The Kinetochore Protein KNL-1 Regulates Actin Cytoskeleton Dynamics to Promote Dendrite Branching in Sensory Neurons

Mattie Green[1], Henrique Alves Domingos [1], Vasilis Ouzounidis[1], Cameron Finlayson[1], Bram Prevo[1] & Dhanya K. Cheerambathur [1]*

[1]Wellcome Centre for Cell Biology & Institute of Cell Biology, School of Biological Sciences, The University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, EH9 3BF, UK

@: Corresponding author

Email: dhanya.cheerambathur@ed.ac.uk

ABSTRACT

Precise control of dendrite branching is essential for the formation of neural circuits, yet the

mechanisms that regulate this process remain poorly understood. Here we show that the

kinetochore protein KNL-1, known for its role in chromosome-microtubule coupling during

mitosis, together with its binding partners, the KMN network, regulate dendritic branching in

the *C. elegans* mechanosensory neuron, PVD, in a cell division independent manner. Neuron-

specific degradation of KNL-1 results in excess dendrite branching and fusion events,

predisposes PVD to age-dependent degeneration, and impairs animal sensory behavior.

Surprisingly, these effects are not attributable to mis-regulation of the microtubule

cytoskeleton. Instead, KNL-1 degradation alters the dynamics of F-actin, an established

driver of dendrite branching. Epistasis analysis shows that KNL-1 counters the activity of the

RacGEF TIAM-1, a downstream effector of dendrite guidance receptors. These findings

establish that the microtubule coupling KMN network promotes dendrite branching by

regulating the actin cytoskeleton and provide insight into how the cytoskeleton shapes

dendritic architecture.

KEY WORDS: cytoskeleton, actin, microtubule, kinetochore, dendrite, neurodevelopment, dendrite morphogenesis, dendrite arborization, KNL-1, TIAM-1, PVD neuron

INTRODUCTION

Neurons have specialized compartments for transmitting information, including dendrites,

which receive & integrate signals, and axons, which propagate them. The shape, size and

trajectory of dendritic and axonal processes determines how a neuron communicates and

functions. Dendrites display diverse shapes and complex branching patterns that are unique

to neuronal types[1]. The dendrite arborization pattern defines how input signals are distributed

and integrated, ultimately shaping the functional properties of neurons and their connectivity

within the neural circuits. Proper development and organization of dendritic arbors is therefore

crucial for establishing the neural circuits, which regulate animal behavior. Notably,

alterations in dendrite morphology and organization are associated with several

neurodevelopmental & neurodegenerative disorders [2].

Dendrite morphogenesis initiates when extrinsic guidance cues interact with specific

cell surface receptors on the neuron and activate intracellular signaling pathways that trigger

cytoskeletal rearrangements to enable dendrite growth and branching [2]. The Rho family of

GTPases (Cdc-42, Rac1, and RhoA) are key downstream effectors of the guidance cues

during dendrite development[3–6]. Rho GTPases influence dendrite arborization by regulating

actin filament assembly and the formation of actin structures such as filopodia and

lamellipodia. During dendrite outgrowth, dynamic actin filaments form a network of

lamellipodial and filopodial protrusions that guide and propel the growth cone. Dendritic

arborization occurs when filopodia emerge from preexisting branches and undergo extension

and retraction until they become stabilized[7]. Consequently, dendrite arbor growth and

stabilization entail extensive actin remodeling and careful coordination between actin growth

states and structures. Various actin regulators, including F-actin nucleators modulators of F-

actin dynamics, have been shown to affect dendrite morphogenesis [8,9] . However, it is unclear

how the activity of different actin regulators is coordinated and controlled spatially &

temporally by the Rho GTPases to generate a specific dendrite pattern.

The microtubule cytoskeleton is also critical for dendrite morphogenesis. Microtubules

provide structural support for dendrites and serve as tracks to transport key building materials

and organelles. Mutations in molecular motors that affect transport severely impair dendrite

morphology, and loss of microtubules-associated proteins result in dendrite development

defects[10–14]. In addition, microtubule nucleators are found at branch points of developing

dendrites, where they organize microtubule arrays to regulate branching[15]. Studies on the

role of microtubules in dendritic spines, small actin-rich protrusions on dendrite branches that

are sites of high synaptic activity, have shown that dynamic microtubules enter the actin-rich

spines in a synaptic-activity-dependent manner and that this is facilitated by actin

cytoskeleton remodeling[12,16,17]. Thus, a crosstalk between the two cytoskeletal structures

appears to exist within dendrites, but its molecular basis remains elusive.

Recent studies have revealed that kinetochore proteins, which connect chromosomes

to dynamic spindle microtubules in dividing cells, also play an unexpected post-mitotic role

during neurodevelopment. The conserved 10-subunit Knl1 complex/Mis12 complex/Ndc80

complex (KMN) network, which serves as the primary chromosome-microtubule coupler[18,19],

is enriched along developing dendrites of *C. elegans* sensory neurons and in the synapses

and axons of *D. melanogaster* neurons [20,21]. Depletion of any KMN component in *C. elegans*

sensory neurons results in dendrite growth defects, indicating that KMN function is critical for

dendrite development. Knockdown of Mis12 causes dendrite branching defects in *D.*

melanogaster embryonic sensory neurons and increases filopodial protrusions in dendrites

of rat hippocampal neurons, underscoring the importance of the Mis12 complex for proper

dendrite formation. Moreover, kinetochore proteins promote dendrite regeneration of *D.*

melanogaster sensory neurons, highlighting their involvement in the maintenance of dendrite

morphology [22].

The mechanisms by which kinetochore proteins contribute to dendrite development

and maintenance is not understood, but some observations imply that microtubule binding

activity is important [20,22]. The neuronal function of KMN network in *C. elegans* sensory

neurons depends on the microtubule coupling interface within the Ndc80 complex.

Additionally, knockdown of kinetochore proteins in *D. melanogaster* sensory neurons

increases the number of microtubule plus ends in dendrites, suggesting a role in the

regulation of microtubule dynamics[22].

Our previous characterization of the KMN network's post mitotic role in neurons

focused on dendrite extensions of the *C. elegans* amphid sensory neuron bundles, which

consist of 12 dendrites from 12 neurons[20]. This precluded a detailed analysis of cellular

structures within dendrites at the single-neuron level. To overcome this limitation, we have

examined the role of KNL-1 during dendrite branching of the mechanosensory neuron PVD.

Dendrite development in PVD is stereotypical and invariant, and its cytoskeletal organization

is well characterized, making it a good system to investigate kinetochore protein function. In

this study we demonstrate that KNL-1 is concentrated in the extending dendrites processes

and at branch points, and that PVD-specific degradation of KNL-1 perturbs higher order

branch formation, leading to behavioral defects and premature neurodegeneration.

Surprisingly, KNL-1 degradation does not affect microtubule organization or dynamics, but

instead up-regulates F-actin assembly in the cell body and primary dendrites. We show that

KNL-1 acts antagonistically to the RacGEF TIAM-1, the downstream effector of dendrite

branching cues. Thus, the kinetochore protein KNL-1 contributes to the dendrite guidance

pathway through regulation of the neuronal actin cytoskeleton.

RESULTS

KNL-1 localizes to developing dendrites in the PVD neuron

The PVD neuron in *C. elegans* is a type of mechanosensory neuron located between the

body wall muscle and the epidermis of the animal. A unique feature of the PVD is the highly

arborized dendrites that extend throughout the animal's body. **(Figure 1A)**. PVD dendrites

form a distinctive branching pattern composed of non-overlapping repeating units called

"menorahs", which are important for integrating and processing sensory inputs **(Figure 1A)**[23].

PVD dendrite branches are established during the larval stages and the branching follows a

stereotypical developmental program that begins at the late L2 larval stage and concludes by

the late L4 larval stage **(Figure S1A)**. To visualize the localization of the kinetochore protein

KNL-1 in the PVD neuron, we used a split-GFP system[24]. The N-terminus of KNL-1 was fused

to 7 copies of the β11 strand of GFP at the endogenous locus, and the complementing GFP

1-10 was expressed under a PVD-specific promoter. The cell body of PVD is located near

the animal tail, and two primary (1°) dendrites extend from the cell body towards the anterior

and posterior. KNL-1 was enriched in the cell body and along the extending 1° dendrites at

the L2 larval stage **(Figure 1B)**. During the L3 and L4 stages, higher order branches develop

from the 1° dendrite to generate the distinctive menorah shape. KNL-1 signal persisted along

the 1° dendrites in the L3 and L4 stages but became more punctate **(Figure S1B)**. We also

observed discrete KNL-1 puncta at the base of branch points of 2° dendrite and 3° dendrites,

as well as along the newly formed 3° dendrites **(Figures 1C, 2D & S1B-D)**. These results

indicated that KNL-1 may play a role in PVD dendrite formation.

KNL-1 functions cooperatively with the KMN network to restrict dendritic branching

To investigate the function of KNL-1 in the PVD neuron, we utilized an auxin inducible degron

(AID) to selectively degrade KNL-1 in the PVD neuron (KNL-1 degrader). We fused an AID

peptide sequence along with GFP to KNL-1 at the endogenous locus and expressed the plant

specific F-box protein TIR1 under PVD-specific promoters **(Figure 2A)**[25,26]. To degrade KNL-

1, we synchronized the worms as L1 larvae and exposed them to auxin at the L2 stage when

PVD development is initiated **(Figure S2A)**. We observed a significant reduction in

GFP::KNL-1 signal from the PVD cell body at the L2 stage **(Figure 2A)**. To assess the effect

of KNL-1 degradation on PVD development, we visualized dendrite morphology in L4 larvae

by expressing a plasma membrane (pleckstrin homology domain, PH) marker. Both control

and KNL-1 degrader neurons exhibited proper extension of their 1° dendrites**.** However, we

observed a significant disruption of the higher-order branching pattern following KNL-1

degradation **(Figures 2B & S2F)**. Menorahs consist of dendrite branches that are arranged

at right angles with respect to each other. Specifically, each menorah contains a 2° dendrite

that branches off at a right angle from the 1° dendrite, which then gives rise to an orthogonal

3° branch that forms the base of menorah. Finally, several smaller 4° dendrites emerge at

right angles to the 3° dendrite to complete the menorah. The number of 2° dendrite branches

was not significantly different between control and KNL-1 degrader neurons **(Figure S2B).**

However, KNL-1 degrader neurons exhibited an increased number of 4° dendrite branches

(Figure 2C), an increased number of fusion events between 3° dendrites **(Figure 2D)**, and

an increased number of ectopic neurites originating from the 1° dendrites **(Figure S2C)**.

We next overexpressed KNL-1 in the PVD neuron by generating extrachromosomal

arrays that contain multiple copies of transgenic KNL-1::GFP under a PVD-specific promoter.

Compared to control animals that contained a GFP-expressing plasmid in the array, animals

with KNL-1::GFP arrays exhibited a decrease in higher-order branching. Specifically, the

number of 2° and 4° dendrite branches were significantly reduced **(Figures 2H, 2I & S2J)**.

We conclude that PVD-specific degradation and overexpression of KNL-1 have opposite

effects on higher-order dendritic branching.

We also investigated the effect of degrading the Mis12 and the Ndc80 complexes

within the KMN network on PVD branching. Degradation of KNL-3 (a component of the Mis12

complex) or Ndc80 disrupted PVD dendrite architecture in a similar manner to KNL-1

degradation **(Figure S2E-I)**. Taken together, these results reveal that PVD-localized KNL-1

functions in the context of the KMN network to restrict dendritic branching. We conclude that

the kinetochore-microtubule coupling machinery has a crucial role in ensuring proper PVD

dendrite arborization.

KNL-1 regulates the dynamics and stability of dendrite branches

A prominent effect of KNL-1 degradation is the fusion of neighboring menorahs resulting from

the merging or overlap of 3° dendrites **(Figure 2D)**. In control neurons, 3° dendrites of

neighboring menorahs do not overlap with each other because they quickly retract after

contacting each other. The aberrant fusion observed following KNL-1 degradation and the

presence of GFP::KNL-1 puncta along the 3° dendrite and at branch points within the

menorah **(Figures 1C & S2I)** suggests that KNL-1 plays a role in resolving contacts between

the growing tips of neighboring 3° dendrites. To understand how KNL-1 contributes to the

spatial separation of menorahs, we tracked the growth dynamics of 3° dendrites. Consistent

with previous studies [23,27], 3° dendrites of neighboring menorahs retracted within 5-10 min of

mutual contact in control neurons **(Figure 2E, 2G)**. In KNL-1 degrader neurons, the frequency

with which neighboring 3° dendrites established contact remained unchanged **(Figure S2D)**

but contact duration was longer **(Figure 2G)**. The presence of persistent contacts after KNL-

1 degradation resulted in a higher frequency of unresolved fusions, indicating that KNL-1

function ensures timely retraction of 3° dendrites during menorah formation **(Figure 2F)**.

These observations suggest that KNL-1 regulates the dynamics and stability of dendrite

branches to establish the highly ordered branching pattern of PVD neurons.

KNL-1 degradation impairs function and lifespan of the PVD neuron

As KNL-1 function is essential for proper dendrite arborization in the PVD neuron, we next

examined the sensory behavior of KNL-1 degrader animals. Proprioception, awareness of

body position and movement, is attributed to PVD dendrites that sense mechanical stimuli

and provide feedback to the body wall muscles to generate a stereotypical sinusoidal

locomotory pattern **(Figure 3A)**. To determine the body posture of animals, we visualized

their movement on food and measured wavelength and amplitude of their sinusoidal tracks.

As a positive control, we used animals lacking DMA-1, a transmembrane receptor that is

essential for PVD dendrite formation. KNL-1 degrader animals showed reduced amplitudes

and wavelengths, indicating that degradation of KNL-1 in the PVD neuron impairs

proprioception **(Figures 3A - C)**.

Analysis of PVD morphology at the L4 stage revealed that dendrites of KNL-1

degrader neurons contained more bead-like structures compared to control neurons **(Figures**

3D, 3E). Beading is implicated in age-dependent decline of PVD dendrites [28], and substantial

beading does not appear until late into adulthood (Day 6) in control neurons. The presence

of substantial beading at the L4 stage suggested that KNL-1 degrader neurons degenerate

prematurely. Age-dependent degeneration of PVD dendrites is mediated by the autophagy

pathway [28], and autophagosomes marked by mScarlet-I::LGG-1 were enriched in dendrites

of KNL-1 degrader neurons at the day 1 adult stage **(Figure 3F, 3G)**. These observations

suggest that KNL-1 degradation predisposes the PVD neuron to premature ageing.

KNL-1 degradation does not perturb PVD polarity, microtubule organization, or microtubule dynamics

The canonical role of KMN network proteins is to stabilize the interactions between

chromosomes and microtubules during chromosome segregation. Microtubule function and

stability are also critical for the establishment and maintenance of neuronal polarity in the

PVD neuron [11,29,30]. Therefore, we hypothesized that KNL-1 could affect PVD dendrite

branching by regulating the underlying microtubule architecture and neuronal polarity. To

determine whether KNL-1 degradation impacts PVD polarity, we assessed the distribution of

RAB-3, a small GTPase associated with synaptic vesicles, and DMA-1, which localizes

exclusively to dendrites **(Figure 4A)**. We observed no change in the distribution of either

RAB-3 or DMA-1 following KNL-1 degradation, indicating that PVD polarity remains intact

(Figure 4B 4C & S3A, S3B).

Next, we investigated whether KNL-1 degradation impacts the distribution, dynamics,

or stability of microtubules in the 1° anterior dendrite. To monitor microtubule orientation and

dynamics we imaged the microtubule plus end-tracking protein EB1[EBP-2], which binds to

growing microtubule plus ends. EB1[EBP-2]::GFP was expressed under a PVD-specific

promoter, and its trajectories were followed by time-lapse imaging in L4 larvae **(Figure 4D)**.

In control neurons, the majority of the EB1[EBP-2]::GFP puncta moved towards the cell body,

which is consistent with previous observations [10,31] that within the 1° anterior dendrite

microtubules are oriented with their minus end distal **(Figure 4D & 4E)**. There was no

significant difference in the direction of movement, velocity, or frequency of EB1[EBP-2]::GFP

comets in KNL-1 degrader neurons **(Figure 4D, 4E & S3D, S3E)**. Thus, KNL-1 does not

contribute to the orientation, distribution, or dynamics of microtubule plus ends within PVD

dendrites.

We also examined tubulin distribution and microtubule stability in PVD dendrites by

expressing an α-tubulin GFP-fusion protein. GFP::TBA-1 is enriched in 1° dendrites and is

not detectable in higher-order dendrite branches of control animals, and this distribution was

not affected by KNL-1 degradation **(Figure S3C)**. To assess the stability of microtubules, we

performed Fluorescence Recovery After Photobleaching (FRAP) experiments on

microtubules labeled with endogenous GFP::TBA-1 using the split-gfp system **(Figure 4F)**.

After KNL-1 degradation, microtubules within the 1° anterior dendrite recovered to a similar

extent (~20%) and with the same kinetics as microtubules in control neurons **(Figure 4F &**

S3F). Recovery kinetics indicate that microtubules in the 1° anterior dendrite are largely

stable, and that microtubule stability is not impaired by KNL-1 degradation. Overall, these

experiments indicate that altered neuronal polarity or perturbed microtubule organization and

dynamics are unlikely to account for the striking effect of KNL-1 loss on PVD dendritic

branching and consequent impairment of PVD neuron function and lifespan.

KNL-1 limits F-actin assembly and dynamics in the PVD cell body and dendrites

During our analysis of PVD morphology, we noticed that the cell body in KNL-1 degrader

animals was enlarged and deformed **(Figure 5A, 5B)**, suggestive of defects associated with

the actin cytoskeleton. To visualize the actin cytoskeleton during PVD dendrite branching, we

generated a strain expressing Lifeact, the actin binding peptide of the yeast protein Abp140,

fused to mKate2 under a PVD-specific promoter. We imaged actin and the plasma membrane

of the PVD neuron at the L4 stage, when 4° dendritic branches are beginning to form. In

control neurons, Lifeact::mKate2 signal is enriched in the 3° and 4° dendrites compared to

the 1° dendrites and the cell body, consistent with previous observations [32,33] that newly

formed dendrites show a higher concentration of F-actin **(Figure 5C)**. In KNL-1 degrader

neurons, Lifeact::mKate2 signal intensity in the cell body and proximal 1° dendrites was

significantly increased **(Figure 5C),** and close examination revealed prominent F-actin cables

in the cell body of KNL-1 degrader neurons **(Figure 5D-G & S4A-C)**. These results suggest

that degradation of KNL-1 during PVD development results in increased F-actin levels.

To assess F-actin dynamics, we performed FRAP in the 1° anterior dendrite. In both

control and KNL-1 degrader neurons, recovery of Lifeact::mKate2 signal was slow suggesting

a low turnover rate for F-actin. However, the extent of recovery was significantly lower in KNL-

1 degrader neurons (8% vs. 14% in controls) indicative of a higher fraction of stable F-actin

structures **(Figure 5H, 5I)**.

Consistent with a role for KNL-1 in regulating F-actin dynamics, we found that KNL-1

influences the dynamics of filopodial protrusions from 1° dendrites. 2° dendrite branches

initiate when several actin-rich filopodial like projections extend orthogonally from the 1°

dendrite. Most of these filopodia undergo several cycles of extension and retraction until a

subset of projections stabilize to form the 2° dendrites **(Figure S4D)**. The number of filopodial

protrusions from 1° dendrites was significantly increased in KNL-1 degrader neurons **(Figure

5J, 5K & S4D)**. Unlike the filopodial outgrowths in control dendrites, which extend

orthogonally for a short period, protrusions in KNL-1 degrader dendrites had a longer lifetime

and arbitrary trajectories, often running parallel to 1° dendrites **(Figure 4SD)**. These

observations suggest that KNL-1 plays a critical role in regulating filopodial generation and

dynamics in 1° dendrites.

KNL-1 acts antagonistically to the RacGEF TIAM-1 to promote dendrite branching

Since KNL-1 regulates F-actin and dendrite branch dynamics as well as menorah formation,

we investigated how it connects with the molecular pathway that controls F-actin remodeling

and dendrite branching. Dendrite branching is driven by actin polymerization, which is

triggered by Rho family GTPases activated in response to guidance cues [9]. Specifically, the

adhesion molecules L1CAM/SAX-7 and MNR-1 in the epidermis interact with DMA-1/LRR,

the dendrite guidance receptor on the surface of the PVD neuron to initiate the formation of

3° and 4° branches . Within the PVD neuron, DMA-1 in conjunction with HPO-30, the claudin-

like transmembrane protein, functions as a scaffold for the RacGEF TIAM-1 and the Arp2/3

complex activator WRC (Wave Regulatory Complex) to promote actin assembly and drive

dendrite branching **(Figure 6A)**. To determine whether KNL-1 acts in the DMA-1-mediated

F-actin assembly pathway, we performed epistasis analysis of PVD-specific KNL-1

degradation with mutants in the *dma-1*-mediated branching pathway. Deletion of *dma-1*

results in complete loss of branching and menorah formation. Combining KNL-1 degradation

with a *dma-1Δ* mutant resulted in a similar phenotype as *dma-1Δ* alone, suggesting that KNL-

1 functions downstream of DMA-1.

We next tested the genetic interaction between KNL-1 and TIAM-1. TIAM-1 is

essential for higher order branching, as *tiam-1Δ* PVD neurons exhibit "immature" menorahs

that lack 4° branches **(Figure 6B, 6C)**. KNL-1 degradation in the PVD suppressed the

branching defects observed in *tiam-1Δ* animals and led to complete restoration of the

menorahs and the 3° and 4° branch counts **(Figure 6B-D)**. This suggests that KNL-1

degradation compensates for the loss of *tiam-1* by promoting dendrite branching. Additionally,

the menorah fusion defects observed in KNL-1 degrader neurons were reduced in *tiam-1Δ*

animals, indicating that KNL-1 and TIAM-1 have opposing effects on menorah formation

(Figure 6E).

TIAM-1 is a RacGEF proposed to locally recruit active Rac to initiate F-actin assembly.

Interestingly, in addition to the suppression of branching defects, *tiam-1Δ* also suppressed

the cell body shape defects of KNL-1 degrader neurons **(Figure 6F, 6G)**. Consistent with this

rescue, we found that F-actin levels in the cell body were no longer increased when KNL-1

was degraded in the *tiam-1Δ* background **(Figure 6G-I)**. Given that *tiam-1Δ* rescued F-actin

levels in KNL-1 degrader neurons, we were surprised to find that *tiam-1Δ* on its own increased

F-actin levels to a similar extent as KNL-1 degradation **(Figure 6G-I)**. This indicates that

TIAM-1 does not solely function as a GEF that promotes actin polymerization, and further

work will be necessary to understand the role of TIAM-1 in F-actin regulation and its epistatic

effect with KNL-1 degradation. Overall, these results demonstrate that KNL-1 and TIAM-1 act

antagonistically to modulate actin polymerization dynamics to promote the branching and

proper patterning of dendrite architecture of the PVD neuron.

DISCUSSION

Dendrite morphogenesis is a highly orchestrated process that requires precise regulation of

the actin and microtubule cytoskeleton. Various effectors of cytoskeletal remodeling in

dendrites have been identified, but how effector functions are coordinated to generate the

unique dendrite pattern of each neuron remains largely undefined. Taking advantage of the

unique morphology of the PVD neuron and a PVD-specific protein-degradation system, we

show that the kinetochore component KNL-1 facilitates dendrite arborization, and that it does

so in the context of the KMN network, the microtubule-coupling machine that drives

chromosome segregation during cell division.

KNL-1 degradation does not appreciably affect microtubule organization or growth

dynamics in PVD dendrites, nor does it affect PVD polarity, which is consistent with

observations in *D. melanogaster* sensory neurons[22]. KNL-1 degradation also has no effect

on the abundance of EB1-marked microtubule plus ends, which contrasts with the increased

number of EB1 comets observed after knockdown of Ndc80 and Mis12 subunits in *D.*

melanogaster neurons. KNL-1 function therefore appears to differ significantly from that of

other known microtubule-associated proteins in PVD, whose inhibition primarily affects

neuronal polarity or microtubule orientation and stability [10,29,30,34].

Taken together, our results argue against the idea that KNL-1 facilitates dendrite

branching through regulation of the microtubule cytoskeleton. Instead, we unexpectedly

found that KNL-1 degradation increases F-actin levels in the cell body and primary dendrites

and promotes formation of filopodial protrusions from primary dendrites, which suggested to

us that KNL-1 might regulate actin filament dynamics. Furthermore, the observed increase in

filopodial protrusions after Mis12 knockdown in rat hippocampal neurons is consistent with

the idea that other components of the KMN network may also affect the actin cytoskeleton[21].

It remains to be determined whether KNL-1's effect on actin requires association of the KMN

network with microtubules. We note, however, that KNL-1 does not appear to be specifically

enriched at microtubule-based structures (data not shown), and that fluorescence microscopy

suggests microtubules are absent in 3° and 4° dendrites, where KNL-1 presumably acts

during dendrite branching [11,35].

Recent studies suggest that dendrite branching results from a balance of F-actin-

dependent dendrite growth and retraction, and our time lapse analysis shows that KNL-1

degradation primarily inhibits branch retraction [27,35]. At the molecular level, dendrite branching

in PVD is driven by synergistic interaction between DMA-1, the transmembrane guidance

receptor, and HPO-30, the claudin superfamily member[32,33]. DMA-1 & HPO-30 are thought

to independently recruit the WAVE regulatory complex (WRC) to promote Arp2/3 mediated

assembly of branched F-actin networks, with DMA-1 recruiting WRC via the RacGEF TIAM-

1, and HPO-30 recruiting WRC directly through its C-terminal domain. TIAM-1 is essential to

form 3° & 4° branching[32,33], and we show that KNL-1 degradation rescues the branching

defects observed in *tiam-1Δ*. Moreover, the KNL-1 degradation phenotype in PVD is similar

to that of TIAM-1 or DMA-1 overexpression. This suggests that KNL-1 functions in the DMA-

1 pathway and promotes dendrite branching by antagonizing TIAM-1-mediated F-actin

assembly. A parsimonious explanation would be that KNL-1 counters the GEF activity of

TIAM-1. However, this is contradicted by the observation that the GEF activity of TIAM-1 is

not essential for dendrite branching.

An emerging view is that a balance between linear and branched actin filaments

underlies the transition from extension to retraction of the growing 3° dendrites[35].

Interestingly, previous work showed that Formin, a nucleator of linear actin filaments, is

enriched at kinetochores of human cultured cells and contributes to the stability of

kinetochore-attached microtubules during mitosis in mammalian cells and during meiosis in

oocytes[36–38]. Moreover, a recent study showed that F-actin cables generated by Formin and

Spire, another nucleator of linear actin filaments, interact with kinetochores during porcine

oocyte meiosis[39]. Given this close link between kinetochores and Formin, an attractive

hypothesis to be tested in the future is that the PVD-localized KMN network regulates linear

F-actin assembly during dendrite outgrowth, thereby ensuring the balance between linear and

branched F-actin filaments required for proper dendrite arborization.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank Reto Gassmann and Rebecca Green for comments on the manuscript. This work

is supported by a Sir Henry Wellcome Postdoctoral Fellowship (215925) to B.P. and a Sir

Henry Dale Fellowship (208833) to D.K.C. Imaging was performed in Centre Optical

Instrumentation Laboratory (COIL), which is supported by a Core Grant (203149) to the

Wellcome Centre for Cell Biology at the University of Edinburgh. Some strains were provided

by the CGC, which is funded by NIH Office of Research Infrastructure Programs (P40

OD010440)

DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

336   The authors declare no competing interests.

Figure 1

A

C. elegans L4 Larva

PVD Neuron

Head

Tail

Cross-Sectional View

PVD "Menorahs"

Epidermis
PVD Dendrite
PVD Cell Body
Body Wall Muscle

D
L ↔ R
V

Cell Body
4° Dendrite
3°
2°
1° Dendrite
1°
Axon

B

Split-GFP System

PVD prom   *Endogenous Locus*   *PVD Specific*   *GFP::KNL-1*

β1-10 + β11 KNL-1 → KNL-1

PVD L2 Stage

Growth Cone Tip
HSN
1° Dendrite
Cell Body
Axon

mSca::PH

GFP::KNL-1

Merge

C

L3 Dendrite

1° Dendrite
2°
3°

GFP::KNL-1

Merge w/ mSca::PH

D

n=14

GFP::KNL-1
mSca::PH

1.0

0.5

-2   -1   0   1   2

Distance from Branchpoint (μm)

Figure 1. KNL-1 localisation in the PVD neuron.

(A) Schematic of the PVD neuron at the L4 larval stage. The left inset cartoon shows a cross-

sectional view of PVD between the epidermis and body wall muscle. The right inset illustrates

the discrete "menorah"-like dendrite branching pattern of the PVD neuron. **(B)** Localization of

GFP::KNL-1 expressed specifically in PVD neuron using a split-GFP system. The image

represents an L2 stage PVD neuron which has begun to extend its anterior dendrite. Scale

bar, 5µm. **(C)** An example, with a schematic, of GFP::KNL-1 localizing at the developing

branch points in an L3 stage PVD dendrite. Scale Bar, 1µm. **(D)** Quantification of GFP::KNL-

1 at the intersections of 2° and 3° dendrites as shown in (C).

Figure 2. KNL-1 is required for proper dendrite branching of the PVD neuron.

(A) Approach used to degrade endogenously tagged AID::KNL-1 in the PVD neuron (top). Images below show loss of GFP::KNL-1 signal in presence of PVD-specific Tir1 transgene & auxin. The plot on the right shows the mean fluorescence intensity of the GFP signal in the cell body for control & KNL-1 DEG. Scale bar, 1μm. **(B)** Images of PVD dendrite organization in the control (top) & KNL-1 DEG (bottom). Scale bar, 10μm. **(C&D)** Quantification of PVD dendrite organization in terms of 4° branch count and fusion between menorahs in control & KNL-1 DEG. **(E)** Stills from time-lapse imaging of 3° dendrite branch dynamics in control & KNL-1 DEG animals. White arrow heads denote fusion events between two adjacent menorahs. Scale bar, 5μm. **(F)** Quantification of the number of fusion events between 3° dendrites of two adjacent menorahs that remained unresolved during the time lapse. n corresponds to the total number of animals analyzed in each condition. **(G)** Quantification of time spent in contact by 3° dendrites of two adjacent menorahs. n corresponds to the total events analyzed in control animals and KNL-1 DEG animals. **(H)** Images of PVD in control (GFP) (left) & KNL-1 GFP overexpressing animals (right). Scale bars, 10μm. **(I)** Quantification of the number of 4° branches in the PVD in control (GFP) and KNL-1::GFP overexpressing animals.

Figure 3. KNL-1 is important for proprioceptive behavior and PVD neuron maintenance.

(A) Proprioception behavior analysis**.** Representative tracks of animals in indicated

conditions**.** The wild type control worms form sinusoidal tracks. Scale bar, 20µm **(B&C)**

Quantification of the wavelength and amplitude of the tracks by animals in indicated

conditions. **(D)** Images of PVD dendrite organization in the control (top) & KNL-1 DEG

(bottom) animals. Yellow arrowhead indicates the bead-like blebs seen with membranes.

Scale bar, 5µm. **(E)** Quantification of the bead-like blebs in control and KNL-1 DEG animals.

(F) Autophagosomes labeled with the marker mScarlet-I::LGG-1 overlaid with membrane

(mNeonGreen::PH) in control & KNL-1 DEG adult animals. Yellow arrowheads indicate the

appearance of LGG-1 puncta along the dendrites. Scale bar, 10µm. **(G)** Quantification of

mScarlet-I::LGG-1 puncta in the dendrites in control & KNL-1 DEG animals. Yellow

arrowhead indicates an LGG-1 puncta. Scale bar, 5µm.

Figure 4. PVD neuronal polarity & microtubule organization are not affected by post-mitotic degradation of KNL-1.

(A) Schematic showing DMA-1, the dendrite specific receptor, RAB-3, the synaptic vesicle (SV) marker & the anterior dendrite microtubule organization. **(B)** Localization of the synaptic marker RAB-3 in control & KNL-1 DEG. RAB-3 is enriched in the axon (see red arrowheads). Scale bar, 5μm. **(C)** Quantification of RAB-3 fluorescent signal in the dendrite & axon. **(D)** EB1^{EBP-2}::GFP dynamics in the anterior primary dendrite. Plus end comets (arrowhead) are highlighted in the top still image. Below are kymographs projection images of the control (top) & KNL-1 DEG. The kymograph was generated along line extending from cell body towards the distal end of the primary dendrite. Scale bar, 5μm. **(E)** Quantification of EB1^{EBP-2}::GFP comet dynamics in control & KNL-1 DEG. **(F)** (Top) Schematic of an endogenous GFP::TBA-1 fusion expressed specifically in PVD using a split-gfp system. (middle) Still image of the anterior primary dendrite that expresses the split-GFP::TBA-1. The red rectangle indicates the Region of Interest (ROI) that was bleached in the FRAP experiments. CB is cell body. Scale bar, 5μm (Bottom) GFP::TBA-1 fluorescence recovery plots for control & KNL-1 DEG.

Figure 5. The PVD cell body shows an increase in polymerized actin after KNL-1 degradation.

(A) Images of the PVD cell body and proximal regions in control and KNL-DEG. Scale bar, 5µm. **(B)** Quantification of the area of the cell body in control & KNL-1 DEG animals. **(C)** The top image shows actin labeled with mKate2::Lifeact while the bottom shows actin overlaid with membrane (mNeonGreen::PH) in control & KNL-1 DEG animals. Scale bar, 10µm. **(D)** Images highlighting actin distribution in the cell body (CB) and proximal anterior primary dendrite in control (top) and KNL-1 DEG (bottom) animals. Scale bar, 5 µm. **(E-G)** Quantification of Lifeact fluorescence intensity inside and on the periphery of the cell body. **(H)** (Top) Still images of the PVD anterior primary dendrite expressing mKate2::Lifeact in control & KNL-1 DEG animals The dashed rectangles indicate the Region of Interests (ROIs) that were bleached in the FRAP experiments. (Bottom) Prebleach and postbleach images of mKate2::Lifeact in control & KNL-1 DEG animals. Scale bar, 5µm. **(I)** mKate2::Lifeact fluorescence recovery plots for control & KNL-1 DEG animals. **(J)** Images of anterior primary dendrite labeled with mNeonGreen::PH in control & KNL-1 DEG late L3 stage animals. Yellow arrowheads indicate filopodia. Scale bar, 5µm. **(K)** Quantification of the filopodial protrusions from anterior primary dendrite during a two-hour time lapse.

Figure 6. Degradation of KNL-1 rescues the dendrite branching defects in TIAM-1/RacGEF deletion animals.

(A) Schematic showing the signaling pathway involved in 3° & 4° dendrite branching.

Interactions between the ligand SAX-7 expressed in epidermis and DMA-1 receptor in PVD

recruits the TIAM-1/RacGEF which then promotes dendrite branching by activating actin

polymerization. **(B)** Images of PVD dendrites expressing mKate2::Lifeact in indicated

conditions. Scale bar, 10µm. **(C-E)** Quantification of PVD menorah organization in the

indicated conditions. Menorahs that lack 4° branches are considered "immature menorahs".

(F) Quantification of the area of the cell body in the indicated conditions. **(G)** Images highlight

actin distribution in the cell body and proximal anterior primary dendrite in indicated

conditions. Scale bar, 5µm. **(H&I)** Quantification of Lifeact fluorescence intensity inside the

cell body (CB) in the indicated conditions.

A PVD Morphogenesis

0 hrs — Late L2
Early L3
Late L3
48 hrs — L4

B *L3 1° Dendrite*

GFP::KNL-1

Merge w/ mSca::PH

Normalized Linescan of GFP::KNL-1

Distance along 1° Dendrite (μm)

C *L3 Dendrite*

3°
2°
1° Dendrite

GFP::KNL-1

Merge w/ mSca::PH

GFP::KNL-1   mSca::PH
n=5

D

4° Dendrite
3°
2°
1°

L4 3° Dendrite

mSca::PH

GFP::KNL-1

Merge

Figure S1. PVD morphogenesis & KNL-1 localization.

(A) Schematic of the PVD neuron morphogenesis from L2 stage until the L4 larval stage.

Dendrite outgrowth, branching and menorah formation takes about 48 hours. **(B)** (Left)

Localization of GFP::KNL-1 within the primary dendrite at the L3 stage. KNL-1 forms distinct

puncta like structures. Scale bar, 2 µm. (Right) Linescan of the GFP::KNL-1 intensity. The

peaks correspond to the puncta seen on the image. **(C)** (Left) Schematic and image

showing GFP::KNL-1 enrichment at the base of branchpoint between 1° and 2° dendrite at

the L3 stage. Scale bar, 1 µm. (Right) Plot showing the average of the fluorescent intensity

linescans of GFP::KNL-1 superimposed with that of mScarlet-I::PH. Branchpoints show an

increased intensity of PH and KNL-1 signal. **(D)** Image shows distribution of GFP::KNL-1

within the 3° dendrite at the early L4 stage. Scale bar, 2 µm.

A

B

4° Dendrite
3°
1° Dendrite   2°
                 1°

No. of 2° Branches Per Neuron

ns

Control DEG (n=30)
KNL-1 DEG (n=30)

C

4° Dendrite
3°
1° Dendrite   2°
                 1°

No. of Ectopic Neurites

****

Control DEG (n=30)
KNL-1 DEG (n=30)

D

3° Dendrite Contacts

No. in 2 hrs per Neuron

ns

Control DEG (n=36)
KNL-1 DEG (n=19)

E

KMN Network

KNL-1 complex (KNL-1, KBP-5)

MIS-12 complex (KNL-3, MIS-12, KBP-1, KBP-2)

NDC-80 complex (NDC-80, Nuf2[HIM-10] KBP-3, KBP-4)

F

L4 Larva

PVD Neuron

mSca::PH

Control DEG

KNL-1 DEG

Ndc80* DEG

KNL-3 DEG

G

No. of 2° Branches

ns
ns
ns

DEG: Ctrl (n=30) KNL-1 (n=30) Ndc80 (n=26) KNL-3 (n=30)

H

No. of 4° Branches

****
****
****

DEG: Ctrl (n=30) KNL-1 (n=30) Ndc80 (n=26) KNL-3 (n=30)

I

No. of Fusion Events

****
****
****

DEG: Ctrl (n=30) KNL-1 (n=30) Ndc80 (n=26) KNL-3 (n=30)

J

No. of 2° Branches

**

GFP (n=20)
GFP:: KNL-1 (n=43)

Figure S2. Effects of degradation of KMN network on PVD morphology.

(A) Schematic indicates the experimental design for degrading AID::KNL-1. To obtain

synchronized L1 animals, embryos from control or AID::KNL-1 adult worms expressing PVD-

specific TIR1 transgene were isolated by bleach treatment and hatched for 24 hours on plates

without food. L1 larvae were placed on a plate with food until they reached the L2 stage

(20hrs). The L2 stage animals were transferred to plates with bacteria and auxin and grown

until they reached L4 stage (24hrs). The late L4 stage animals have fully developed menorahs

and were imaged to analyze the PVD morphology. **(B&C)** Quantification of the numbers of 2°

branches and the number of ectopic branches in control & KNL-1 DEG. **(D)** Quantification of

the filopodial protrusions from the anterior primary dendrite during two-hour time lapses. **(E)**

Schematic of the components of the KNL1/Mis12/Ndc80 complex. **(F)** Images of PVD

dendrite organization in control, KNL-1 DEG, Ndc80 DEG & KNL-3 DEG.* In the Ndc80 DEG,

AID was fused to both NDC-80 & NUF2$^{Him1-10}$ subunits. Scale bar, 10 µm. **(G-I)** Quantification

of PVD dendrite organization including the number of 2° & 4° branches and fusions between

menorahs in the indicated conditions. **(J)** Quantification of the number of 2° branches in the

dendrites of PVD in control and KNL-1::GFP overexpressing animals.

Figure S3. DMA-1 distribution & microtubule organization & stability after degradation of KNL-1 in the PVD.

(A) Localization of the dendrite guidance receptor, DMA-1 in control & KNL-1 DEG at the L4

stage. Pink arrow heads show enrichment of DMA-1 in the 4° dendrite. Scale bar, 10µm.

DMA-1 is restricted to dendrite structures and no axonal signal for DMA-1 is visible **(B)**

Quantification of DMA-1 fluorescent signal in the PVD dendrites shows that both the control

and KNL-1 has similar levels of DMA-1. **(C)** Images of Pdes-2 driven GFP::TBA-1 in the

control & KNL-1 degrader animals. Tubulin distribution looks similar in both conditions.

GFP::TBA-1 is detected predominantly in the 1° dendrite and is largely absent from the

dendrite branches. Scale bar, 10 µm. **(D&E)** Quantification of EB1^{EBP-2}::GFP comet dynamics

in control & KNL-1 DEG. **(F)** (Top) Still images of the PVD anterior primary dendrite

expressing endogenous GFP::TBA-1 in control & KNL-1 DEG animals. Scale bar, 5 µm. The

dashed rectangles indicate the Region of Interest (ROI) that were bleached in the FRAP

experiments. (Bottom) Prebleach and postbleach images of GFP::TBA-1 in control & KNL-1

DEG animals.

A

Inside CB

B

Inside CB

C

Inside CB

D

Late L3   *PVD Neuron*

Control DEG   KNL-1 DEG

mNG::PH   mNG::PH

Figure S4. Analysis of F-actin distribution of in the control and KNL-1 degraded animals; filopodia dynamics in L3 animals.

458 **(A-C)** Quantification of Lifeact fluorescence intensity inside the cell body. **(D)** Snapshots of

459 time lapse imaging of 1° dendrite branch dynamics in control & KNL-1 DEG animals at the

460 late L3 stage. Yellow arrowheads indicate filopodia. White asterisks indicate newly formed

461 filopodia. Yellow asterisks indicate the misguided filopodia that runs parallel to the 1° dendrite.

462 Scale bar, 5 µm

A

B

Figure S5. Analysis of KNL-1 degradation in dma-1 and tiam-1 deletion background.

463   **(A)** Schematic of the dma-1 gene deletion. Dashed line point to the location of the crRNAs

464   that were used to generate the gene deletion. **(B)** Quantification of PVD 2° branches in the

465   indicated conditions. tiam-1Δ shows a slight increase in the number of 2° branches. As the

466   counts are from a single timepoint it is not clear whether these are stable 2° branches or long

467   unstable filopodia.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

<u>*C. elegans* Strains & Methods</u>

All *C. elegans* strains were maintained at 20°C on standard Nematode Growth Media

(NGM) plates seeded with OP50 bacteria. The genotypes of the *C. elegans* strains used in

this study are described in *Table S1*.

Single copy transgenic integrations were engineered using the transposon based mos1

mediated Single Copy Insertion (mosSCI) method[40]. Briefly, the strains were generated by

injecting a mixture of repair plasmid containing the transgene and a positive selection marker,

transposase plasmid, and the three plasmids encoding fluorescent markers for negative

selection [pCFJ90 (P*myo-2::mCherry*), pCFJ104 (P*myo-3::mCherry*) and pGH8 (P*rab-*

3::mCherry)] into appropriate *C. elegans* strains that contain mos1 insertion sites at specific

genomic locations within Chr I, II, IV or V. Positive integrants were identified by selecting

worms that were moving and did not contain fluorescent selection markers. Integration of

transgenes were confirmed by PCR, spanning both homology arms. Endogenous tagging of

various genes (see *Table S1*) at the N- or C-teminus and generation of the *dma-1* deletion

were done using CRISPR/Cas9 methods [41–43]. The specific method and guide RNAs used to

generate each strain are described in *Table S2*. Briefly, a DNA mix (Dickinson et al., 2015;

Waaijers et al., 2013) or Cas9RNP mix (Paix et al., 2015), containing the respective repair

template, guide RNA sequences, Cas9 and selection markers were injected into N2 animals.

Recombinant strains were identified by appropriate selection method and were confirmed by

PCR, spanning both homology regions. All plasmids used for the strain constructions were

constructed using the Gibson Assembly method [44].

<u>Auxin Degradation</u>

Worms were synchronized at L1 arrest stage by bleaching gravid adults in NGM plate

using a 1M sodium hydroxide and 2.5% sodium hypochlorite (Acros Organics) solution to

obtain eggs. The eggs were then left to hatch for 48 hours at 20°C allow hatched L1 larvae

to enter L1 arrest stage. Subsequently, the worms were washed with M9 buffer and

transferred into a centrifuge tube for pelleting for 1 min at 1000 RPM. The pelleted

synchronized L1s were transferred to OP-50 seeded NGM plates and maintained at 20°C

(T=0hr). Auxin treatment was performed by transferring worms to OP-50 seeded NGM plates

containing 4 mM auxin (K-NAA, N160, Phytochrome laboratories) at T=20hr post

synchronization. The auxin containing NGM plates were seeded with 200μl of high-density

OP-50 and left to dry for 2 days at room temperature. The seeded plates were stored for up

to 1 month at 4°C.

<u>Fluorescence microscopy and image analysis</u>

To image PVD neurons expressing the appropriate markers L2 or L4 stage worms

were anaesthetized in 5 mM Levamisole and mounted in M9 on a 2% agarose pad. Images

were acquired using a spinning disc confocal imaging system with a Yokogawa spinning disk

unit (CSU-W1), a Nikon Ti2-E fully motorized inverted microscope, with a CFI60 Plan

Apochromat lambda 60X Oil (Nikon) objective and a Photometrics Prime 95B camera. For

imaging Lifeact::mKate2 marker a CFI60 Plan Apochromat lambda 100X Oil (Nikon) objective

was used. Z-stacks of 0.5 µm or 1.0 µm were acquired to cover the PVD closer to the side

facing the coverslip / objective.

To quantify KNL-1 degradation the Z-stacks were projected into a maximum intensity

projection. The mean intensity of KNL-1::GFP at the cell body was measured using a polygon

selection drawn over the cell body boundary using Image J (Fiji).

To quantify co-localization of mSca::PH with KNL1::GFP separate line scans were

acquire using a segmented line (width=1 pixels) at a maximum of 2 μm of either side of the

branchpoint/base of the branch using Image J (Fiji). The values were normalized to the

maximum and minimum intensity value.

To quantify the morphology of the PVD dendrites the Z-stacks were projected into a

maximum intensity projection. The various dendrite morphology parameters were measured

separately for the posterior dendrite and the anterior proximal dendrite (100μm & 50 μm from

the soma for worms expressing the PH marker & Lifeact marker, respectively). The 2°

dendrites were identified as orthogonal branches to 1^odendrite containing higher order

branches (3° and/or 4° branches). The 4° dendrites were identified as orthogonal branches to

the 3^odendrites. Fusion was identified as two adjacent 3° dendrite lacking a gap (Smith et al.,

2012). Ectopic branches were identified as branches protruding out of the 1° dendrite with a

length of at least 2x higher than its width and with no higher order branches. The cell body

area was measured using a polygon selection drawn over the cell body boundary using Image

J (Fiji).

To quantify the morphology of the PVD dendrites for the extrachromosomal arrays the

fluorescence intensity of GFP or KNL-1::GFP were measured in the cell body using the

polygon selection drawn over the cell body boundary using Image J (Fiji). The values were

normalised to the background fluorescence intensity to ensure only worms with over-

expression were included in the analysis. Hence, if the intensity was greater than half the

max recorded intensity then the worms were included in the analysis. The morphology was

quantified for the whole neuron using the parameters previously described.

To quantify RAB-3 signal the Z-stacks were projected into a maximum intensity

projection and the fluorescence intensity was measured along the length of the axon of each

neuron and along an equivalent length in the proximal anterior dendrite using a segmented

line (width=3 pixels) in Image J (Fiji). To quantify DMA-1 signal the Z-stacks were projected

into a maximum intensity projection and the fluorescence intensity was measured in the 4°

dendrites adjacent to the cell body using a segmented line (width=3 pixels) in Image J (Fiji).

To quantify actin distribution at the cell body the Z-stacks were projected into a

maximum intensity projection of the z-planes that included one single PVD neuron (~18 x 1

µm z-stacks). Mean intensity of actin around the cell body was measured using a segmented

line (width=3 pixels) drawn over the cell body boundary with the anterior side as the start

point and following a clockwise direction using Image J (Fiji). The standard deviation,

maximum and minimum intensity of actin at the cell body were measured using a polygon

selection drawn over the cell body boundary using Image J (Fiji).

To quantify membrane blebbing in L4 worms the Z-stacks were projected into a

maximum intensity projection and membrane blebbing was quantified for the whole anterior

dendrite.

To quantify LGG-1 puncta in day 3 adults, the Z-stacks were projected into a

maximum intensity projection and a 50 µm x 50 µm section centred around the cell body

was analysed for each worm. LGG-1 puncta were counted if they were not in the cell body

or axon initial segment.

<u>Timelapse Imaging</u>

For time-lapse imaging of dendrite dynamics, synchronized worms were anesthetized

in 5 mM Levamisole after auxin treatment at 8 hours post synchronization or in the absence

of treatment. 9-11 x 0.9 µm z-stacks were acquired at 1 frame per 1:20 minutes for 2 hours

and an exposure of 50 ms. Acquisition was performed using using a spinning disc confocal

imaging system with a Yokogawa spinning disk unit (CSU-W1), a Nikon Ti2-E fully motorized

inverted microscope, with a CFI60 Plan Apochromat lambda 60X Oil (Nikon) objective and

Photometrics Prime 95B camera.

For quantifications, time of contact of 3° dendrites, number of contacts and number of

unresolved of contacts were measured from maximum intensity projections of z-stacks using

Image J (Fiji). This quantification was performed for the first 100 µm anterior to the soma.

Contacts of 3° dendrites were identified as two adjacent 3° dendrite lacking a gap (Smith et

al., 2012). Only the contacts that occurred during the timelapse acquisition were quantified.

Unresolved contacts were identified as contacts that lacked a gap by the end of the

timelapses. Protrusions were identified as any membrane protrusions smaller than 2.5 µm.

For timelapse imaging of EBP-2 dynamics synchronized worms were anesthetized in

5 mM Levamisole after auxin treatment. A single z-slice was acquired of the first 50 µm of the

anterior dendrite at 1 frame per 1 sec using a spinning disc confocal imaging system with a

Yokogawa spinning disk unit (CSU-W1), a Nikon Ti2-E fully motorized inverted microscope,

with a CFI60 Plan Apochromat lambda 100X Oil (Nikon) objective and an Photometrics Prime

95B camera. For the generation of kymographs Fiji plugin, KymographClear 2.0a[45] was

used. A line of width 2 pixel was drawn to generate kymograph. The number of

lines (indicative of the number of comets) in each direction was measured and the length and

height of each line was used to calculate the velocities of each individual comet.

Fluorescence Recovery After Photobleaching (FRAP) of Actin and Microtubule

For FRAP imaging of microtubule marker worms were anesthetized in 5 mM

Levamisole. A single z-slice was acquired of the first 50 µm of the anterior dendrite at 1 frame

per 1 sec. After 3 prebleach frames, 1.5 µm region 20 µm away from the cell body was

bleached using 405 nm laser at 30% power, 150 µs dwell time and 5 laser iterations. Images

were acquired for 2 minutes post bleaching. For FRAP imaging of actin marker worms were

anesthetized in 5 µl 5mM Levamisole in M9. A single z-slice was acquired of the first 50 µm

of the anterior dendrite at 1 frame per 1 sec and an exposure of 150 ms. After 3 prebleach

frames, 1.5 µm region 20 µm away from the cell body was bleached using 405 nm laser at

40% power, 300 µs. Dwell time and 5 laser iterations. Images were acquired for 2 minutes

post bleaching.

To quantify fluorescence intensity a region of interest (ROI) of 1.5 μm was defined

using elliptical selection in Image J (Fiji). The fluorescence intensity was normalized to the

background and corrected for the fluorescence intensity of non-bleached area. Additionally,

the FRAP actin marker analysis required the values to be additionally subtracted by the

intensity at the photobleached region 1 frame post photobleaching.

Behavioural assays

For the locomotion assays L4 worms were transferred to a freshly seeded NGM plate

for 1 hour at 20°C after auxin treatment. Acquisition was performed using Nikon SMZ18

microscope at 2X P2-SHR Plan Apo 1X objective and Photometrics Cool SNAP camera. 5

tracks were measured per worm and 15 worms were measured per strain. The wavelength

was measured as the distance between two successive peaks and the amplitude as half the

measurement of the height between two opposing peaks. Five measurements were taken per

track.

Quantification and Statistical Analysis

Details of the methods employed to extract and quantify various parameters in microscopy

datasets are described in the image analysis section. The statistical tests used to determine

significance are described in the figure legends. The data normality was assessed using a

Shapiro-Wilk test. For normally distributed data either an unpaired t-test (for comparisons

between two groups) or an ordinary one-way ANOVA with a follow up Holm-Sidak multiple

comparison test (for comparisons between three and more groups) were performed. For

data sets that did not pass the normality test either a Mann-Whitney test (for comparisons

between two groups) or a Kruskal-Wallis test with a follow up Dunn's multiple comparison

test (for comparisons between three and more groups) were performed. All comparisons

were done in GraphPad Prism (GraphPad Software) and the stars ****, ***, ** and ns

correspond $p<0.0001$, $p<0.001$, $p<0.01$ and "not significant", respectively.

Table S1. *C. elegans* Strains

STRAIN DESCRIPTION	SOURCE	IDENTIFIER
dhaSI145 [oxTi185; pDC973; Pdes-2--TIR1--F2A--mTagBFP--AID*-- NLS--tbb-23'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]I #1; dhaSi89 [pDC747; Punc- 86::TIR-1::unc543'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]II #1; ; unc-119(ed3)III?; dhaSi76[oxTi177;PDC731; Pdes-2::mSca-PH::unc-54 3'UTR; cb-unc- 119(+)] IV	This study	DKC815
dhaSI145 [oxTi185; pDC973; Pdes-2--TIR1--F2A--mTagBFP--AID*-- NLS--tbb-23'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]I #1; dhaSi89 [pDC747; Punc- 86::TIR-1::unc543'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]II #1; knl-1(dha122 (AID::dTagmB>F>P::::KNL-1))III ; unc-119(ed3)III?; dhaSi76[oxTi177;PDC731; Pdes-2::mSca-PH::unc-54 3'UTR; cb-unc- 119(+)] IV	This study	DKC849
dhaSI145 [oxTi185; pDC973; Pdes-2--TIR1--F2A--mTagBFP--AID*-- NLS--tbb-23'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]I #1; dhaSi89 [pDC747; Punc- 86::TIR-1::unc543'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]II #1; ; dhaSi76[ndc- 80(dha148; NDC-80::AID::dgfp^3XFLAG) ; oxTi177;PDC731; Pdes- 2::mSca-PH::unc-54 3'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)] IV dhaSi76[oxTi177;PDC731; Pdes-2::mSca-PH::unc-54 3'UTR; cb-unc- 119(+)] IV	This study	DKC860
dhaSI145 [oxTi185; pDC973; Pdes-2--TIR1--F2A--mTagBFP--AID*-- NLS--tbb-23'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]I #1; dhaSi89 [pDC747; Punc- 86::TIR-1::unc543'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]II #1; unc-119(ed3)III?; dhaSi76[oxTi177;PDC731; Pdes-2::mSca-PH::unc-54 3'UTR; cb-unc- 119(+)] IV; KNL-3(du2 [AID::KNL-3]) V	This study	DKC911
dhaEx1[Pdes-2::Knl-1::GFP::unc 54 3'UTR]; dhaSi76[oxTi177;PDC731; Pdes-2::mSca-PH::unc-54 3'UTR; cb-unc- 119(+)] IV	This study	DKC822
dhaEx3[Pdes-2::GFP::unc 54 3'UTR]; dhaSi76[oxTi177;PDC731; Pdes-2::mSca-PH::unc-54 3'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)] IV	This study	DKC824
dhaSI145 [oxTi185; pDC973; Pdes-2--TIR1--F2A--mTagBFP--AID*-- NLS--tbb-23'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]I #1; dhaSi89 [pDC747; Punc- 86::TIR-1::unc543'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]II #1; knl-1(dha122 (AID::dTagmB>F>P::::KNL-1))III ; unc-119(ed3)III?; hrtSi17[Pdes- 2::mKate2::rab-3 LG]IV	This study	DKC1002
dhaSI145 [oxTi185; pDC973; Pdes-2--TIR1--F2A--mTagBFP--AID*-- NLS--tbb-23'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]I #1; dhaSi89 [pDC747; Punc- 86::TIR-1::unc543'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]II #1; unc-119(ed3)III?; hrtSi17[Pdes-2::mKate2::rab-3 LG]IV	This study	DKC1001
dhaSI145 [oxTi185; pDC973; Pdes-2--TIR1--F2A--mTagBFP--AID*-- NLS--tbb-23'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]I #1; dhaSi89 [pDC747; Punc- 86::TIR-1::unc543'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]II #1; dhaSi272[oxTi177; pDC1122 ;Pser2-prom-3::DMA-1::mKate2::unc 54 3'UTR ; cb-unc- 119(+)]V	This study	DKC1076
dhaSI145 [oxTi185; pDC973; Pdes-2--TIR1--F2A--mTagBFP--AID*-- NLS--tbb-23'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]I #1; dhaSi89 [pDC747; Punc- 86::TIR-1::unc543'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]II #1; knl-1(dha122 (AID::dTagmB>F>P::::KNL-1))III ; unc-119(ed3)III?; dhaSi272[oxTi177; pDC1122 ;Pser2-prom-3::DMA-1::mKate2::unc 54 3'UTR ; cb-unc-119(+)]V	This study	DKC1075
dhaSI145 [oxTi185; pDC973; Pdes-2--TIR1--F2A--mTagBFP--AID*-- NLS--tbb-23'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]I #1; dhaSi89 [pDC747; Punc- 86::TIR-1::unc543'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]II #1; dhaSi76[oxTi177;PDC731; Pdes-2::mSca-PH::unc-54 3'UTR; cb-unc- 119(+)] IV; dhaSi241[oxTi177;PDC978; Pdes-2::GFP::tba-1::unc-54- 3'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)] V #1	This study	DKC917

dhaSI145 [oxTi185; pDC973; Pdes-2--TIR1--F2A--mTagBFP--AID--NLS--tbb-23'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]I #1; dhaSi89 [pDC747; Punc-86::TIR-1::unc543'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]II #1; knl-1(dha122 (AID::dTagmB>F>P::::KNL-1))III ; unc-119(ed3)III?; dhaSi76[oxTi177;PDC731; Pdes-2::mSca-PH::unc-54 3'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)] IV; dhaSi241[oxTi177;PDC978; Pdes-2::GFP::tba-1::unc-54-3'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)] V #1*	This study	DKC916
dhaSI145 [oxTi185; pDC973; Pdes-2--TIR1--F2A--mTagBFP--AID--NLS--tbb-23'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]I #1; dhaSi89 [pDC747; Punc-86::TIR-1::unc543'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]II #1; knl-1(dha122 (AID::dTagmB>F>P::::KNL-1))III; dhaSi45[oxTi365; pDC675; Pdes-2::mNG-PH::unc-54 3'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)] V clone A*	This study	DKC1089
dhaSi89 [pDC747; Punc-86::TIR-1::unc543'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]II #1; knl-1(dha130; HA::7XGFP11::knl-1)III; dhaSi76[oxTi177;PDC731; Pdes-2::mSca-PH::unc-54 3'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)] IV ;outcrossed 3X ; dhaSi207 [pDC1020;unc-86pro::splitGFP1-10::tbb-2 3'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)] V #2	This study	DKC1139
dhaSi89 [pDC747; Punc-86::TIR-1::unc543'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]II #1; knl-1(dha185; HA::7XGFP11::knl-1::AID)III; dhaSi76[oxTi177;PDC731; Pdes-2::mSca-PH::unc-54 3'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)] IV ;outcrossed 3X ; dhaSi207 [pDC1020;unc-86pro::splitGFP1-10::tbb-2 3'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)] V	This study	DKC1151
dhaSi207 [pDC1020;unc-86pro::splitGFP1-10::tbb-2 3'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)] II #2; knl-1(dha130; HA::7XGFP11::knl-1)III unc-119(ed3)III?; dhaSi76[oxTi177;PDC731; Pdes-2::mSca-PH::unc-54 3'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)] IV ;outcrossed 3X	This study	DKC870
dhaSi249 [oxTi177; pDC732 Punc-86::mSca-PH::unc-54 3'UTR] V #1; dhaSi207 [pDC1020;unc-86pro::splitGFP1-10::tbb-2 3'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)] II #2; knl-1(dha130; HA::7XGFP11::knl-1)III	This study	DKC872
dhaSI145 [oxTi185; pDC973; Pdes-2--TIR1--F2A--mTagBFP--AID--NLS--tbb-23'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]I #1; dhaSi89 [pDC747; Punc-86::TIR-1::unc543'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]II #1; dhaSi243[pDC929; oxTi365; Pdes-2--LifeAct-mKate2--tbb-2 3UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]IV #1*	This study	DKC1035
dhaSI145 [oxTi185; pDC973; Pdes-2--TIR1--F2A--mTagBFP--AID--NLS--tbb-23'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]I #1; dhaSi89 [pDC747; Punc-86::TIR-1::unc543'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]II #1; knl-1(dha122 (AID::dTagmB>F>P::::KNL-1))III ; unc-119(ed3)III?; dhaSi243[pDC929; oxTi365; Pdes-2--LifeAct-mKate2--tbb-2 3UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]IV #1*	This study	DKC1057
dhaSI145 [oxTi185; pDC973; Pdes-2--TIR1--F2A--mTagBFP--AID--NLS--tbb-23'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]I #1; dhaSi89 [pDC747; Punc-86::TIR-1::unc543'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]II #1; dhaSi243[pDC929; oxTi365; Pdes-2--LifeAct-mKate2--tbb-2 3UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]IV #1; dhaSi45[oxTi365; pDC675; Pdes-2::mNG-PH::unc-54 3'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)] V clone A*	This study	DKC1087
dhaSI145 [oxTi185; pDC973; Pdes-2--TIR1--F2A--mTagBFP--AID--NLS--tbb-23'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]I #1; dhaSi89 [pDC747; Punc-86::TIR-1::unc543'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]II #1; knl-1(dha122 (AID::dTagmB>F>P::::KNL-1))III ; unc-119(ed3)III?; dhaSi243[pDC929; oxTi365; Pdes-2--LifeAct-mKate2--tbb-2 3UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]IV #15; pDC675; Pdes-2::mNG-PH::unc-54 3'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)] V clone A*	This study	DKC1113
dhaSI145 [oxTi185; pDC973; Pdes-2--TIR1--F2A--mTagBFP--AID--NLS--tbb-23'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]I #1;tiam-1(ok772) I; dhaSi89 [pDC747; Punc-86::TIR-1::unc543'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]II #1; knl-1(dha122 (AID::dTagmB>F>P::::KNL-1))III ; unc-119(ed3)III?; dhaSi243[pDC929; oxTi365; Pdes-2--LifeAct-mKate2--tbb-2 3UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]IV #1*	This study	DKC1103
tiam-1(ok772) I; dhaSi89 [pDC747; Punc-86::TIR-1::unc543'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]II #1; unc-119(ed3)III?; dhaSi243[pDC929; oxTi365; Pdes-2--LifeAct-mKate2--tbb-2 3UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]IV #1	This study	DKC1109

dma-1 (dha155; DEL)I; dhaSi89 [pDC747; Punc-86::TIR-1::unc543'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]II #1; dhaSi243[pDC929; oxTi365; Pdes-2--LifeAct-mKate2--tbb-2 3UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]IV #1	This study	DKC1145
dma-1 (dha155; DEL)I; dhaSi89 [pDC747; Punc-86::TIR-1::unc543'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]II #1; knl-1(dha122 (AID::dTagmB>F>P::::KNL-1))III; dhaSi243[pDC929; oxTi365; Pdes-2--LifeAct-mKate2--tbb-2 3UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]IV #1	This study	DKC1147
dhaSI145 [oxTi185; pDC973; Pdes-2--TIR1--F2A--mTagBFP--AID--NLS--tbb-23'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]II #1; dha149(HA::GFP11::tba-1)I; dhaSi89 [pDC747; Punc-86::TIR-1::unc543'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]II #1; ; unc-119(ed3)III?; dhaSi76[oxTi177;PDC731; Pdes-2::mSca-PH::unc-54 3'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)] IV; dhaSi207 [pDC1020;unc-86pro::splitGFP1-10::tbb-2 3'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)] V #2*	This study	DKC1086
dhaSI145 [oxTi185; pDC973; Pdes-2--TIR1--F2A--mTagBFP--AID--NLS--tbb-23'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]II #1; dha149(HA::GFP11::tba-1)I; dhaSi89 [pDC747; Punc-86::TIR-1::unc543'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]II #1; knl-1(dha122 (AID::dTagmB>F>P::::KNL-1))III; unc-119(ed3)III?; dhaSi76[oxTi177;PDC731; Pdes-2::mSca-PH::unc-54 3'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)] IV; dhaSi207 [pDC1020;unc-86pro::splitGFP1-10::tbb-2 3'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)] V #2*	This study	DKC1090
dhaSI145 [oxTi185; pDC973; Pdes-2--TIR1--F2A--mTagBFP--AID--NLS--tbb-23'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]II #1; dhaSi89 [pDC747; Punc-86::TIR-1::unc543'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]II #1; knl-1(dha122 (AID::dTagmB>F>P::::KNL-1))III ; unc-119(ed3)III?; dhaSi76[oxTi177;PDC731; Pdes-2::mSca-PH::unc-54 3'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)] IV; dhaSi269[oxTi177; pDC1106 ;Pser-2prom3::ebp-2::gfp::tbb-2 3'UTR ; cb-unc-119(+)]V #1*	This study	DKC1072
dhaSI145 [oxTi185; pDC973; Pdes-2--TIR1--F2A--mTagBFP--AID--NLS--tbb-23'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]II #1; dhaSi89 [pDC747; Punc-86::TIR-1::unc543'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]II #1; unc-119(ed3)III?; dhaSi76[oxTi177;PDC731; Pdes-2::mSca-PH::unc-54 3'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)] IV; dhaSi269[oxTi177; pDC1106 ;Pser-2prom3::ebp-2::gfp::tbb-2 3'UTR ; cb-unc-119(+)]V #1*	This study	DKC1073
dhaSI145 [oxTi185; pDC973; Pdes-2--TIR1--F2A--mTagBFP--AID--NLS--tbb-23'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]II #1; dhaSi89 [pDC747; Punc-86::TIR-1::unc543'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]II #1; unc-119(ed3)III?; dhaSi76[oxTi177;PDC731; dhaSi237[oxTi177; pDC1061;Pser-2prom3::mscarlet::linker::LGG1:unc 54 3'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]V #1*	This study	DKC1127
dhaSI145 [oxTi185; pDC973; Pdes-2--TIR1--F2A--mTagBFP--AID--NLS--tbb-23'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]II #1; dhaSi89 [pDC747; Punc-86::TIR-1::unc543'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]II #1; knl-1(dha122 (AID::dTagmB>F>P::::KNL-1))III ; unc-119(ed3)III?; dhaSi76[oxTi177;PDC731;dhaSi237[oxTi177; pDC1061;Pser-2prom3::mscarlet::linker::LGG1:unc 54 3'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]V #1*	This study	DKC1126
dhaSI145 [oxTi185; pDC973; Pdes-2--TIR1--F2A--mTagBFP--AID--NLS--tbb-23'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]II #1; dhaSi89 [pDC747; Punc-86::TIR-1::unc543'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]II #1; unc-119(ed3)III?; unc-119 (ed3)III; dhaSi53[oxTi177;pDC675; Pdes-2::Mng-PH::unc-54 3'UTR; cb-unc-119 (+)]IV clone B; dhaSi237[oxTi177; pDC1061;Pser-2prom3::mscarlet::linker::LGG1:unc 54 3'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]V #1*	This study	DKC1132
dhaSI145 [oxTi185; pDC973; Pdes-2--TIR1--F2A--mTagBFP--AID--NLS--tbb-23'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]II #1; dhaSi89 [pDC747; Punc-86::TIR-1::unc543'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]II #1; knl-1(dha122 (AID::dTagmB>F>P::::KNL-1))III ; unc-119(ed3)III?; unc-119 (ed3)III; dhaSi53[oxTi177;pDC675; Pdes-2::Mng-PH::unc-54 3'UTR; cb-unc-119 (+)]IV clone B; dhaSi237[oxTi177; pDC1061;Pser-2prom3::mscarlet::linker::LGG1:unc 54 3'UTR; cb-unc-119(+)]V #1*	This study	DKC1131
dma-1 (dha155; DEL)I	This study	DKC919

Table S2. CRISPR-Cas9 Protocol & sgRNA Sequences Used for Strain Generation

GENOTYPE	METHOD & REFERENCE	sgRNA SEQUENCE
knl-1(dha122 (AID::dTagmB>F>P::::KNL-1))III &knl-1(dha130; HA::7XGFP11::knl-1)III	Ribonucleoprotein complex (Paix, et al., 2015)	catatttacagccATGTCGA & CTTACGAGGCTCCATCGACA
dhaSi76[ndc-80(dha148; NDC-80::AID::dgfp^3XFLAG)	SEC (Dickinson et al., 2015)	ATGTGCTGGCATTGAAAAGG
dma-1 (dha155; DEL)I	Ribonucleoprotein complex (Paix, et al., 2015)	agctagaagcagcaaacgtg & GGTGCTGGTGGAATCAATGG

REFERENCES

1.   Jan, Y.N., and Jan, L.Y. (2001). Dendrites. Genes Dev. *15*, 2627–2641.

2.   Jan, Y.N., and Jan, L.Y. (2010). Branching out: mechanisms of dendritic arborization.
Nat. Rev. Neurosci. *11*, 316–328.

3.   Li, Z., Van Aelst, L., and Cline, H.T. (2000). Rho GTPases regulate distinct aspects of
dendritic arbor growth in Xenopus central neurons in vivo. Nat. Neurosci. *3*, 217–225.

4.   Luo, L., Hensch, T.K., Ackerman, L., Barbel, S., Jan, L.Y., and Jan, Y.N. (1996).
Differential effects of the Rac GTPase on Purkinje cell axons and dendritic trunks and
spines. Nature *379*, 837–840.

5.   Threadgill, R., Bobb, K., and Ghosh, A. (1997). Regulation of dendritic growth and
remodeling by Rho, Rac, and Cdc42. Neuron *19*, 625–634.

6.   Nakayama, A.Y., Harms, M.B., and Luo, L. (2000). Small GTPases Rac and Rho in the
maintenance of dendritic spines and branches in hippocampal pyramidal neurons. J.
Neurosci. *20*, 5329–5338.

7.   Scott, E.K., and Luo, L. (2001). How do dendrites take their shape? Nat. Neurosci. *4*,
359–365.

8.   Lefebvre, J.L. (2021). Molecular mechanisms that mediate dendrite morphogenesis.
Curr. Top. Dev. Biol. *142*, 233–282.

9.   Sundararajan, L., Stern, J., and Miller, D.M., 3rd (2019). Mechanisms that regulate
morphogenesis of a highly branched neuron in C. elegans. Dev. Biol. *451*, 53–67.

10.   Taylor, C.A., Yan, J., Howell, A.S., Dong, X., and Shen, K. (2015). RAB-10 Regulates
Dendritic Branching by Balancing Dendritic Transport. PLoS Genet. *11*, e1005695.

11.   Maniar, T.A., Kaplan, M., Wang, G.J., Shen, K., Wei, L., Shaw, J.E., Koushika, S.P., and
Bargmann, C.I. (2012). UNC-33 (CRMP) and ankyrin organize microtubules and localize
kinesin to polarize axon-dendrite sorting. Nat. Neurosci. *15*, 48–56.

12.   Jaworski, J., Kapitein, L.C., Gouveia, S.M., Dortland, B.R., Wulf, P.S., Grigoriev, I.,
Camera, P., Spangler, S.A., Di Stefano, P., Demmers, J., et al. (2009). Dynamic
microtubules regulate dendritic spine morphology and synaptic plasticity. Neuron *61*, 85–
100.

13.   Cao, Y., Lipka, J., Stucchi, R., Burute, M., Pan, X., Portegies, S., Tas, R., Willems, J.,
Will, L., MacGillavry, H., et al. (2020). Microtubule Minus-End Binding Protein CAMSAP2
and Kinesin-14 Motor KIFC3 Control Dendritic Microtubule Organization. Curr. Biol. *30*,
899-908.e6.

14.   Kahn, O.I., Schätzle, P., van de Willige, D., Tas, R.P., Lindhout, F.W., Portegies, S.,
Kapitein, L.C., and Hoogenraad, C.C. (2018). APC2 controls dendrite development by
promoting microtubule dynamics. Nat. Commun. *9*, 2773.

15. Nguyen, M.M., McCracken, C.J., Milner, E.S., Goetschius, D.J., Weiner, A.T., Long,
644   M.K., Michael, N.L., Munro, S., and Rolls, M.M. (2014). Γ-tubulin controls neuronal
645   microtubule polarity independently of Golgi outposts. Mol. Biol. Cell *25*, 2039–2050.

646   16. Merriam, E.B., Lumbard, D.C., Viesselmann, C., Ballweg, J., Stevenson, M., Pietila, L.,
647   Hu, X., and Dent, E.W. (2011). Dynamic microtubules promote synaptic NMDA receptor-
648   dependent spine enlargement. PLoS One *6*, e27688.

649   17. Hu, X., Viesselmann, C., Nam, S., Merriam, E., and Dent, E.W. (2008). Activity-
650   dependent dynamic microtubule invasion of dendritic spines. J. Neurosci. *28*, 13094–
651   13105.

652   18. Cheerambathur, D.K., and Desai, A. (2014). Linked in: formation and regulation of
653   microtubule attachments during chromosome segregation. Curr. Opin. Cell Biol. *26*, 113–
654   122.

655   19. Musacchio, A., and Desai, A. (2017). A Molecular View of Kinetochore Assembly and
656   Function. Biology *6*, 5.

657   20. Cheerambathur, D.K., Prevo, B., Chow, T.-L., Hattersley, N., Wang, S., Zhao, Z., Kim,
658   T., Gerson-Gurwitz, A., Oegema, K., Green, R., et al. (2019). The Kinetochore-
659   Microtubule Coupling Machinery Is Repurposed in Sensory Nervous System
660   Morphogenesis. Dev. Cell *48*, 864-872.e7.

661   21. Zhao, G., Oztan, A., Ye, Y., and Schwarz, T.L. (2019). Kinetochore Proteins Have a Post-
662   Mitotic Function in Neurodevelopment. Dev. Cell *48*, 873-882.e4.

663   22. Hertzler, J.I., Simonovitch, S.I., Albertson, R.M., Weiner, A.T., Nye, D.M.R., and Rolls,
664   M.M. (2020). Kinetochore proteins suppress neuronal microtubule dynamics and
665   promote dendrite regeneration. Mol. Biol. Cell *31*, 2125–2138.

666   23. Smith, C.J., Watson, J., Spencer, W.C., O'Brien, T., Cha, B., Albeg, A., Treinin, M., and
667   Miller, D.M., III (2010). Time-lapse imaging and cell-specific expression profiling reveal
668   dynamic branching and molecular determinants of a multi-dendritic nociceptor in C.
669   elegans. Dev. Biol. *345*, 18–33.

670   24. Kamiyama, D., Sekine, S., Barsi-Rhyne, B., Hu, J., Chen, B., Gilbert, L.A., Ishikawa, H.,
671   Leonetti, M.D., Marshall, W.F., Weissman, J.S., et al. (2016). Versatile protein tagging in
672   cells with split fluorescent protein. Nat. Commun. *7*, 929.

673   25. Nishimura, K., Fukagawa, T., Takisawa, H., Kakimoto, T., and Kanemaki, M. (2009). An
674   auxin-based degron system for the rapid depletion of proteins in nonplant cells. Nat.
675   Methods *6*, 917–922.

676   26. Ashley, G.E., Duong, T., Levenson, M.T., Martinez, M.A.Q., Johnson, L.C., Hibshman,
677   J.D., Saeger, H.N., Palmisano, N.J., Doonan, R., Martinez-Mendez, R., et al. (2021). An
678   expanded auxin-inducible degron toolkit for Caenorhabditis elegans. Genetics *217*.
679   10.1093/genetics/iyab006.

27. Liao, C.-P., Li, H., Lee, H.-H., Chien, C.-T., and Pan, C.-L. (2018). Cell-Autonomous
Regulation of Dendrite Self-Avoidance by the Wnt Secretory Factor MIG-14/Wntless.
Neuron *98*, 320-334.e6.

28. E, L., Zhou, T., Koh, S., Chuang, M., Sharma, R., Pujol, N., Chisholm, A.D., Eroglu, C.,
Matsunami, H., and Yan, D. (2018). An Antimicrobial Peptide and Its Neuronal Receptor
Regulate Dendrite Degeneration in Aging and Infection. Neuron *97*, 125-138.e5.

29. He, L., Kooistra, R., Das, R., Oudejans, E., van Leen, E., Ziegler, J., Portegies, S., de
Haan, B., van Regteren Altena, A., Stucchi, R., et al. (2020). Cortical anchoring of the
microtubule cytoskeleton is essential for neuron polarity. Elife *9*. 10.7554/eLife.55111.

30. He, L., van Beem, L., Snel, B., Hoogenraad, C.C., and Harterink, M. (2022). PTRN-1
(CAMSAP) and NOCA-2 (NINEIN) are required for microtubule polarity in Caenorhabditis
elegans dendrites. PLoS Biol. *20*, e3001855.

31. Harterink, M., Edwards, S.L., de Haan, B., Yau, K.W., van den Heuvel, S., Kapitein, L.C.,
Miller, K.G., and Hoogenraad, C.C. (2018). Local microtubule organization promotes
cargo transport in C. elegans dendrites. J. Cell Sci. *131*, jcs223107.

32. Zou, W., Dong, X., Broederdorf, T.R., Shen, A., Kramer, D.A., Shi, R., Liang, X., Miller,
D.M., III, Xiang, Y.K., Yasuda, R., et al. (2018). A Dendritic Guidance Receptor Complex
Brings Together Distinct Actin Regulators to Drive Efficient F-Actin Assembly and
Branching. Dev. Cell *45*, 362-375.e3.

33. Tang, L.T., Diaz-Balzac, C.A., Rahman, M., Ramirez-Suarez, N.J., Salzberg, Y., Lázaro-
Peña, M.I., and Bülow, H.E. (2019). TIAM-1/GEF can shape somatosensory dendrites
independently of its GEF activity by regulating F-actin localization. Elife *8*.
10.7554/eLife.38949.

34. Yan, J., Chao, D.L., Toba, S., Koyasako, K., Yasunaga, T., Hirotsune, S., and Shen, K.
(2013). Kinesin-1 regulates dendrite microtubule polarity in Caenorhabditis elegans. Elife
2, 153.

35. Sundararajan, L., Smith, C.J., Watson, J.D., Millis, B.A., Tyska, M.J., and Miller, D.M.,
3rd (2019). Actin assembly and non-muscle myosin activity drive dendrite retraction in
an UNC-6/Netrin dependent self-avoidance response. PLoS Genet. *15*, e1008228.

36. Cheng, L., Zhang, J., Ahmad, S., Rozier, L., Yu, H., Deng, H., and Mao, Y. (2011). Aurora
B regulates formin mDia3 in achieving metaphase chromosome alignment. Dev. Cell *20*,
342–352.

37. Mogessie, B., and Schuh, M. (2017). Actin protects mammalian eggs against
chromosome segregation errors. Science *357*. 10.1126/science.aal1647.

38. Yasuda, S., Oceguera-Yanez, F., Kato, T., Okamoto, M., Yonemura, S., Terada, Y.,
Ishizaki, T., and Narumiya, S. (2004). Cdc42 and mDia3 regulate microtubule attachment
to kinetochores. Nature *428*, 767–771.

39. Harasimov, K., Uraji, J., Mönnich, E.U., Holubcová, Z., Elder, K., Blayney, M., and Schuh,
M. (2023). Actin-driven chromosome clustering facilitates fast and complete
chromosome capture in mammalian oocytes. Nat. Cell Biol. 10.1038/s41556-022-01082-
9.

40. Frøkjaer-Jensen, C., Davis, M.W., Hopkins, C.E., Newman, B.J., Thummel, J.M.,
Olesen, S.-P., Grunnet, M., and Jorgensen, E.M. (2008). Single-copy insertion of
transgenes in Caenorhabditis elegans. Nat. Genet. *40*, 1375–1383.

41. Dickinson, D.J., Ward, J.D., Reiner, D.J., and Goldstein, B. (2013). Engineering the
Caenorhabditis elegans genome using Cas9-triggered homologous recombination. Nat.
Methods *10*, 1028–1034.

42. Waaijers, S., Portegijs, V., Kerver, J., Lemmens, B.B.L.G., Tijsterman, M., van den
Heuvel, S., and Boxem, M. (2013). CRISPR/Cas9-Targeted Mutagenesis in
Caenorhabditis elegans. Genetics *195*, 1187–1191.

43. Paix, A., Folkmann, A., Rasoloson, D., and Seydoux, G. (2015). High Efficiency,
Homology-Directed Genome Editing in Caenorhabditis elegansUsing CRISPR-Cas9
Ribonucleoprotein Complexes. Genetics *201*, 47–54.

44. Gibson, D.G., Young, L., Chuang, R.-Y., Venter, J.C., Hutchison, C.A., and Smith, H.O.
(2009). Enzymatic assembly of DNA molecules up to several hundred kilobases. Nat.
Methods *6*, 343–345.

45. Mangeol, P., Prevo, B., and Peterman, E.J.G. (2016). KymographClear and
KymographDirect: two tools for the automated quantitative analysis of molecular and
cellular dynamics using kymographs. Mol. Biol. Cell *27*, 1948–1957.