Differential modifications of the C-terminal tails of α-tubulin isoforms and their

importance for kinesin-based microtubule transport *in vivo*

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Summary

1. α-tubulin glutamylation was identified specifically on the C-terminal domain of TBA1 and

TBA3 (TBA1/3). Multiple glutamyl residues were pinpointed on these isoforms. The

Drosophila female germline isoform TBA4 is not glutamylated.

2. *TTLL5* is required for mono- and polyglutamylation of TBA1/3.

3. Glutamylation of α-tubulin is required for proper kinesin-based localization of Staufen/*osk*

mRNA, ooplasmic streaming during oogenesis, and kinesin-based transport of

mitochondria in neurons.

Abstract

Microtubules (MTs) are built from α-/β-tubulin dimers and used as tracks by kinesin and

dynein motors to transport a variety of cargos, such as mRNAs, proteins, and organelles,

within the cell. Tubulins are subjected to several post-translational modifications (PTMs).

Glutamylation is one of them, and it is responsible for adding one or more glutamic acid

residues as branched peptide chains to the C-terminal tails of both α- and β-tubulin.

However, very little is known about the specific modifications found on the different tubulin

isoforms *in vivo* and the role of these PTMs in cargo transport along MTs *in vivo*. In this

study, we found that in *Drosophila*, glutamylation of the α-tubulin isoforms occurs specifically

on the C-terminal ends of TBA1 and TBA3 in the ovaries. In contrast, the ovarian isoform

TBA4 is not glutamylated. The C-terminal ends of TBA1 and TBA3 are glutamylated at

several glutamyl side chains in various combinations. *Drosophila TTLL5* is required for the

mono- and polyglutamylation of ovarian TBA1 and 3. Furthermore, glutamylation of the α-

tubulin is essential for the efficient localization of Staufen/*osk* mRNA and to give

directionality to the fast ooplasmic streaming, two processes known to depend on kinesin-

mediated processes during oogenesis. In the nervous system, the kinesin-dependent

neuronal transport of mitochondria also depends on *TTLL5*. Additionally, α-tubulin

glutamylation affects the pausing of the transport of individual mitochondria in the axons. Our

results demonstrate the *in vivo* role of *TTLL5* in differential glutamylation of α-tubulin

isoforms and point to the *in vivo* importance of α-tubulin glutamylation for kinesin-dependent

processes.

Introduction

Microtubules (MTs) are fundamental cytoskeletal filaments comprising heterodimers of α- and β-tubulins. Despite the high level of conservation in eukaryotes, MTs are still quite diverse because cells express different isoforms, and these can undergo several different post-translational modifications (PTMs). Based mainly on *in vitro* assays, these isoform variations are thought to optimize the MT interaction with different microtubule-associated proteins (MAPs) and motors.

Drosophila melanogaster possesses four α-tubulin genes. Three of them are expressed during oogenesis and early embryogenesis, suggesting that they contribute to the formation of microtubules during these stages. The three genes are *αTub84B*, *αTub84D,* and *αTub67C* (Kalfayan and Wensink, 1982). *αTub84B* and *αTub84D* encode the TBA1 and TBA3 isoforms of α-tubulin, respectively, which differ in only two amino acids. Their primary sequence in the C-terminal domain is identical, and both are expressed in most tissues and throughout development. In contrast, *αTub67C* encodes TBA4 and is expressed exclusively during oogenesis, where it is maternally loaded into the egg and embryo. The primary structure of TBA4 is distinctively different from TBA1/3 (Theurkauf et al., 1986). These differences are also apparent in the C-terminal domain and include the last residue, which is phenylalanine (Phe, F) in TBA4 and tyrosine (Tyr, Y) in TBA1/3. *αTub85E,* which encodes TBA2, is mainly expressed in testes (Kalfayan and Wensink, 1982).

MTs are subjected to several PTMs, including the C-terminal tail glutamylation, glycylation, and detyrosination / tyrosination (Arce et al., 1975, Eddé et al., 1990, Redeker et al., 1994, Hallak et al., 1977). Furthermore, acetylation and phosphorylation in the more central parts of the tubulins have also been identified (Arce et al., 1975; Eddé et al., 1990; Hallak et al., 1977; L'Hernault and Rosenbaum, 1985; Magiera and Janke, 2014; Redeker et al., 1994). Glutamylation is a PTM that adds one or more glutamic acids (Glu, E) to the side chains of glutamic acid residues in the C-terminal tails of both α and β tubulin, causing the formation of a branched peptide chain (Eddé et al., 1990; Redeker et al., 1992). Glycylation is another PTM that adds glycines to the γ-carboxyl group of glutamic acid residues in the C-terminal region (Redeker et al., 1994). At least in vertebrates, tubulin is also subjected to a particular cycle of de-tyrosination-tyrosination (Preston et al., 1979). In this case, the C-terminal Tyr or Phe of α-tubulin is cyclically removed, resulting in a C-terminal Glu residue, and a new Tyr can be re-added to the new C-term. The enzymes that catalyze glutamylation, glycylation, and tyrosination belong to the Tubulin-tyrosine-ligase-like (TTLL) family (Janke et al., 2005). In *Drosophila melanogaster*, this family encompasses 11 genes (flybase.org).

CG31108 is considered the homolog of the mammalian *TTLL5* gene and was therefore

named *DmTTLL5 or TTLL5* (Devambez et al., 2017). It is required for α-tubulin glutamylation

in the *Drosophila* nervous system (Devambez et al., 2017). The murine TTLL5 is composed

of an N-terminal core tubulin tyrosination ligase-like (TTLL) domain, a cofactor interaction

domain (CID), and a C-terminal receptor interaction domain (RID) (Lee et al., 2013). The N-

terminal core domain was shown to provide the catalytic activity of TTLL5 and is highly

conserved in *Drosophila* TTLL5 (van Dijk et al., 2007) (**Table 1**). According to the FlyBase

data, *Drosophila TTLL5* mRNA is expressed at high levels in ovaries (**Table S2**), even

higher than in the nervous system where initial studies were performed (Devambez et al.,

2017). We thus focused on *TTLL5*'s possible functions during *Drosophila* oogenesis to shed

light on possible *in vivo* roles of glutamylated α-tubulins.

MTs have an intrinsic polarity with a plus and a minus end. On these tracks, kinesin

motors transport cargo to the plus ends, and dynein motors move cargo towards the minus

ends. Evidence for the importance of PTMs of tubulin subunits has already been reported *in*

vitro. Artificial tethering of 10E peptides to the side chains at position E445 of α-tubulin and

E435 of β-tubulin by maleimide chemistry increased the processivity (the run length) of

kinesin motors on tubulin. For Kinesin-1, this was a 1.5-fold increase (Sirajuddin et al.,

2014). In contrast to Kinesin, Dynein/dynactin motors preferred a Tyr at the C-term of α-

tubulin to initiate processive transport *in vitro*, because the motor favored this isoform as an

attachment point to dock onto the MTs (McKenney et al., 2016). Recent work now also

demonstrated a role for the mouse tubulin glycylation enzymes. *In vitro* fertility assays

showed that the lack of both *TTLL3* and *TTLL8* perturbed sperm motility, causing male

subfertility in mice. Structural analyses further suggested that loss of glycylation decreased

axonemal dynein activity (Gadadhar et al., 2021).

A recent *in vivo* mouse study showed that hyperglutamylation of α-tubulin by TTLL1, but

not β-tubulin, increased the overall (both anterograde and retrograde) motility of

mitochondria, perturbed axonal transport, and led to neurodegeneration (Bodakuntla et al.,

2021). Surprisingly, however, another study showed that the vesicular axonal transport was

not affected by the absence of MT glutamylation in *Drosophila TTLL5* mutant larvae

(Devambez et al., 2017). Given these results and because the *Drosophila* gene is also highly

expressed in ovaries, we studied the *in vivo* role of *TTLL5* with a particular focus on the

PTMs of the different α-tubulin isoforms in the ovary. This revealed that *TTLL5* is essential

for the normal glutamylation of the standard TBA1 and three isoforms. Surprisingly, even in

wild-type ovaries, the oogenesis-specific TBA4 was not glutamylated, suggesting that this

isoform may have evolved to produce MTs that contain regions that cannot be glutamylated.

We also found that *TTLL5* is required *in vivo* for the localization of mRNAs and cytoplasmic

streaming, suggesting that these activities indeed depend on polyglutamylation of α-tubulin.

The transport of mitochondria in wing nerves is another attractive system to study organelle

transport (Vagnoni and Bullock, 2016) (Hollenbeck and Saxton, 2005). We found that the

initiation of axonal transport of mitochondria in wing nerves was strongly affected by the lack

of *TTLL5*. The overall motility and the processivity of the mitochondrial transport also

appeared to depend on α-tubulin glutamylation. Our work, therefore, reveals the *in vivo*

importance of glutamylation of specific α-tubulin isoforms.

Results

Specific glutamylation on multiple Glu residues in TBA1/3, but not TBA4 in ovaries

Mass spectrometry experiments were initially performed to analyze the glutamylation of the C-terminal tails of α-tubulins *in vivo*. Proteins extracted from ovaries were purified through SDS-PAGE, and α-tubulin bands were cut out and digested with the protease trypsin-N. C-terminal peptides of the different α-tubulin isoforms were then analyzed for post-translational modifications by liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (LC-MS). Because the resulting C-terminal peptides are identical between the TBA1 and TBA3 isoforms, we refer to them as TBA1/3 (**Fig. 1A**). Analyses of wild-type ovarian extracts revealed that the general *Drosophila* isoforms TBA1/3, but not the ovarian-specific TBA4 isoform of α-tubulin, showed glutamylation on the C-terminal tail of α-tubulins (**Fig. 1A**, **S1**). For TBA1/3, side chain glutamylation was identified on all four glutamyl residues in the tail region, Glu443, Glu445, Glu448, and Glu449, and the longest side chains identified consisted of 3Es in wild-type ovaries **(Fig. 1A,1B).**

Drosophila TTLL5 is required for MT mono- and polyglutamylation of ovarian TBA1/3

To study the function of TTLL5, distinct *TTLL5* loss-of-function mutations were created and characterized (**Fig. 2A**). The *TTLL5^pBac^* and *TTLL5^Mi^* mutant strains carry a piggyBac and a Minos transposon, respectively, within the open reading frame of *TTLL5*. The *TTLL5^MiEx^* mutant was generated by imprecise excision of the Minos element, which caused the formation of a premature stop codon at gene position 8,132 in the open reading frame (codon position 392). An anti-TTLL5 antibody that cross-reacts with additional proteins in ovarian extracts also recognized a band corresponding to the mass of TTLL5. This band was absent in ovarian extracts prepared from the three *TTLL5* mutants, suggesting that they are protein nulls for *TTLL5* or make only a truncated protein (**Fig. 2B**). A transgene containing the wild-type *Drosophila TTLL5* sequence fused to the Venus fluorescent protein sequence under UAS control (UASP-*Venus::TTLL5*) was also produced as a tool to rescue the phenotypes produced by the *TTLL5* mutations and for overexpression studies (**Fig. 2A**).

To quantify the effect of *TTLL5* on the glutamylation of the C-terminal tails of α-tubulins, we determined the frequency of C-terminal peptides containing the entire primary sequence and 0, 1, 2, and 3 Glu (E) modifications. This analysis was performed with extracts from wild-type ovaries and the different *TTLL5* mutant ovaries. Wild-type ovaries revealed that 62% of the peptides were modified, 41% with 1E, 14% with 2Es, and 7% with 3Es **(Table 1)**. On the

other hand, no glutamylation was observed in *TTLL5^{pBac}* and *TTLL5^{MiEx}* mutants. This clearly

shows that *Drosophila TTLL5* is essential for the side chain glutamylation of the C-terminal

Glu443, Glu445, Glu448, and Glu449 of TBA1/3.

We also measured the levels of monoglutamylation of α-tubulin by Western blotting using

the GT335 antibody. This antibody reacts with the first glutamate on the glutamate side-

chain even if it is polygutamylated (**Fig. 3A**) (Wolff et al., 1992). Note that the GT335

antibody does not reliably detect all mono glutamylated residues in *Drosophila* tubulins

because GT335 preferentially recognizes the first Glu attached to a Glu residue in an acidic

environment. In mice, the middle Glu in the sequence -G**E**E- of the C-terminal tail of α-

tubulin is such an "acidic" site. Once glutamylated, the branched Glu modification can be

recognized by GT335 (Bodakuntla et al., 2021). In contrast, in *Drosophila* α-tubulin, both

E443 and E445 in the sequence -G**E**G**E**G- are flanked by Glycines on both sides, which

does not provide the acidic environment needed for efficient recognition by GT335. The

GT335 signal may, therefore, mainly stem from the glutamylation on the consecutive Glu

residues E448 and E449 in the sequence -GA**EE**Y. On Western blots from wild-type

extracts, the GT335 antibody produced a band at the expected position, and this band was

reduced in all *TTLL5* mutants. The GT335 signals were restored and even increased in

some *TTLL5* mutants upon overexpression of the rescue construct *Venus::TTLL5*, showing

that the signal is specific and can be used to monitor *TTLL5* activity **(Fig. 3B)**. We conclude

that *TTLL5* is required for monoglutamylation of α-tubulin.

The 1D5 antibody recognizes α-tubulin with an -XEE sequence at the C-terminal α-

carboxylate group (with X being a variable residue) (Rüdiger et al., 1999) **(Fig. 3A')**.

Therefore, in principle, all the Glu residues on E443, E445, E448 E449, and the C-terminal

Glu residues E448/449 can be recognized if they are not followed by another amino acid

(such as Tyr) at the α-carboxylate group. 1D5 does not cross-react with C-terminal Glu

residues E448/449 in tyrosinated α-tubulin. Because *w* control ovaries showed high 1D5

cross-reactivity with a polypeptide of the predicted size, this, therefore, indicates the

presence of glutamate side chains containing at least two glutamates and possibly de-

tyrosinated isoforms of α-tubulin (Gadadhar et al., 2017; Preston et al., 1979) **(Fig. 3B',**

3B"). Consistent with the MS analysis, the *TTLL5* mutants showed a strongly reduced signal

with 1D5, indicating that loss of *TTLL5* function prevents normal polyglutamylation. The 1D5

signal was again restored in all *TTLL5* mutants upon expression of the rescue construct.

Overexpression of TTLL5 in *TTLL5^{pBac}* and *TTLL5^{Mi}* even produced a stronger 1D5 signal

and an up-shifted band, suggesting that α-tubulin gets hyper-glutamylated, maybe on

additional sites **(Fig. 3B')**. We also tested whether the overexpression of *TTLL5* in a wild-

type background affected polyglutamylation similarly. Indeed, *UASP-Venus::TTLL5*
overexpression in ovaries led to hyper glutamylation, as evident from the stronger signal and
the additional upshifted band **(Fig. 3C).** Glutamylation of β-tubulin was also evaluated by
using the antibody β-monoE, which specifically recognizes monoglutamylation of the C-
terminal tail of β-tubulin (Bodakuntla et al., 2021) **(Fig. 3B").** The results showed a strong
signal of β-monoE in control ovaries, indicating that monoglutamylation occurred on β-tubulin
in ovaries. However, the β-monoE levels were kept unchanged whether *TTLL5* was
overexpressed or mutated. These results reveal that *TTLL5* is essential for the glutamylation
of MTs in the ovary, acting specifically on α-tubulin but not on the β- tubulin subunit. It also
suggests that TTLL5 levels are usually limiting in ovaries.

Most of the murine TTLL5 residues involved in α-tubulin glutamylation (van Dijk et al.,
2007) are conserved in *Drosophila* TTLL5 **(Table 2)**. Two are known to be essential for the
general enzymatic activity of TTLLs, and two for the interaction with the C-terminal domain of
α-tubulin **(Fig. 3D)**. To determine whether these residues are indeed needed *in vivo* for the
enzymatic activity of *Drosophila TTLL5 towards* TBA1/3, we used CRISPR/Cas9 to mutate
the conserved codons in *Drosophila TTLL5. Drosophila* TTLL5 residues K282 and E517
correspond to mouse K131 and E336*, respectively.* They directly interact with ADP/ATP and
thus affect general TTLL5 enzymatic activity (van Dijk et al., 2007). TTLL5^{R339} corresponds
to mouse TTLL5^{R188}*,* which is vital for TTLL5's glutamylation activity. MmTTLL5^{R188} resides in
the β6-7 loop, which forms a salt-bridge interaction with the C-terminal tail of α-tubulin and
orients it towards the ATP/ADP-binding site (van Dijk et al., 2007). Glutamylation of α-tubulin
was impaired in all these *TTLL5* mutants where the conserved residue was replaced **(Fig.
3E)**. Since these mutations did not abolish the stability of the corresponding mutant protein
(**Fig. S2**), our results revealed the importance of E517, K282, and R399 of *Drosophila* TTLL5
for glutamylation. Most active site residues of human TTL (Prota et al., 2013; van Dijk et al.,
2007) are also conserved between mammalian and *Drosophila* TTLL5 **(Table 3)**. We also
mutated the *Drosophila TTLL5^{P522}* codon corresponding to human *TTL^{P336}* (and mouse
TTLL5^{P371}), which is required for anchoring TTL to α-tubulin by forming hydrogen bonds with
C-terminal tail residues of α-tubulin (Prota et al., 2013). However, the importance of
TTLL5^{P371} has not been reported in mammalian systems. Surprisingly, in *Drosophila*, P522
was also essential for glutamylation, revealing P522 as a novel critical residue for the
glutamylation function of TTLL5.

Other PTMs of the C-terminal tail of ovarian α-tubulin

Our MS results also detected glycylated C-terminal α-tubulin peptides in ovarian samples. The glycylations were observed on the C-terminal tail of the *Drosophila* ovarian TBA1/3 isoforms but not on TBA4 **(Fig. S3A, S3B)**. Up to 2 glycines were primarily detected on Glu443, Glu445, Glu448, or Glu449 of TBA1/3. The frequency of C-terminal peptides containing Gly (G) modifications was similar or somewhat higher in *TTLL5* mutants compared to the wild-type control **(Fig. S3C)**, suggesting that *TTLL5* is not needed for this modification or even counteracts it.

Western blotting showed no or only minor changes in tyrosinated α-tubulin levels in any of the null or CRISPR/Cas9 generated point mutants, and *TTLL5* overexpression also did not affect these levels **(Fig. 3B, 3C, 3E).** TTLL5 levels, therefore, do not appear to affect levels of tyrosinated α-tubulin in ovaries.

Effect of *TTLL5* on Kinesin-1 dependent refinement of posterior localization of Staufen

osk mRNA localization, combined with translation control, is essential for targeting Osk protein expression to its proper posterior compartment in the cell (Suter, 2018; Weil, 2014). Staufen is a ribonucleoprotein (RNP) that associates with *osk* mRNA during *osk* mRNA localization. Staufen/*osk* mRNA localization requires the dynein/dynactin mediated minus-end transport machinery in the early stages of oogenesis. Subsequently, the Staufen/*osk* mRNA becomes localized to the posterior of the oocyte from mid to late stages of oogenesis. This particular Staufen/*osk* mRNA localization phase within the oocyte depends on a kinesin-driven process, including Kinesin-1 based active transport and ooplasmic streaming in stage 10B (S10B) oocytes (Kato and Nakamura, 2012) (Lu et al., 2018) (Brendza et al., 2000) (Zimyanin et al., 2008). To determine whether *TTLL5* contributes to this process, we studied the role of *TTLL5* in dynein and kinesin transport by analyzing the localization of Staufen in ovaries lacking functional TTLL5.

An established method to quantify the localization of Staufen to the posterior cortex is to measure the length of the posterior Staufen crescent along the cortex (Lu et al., 2016). A shorter crescent is a sign of better, tighter localization. We found that the length of the posterior Staufen crescent was significantly increased in *TTLL5* null and *TTLL5* point mutant ovaries compared to control ovaries (**Fig. 4A', 4A''', 4B-B')**. Furthermore, Z-stack images revealed a more diffusely spread Staufen signal in all *TTLL5* mutants, although this varied more between different samples **(Fig. 4A', 4B)**. The increased length of the crescent was

fully reversed to the regular length in all UAS-*Venus::TTLL5* rescued strains **(Fig. 4A''-A''')**.

We also analyzed the distribution of Venus::TTLL5 during oogenesis. Antibody staining

suggested that Venus::TTLL5 strongly accumulated in the oocyte, especially along the

cortex **(Fig. 4A'')**. In conclusion, the posterior localization refinement of Staufen in S10B

oocytes requires *TTLL5*. Because the point mutation blocks explicitly the enzymatic activity

of TTLL5, it appears that the proper localization requires glutamylation of tubulin.

To test if *TTLL5* is also required by the dynein/dynactin machinery and the Staufen/*osk*

mRNA transport during previtellogenic stages of oogenesis, we also imaged the localization

of Staufen and Bicaudal-D (BicD) proteins and *BicD* mRNA in early stages. BicD is the linker

that couples diverse cargos to the dynein/dynactin motor and is thus an excellent marker to

evaluate dynein transport function (Claussen and Suter, 2005). BicD and Staufen proteins,

and *BicD* and *osk* mRNAs showed similar localization patterns during early oogenesis when

comparing *TTLL5* mutants and control ovaries **(Fig. 4C)**. The expression of BicD was not

affected by the levels of TTLL5 as assessed by Western blotting (**Fig. 4D**, **Fig. S4**). These

results indicated that in ovaries, kinesin-dependent Staufen/*osk* localization processes

require *TTLL5*. In contrast, the dynein-dependent nurse cell to oocyte transport of mRNAs

and RNPs during early oogenesis does not appear to depend on *TTLL5*.

Kinesin-1-dependent ooplasmic streaming in stage 10B oocytes requires *TTLL5*

Ooplasmic streaming is a bulk movement of the oocyte cytoplasm that circulates and

distributes mRNAs and proteins in the oocyte, including the Staufen/*osk* mRNA RNPs. It

allows these mRNA and proteins to reach their intended position, where they become

anchored. Slow and nondirectional flows initiate at stages 8–9 and are followed by rapid and

circular streaming at S10B (Lu et al., 2016). Kinesin-1-dependent microtubule sliding is

critical for this fast ooplasmic streaming (Lu et al., 2016). The kinesin-dependent final

posterior localization of Staufen in S10B oocytes depends on this process and *TTLL5*. Aside

from this, the TTLL5 protein was present in the cortical region of the oocyte **(Fig. 4A'')**, the

region where the microtubule sliding occurs (Lu et al., 2018). We thus wanted to determine if

TTLL5 contributes to an efficient kinesin-dependent sliding that drives ooplasmic streaming.

We firstly examined the levels of Kinesin-1 and found that they were neither affected in

TTLL5 mutant ovaries nor in ovaries overexpressing *Venus::TTLL5* (**Fig. 5A, Fig. S4**). To

test if *TTLL5* is needed for ooplasmic streaming, we followed this process in real-time by

measuring vesicle movement in DIC time-lapse movies (**Mov. S1-S4**). We then tracked the

movement of the vesicles along the cortex region where microtubule sliding occurs (**Fig.**

5B). The velocity of the tracked vesicles was not affected in *TTLL5* mutant ovaries (**Fig. 5C**).

However, the analysis of the kymographs of these tracked vesicles showed that while control

ovaries have a typical streaming pattern with vesicles moving with a flow direction parallel to

the cortex, *TTLL5^{MiEx}* and *TTLL5^{E517A}* mutant ovaries displayed a disordered streaming

pattern (**Fig. 5D**). The typical streaming pattern was restored in *TTLL5^{MiEx}* ovaries

expressing a *Venus::TTLL5* rescue construct. Because the point mutation explicitly blocks

the enzymatic activity of TTLL5, our results suggest that TTLL5 is vital to control the

directionality of the fast ooplasmic streaming through its role in MT glutamylation.

The transport of mitochondria in neurons depends on the glutamylation activity of

TTLL5

Previous studies in *Drosophila* reported that *TTLL5* is required for the initiation of α-tubulin

glutamylation in the nervous system (Devambez et al., 2017). However, the absence of α-

tubulin glutamylation seemed not to be detrimental to the tested nervous system functions in

Drosophila (Devambez et al., 2017). The wing nerves are an attractive system to monitor

organelle transport such as the movement of mitochondria (Vagnoni and Bullock, 2016)

(Hollenbeck and Saxton, 2005). We thus used wing nerves to study neuronal transport in the

peripheral nervous system. Consistent with a previous report, we found that in extracts from

a mixture of heads and wings, α-tubulin was glutamylated, and this PTM depended on the

enzymatic activity of TTLL5 (**Fig. 6A**); (Devambez et al., 2017). This suggests that the wing

nerve could be a suitable system for this test.

To study if neuronal transport of mitochondria in wing neurons depends on glutamylation of

α-tubulin, we tracked the movement of GFP-labelled mitochondria (Mito::GFP) in selected

areas of both the L1 and L3 wing veins of freshly eclosed flies (**Fig. 6B**). Time-lapse videos

of Mito::GFP movement in the L1 and L3 veins, respectively, are shown in **Mov. S5** and

Mov. S6, respectively. Motile mitochondria were manually tracked using the Fiji MTrackJ

plugin (**Fig. 6C**). Movies and still images clearly showed a decrease of motile mitochondria

in the region close to the arch of the L1 vein and no transported mitochondria in the L3 vein

of the *TTLL5^{E517A}* mutant, pointing to the importance of the enzymatic activity of TTLL5 for

proper transport. For quantitative analysis, the ratio of motile particles was calculated based

on the values divided by total particles from three wings of each genotype (**Fig. 6D**). The

total particles include all the static and transporting ones, which were counted based on the

signal from one chosen still image. Quantifications showed, firstly, that the total number of

particles in the L1 vein (384) was twice as high as in the L3 vein (186). This is likely because

the L1 vein contains more neurons than the L3 (Vagnoni and Bullock, 2016). Secondly,

however, in wild-type wings, the fraction of motile mitochondria is higher (24%) in L3 veins

than in L1 veins (7.8%). This might be because compared to the L3 vein, which consists

mainly of axons (Vagnoni and Bullock, 2016) (**Fig. S5**), the region closed to the arch of the

L1 vein contains not only axons but also several cell bodies and dendrites (Vagnoni and

Bullock, 2016) (**Fig. S5**). Mitochondria in dendrites are longer than in axons (Chang et al.,

2006). Longer mitochondria are less motile than short ones (Misgeld et al., 2007). Many less

motile mitochondria in cell bodies and dendrites "diluted" the motile mitochondria ratio

measured in L1 veins. Because axons are easily distinguishable in the L3 vein, the region of

L3 seemed to be a better choice for axonal transport studies than the one in the L1 vein. The

quantification of the motile ratio in the $TTLL5^{E517A}$ mutant showed no motile mitochondria in

the L3 vein of the $TTLL5^{E517A}$ mutant (**Fig. 6D**), strongly indicating that $TTLL5$ is required for

the initiation of axonal transport of mitochondria. Apart from this, the quantification of the

motile ratio in the L1 showed a drop from 7.8% (plus-end 5.3% and minus-end 2.5%) in the

control to 1.9% in $TTLL5^{E517A}$ mutant wings (plus-end 1.5% and minus-end 0.4%) (**Fig. 6D**

and **Table 4**). These results reveal the importance of the enzymatic activity of $TTLL5$ for *in*

vivo mitochondrial transport in wing nerves.

Because no motile mitochondria were found in the L3 region, we evaluated other

transport parameters in the L1 region. The *Drosophila* sensory neurons contain axons with

plus-end-out MTs and dendrites with minus-end-out MTs (Stone et al., 2008; Zheng et al.,

2008). Though the L1 region is enriched in a mix of axons, dendrites, and cell bodies, the

direction of the organelle transport can still be established. The mitochondria transported

towards the thorax of a fly move by plus-end transport, driven by kinesin, whereas

mitochondria transported away from the thorax are transported by dynein. We examined the

parameters of running patterns, trafficking length, and velocity of mitochondrial movement in

region L1. The start of a run was chosen at the time point when a motile particle began to

move from a stationary position, and the stop of a run was defined when the particle stopped

moving. The pausing of a run is indicated by the particle moving at a rate lower than 0.2

μm/s. Particles with speeds higher than 0.2 μm/s were considered "trafficking". A schematic

running pattern is shown in **Fig. 6E.** Bidirectionally moving particles were seen only very

rarely in our case. In these cases, they usually moved a short distance towards one

direction, suddenly turned back, and ran in the opposite direction. For the plus-end transport

(**Table 4)**, the average total duration of a running time showed no significant difference

between controls (92s) and $TTLL5$ mutants (98s). As well, no significant difference in the

mean velocity of the tracked mitochondria was observed between controls (0.37 μm/s) and

TTLL5 E517A mutants (0.36 µm/s). However, the average pausing time ratio in *TTLL5 E517A*

(63%) showed a decrease compared to the control (74%), suggesting that α-tubulin

glutamylation was required for attaching and holding or stopping mitochondria during their

whole "run" along MTs (see **Fig. 6E**). Consistent with this observation, mitochondria in

TTLL5 E517A moved longer distances (12µm) per run than the mitochondria observed in the

controls (7µm). Even though our research focused on the plus-end transport, preliminary

numbers for the minus-end transport suggest that the motile frequency, total duration, and

pausing time ratio might decrease in *TTLL5 E517A* (**Table 4**). However, the small numbers for

TTLL5 E517A do not allow this conclusion.

It appears that two different mechanisms are involved between the start and the ongoing

transport of individual mitochondria. In the first step, the lack of glutamylation hinders the

initiation of the axonal transport of mitochondria, indicating that the *in vivo* initiation of

processive axonal transport heavily depends on glutamylation. Once mitochondria have

started to move, the lack of α-tubulin glutamylation increases the plus-end trafficking time

and trafficking length of the mitochondria in a region of the wing nerve that contains axons,

dendrites, and cell bodies, indicating that glutamylation is also needed for holding or

anchoring mitochondria on the MTs during trafficking in neurons. Altogether, these results

demonstrate the role of α-tubulin glutamylation in the efficient mitochondrial transport in wing

nerves.

Discussion

Both Western blotting and MS results from wild-type and mutant *Drosophila* revealed that *TTLL5* is essential for mono- and polyglutamylation of α-tubulin in ovaries. The complete lack of even monoglutamylated tubulin tails in the presumptive null mutants of *TTLL5* strongly suggests a requirement for TTLL5 for adding the first branching Glu to the Glu side chains in the C-term. The requirement for adding the first Glu could also account for the lack of polyglutamylation in the mutants. This result is consistent with results from HeLa cells and the *Drosophila* nervous system (Devambez et al., 2017; van Dijk et al., 2007). Further MS results indicated that *TTLL5* specifically functions to glutamylate the TBA1/3 but not the TBA4 isoforms of α-tubulin. Up to three Glu residues were found added to the positions E443/E445/E448/E449 of TBA1/3 (**Fig. 1A, 1B**). Even though TBA4 is an ovarian-specific isoform, our MS analysis showed a lower amount of TBA4 peptides than TBA1/3 peptides (**Table S3**), suggesting that it accumulated at a lower level in ovaries. It thus seems that the qualitative difference this isoform provides is more important for oogenesis than simply providing additional α-tubulins. Aside from the differences in the primary sequence, this isoform appears to be glutamylation resistant. The evolutionary appearance of a non-glutamylatable α-tubulin isoform may indicate that this tissue needs special microtubules that regulate the rate of different transport processes by altering the rate of glutamylated/non-glutamylated MTs.

Our MS analysis revealed that polyglycylation of α-tubulin also occurs in the ovarian tissue and that glycylation modifies the same sites in the C-terminal domain as polyglutamylation does, the side chains of the Glutamic acid residues. Because glycylation is still seen in the *TTLL5* mutants, TTLL5 does not seem to be the enzyme for this reaction and glutamylation of one site is not a prerequisite for glycylation of another site. It would now be interesting to find out whether glycylation even serves to prevent glutamylation or competes with it and whether this is used as another level of control of microtubule activity. In *Tetrahymena*, such a competition has been described because there, Glutamic acid and Glycine ligases compete for the same sites or affect each other by sterically blocking adjacent sites of tubulins (Redeker et al., 2005; Wloga et al., 2009). Only a surprisingly small fraction of the *TTLL* family is expressed in *Drosophila* ovaries, according to Flybase. Aside from *TTLL5*, we only found evidence for the expression of *TTLL4A* and *TTLL12* (**Table S2**). Our genetic analysis of *TTLL5* showed that it is not required for glycylation.

The predicted mouse homolog of the *Drosophila TTLL4A* was found to glutamylate β-tubulin (Mahalingan et al., 2020), suggesting that this isoform could be required for β-tubulin

glutamylation in ovaries. The function of the predicted homolog of *Drosophila TTLL12* in

mammals was poorly studied, and the core TTL domain of mouse TTLL12 is less conserved

than other mouse E- and G- ligases of the TTLL family (van Dijk et al., 2007). It is, therefore,

unclear yet which enzyme performs the polyglycylation of α-tubulin in *Drosophila* ovaries.

The ooplasmic streaming process is required for the posterior localization of Staufen/*osk*

mRNA and is mediated by an MT-sliding mechanism (Lu et al., 2016). This MT-sliding, an

essential step for normal oogenesis, involves sliding between the cortically anchored

microtubules and the free cytoplasmic microtubules close to the cortex. This sliding between

the two classes of microtubules is Kinesin-1 dependent. Our data show that *TTLL5* is

needed for normal oocyte cytoplasmic streaming and the posterior localization of

Staufen/*osk mRNA*, suggesting that it affects these processes through a role in kinesin-1-

dependent MT sliding.

It is worth pointing out that *in vitro* studies demonstrated that the artificial tethering of

glutamyl peptides to the side chains of both α- and β-tubulin increased the run length of

Kinesin-1 on tubulins (Sirajuddin et al., 2014). *Drosophila TTLL5* is essential for

glutamylation of α-tubulin but not for β-tubulin. These results provide the best evidence yet

that *TTLL5*-mediated glutamylation of α-tubulin plays a vital role in Kinesin-1-driven

processes *in vivo*. However, the phenotypes, including ooplasmic streaming and Staufen

localization, observed in *TTLL5* mutants were not as severe as the ones that arose when

(Kinesin heavy chain) KHC was not functional (Lu et al., 2016). Besides, in the wing nerve

experiment, though the initiation of mitochondrial transport was heavily dependent on the

glutamylation of α-tubulin, some "leaky" ones still started to be transported in *TTLL5*

mutants. This seems to suggest that some Kinesin-1-dependent processes can still operate

as long as glutamylation of β-tubulin is present.

In *KHC* mutants, there is an overall decrease in kinesin-dependent anterograde and the

dynein-driven retrograde transport of mitochondria in *Drosophila* larval motor axons (Pilling

et al., 2006). We observed a similar loss of motile mitochondria in the axon-rich region in the

TTLL5 ^{E517A} mutant wing (**Fig. 6C, 6D**). Because both previous studies (Devambez et al.,

2017) and our data (**Fig. 6A**) showed that *TTLL5* was required for α-tubulin glutamylation in

the nervous system, all these results suggested that α-tubulin glutamylation is a crucial

factor for the Kinesin-1 mediated initiation of mitochondrial transport in axons.

By analyzing the dynamics of the few motile mitochondria observed in mutant L1 veins,

we found that in the absence of glutamylation, the plus-end mitochondria can run longer

distances with shorter pausing times (**Fig. 6G**). Interestingly, a recent study linked the

reduced trafficking time of mitochondria during axonal transport to neurodegeneration in

mice, which was caused by hyperglutamylation of α-tubulin but not β-tubulin (Bodakuntla et

al., 2021). It thus strongly indicated that the glutamylation of α-tubulin causes the halting of

the ongoing transport of single mitochondria *in vivo*. Because of the orientation of the MTs in

the *Drosophila* wing neurons is unidirectional and the plus-end transport of mitochondria was

affected in the absence of the glutamylation of α-tubulin, we now learned that glutamylation

is at least needed for the Kinesin-1-based transport.

Aside from traffic jams, several mechanisms have been found to stop mitochondrial

transport in neurons. For instance, tethering mitochondria to the actin cytoskeleton (Pathak

et al., 2010), blocking the binding of Kinesin-1 to MTs by increasing Ca^{2+} (Wang and

Schwarz, 2009), or abolishing the interaction between Kinesin-1 and mitochondria by

degrading one of the linker proteins, Miro (Wang et al., 2011). Here, we provided *in vivo*

evidence that glutamylation of MTs is an essential regulatory mechanism that contributes to

the sophisticated neuronal mitochondrial transport system.

Materials and methods

***Drosophila* genetics**

The fly stocks used in this study, MattubGal4 (7062), *TTLL5^pBac^* (16140), *TTLL5^Mi^* (32800), and *Df(3R)BSC679* (26531), were obtained from the Bloomington Drosophila stock center. The *TTLL5^MiEx^* mutation was made by imprecise excision of the Minos element, which left a 3 base insertion (CTA) that introduces a premature stop codon at genomic position 8,132 in the open reading frame (polypeptide position 392). The different *TTLL5* point mutations were generated by CRISPR/Cas9. The two *Drosophila* stocks used for *TTLL5* gene editing, *y[1] M{w[+mC]=nos-Cas9.P}ZH-2A w[*]* and *y[1] v[1] P{y[+t7.7]=nos-phiC31\int.NLS}; P{y[+t7.7]=CaryP} attP40* were obtained from the Bloomington *Drosophila* Stock Center (54591) (Port et al., 2014) and (25709), respectively. Target sequences near the K131, R339 R376, and E517 codons were selected to introduce INDELs and the following point mutations: K131A, R339A (b6-7 loop), R376A, and E517A. Phosphorylated and annealed primers (Table S1A) needed to construct the corresponding coding sequences for a single guide RNA (sgRNA) were each cloned into the BbsI site of *pCFD5* according to the protocol published on www.crisprflydesign.org. After amplifying the vector in XL1 blue cells, the plasmids were sequenced to verify correct assembly. Subsequently, they were injected into *attP40* embryos. TTLL5-guide stocks with integrated genes encoding sgRNAs were established *(=v; attP40{v^+, TTLL5-guide}/CyO)*. To obtain INDELs for TTLL5, a three-generation crossing schema was set up. Firstly, *nos-cas9* virgins were crossed with males from the different TTLL5-guide stocks. Secondly, the subsequent single male progeny was crossed with *w; Ly/TM3, Sb* virgins. Thirdly, the resulting single *TM3, Sb* males were again crossed with *w; Ly/TM3, Sb* virgins to establish the stocks. The nature of the mutated *TTLL5* gene in each stock was determined by sequencing. To introduce specific point mutations in the *TTLL5* gene, embryos from a cross with *y w {w^+, nos-cas9}* virgins and TTLL5-guide males were injected with the appropriate template (**Table S1B).** The resulting individual adult males were crossed with *w; Ly / TM3, Sb* virgins, and stocks were established. The presence of a mutated *TTLL5* gene was confirmed by restriction digestion and subsequent sequencing. All *TTLL5* alleles were crossed to *Df(3R)BSC679* to test the effect of the *TTLL5* mutations in hemizygous animals. The *UASp-venus::TTLL5* DNA construct was made from the *TTLL5* cDNA amplified by PCR (forward primer: 5′ - GTTCAGATCTATGCCTTCTTCATTGTGTG -3′; reverse primer: 5′ - GAGTCATTCTAGAGCTTCATAGAAATACCTTCTCC- 3′) and inserted into the *pUASP-venus* vector via Xba I/Bgl II ligation. DNA was inserted into the *attP-58A* landing platform

494 (24484) to generate the transgenetic *UASp-venus::TTLL5* fly strain. *ApplGal4* and *UAS-*
495 *mito::GFP* were kindly provided by Simon Bullock's group (Vagnoni et al., 2016).

Western blotting

Western blotting performed with ovarian extracts was carried out with 10-20 pairs of ovaries
for each genotype. Newly hatched females of the indicated genotypes were collected and
crossed with *w* males in fresh vials with ample yeast food for two days. Fully developed
ovaries were then dissected and collected. To analyze neuronal samples, a mixture of head
and wing tissue from 30 flies was collected for each genotype. The samples were directly
lysed in Laemmli buffer, boiled at 95°C for 10 min, and analyzed by SDS-PAGE.
Chemiluminescence detection was done with the Amersham imager 600 (GE healthcare).
The following primary antibodies were used: mouse 1D5 (1:500, Synaptic System), mouse
GT335 (1:200, Adipogen), mouse DM1A (1:1,000, Sigma), mouse tyrosinated α-tubulin
(1:1,000, Sigma), rabbit GFP (1:2,000, Sigma), rabbit GAPDH (1:1,000, GeneTex), rabbit
TTLL5 (1:500, GenScript), mouse BicD (1B11 plus 4C2, 1:5) (Suter and Steward, 1991),
rabbit KHC (1:1,000, cytoskeleton), rabbit β-monoE (1:1,000) (Bodakuntla et al., 2021).
Secondary antibodies were HRP-linked goat anti-mouse (1:1,0000, GE Healthcare) and
HRP-linked goat anti-rabbit (1:10,000, GE Healthcare). Antibodies were incubated in 5%
non-fat milk PBST (PBS with 0.1 % Triton X-100) and washed with PBST.

Immunoprecipitations (IPs) and Mass Spectrometry

Proteins were extracted from the ovaries of 100 3-day-old, well-fed females of each
genotype, crossed to wild-type males, and proteins were immunoprecipitated with an α-
tubulin antibody (Sigma) bound to G-protein coupled magnetic beads. Samples (ligated with
beads) were boiled and run on SDS-PAGE. These were then stained with Coomassie Blue.
The gel pieces containing the α-tubulin region were cut, alkylated, and digested by trypsin N
(ProtiFi) for 3 hours at 55°C. C-terminal peptides of α-tubulin were analyzed by liquid
chromatography (LC)-MS/MS (PROXEON coupled to a QExactive mass spectrometer,
Thermo Fisher Scientific). Samples were searched against the UniProtKB *Drosophila*
database using Pipeline, PEAKS, Easyprot and MSfragger as search engines. Peptides
were shown by PSM value (peptide spectrum match). To avoid repetition of total PSM
quantification, we searched only for one type of PTM in an analysis per time. Total PSM

indicates the sum of PSMs of primary C-terminal peptides with either glutamylation or

glycylation modifications, or non-modified peptides.

Ooplasmic streaming in live oocytes

Three days old females were kept together with wild-type males under non-crowding

conditions at 25°C on food containing dry yeast. The determination of ooplasmic streaming

was based on the method of Lu and colleagues (Lu et al., 2016). Ovaries were directly

dissected in 10S halocarbon oil (VWR) and eggs were teased apart in the oil drop on a

24×50 mm coverslips (VWR). Living stage 10B oocytes were directly observed and imaged

with the 60×1.4 NA oil immersion objective on a Nikon W1 LIPSI spinning disk with a

2x Photometrics Prime BSI CMOS camera. Time-lapse images were acquired every 2s for 2

min under bright-field (BF) controlled by Nikon Elements software. Flow tracks were

generated by kymographs using the Fiji (Schindelin et al., 2012) plugin Multi Kymograph

(HTTPS:// imagej.net/ Multi _Kymograph). The velocity of 100-200 particles/ooplasm was

tracked using Analysis > Distribution of Speed (Track-Based) by DiaTrack 3.05 (Vallotton

and Olivier, 2013), with a maximum jumping distance of 3.24 μm/s. The datasets were

exported to Excel, where the mean velocities of each ooplasm were analyzed. Then the

velocities of different ooplasms from different genotypes were shown as means ± SEM by

Prism 5 software (GraphPad).

In situ **hybridization, Immunostaining, and confocal microscopy**

Plasmids containing *BicD* and *osk* cDNA were used as templates to generate digoxigenin- or

Fluorescein (FITC)-labeled RNA antisense probes. *In situ* hybridization experiments on

ovaries were performed as described (Vazquez-Pianzola et al., 2011). Ovaries were

dissected in 1× PBS and fixed in buffer (200 μl 4% formaldehyde (Sigma), 600 μl Heptane

(Merck Millipore), 20 μl DMSO (Sigma) for each group) for 20 min. Then ovaries were

blocked in 5% milk powder in PBT (PBS, 0.1% Tween). The digoxigenin-labeled probes

were detected with sheep-anti-digoxigenin antibodies (1:1,000, Jackson ImmunoResearch)

and donkey anti-sheep 647 (1:200, Jackson ImmunoResearch). Fluorescein-labeled probes

were detected with mouse anti-fluorescein antibodies (1:1,000, Roche) and donkey anti-

mouse 488 antibodies (1:1,000, Jackson Immunoresearch). For Staufen and BicD protein

staining, ovaries were incubated with rabbit anti-Staufen (1:2,000) (St Johnston et al., 1991),

mouse anti-BicD (1B11 plus 4C2, 1:5) (Suter and Steward, 1991) and rabbit anti-GFP

(1:200, Sigma) antibodies at 4°C overnight, and incubated with secondary Alexa Fluor goat

anti-mouse 647 (1:400, Jackson ImmonoResearch) and Alexa Fluor goat anti-rabbit 488

(1:400, Life technologies Thermo Fischer) at room temperature for 3h. DNA and nuclei were

stained using Hoechst 33528 (Thermo Fischer Scientific) for 10 min. Mounted samples were

imaged with a Leica TCS SP8 confocal microscope equipped with a 63×1.40 oil lens and

controlled by the Las X software (Leica). Images of single focal planes and 12 μm Z

projection were acquired. The crescent length of Staufen was processed by the Fuji

segmented line tool based on the single plane. The data were shown as means ± SEM by

Prism 5 (GraphPad software). The statistical significance was determined by an unpaired

two-tailed non-parametric t-test (Mann-Whitney test).

Mitochondrial transport in *Drosophila* wing neurons

Mitochondrial transport in *Drosophila* wing neurons was tracked as described (Vagnoni and

Bullock, 2016). In brief, newly eclosed flies were anesthetized with CO_2 and immobilized in a

custom-built chamber formed of two No.1.5 24×50 mm coverslips (VWR). Imaging of wings

was performed with a Nikon W1 LIPSI spinning disk microscope equipped with a 2x

Photometrics Prime BSI CMOS camera and a 60×1.4 NA oil immersion lens. Time-lapse

video of a single focal plane was acquired with an acquisition rate of 0.5 frame/s for 3 min for

Mito::GFP using a 488 nm laser.

Quantification of the movements was performed in Fiji. A region close to the axonal tract of

the wing arch of the L1 vein and a region of the L3 vein were selected and straightened with

the Straighten plugin (Eva Kocsis, NIH, MD). For each "run", the total run distance of more

than 2 μm was defined as "transported or motile mitochondria". To exclude the oscillatory

movements of mitochondria, a minimal instant velocity between each frame was defined at

0.2 μm/s. Transported mitochondria were manually marked with MTrackJ plugin (Meijering

et al., 2012) and tracked by the manual tracking plugin (Fabrice Cordelières, Institute Curie,

France). The total number of mitochondria was counted from a single frame using Fiji's

"Analyze particle" function. Run-length, velocity values, and total running & pausing times

were exported into Excel for analysis. The data were shown as means ± SEM by Prism 5

(GraphPad). The statistical significance was determined with the student's t-test.

Sequence alignment

Sequences were aligned by CLC Sequence Viewer 8.0 software (Qiagen). The UniProtKB accession numbers are as follows: *HsTTL*: Q8NG68; *HsTTLL5*: Q6EMB2; *MmTTLL5*: Q8CHB8; *DmTTLL5*: Q9VBX5.

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Author contributions: Mengjing Bao, Beat Suter, and Maria Paula Vazquez-Pianzola conceived the project and designed the experiments. Mengjing Bao, Beat Suter, Ruth Dörig, and Dirk Beuchle performed the experiments and analyzed the data; Mengjing Bao and Beat Suter wrote the manuscript.

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Table 1) Role of *TTLL5* for the glutamylation of the C-terminal domain of TBA1/3.

Frequency of glutamylated C-terminal peptides (containing the entire primary sequence) in *w* controls, *TTLL5^pBac* and *TTLL5^MiEx* mutants containing modifications of 1E, 2E or 3Es.

	w (n=56)[1]	*TTLL5^pBac* (n=29) (*%E mod*)	*TTLL5^MiEx* (n=7)
+1	41	0	0
+2	14	0	0
+3	7	0	0
Total Glu modifications[2]	62	0	0

[1] N indicates the values of total PSM (peptide spectrum match) of the full primary C-terminal TBA1/3 sequence.
[2] Total Glu modification shows the sum of the three frequencies. The ratio was quantified based on the glutamylated C-terminal TBA1/3 PSM values divided by total PSM.

Table 2) Conservation between mammalian *TTLL5 and Drosophila TTLL5*

Residues labeled in red are critical residues for α-tubulin glutamylation by murine TTLL5 and are conserved in human and *Drosophila* TTLL5 (van Dijk et al., 2007).

	K131 β6-7 loop (R188) R225 E366 N368
Mm TTLL5	TRKDR—KPVASSRGRG[1]VY---VRLYVL---LLEVNLSP
Hs TTLL5	TRKDR—KPVASSRGRG VY---VRLYVL---LLEVNLSP
	K282 β6-7 loop (R339) R376 E517 N519
Dm TTLL5	TRKDR--KPAASSRGRG I F---LRVYVL---LLEI NLSP

[1] The critical domain of the β6-7 loop is highlighted using a yellow background.

Table 3) Conservation between *TTL* and *TTLL5*

Many critical **r**esidues of human TTL (red) are conserved in *Drosophila,* mouse, and human TTLL5 (Prota et al., 2013; van Dijk et al., 2007).

	R202 R222 D318 E331 N333 P336
Hs TTL	IRSW—VLRTA-----FDFM—LI EVNGAPA
	R376 R398 D504 E517 N519 P522
Dm TTLL5	LRVY---I VRLA-----FDIL----LLEI NL SPS
	R225 R247 D353 E366 N368 P371
Mm TTLL5	VRLY---LARFA-----FDVL---LLEVNL SPS
Hs TTLL5	VRLY---LARFA-----FDVL---LLEVNL SPS

775 **Table 4) Transport parameters for mitochondria in the selected region of L1 veins.**

Genotype	Control		TTLL5^{E517A}	
Direction	Plus-end	Minus-end	Plus-end	Minus-end
Number of wings (motile mito[1])	3 (20)	3 (11)	3 (8)	3 (2)
Motile Mito[1] (% total mito)	5.3±1.7	2.5±3.2	**1.5±1.3***	0.4±0.4
Total time (s)	92±45	100±43	98±48	64±37
Pausing (% total time)[2]	74±14	77±15	**63±13***	61±20
Length (µm)	7.2±4.5	6.7±1.6	**12.3±5.3***	7.5±2.8
Velocity (µm/s) [3]	0.37±0.08	0.38±0.14	0.36±0.08	0.36±0.16

[1] Motile mitochondria, which showed a run distance ≥ 2 µm.

[2] The pausing time ratio indicates the pausing time divided by the total duration of each motile mitochondria.

[3] Mean velocity corresponds to the mean values of instant trafficking velocity. Significant differences for
mitochondria of plus-end transport between control and TTLL5^{E517A} are shown in boldface, followed by * ($p < 0.05$).

Only two mitochondria transported toward the MT minus-end were observed in TTLL5^{E517A}. A comparison of the
minus-end transport between control and TTLL5^{E517A} is not warranted, and these parts are shaded in grey to
indicate this.

Figure legends

Fig. 1 Mass spectrometry analysis of the glutamylation of the C-terminal domains of
the α-tubulin isoforms. A) Schematic representation showing **how** the C-terminal peptides
of TBA1/3 can be modified by glutamic acids residues added to the side chains of E443,
E445, E448, and E449 in *Drosophila* ovaries. B) The C-terminal peptides containing the
complete primary sequence were analyzed. The structure of the different C-terminal tail
peptides of TBA1/3 modified by glutamylation are shown. Different combinations of Glu side
chain modifications were found added at positions E443, E445, E448, and E449 of TBA1/3.
Schemes were drawn by biorender.com.

Fig. 2 Schematic representation of the *Drosophila TTLL5* gene, TTLL5, TTLL5^{MiEx}**, and**
Venus::TTLL5 proteins. A) The *TTLL5* gene structure is based on the Flybase data for the
CG31108-RA transcript. The positions of the loss-of-function mutations are marked on the
TTLL5 gene. Grey triangles: transposon insertions. Grey asterisks: codons targeted for
generating InDels and point mutations. All *TTLL5* alleles were analyzed as hemizygous
animals over *Df(3R)BSC679*, which removes the region of the *TTLL5* gene. B) Western blot
from the soluble fraction of ovarian extracts. *w* (*TTLL5*$^{+/+}$*),* which contains two wild-type
copies of *TTLL5*, expressed the highest levels of TTLL5. The TTLL5 signal is strongly
reduced or abolished in the null mutants *TTLL5*^{pBac}*/⁻, TTLL5*^{Mi}*/⁻,* and *TTLL5*^{MiEx}*/⁻* compared to
w. The hemizygous *TTLL5*$^{+}$ ovaries (*TTLL5*$^{+}$*/⁻*) expressed less TTLL5 than *w.* The signal of
an unspecific band (labeled with *), produced after a short exposure, was used as the
loading control. In the following we will refer to the genotypes as *w* for the control (*TTLL5*$^{+/+}$)
and as *TTLL5*^{allele} for the hemizygous mutants *(TTLL5*^{allele}*/ ⁻*).

Fig. 3 *TTLL5* is required for the glutamylation of the TBA1/3 isoforms of ovarian α-
tubulin. A) A') Sites on TBA1/3 recognized by the GT335 and 1D5 antibodies, respectively.
B) B') B'') The glutamylation signal produced by Western blotting with the GT335 and 1D5
antibodies is lower in *TTLL5*^{pBac}*, TTLL5*^{Mi}*,* and *TTLL5*^{MiEx} than in the *w* control but is restored
and even elevated in mutant ovaries that were rescued by *MattubGal4>Venus::TTLL5*. The
up-shifted bands recognized by 1D5 can be seen in the rescued *TTLL5*^{pBac} and *TTLL5*^{Mi}
mutants. The total tyrosinated α-tubulin levels seemed unaffected by the TTLL5 levels. B'')

The anti-βmono-E levels were similar between *w* control, *TTLL5^{MiEx}*, and rescue of *TTLL5^{MiEx}*.

α-tubulin and GAPDH served as loading controls. C) Stronger up-shifted bands were

observed upon *MattubGal4>Venus::TTLL5* overexpression in wild-type ovaries (anti-1D5

antibody). Total α-tubulin remained at similar levels in samples with excessive expression of

TTLL5. GAPDH was a loading control. D) The genotypes and rationale of the *TTLL5* alleles

generated by CRISPR/Cas9 are listed. The selected residues are predicted to be either

important for the glutamylation or tyrosination function based on the alignment shown in

Tables 1 and **2**. E) Western blotting showed that the polyglutamylation signal is absent in all

point mutants. *w* with two copies of *TTLL5^{+}* is the wild-type control and *TTLL5^{K282 indel3}* is a

hemizygous additional control in which the neighbors of K282, T280R281 were replaced by

K280G281. Relative 1D5 signal levels decreased slightly in the hemizygous samples with

only one *TTLL5* copy. All *TTLL5* alleles were analyzed as hemizygous animals over

Df(3R)BSC679, which removes the region of the *TTLL5* gene. The genotypes for rescues

were *MattubGal4>UAS-Venus::TTLL5;TTLL5^{alleles}/Df(3R)BSC679.* The genotype for

Venus::TTLL5 overexpression was *MattubGal4>UAS-Venus::TTLL5.*

Fig. 4 Effect of *TTLL5* on Staufen posterior localization refinement in oocytes.

A) A') Confocal micrographs showing stage 10B oocytes of *w* controls and *TTLL5^{pBac}*,

TTLL5^{Mi}, and *TTLL5^{MiEx}* mutants. A'') Confocal micrographs showing stage 10B oocytes of

TTLL5^{pBac}, *TTLL5^{Mi}*, and *TTLL5^{MiEx}* mutants rescued with *Mattub4>UASP-Venus::TTLL5*.

Anti-Staufen is shown in green, anti-GFP in red, and Hochest in blue. A''') Quantification of

the Staufen crescent length along the posterior cortex based on A, A' and A''. B) Confocal

micrographs showing stage 10B oocytes of *w* controls, *TTLL5^{E517A}*, *TTLL5^{P522A}*, and

TTLL5^{R339A} mutants. B') Quantification of Staufen's crescent length along the posterior cortex

based on B). C) Confocal micrographs showing previtellogenic egg chambers of *w* controls,

TTLL5^{E517A}, *TTLL5^{P522A}*, *TTLL5^{R339A}*, and *TTLL5^{pBac}* mutants. BicD protein, *BicD* and *osk*

mRNA are shown in red, Staufen protein in green, and Hochest in blue. The white

arrowheads in the *BicD* images point out the localized *BicD* mRNA in oocytes. D) The BicD

levels remained unchanged between *w* control, *TTLL5^{MiEx}*, and *TTLL5^{MiEx}* rescued by

Mattub4>Venus::TTLL5. GAPDH served as the loading control. *** p<0.005; ** <0.01. Scale

Bars: 25 μm. All *TTLL5* alleles were hemizygous over *Df(3R)BSC679*. The genotypes for

rescued animals were *MattubGal4/UAS-Venus::TTLL5; TTLL5 ^{alleles}/Df(3R)BSC679.*

Fig. 5 Role of *TTLL5* in ooplasmic streaming. A) KHC levels remained unchanged

between *w* control, $TTLL5^{MiEx}$, and $TTLL5^{MiEx}$ rescued by *Mattub4>Venus::TTLL5.* GAPDH

served as the loading control. B) Example picture of a stage 10B oocyte used for particle

flow measurements based on time-lapse movies of ooplasmic streaming (Mov.S1-S4). Scale

Bar: 25 µm. C) 100-200 particles were selected along the cortex line from two sides of each

ooplasm to determine the mean velocities of the particles from the different genotypes. One

stage 10B oocyte was chosen randomly for velocity quantification for each fly. The fly

numbers for *w* control, $TTLL5^{MiEx}$ mutant, $TTLL5^{E517A}$ mutant, and *UASP-Venus::TTLL5*

transgene rescuing the $TTLL5^{MiEx}$ mutant were 7, 9, 5, and 5, respectively. No significant

changes in particle velocity were found between different genotypes. D) Representative

kymographs of particles in oocytes of a *w* control, a $TTLL5^{MiEx}$ mutant, the $TTLL5^{E517A}$

mutant, and the $TTLL5^{MiEx}$ mutant rescued by overexpression of the *UASP-Venus::TTLL5*

transgene. Kymographs were generated along a line (the yellow line in B) close to the cortex

on each side of the ooplasm from 3 min time-lapse movies. Representative kymographs

showed that the particles flowed along the cortex in both control and *Venus::TTLL5* rescue.

In contrast, the moving particles revealed different flow patterns if TTLL5 activity was low.

Genotypes for $TTLL5^{MiEx}$ and $TTLL5^{E517A}$ were $TTLL5^{MiEx}/Df(3R)BSC679$ and

$TTLL5^{E517A}/Df(3R)BSC679$, respectively. The genotype of the rescued flies was

MattubGal4/UAS-Venus::TTLL5; $TTLL5^{MiEx}$/Df(3R)BSC679.

Fig. 6 Effect of *TTLL5* on mitochondria transport in the wing nerve. A) In head and wing

extracts, the relative glutamylation signal of 1D5 is lower in $TTLL5^{E517A}$ (genotype: *ApplGal4;*

UAS-Mito::GFP; $TTLL5^{E517A}$/Df(3R)BSC679) than in the control (genotype: *ApplGal4;UAS-*

Mito::GFP;+/Df(3R)BSC679). B) Cartoon of the *Drosophila* wing showing the L1 and L3 vein

and the neuron-rich regions analyzed for tracking mitochondria (red and green boxes). C)

Representative still image of GFP-labelled mitochondria in axons of the L1 and L3 vein (from

Mov. S5 and **Mov. S6**, respectively) of both control and $TTLL5^{E517A}$ wings. Transported

mitochondria (run distance ≥ 2 µm) were manually labeled with the Fiji MTrackJ plugin.

Some circles only mark a mitochondrial signal that appeared in another time frame. Scale

Bar: 10 µm. D) Quantification of the fraction of transported mitochondria. Note that in control

wings, a much higher fraction of mitochondria is transported in the L3 vein than in L1. The

results from L1 show a dramatic decrease of motile mitochondria in the $TTLL5^{E517A}$ mutant.

In the L3 vein, no transported mitochondria were found in the $TTLL5^{E517A}$ mutant. The total

particles (indicated by "n") with a diameter from 0.1µm-1.6µm were analyzed by Fiji from the

signals of a representative still images from three wings for each genotype. The motile

mitochondria ratio indicates the number of transported mitochondria divided by total

mitochondria particles. E) Scheme of the transport behavior of the mitochondria in the wing

neuron. The start of a run was either considered the time when a motile particle began to

move from a stationary position or entered into the focal plane. Particles were defined as

"trafficking" when their instant velocity was ≥ 0.2 µm/s, and they were considered as

"pausing" when they moved at less than 0.2 µm/s but later resumed their movement. As the

stop of a run we considered particles that entirely terminated or moved out of the focal plane.

For each run, the total run distance of more than 2 µm was considered as "transported or

motile mitochondria". *** $p < 0.005$; * < 0.05. Schemes were drawn by biorender.com.

Fig. 1

A

α-tubulin isoforms in *Drosophila* ovaries

E-residues were found added at the TBA1/3 positions E443, E445, E448 and E449.

B

Glutamylation on Glu residues in the C-terminal domain of TBA1/3

```
GEGEGAEEY      GEGEGAEEY      GEGEGAEEY      GEGEGAEEY
    E              E                  E                  E

GEGEGAEEY      GEGEGAEEY      GEGEGAEEY      GEGEGAEEY
   EE              EE                 EE                 EE

GEGEGAEEY      GEGEGAEEY      GEGEGAEEY      GEGEGAEEY
  EEE              EEE                EEE                EEE

GEGEGAEEY      GEGEGAEEY      GEGEGAEEY      GEGEGAEEY
  E E             E  EE          E       E        E       EE

GEGEGAEEY      GEGEGAEEY
    EEE         E   E    E
```

Fig. 2

A

Drosophila TTLL5 gene

6.4 kb

pBac *Mi*

K282 *R339* *E517* *P522*

Drosophila TTLL5 protein

TTLL core

268 543 616 917

Drosophila TTLL5^{MiEx} predicted protein

Venus:: Drosophila TTLL5 protein

Venus TTLL core

B

TTLL5$^{+/+}$ (w; positive control)

TTLL5$^{+/-}$ (positive control)

TTLL5$^{pBac/-}$

TTLL5$^{Mi/-}$

TTLL5$^{MiEx/-}$

130-

97-

TTLL5
*

long exposure

130-

97-

* **Loading control**

short exposure

Fig. 3

A

G D G **E** G **E** G A **E** **E** **E** Y 443 445 448 449
E **E** **E**
anti-GT335 ◄ ◄ anti-GT335

A'

G D G **E** G **E** G A **E** **E** Y 443 445 448 449 anti-1D5
E **E** **E** **E** **E** **E**
E **E** **E**
anti-1D5 anti-1D5 anti-1D5

B

w (control) / TTLL5^pBac / Venus::TTLL5;TTLL5^pBac / w (control) / TTLL5^Mi / Venus::TTLL5;TTLL5^Mi / w (control) / TTLL5^MiEx / Venus::TTLL5;TTLL5^MiEx

130- GFP
55- ◄ GT335 ◄ ◄
55- tyr-α-tubulin
35- GAPDH

B'

w (control) / TTLL5^pBac / Venus::TTLL5;TTLL5^pBac / w (control) / TTLL5^Mi / Venus::TTLL5;TTLL5^Mi

130- GFP
55- 1D5
55- α-tubulin
35- GAPDH

B"

w (control) / TTLL5^MiEx / Venus::TTLL5;TTLL5^MiEx

130- GFP
55- 1D5
55- β-monoE
55- α-tubulin
35- GAPDH

C

w (control) / Venus::TTLL5 o.e.

130- GFP
55- 1D5
55- α-tubulin
55- tyr-α-tubulin
35- GAPDH

D

Residues of *Drosophila TTLL5*	Function	Corresponding residues to mammalian *TTLL5* or *TTL*	Mutations
E517	ATP/ADP binding	*MmE336 of TTLL5* *HsE331 of TTL*	*E517 indel* : WLLE517 → S E517A
K282	ATP/ADP binding	*MmK131 of TTLL5*	*K282 indel 1* : K282 → stop codon *K282 indel 2* : TRKD283 → N *K282 indel 3* : TRK282 → KGK282
R339	(In β6-7 loop) Stabilization tubulin with TTLL5 active site	*MmR188 of TTLL5*	R339A
P522	(Conserved residue of human TTL) Anchor enzyme to α-tubulin	*HsP336 of TTL*	P522A

E

w (positive control) / TTLL5^E517 indel / TTLL5^E517A / TTLL5^K282 Indel 1 / TTLL5^K282 Indel 2 / TTLL5^R339A / TTLL5^P522A / TTLL5^K282 Indel 3 (positive control)

ATP/ADP   ATP/ADP   Glu   Tyr

55- 1D5
55- tyr-α-tubulin
35- GAPDH

Fig. 4

Fig. 5

Fig. 6

A

55 - 　　control　TTLL5^E517A　　1D5

55 - 　　　　　　　　　　　　α-tubulin

heads + wings

B

L1

L3

C

Appl-Gal4>Mito::GFP

control　1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11　L1

TTLL5^E517A　1 2 3 4 5　L1

control　1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22　L3

TTLL5^E517A　L3

→ Thorax (+)

D

Motile mitochondriadria (%)

n=384　n=488　n=186　n=150

* ***

L1 L3

control　TTLL5^E517A　control　TTLL5^E517A

E

trafficking　pausing　trafficking　pausing　trafficking

run (≥ 2μm)