result in PQR residing in the tail in the phasmid ganglion. (C-E) Fluorescence micrographs of L1 larvae 4-4.5 h post hatching. The Q neuroblasts are marked with ayls9[Pegl-17::gfp] (green; also in unidentified cells around the pharynx). The seam cells are marked with Igls97[Pscm::mCherry] (magenta). The seam cells and Q cells are indicated. The scale bar in (C) represents 5µm. C) A wild-type animal. QR has migrated anteriorly and divided over V4; and QL has migrated posteriorly and divided over V5. D) In a dpy-17(e164) mutant, QL migrated anteriorly and divided over V4 instead of V5. E) In a dpy-17(e164) mutant, QR migrated posteriorly and divided over V5 instead of V4. QR and QL migration was defective in 6% of dpy-17(e164) animals (n = 100).

Figure 2. AQR and PQR position. Micrographs of L4 animals expressing *IqIs244[Pgcy-32::cfp]* in AQR, PQR, and the left and right URX neurons, which reside next to one another and are indistinguishable in these micrographs. Scale bars represent 20μm. Fluorescence images are merged with differential contrast interference (DIC) images. A) In wild type, AQR resides in the anterior in the anterior deirid near the pharynx, and PQR resides posterior to the anus in the phasmid ganglion. B) In a *dpy*-

17(e164) mutant, AQR had migrated posteriorly near to the normal position of PQR. C) In a *dpy-17(e164)* mutant, PQR migrated anteriorly to reside near AQR.

Figure 3. A model of DPY-17 and SQT-3 Collagens in directed neuroblast

migration. A schematic representation of an animal that has been cut along the dorsal axis and splayed open. Arrows represent a potential asymmetry in the extracellular matrix involving Collagens (*i.e.* a pattern in the ECM oriented to the anterior-posterior axis of the animal). The black "posterior" pattern might be defined by DPY-17 and SQT-3. In QL, this pattern is used for posterior migration. The red "anterior" pattern might be followed by QR for anterior migration. The inherent L/R asymmetry in the Q neuroblasts, possibly involving UNC-40/DCC and PTP-3/LAR receptor function, might determine the response of the Q neuroblasts to these ECM patterns.

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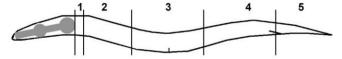


Table 1. AQR and PQR Migration Defects.

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100	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	100
98	1	0	0	1	9	2	0	2	87
	1			1	9				87
	1	_	0	_	1	0	0	_	99
		0	1			0	1		84
		0	0			3	0	0	90
		0	0					0	100
		0	0					0	87
97	0	0	0	3	31**	0	0	0	69
100	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	100
	0	0	0		0	0	0	0	100
	0	0	0		0	0	0	0	100
	0	0	0		0	0	0	0	100
	0	0	0		0	0	0	0	100
	0	0	0		0	0	0	0	100
100	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	100
99	0	0	1	0	48	2	2	4	44
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epi-1(rh92) epi-1(rh233) epi-1(rh27) epi-1(rh233); unc-40(n324) him-4(e1266) him-4(e1267)	6 81 13 76 95 96	29 11 21 17 4 3	42 6 44 5 0	23 2 22 2 0 0	0 0 0 0 1	0 0 0 13*** 0	1 0 1 9 0 1	7 0 5 6 0	80 34 81 14 1	12 66 13 58 99 98
him-4(rh319) him-4(e1266); unc-40(n324) him 4(rh310); unc-40(n324)	99 98 94	1 1 4	0	2	0 1	0 25 49**	0 1 6	0 4 6	15 6	99 55 33
him-4(rh319); unc-40(n324) him-4(e1266); ptp-3(mu245) him-4(rh319); ptp-3(mu245)	93 93	2 1	0	2	3	31 54**	0	1 1	2	66 43
emb-9(b117) emb-9(b189) emb-9(g23) emb-9(hc70) emb-9(g34) let-2(g25) let-2(g37) let-2(b246) col-99(ok1204)	99 98 99 100 100 100 95 88 100	0 1 0 0 0 0 5 12	0 1 1 0 0 0 0 0	1 0 0 0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0 0 0 0	0 0 1 2 1 0 0 0	0 0 0 0 0 0 0	0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0	0 2 3 0 2 0 0 0	100 98 95 98 97 100 99 100
hse-5(tm472) hse-5(ok2493) hse-5(tm472); unc-40(n324) hse-5(ok2493); unc-40(n324) hse-5(tm472); ptp-3(mu245) hse-5(ok2493); ptp-3(mu245) mec-8(e398) mec-8(e398); unc-40(n324) mec-8(e398); ptp-3(mu245)	85 85 65 71 45 75 97 95	7 4 16 13 1 4 2 2	5 1 15 6 3 1 0	0 0 1 7 8 1 0 0 2	3 10 3 3 43*** 19 1 3 1	18 15 44 41 12 9 1 36 11	2 2 17 18 1 2 0 8 1	0 2 26 16 4 0 0 4	2 7 6 13 8 1 0 3	78 77 7 12 75** 88 99 49 84***

*p = 0.052 ** $p \le 0.034$ *** $p \le 0.0001$



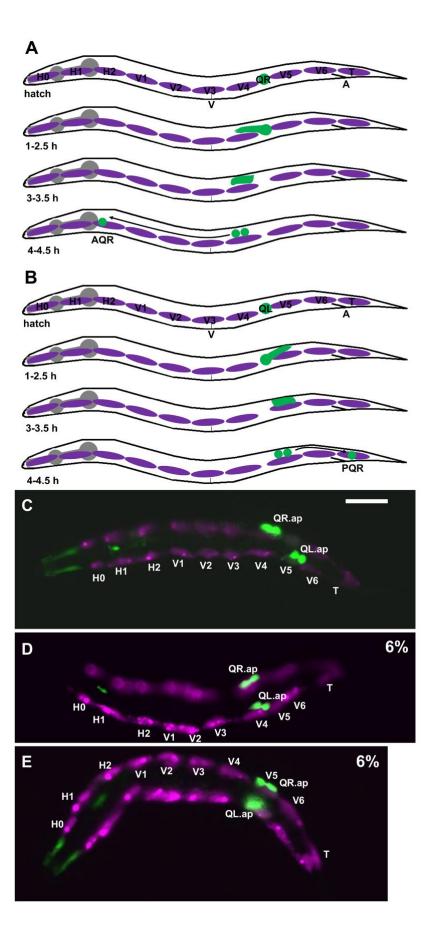


Figure 2

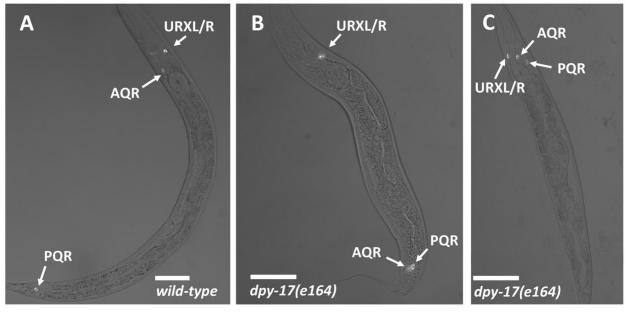
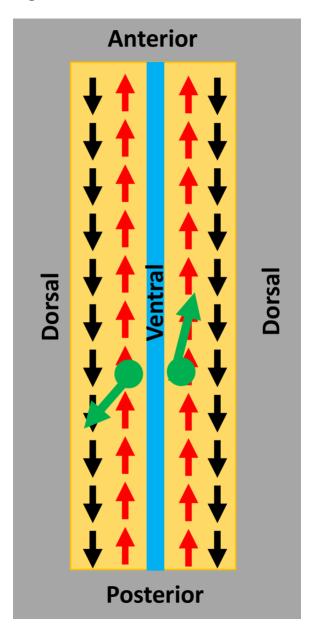


Figure 3



Graphical Abstract

