Editing of endogenous tubulins reveals varying effects of tubulin posttranslational modifications on axonal growth and regeneration

Yu-Ming Lu[1], Shan Yan[2], Shih-Chieh Ti[2], and Chaogu Zheng[1,*]

[1]School of Biological Sciences, Faculty of Science, The University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong SAR, China

[2]School of Biomedical Sciences, Li Ka Shing Faculty of Medicine, The University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong SAR, China.

*Correspondence: cgzheng@hku.hk (C.Z.)

Abstract

Tubulin posttranslational modifications (PTMs) modulate the dynamic properties of microtubules and their interactions with other proteins. However, the effects of tubulin PTMs were often revealed indirectly through the deletion of modifying enzymes or the overexpression of tubulin mutants. In this study, we directly edited the endogenous tubulin loci to install PTM-mimicking or -disabling mutations and studied their effects on microtubule stability, neurite outgrowth, axonal regeneration, cargo transport, and sensory functions in the touch receptor neurons of *Caenorhabditis elegans*. We found that the status of β-tubulin S172 phosphorylation and K252 acetylation strongly affected microtubule dynamics, neurite growth, and regeneration, whereas α-tubulin K40 acetylation had little influence. Polyglutamylation and detyrosination in the tubulin C-terminal tail had more subtle effects on microtubule stability likely by modulating the interaction with kinesin-13. Overall, our study systematically assessed and compared several tubulin PTMs for their impacts on neuronal differentiation and regeneration and established an *in vivo* platform to test the function of tubulin PTMs in neurons.

Introduction

Microtubules (MTs) play important roles in neuronal development by providing structural support for neurite growth and serving as tracks for intracellular transport. MTs are formed by the polymerization of α/β-tubulin heterodimers, which are crucial determinants of MT properties. Eukaryotic genomes contain multiple α- and β-tubulin genes (called isotypes) with distinct expression patterns and dynamic properties (Janke and Magiera, 2020; Lu and Zheng, 2022; Nsamba and Gupta, 2022). These tubulin isotypes are also subjected to a range of post-translational modifications (PTMs), which regulate the stability of MTs and their interaction with various microtubule-associated proteins (MAPs) (Roll-Mecak, 2020). The findings of multiple tubulin isotypes with different PTMs led to the concept of "tubulin code", which suggests that the structure, dynamics, and functions of individual MTs are controlled by the tubulin isotype composition and the tubulin PTMs (Janke, 2014). Perturbation to the tubulin code can lead to MT dysfunction and are linked to human diseases (Tischfield et al., 2011).

Although previous research described the effects of several tubulin PTMs in neuronal development, these earlier studies have two potential limitations. First, the role of tubulin PTMs was often revealed by the overexpression of tubulin mutants with PTM-mimicking or unmodifiable amino acid substitutions (Shida et al., 2010). Such overexpression may create artifacts. Moreover, since the tubulin concentration in cells is controlled by autoregulation through mRNA degradation (Lin et al., 2020), overexpression of exogenous tubulins may trigger the downregulation of endogenous tubulin isotypes, complicating the interpretation of the results. Second, the effects of tubulin PTMs were also identified by studying the enzymes that add or remove specific PTMs. In some cases, the phenotypes caused by deleting the enzyme may not be the same as the elimination of the tubulin PTMs, because the enzyme may have multiple substrates, including non-tubulin substrates, or the enzyme has additional functions independent of its activity in modifying tubulins. For example, the function of α-tubulin acetyltransferase MEC-17 in regulating neurite outgrowth is independent of its enzymatic activities (Topalidou et al., 2012). Given the above two limitations and recent advance in genome editing, we reason that the role of tubulin PTMs can be directly assessed by engineering the endogenous tubulin genes.

In this study, we installed PTM-mimicking or -inactivating mutations in the endogenous loci of the *Caenorhabditis elegans* tubulin genes that are specific for the touch receptor neurons (TRNs) and examined the effects of these mutations on neuronal development. We and others

previously established *C. elegans* TRNs as a model to study the effects of tubulin missense

mutations on MT stability and neurite growth at the single-cell level (Lee et al., 2021; Savage et

al., 1994; Zheng et al., 2017). TRNs are a set of six mechanosensory neurons that detect gentle

body touch and have long sensory neurites along the body wall. These neurites are filled with

specialized 15-protofilament MTs (Chalfie and Thomson, 1982), presumably made of MEC-

12/α-tubulin and MEC-7/β-tubulin, which are the dominant tubulin isotypes in the TRNs and are

expressed at much (>100 times) higher levels than other tubulin isotypes (Taylor et al., 2021).

Mutations in *mec-12* and *mec-7* led to the reduction of MT numbers, loss of the 15-protofilament

MT structure, alteration of MT stability, and defects in neurite growth and sensory functions in

the TRNs (Zheng et al., 2017), suggesting that MEC-12 and MEC-7 control MT structure and

function in the TRNs.

Moreover, through the analysis of ~100 missense mutations in *mec-12* and *mec-7*, our

previous work established three phenotypic categories for tubulin mutations: loss-of-function

(*lf*), which caused mild defects in neurite extension, antimorphic (*anti*), which led to significant

reduction in MT stability and caused strong defects in neurite growth, and neomorphic (*neo*)

alleles, which resulted in hyperstable MTs and excessive neurite growth (Lee et al., 2021; Zheng

et al., 2017). These distinct impacts of tubulin mutations on MT properties and neurite growth

patterns provide a framework to assess and compare the varying roles of different tubulin PTMs

in neuronal differentiation.

Here, by editing the endogenous *mec-12* and *mec-7* loci, we systematically studied the

effects of β-tubulin S172 phosphorylation and K252 acetylation, α-tubulin K40 acetylation, and

tubulin polyglutamylation and detyrosination on neurite growth and regeneration, MT stability,

cargo transport, and neuronal functions. We found that the status of β-tubulin S172

phosphorylation strongly affects MT dynamics and neurite development, whereas α-tubulin K40

acetylation did not appear to affect either neuronal morphology or function in any significant

way. Polyglutamylation and detyrosination of the tubulin C-terminal tail had more subtle effects

on regulating MT stability and limiting ectopic neurite growth likely by modulating the

interaction of microtubules with kinesin-13. Tubulin PTMs can have either negative or positive

effects on axonal regeneration depending on the type of modifications. Overall, our studies

establish a platform to analyze the effects of tubulin PTMs on neuronal differentiation and

regeneration through the editing of neuron type-specific tubulin isotypes.

Results

β-tubulin S172 phosphorylation inhibits neurite growth

The first PTM we analyzed was the phosphorylation of β-tubulin at the well-conserved serine 172 (S172) residue (Figure 1-figure supplement 1A). In mitotic cells, S172 phosphorylation by cyclin-dependent kinase Cdk1 led to the exclusion of the tubulins from the MTs likely because S172 phosphorylation interfered with both GTP binding to β-tubulin and the longitudinal interdimer interaction (Fourest-Lieuvin et al., 2006). In neurons, Ori-McKenney et al. (2016) found that the Minibrain Kinase (MNB) regulated MT dynamics and dendritic morphogenesis of the Drosophila class III da neurons, and Drosophila MNB was able to phosphorylate porcine β-tubulin at S172 *in vitro*. These results suggested that β-tubulin S172 phosphorylation may be a regulatory point for MT stability in neurons. However, the role of S172 in neurite growth has not been tested directly.

We created the phospho-mimicking S172E and the nonphosphorylatable S172A mutations in the endogenous *mec-7* locus through CRISPR/Cas9-mediated gene editing. We found that the *mec-7(S172E)* mutation led to severe defects in axonal growth in TRNs, since all neurites of ALM and PLM neurons, the two major TRN subtypes, were significantly shortened in *mec-7(S172E)* mutant animals. The two anteriorly directed neurites of ALM and PLM were termed ALM-AN and PLM-AN; the posteriorly directed neurite of PLM was termed PLM-PN (Figure 1A-G). The phenotypes of S172E mutation were similar to our previously characterized *mec-7(anti)* alleles, which strongly suppressed neurite growth by blocking MT polymerization. In contrast, we observed the growth of an ectopic ALM posterior neurite (ALM-PN) in animals carrying the *mec-7(S172A)* mutation; this phenotype was similar to the *mec-7(neo)* alleles, which induced the growth of the ectopic ALM-PN by increasing MT stability. *mec-7(S172A)* mutants showed mild shortening of ALM-AN and PLM-AN, which were also observed with other *mec-7(neo)* alleles (Zheng et al., 2017). Being consistent with the genetic nature of gain-of-function mutants, both S172E and S172A mutations were semidominant as heterozygotes showed similar but less severe phenotypes than the homozygotes (Figure 1-figure supplement 1B-C).

Moreover, the *mec-7(S172P)* mutants, which we created to mimic a human TUBB2B missense mutation found in patients with cortical malformations (Jaglin et al., 2009), showed a *lf* phenotype with moderate defects in neurite growth (Figure 1A). Thus, S172E, S172A, and S172P mutations had three distinct phenotypes matching the three categories we previously

defined (Zheng et al., 2017). Based on these phenotypic similarities, we reasoned that increased

phosphorylation (S172E) likely prevented polymerization, leading to severe defects in neurite

extension, whereas abolishing phosphorylation (S172A) led to hyperstable MTs and excessive

neurite growth. The S172P mutation probably disrupted protein folding or blocked GTP binding,

which rendered MEC-7 inactive and caused a *lf* phenotype identical to the *mec-7(-)* mutants

(Zheng et al., 2017).

To confirm that MEC-7 S172 phosphorylation affects neurite growth cell-autonomously,

we extracted the TRNs from the embryos and differentiated them *in vitro*. Wild-type TRNs grew

long neurites in culture, whereas S172E but not S172A mutation significantly shortened the *in*

vitro developed neurites, supporting that S172 phosphorylation controls neuronal morphology in

a cell-intrinsic manner (Figure 1H-I). We also stained these *in vitro* cultured TRNs with anti-

phospho-tubulin (S172) antibodies and found a considerable reduction of the staining signal in

S172A mutant TRNs (Figure 1-figure supplement 2). We assumed the residual signal came from

other phosphorylated β-tubulin isotypes expressed in the cells or nonspecific binding of the

antibody.

β-tubulin S172 phosphorylation reduces MT stability

Next, we examined MT dynamics by tracking the plus-end binding protein EBP-2. We

found that the wild-type TRNs showed only a few EBP-2 comets due to very stable MTs as

previously reported (Lee et al., 2021), whereas S172E mutants had increased number of EBP-2

tracks, suggesting increased MT dynamics (Figure 2A-B). Moreover, anterior neurites in wild-

type TRNs (e.g., ALM-AN) had uniformly plus-end-out MTs, whereas S172E mutants showed

mixed MT polarity (Figure 2C). The altered MT dynamic properties were consistent with the

defects in neurite growth. To assess the difference in MT stability between the wild-type and

S172A mutants (both of which showed limited dynamics under normal conditions), we treated

the animals with low concentration of colchicine to depolymerize the MTs and then monitored

MT dynamics during the recovery phase. Under this sensitized condition, we found that S172A

mutants showed fewer EBP-2 comets than the wild-type animals, which suggested reduced MT

dynamics and elevated stability (Figure 2A-B). Nevertheless, MT polarity was preserved in *mec-*

7(S172A) mutants (Figure 2C). These results supported that β-tubulin S172 phosphorylation

promotes dynamic MTs, which negatively regulates neurite growth.

In addition, the EBP-2::GFP signal in the cell body showed an unusual fiber-like shape in the *mec-7(S172A)* mutants instead of the diffusive pattern in the wild-type (Figure 2D), indicating the possible existence of MT bundles in the *S172A* cell body. In the wild-type TRNs, the MT bundles were only found in the axons but not the cell body according to previous electron microscopy studies (Chalfie and Thomson, 1979). Another hypothesis is that the incorporation of nonphosphorylatable MEC-7(S172A) into MTs might affect GTP hydrolysis and thus expand the EBP-2 binding region beyond the MT tips, since EB2 has a specific nucleotide-dependent binding property (Roth et al., 2018).

S172 phosphorylation also affected cargo transport in TRNs. Mitochondrial transport was impaired in *mec-7(S172E)* mutants, resulting in lower density of mitochondria along the axons (Figure 2E-F). In contrast, *mec-7(S172A)* mutants showed higher accumulation of mitochondria in the distal segment of the ALM-AN than the wild type. Moreover, the transport of synaptic vesicles was also disrupted in *mec-7(S172E)* mutants. For example, wild-type PLM-AN branches at a position close to the vulva; the branch forms chemical synapses with the neurites in the ventral nerve cord, where the synaptic vesicles are transported to (Figure 2G). In *mec-7(S172E)* mutants, the vesicles were mostly trapped in the cell bodies or along the proximal segment of the neurite, probably due to highly unstable MTs (Figure 2G). About 40% of PLM-AN in *mec-7(S172A)* mutants grew no branches or had a "hook" defect, and in these cases synaptic vesicles were trapped at the distal end of the neurite (Figure 2G). Interestingly, synaptic vesicles were also transported to the ectopic ALM-PN in *mec-7(S172A)* mutants (Figure 2G), as previously observed in other *mec-7(neo)* mutants (Zheng et al., 2017).

At the behavioral level, both S172E and S172P mutants showed strong defects in touch sensitivity, similar to the *mec-7(-)* deletion allele. The S172A mutants, however, did not reduce touch sensitivity (Figure 2H). Since stable MTs are essential for the mechanosensory function of the TRNs (Savage et al., 1989), reducing MT stability through S172 hyperphosphorylation was expected to affect TRN functions.

Optimal level of MEC-7/β-tubulin S172 phosphorylation is required for axonal regeneration

One of the important functions of MTs is to support neuronal regeneration, and previous work have established the TRNs as an important model for axonal regeneration (Wu et al.,

2007). In our hands, following laser axotomy, ~72% wild-type PLM neurons were able to

regrow the proximal axon for a short length to connect with the distal fragment (defined as

reconnection), whereas the other ~28% PLM did not reconnect the severed axons and instead

grew the proximal axon for a substantial length (defined as regrowth). We found that the *mec-*

7(S172E) mutants were not able to reconnect the severed axons (only 4% reconnection) because

the regrowth length was very short (Figure 2I-K). A mesh-like structure with short sprouts were

observed at the regrowth site. We reasoned that the dynamic MTs may be too unstable to support

any substantial regrowth in the S172E mutants. Notably, these regeneration defects were

different from that seen in the *dlk-1(-)* mutants, which showed significantly reduced regrowth but

had no extensive sprouting (Figure 2I) probably due to the lack of MT polymerization at the

injury site (Ghosh-Roy et al., 2012).

The axonal regeneration in *mec-7(S172A)* mutants was also different from the wild-type.

Although 40% of the animals were able to reconnect the proximal axons with the distal segment,

the regrowth length was shorter than the wild-type animals (Figure 2I-J). Moreover, a highly

branched tree-like structure was seen at the regrowth site. It appears that the regrowth had no

clear direction. The regrowing axon extended multiple short processes towards different

directions, but none of these processes developed into a prominent axon. One possible

explanation is that the hyperstable MTs led to excessive neurite outgrowth and failure to properly

respond to guidance cues during regeneration. Interestingly, another *mec-7* neomorphic allele

that caused a P220S substitution also showed defects in axonal regeneration due to hyperstable

MTs (Kirszenblat et al., 2013). Thus, the above results suggested that an optimal level of β-

tubulin S172 phosphorylation is required for effective axonal regeneration.

Enzymes mediating S172 phosphorylation in *C. elegans*

We next searched for the enzyme that mediates MEC-7 S172 phosphorylation by testing

the homologs of known kinases involved in phosphorylating β-tubulin. We first tested the two

close homologs of Minibrain kinase in *C. elegans*, *mbk-1* and *mbk-2*, both of which were

expressed in the TRNs based on fluorescent reporters (Figure 3-figure supplement 1A-B).

Mutations in *mbk-2* led to embryonic lethality and only a few animals could hatch and then arrest

at early larval stages (Quintin et al., 2003). We examined these arrested larvae but did not

observe excessive neurite growth as in S172A mutants. *mbk-1(-)* mutants were viable but did not

show any TRN developmental defects. We also examined the arrested larvae in *mbk-1(-) mbk-*
2(-) double mutants and could not observe the ectopic ALM-PN either (Figure 3-figure
supplement 1D). To knock down *mbk-2* expression in the TRNs specifically, we expressed
dsRNA against *mbk-2* from a TRN-specific *mec-17* promoter in both wild-type and *mbk-1(-)*
background and again failed to detect any changes in TRN morphology. We then attempted to
degrade the MBK-2 proteins specifically in the TRNs using a ZF1/ZIF-1 system (Wang et al.,
2017). We first edited the endogenous *mbk-2* locus to fuse GFP to an exon shared by all *mbk-2*
isoforms; to our surprise, we could not detect MBK-2::GFP signal in the TRNs although we
could observe the expected embryonic expression (Figure 3-figure supplement 2A-B). We
reasoned that the endogenous MBK-2 level might be very low in the TRNs. We then crossed
mbk-2::gfp into a strain expressing the GFP nanobody::ZIF-1 fusion specifically in the TRNs;
the resulted animals did not show long ALM-PN, suggesting that MBK-2, if expressed at low
level, was not likely to regulate TRN morphogenesis.

Minibrain kinase has a third, distant homolog in *C. elegans*, *hpk-1*, which is also the
homolog of human homeodomain-interacting protein kinase 1 (HIPK1). *hpk-1* was expressed in
the TRNs, but *hpk-1(-)* mutants did not show defects in TRN development (Figure 3-figure
supplement 1C-D). Based on the above results, we concluded that either high level of
redundancy existed among the Minibrain homologs or the Minibrain kinase was not the enzyme
catalyzing β-tubulin S172 phosphorylation in *C. elegans*.

Interestingly, the loss of the cyclin-dependent kinase Cdk1 led to the growth of ectopic
ALM-PN, similar to *mec-7(S172A)* mutants. We analyzed two deletion alleles (*he5* and *ok1882*)
of *cdk-1* (*C. elegans* Cdk1), both of which caused lethality. Maternally rescued homozygous *cdk-*
1(-) animals were arrested in early larval stages, but some escapers could reach late larval stages.
We found that the arrested *cdk-1(he5)* and *cdk-1(ok1882)* larvae grew an ectopic ALM-PN
(Figure 3A-B). Because these animals could not grow to the adult size, we measured the ALM-
PN/ALM-AN ratio and found that *cdk-1(-)* mutants had a similar ratio as the *mec-7(S172A)*
animals (Figure 3C). Moreover, the *cdk-1(-); mec-7(S172A)* double mutants showed the ALM-
PN length comparable to the two single mutants (Figure 3D), suggesting that they act in the same
pathway.

Finally, we tested the enzymatic activity of CDK1 towards the recombinant MEC-
12/MEC-7 α/β-tubulin heterodimer and found that CDK1 could indeed phosphorylate the S172

of MEC-7/β-tubulin (Figure 3E-F). In contrast, recombinant MBK-2 proteins did not show

kinase activities towards S172 of MEC-7 either in the same MEM reaction buffer (Figure 3E) or

in the BRB80 buffer (Figure 3-figure supplement 3) used by the previous studies of Drosophila

Minibrain (Ori-McKenney et al., 2016), which was consistent with the lack of ALM-PN

phenotype in *mbk-2(-)* mutants. Although *cdk-1/Cdk1* was known to be expressed mostly in

mitotic cells, some studies suggested a role for Cdk1 in postmitotic neurons (Kim and Bonni,

2008; Yuan et al., 2008), and cell cycle regulators (including cyclins) showed expression in

neurons (Akagawa et al., 2021). In fact, single-cell transcriptomic studies found weak expression

of cyclin A (*cya-1*) and cyclin B (*cyb-1*) in ALM neurons (Taylor et al., 2021). Thus, Cdk1 may

regulate neuronal differentiation by catalyzing β-tubulin S172 phosphorylation. Nevertheless, we

could not rule out the possibility that other kinases may also regulate S172 phosphorylation.

MEC-12/α-tubulin K40 acetylation is not essential for TRN morphology and function

α-tubulin acetylation, which occurred at the lysine 40 (K40) in the MT lumen, has been a

marker for stable MTs, particularly in neurons. Recent work found that K40 acetylation may

reduce lateral contact between protofilament, which increased the flexibility of MTs and

provided resistance to mechanical stress (Portran et al., 2017). In neurons, tubulin acetylation

promotes the transport of vesicles along the axons (Even et al., 2019). Altered tubulin acetylation

levels were often correlated with defects in neuronal morphogenesis (Chang et al., 2009), but

whether K40 acetylation has a direct impact on axonal growth is less clear.

Although K40 is quite conserved in α-tubulins across species, among the nine α-tubulin

isotypes in *C. elegans*, only MEC-12 has a K40 residue (Figure 4-figure supplement 1A). We

created acetyl-mimicking K40Q and unmodifiable K40R mutants through gene editing and

confirmed the change of tubulin acetylation status by observing the loss of anti-acetyl-α-tubulin

(K40) antibody staining signal in both K40R and K40Q mutant animals (Figure 4-figure

supplement 2A), which is consistent with previous observations in Drosophila (Mao et al., 2017).

Neither *mec-12(K40R)* nor *mec-12(K40Q)* mutations generated significant defects in TRN

neurite morphogenesis (Figure 4A-B). The only notable defect was that ~20% of PLM-AN failed

to produce the synaptic branch in *mec-12(K40Q)* mutants (Figure 4C), suggesting that K40

hyperacetylation might affect MT dynamics during neurite branching. Moreover, *mec-12(K40Q)*

mutants showed moderately reduced regrowth of PLM-AN after laser axotomy (Figure 4D),

suggesting that K40 hyperacetylation might also affect MT functions during axonal regeneration.

Previous work found that the α-tubulin acetyltransferase MEC-17 plays an important role

in controlling MT number and organization and neurite growth (Cueva et al., 2012; Topalidou et

al., 2012). However, no significant downregulation of MEC-12 K40 acetylation was observed in

mec-17(-) mutants due to the redundancy with another acetyltransferase ATAT-2 (Akella et al.,

2010; Topalidou et al., 2012), suggesting that the phenotypes of *mec-17(-)* mutants was not due

to the loss of K40 acetylation. Moreover, Topalidou et al. (2012) found that expression of the

enzymatically inactive MEC-17(G121W and G123W; termed as dW) mutants rescued some

TRN defects of *mec-17(-)* mutants, including the touch sensitivity and the growth of ectopic

ALM-PN, whereas Shida et al. (2010) found that the enzymatically dead MEC-17 could not

rescue the touch defects. Both studies used exogenous transgenic expression of MEC-17

mutants, whose expression levels were uncertain.

We created the *mec-17(dW)* allele by editing the endogenous *mec-17* locus and confirmed

that MEC-12 K40 acetylation was not significantly reduced upon the loss of enzymatic activity

of MEC-17 in *mec-17(dW)* mutants but was completely lost in *mec-17(dW); atat-2(-)* double

mutants (Figure 4-figure supplement 2B-C). Importantly, the defects in touch sensitivity found in

mec-17(-) mutants was not observed in *mec-17(dW)* mutants (Figure 4E), supporting that MEC-

17 has separate functions independent of its acetyltransferase activity. This result is consistent

with the normal touch sensitivity in *mec-12(K40R)* mutants (Figure 4E) and indicates that K40

acetylation is not required for TRN mechanosensation.

Furthermore, compared to *mec-17(-)* mutants, the ectopic growth of ALM-PN and the

neurite swelling and looping phenotypes, which were caused by MT bending in the absence of

MEC-17 (Topalidou et al., 2012), were partially rescued in *mec-17(dW)* mutants (Figure 4F-H).

These results supported a non-enzymatic function of MEC-17 in regulating MT organization and

neurite outgrowth. Importantly, none of the remaining *mec-17(dW)* defects were found in *mec-*

12(K40R) mutants, suggesting that even the enzymatic activity of MEC-17 may regulate neurite

morphology through an α-tubulin K40-independent mechanism, which may involve the

acetylation of other residues of α-tubulin or other proteins. Removing *atat-2* in the *mec-17(-)* and

mec-17(dW) mutants did not make the neurite morphological defects worse despite eliminating

K40 acetylation.

Mutation of MEC-7/β-tubulin K252 strongly impairs neurite development

The lack of obvious phenotypes in K40 mutants prompted us to look for other potential tubulin acetylation sites, such as the β-tubulin K252, which was reported to be acetylated by San/Nat5 in human cells (Chu et al., 2011). K252 and flanking residues are highly conserved among β-tubulin isotypes and across species (Figure 4-figure supplement 1B). We created acetyl-mimicking K252Q and unmodifiable K252R mutants by editing the endogenous *mec-7* locus and found that both mutations caused strong neurite growth defects, similar to previously categorized *mec-7(anti)* mutants (Figure 4I-J). All TRN neurites were severely shortened in these mutants with K252R showing a stronger phenotype than K252Q mutants. Previous work suggested that acetylation of K252 reduced the incorporation of tubulin into MTs by neutralizing the positive charge of K252, which is located at the intradimer interface of α/β-tubulins (Chu et al., 2011). Our studies with the acetyl-mimicking K252Q mutants supported this hypothesis, but the K252R results are rather unexpected, as this mutation in theory would not affect the amino acid charge at that position. However, we could not rule out the possibility that substituting lysine with arginine caused conformational change of the tubulin heterodimer, creating dominant-negative effects. Deletion of the *C. elegans* homolog of San/Nat5, *F40F4.7(tm2414)*, did not cause any TRN defects. Thus, it remains unclear what enzyme mediates the K252 acetylation of MEC-7 in *C. elegans*.

Polyglutamylation on the C-terminal tail of tubulins reduces MT stability and prevents excessive neurite growth in TRNs

The C-terminal tail of the tubulins harbors the sites for polymodifications, such as polyglutamylation and polyglycylation, which occur on the glutamic acid residues and regulate the interaction between MTs and various motor proteins and MAPs. Polyglutamylation is associated with stable MTs in cilia, centrioles, mitotic spindles, and axons (Kubo et al., 2010; Lacroix et al., 2010; Suryavanshi et al., 2010), while polyglycylation marks the stable axonemal MTs in flagellated and ciliated cells (Xia et al., 2000). In *C. elegans*, polyglutamylation regulates ciliary microtubule organization in ciliated sensory neurons, but no polyglycylation signal was observed due to the lack of polyglycylase homologs (Kimura et al., 2010).

The MEC-12 α-tubulin C-terminal tail consists of 15 amino acids (436-450aa; GVDSMEDNGEEGDEY), and the last 12 (439-450aa) showed significant sequence divergence among the isotypes (Figure 5-figure supplement 1). To understand the function of the C-terminal tail, we first deleted the DNA encoding the last 7 amino acids (ΔGEEGDEY) in the endogenous *mec-12* locus and found that the mutants grew an ectopic ALM-PN (Figure 5A), suggesting that the overall effects of this fragment may be MT-destabilizing and thus their removal induced excessive neurite growth. Changing all 7 amino acids to alanine resulted in similar phenotypes. There are four glutamic acid residues in MEC-12 C-terminal tail and three of them are in the last 7 amino acids; these residues are potential sites for polyglutamylation. Mutating any of them to alanine could induce the growth of ALM-PN and converting all to alanine produced the strongest phenotype, suggesting that their functions are additive (Figure 5A-B). Deleting the glutamic acid residues produced similar effects as changing them to alanine. Therefore, we hypothesized that disabling tubulin polyglutamylation increased MT stability, resulting in the growth of an extra neurite. Indeed, the *mec-12(4Es-A)* mutants, in which all four glutamic acids were mutated to alanine, showed significantly reduced number of EBP-2 tracks in sensitized conditions (Figure 5C-D), indicating reduced MT dynamics upon the loss of polyglutamylation. Nevertheless, the MT polarity was preserved in the *mec-12(4Es-A)* mutants (Figure 5E).

Previous studies found that tubulin polyglutamylation may inhibit axonal regeneration by affecting MT dynamics and the removal of the *ttll-5* gene that codes for a tubulin tyrosine ligase-like protein responsible for polyglutamylation enhanced regeneration (Ghosh-Roy et al., 2012). We found that the *mec-12(4Es-A)* mutants also had enhanced axonal regeneration, which is similar to the *ttll-5(-)* mutants (Figure 5F). Importantly, the *mec-12(4Es-A); ttll-5(-)* double mutants did not show a phenotype stronger than either of the two single mutants (Figure 5G), suggesting that the major function of the four glutamic residues is mediated by polyglutamylation.

Tubulin polyglutamylation was found to stimulate spastin-mediated MT severing in human cells (Lacroix et al., 2010). We found, however, that the loss of the *C. elegans* homolog spastin, *spas-1*, did not produce the ALM-PN phenotype (Figure 5H), suggesting that spastin may not mediate the effects of polyglutamylation in the TRNs. On the other hand, the MT-depolymerizing kinesin-13 homolog *klp-7* was found to mediate the effects of polyglutamylation in regeneration (Ghosh-Roy et al., 2012). In fact, we and others have previously found that the

loss of *klp-7* led to the growth of an ectopic ALM-PN similar to the *mec-12(4Es-A)* mutants (Puri

et al., 2021; Zheng et al., 2017). In this study, we created *klp-7(-); mec-12(4Es-A)* double

mutants by inactivating *klp-7* in *mec-12(4Es-A)* animals through Cas9-mediated gene editing

since the two genes are on the same chromosome (Figure 5-figure supplement 2). We found that

the *klp-7(-); mec-12(4Es-A)* double mutants did not enhance the ALM-PN phenotype of the *klp-*

7(-) single mutants (Figure 5H), suggesting that MEC-12 polyglutamylation likely acted through

KLP-7. Thus, we suspect that tubulin polyglutamylation of the α-tubulin C-terminal tail might

enhance the binding of KLP-7 to MTs to increase MT dynamics.

Despite the above defects, tubulin polyglutamylation did not affect the transport of

cargos, such as the synaptic vesicles and mitochondria, along the axons (Figure 5-figure

supplement 3A-C). Unlike the *mec-7(S172A)* mutants, which also grew an ectopic ALM-PN,

mec-12(4Es-A) animals did not show the transport of cargos into the extra ALM-PN (compare

Figure 5-figure supplement 3A-C with Figure 2E and 2G). These results suggest that the MT

defects caused by the lack of polyglutamylation may be more subtle than the general alteration of

MT dynamics in S172 mutants. Moreover, the touch sensitivity of the *mec-12(4Es-A)* mutants

also appeared to be normal, suggesting that polyglutamylation may not be essential for the

mechanosensory function of TRNs (Figure 5-figure supplement 3D).

Polyglutamylation in the TRN neurites are abolished by mutations in *mec-12* and *mec-7*

To confirm that the above mutations affected polyglutamylation, we stained the *in vitro*

cultured TRNs with two anti-polyglutamylation antibodies, GT335 and IN105. The former

recognized the octapeptide EGEGE(*EE)G containing a branchpoint and a side chain of two

glutamyl units (Wolff et al., 1992), and the latter recognized a linear chain of four or more

glutamates (Rogowski et al., 2010). Interestingly, IN105 only stained the cell body of TRNs,

while GT335 stained both the cell body and the neurites (Figure 6A-B), suggesting that the

axonal MTs carry short glutamate side chains containing less than four glutamates. As a control,

we also did staining with anti-glycylated tubulin antibodies (Gly-pep1) but did not observe any

signal in embryonically derived cells, supporting the absence of polyglycylation in *C. elegans*.

Given our focus on neurite growth, we used GT335 in the following studies. As expected,

TRNs extracted from *mec-12(4Es-A)* mutants showed a reduction in polyglutamylation signals

and further substituting the last three glutamates in the C-terminal tail of MEC-7 with alanine

(ADEDAAEAFDGE to ADADAAAAFDGA) abolished the staining signal in the axons (Figure

6B-C). Thus, we reasoned that both MEC-12/α-tubulin and MEC-7/β-tubulin were subjected to

polyglutamylation.

Like MEC-12/α-tubulin, the MEC-7/β-tubulin C-terminal tail also contains 15 amino

acids and the last 12 (430-441aa) were divergent among the isotypes (Figure 6-figure supplement

1A). Although changing the last three glutamates to alanine removed the polyglutamylation sites

on β-tubulin, the *mec-7(3Es-A)* mutations did not induce the growth of a long ALM-PN and did

not enhance the growth of ALM-PN in the *mec-12(4Es-A)* mutants (Figure 6F). This result

suggests that polyglutamylation on β-tubulin might have weaker effects than polyglutamylation

on α-tubulin.

C. elegans genome contains six tubulin tyrosine ligase-like genes, including *ttll-4*, *-5*, *-9*,

-11, *-12*, and *-15*. Although *ttll-12* was thought to be the homolog of human TTLL12, which may

not have glutamylase activity based on sequence divergence in the TTL domain (van Dijk et al.,

2007), it is biochemically uncertain whether *C. elegans* TTLL-12 indeed lacks glutamate ligation

activity. So, we included *ttll-12* in our analysis. Based on the single-cell RNA-sequencing data,

only *ttll-4*, *5*, and *12* showed significant expression in the TRNs (Figure 6E). To our surprise,

triple knockout mutants of the three *ttll* genes only eliminated the anti-polyE signal in the TRN

cell bodies but not the axons (Figure 6B and Figure 6-figure supplement 1B). Further deleting

ttll-9 and *ttll-15* to make quintuple mutants did not reduce but actually increased the staining

signal in the axons. Similar anticorrelation between the polyglutamylation signals in the cell

body and the axons were also seen in the *mec-12(4Es-A); mec-7(3Es-A)* mutants, in which the

reduced signal in axons coincided with increased signal in cell bodies (Figure 6C-D). Overall,

the above data appeared to suggest that the known *ttll* genes may not be responsible for the

tubulin polyglutamylation in the TRN axons.

The major phenotype for the *mec-12(4Es-A)* mutant was the generation of a prominent

ectopic ALM-PN, which was not observed in either *ttll-4(-)*, *5(-)*, *12(-)* triple mutants or the

quintuple mutants that further deleted *ttll-9* and *15* or the sextuple mutants that deleted all six *ttll*

genes (Figure 6F). The sextuple mutants also had anti-polyE staining of the TRN axons similar

to the triple and quintuple mutants (Figure 6-figure supplement 1C). The phenotypic discrepancy

between the tubulin mutants and the *ttll* mutants suggested the existence of other tubulin

polyglutamylases or a function of TTLLs that is independent of tubulin glutamylation.

MEC-12/α-tubulin detyrosination and Δ2-tubulin modification

α-tubulin detyrosination occurs at the terminal tyrosine residue, and the detyrosination can lead to the removal of the penultimate glutamate residue, generating Δ2-tubulin. α-tubulin detyrosination and its derivate Δ2-tubulin are enriched in stable MTs. Detyrosination of MTs in the axons recruits kinesin-1 motor domain and enhances kinesin-based transport (Konishi and Setou, 2009). Detyrosination also protects MTs from kinesin-13-mediated depolymerization (Peris et al., 2009). We edited endogenous *mec-12* to first create a ΔY450 mutant that in theory would increase detyrosination levels in TRNs, although detyrosinated MTs may be retyrosinated. Second, we generated the MEC-12 Y450A mutant, which mimics permanent detyrosination. Third, we also generated the MEC-12 ΔEY mutant, which mimics permanent Δ2-tubulin.

We did not observe overt defects in TRN morphogenesis in the ΔY450, Y450A, and ΔEY mutants, although they all showed a short ectopic ALM-PN, indicating increased MT stability (Figure 7A). These results are consistent with the fact that detyrosination and Δ2-tubulin modification contribute to stability of MTs possibly by reducing the interaction with KLP-7/kinesin-13. Importantly, we observed combinatorial and additive effects between detyrosination and polyglutamylation, as the deletion of the terminal EY and the two Es in the GEEG motif that are subjected to polyglutamylation created a phenotype that was stronger than either ΔEY or ΔEE mutants (Figure 7A). The length of the ectopic ALM-PN in ΔEE&EY appeared to be the sum of the two single mutants.

Tubulin detyrosination is catalyzed by the tubulin carboxypeptidases, vasohibins (VASH1/VASH2), and their stabilizing chaperone SVBP (Nieuwenhuis et al., 2017). Vasohibins have no clear homologs in *C. elegans*, raising the question whether detyrosination occurs in *C. elegans*. To test this, we stained the animals with anti-tyrosinated and anti-detyrosinated α-tubulin antibodies. Using the anti-tyrosination antibodies raised against GGY, we were only able to observe weakly stained TRN cell bodies in the wild-type animals but never in the ΔY450, Y450A, and ΔEY mutants (Figure 7B). Using the anti-detyrosination antibodies raised against GEEEGE, we could consistently observe weak staining signals in the TRNs and stronger signals in ΔY450 and Y450A, suggesting that the mutations indeed changed detyrosination levels in the neurons (Figure 7C-D). Interestingly, the ΔEY mutants showed weaker signal than the wild-type,

likely because the terminal E of the epitope is removed from the protein, affecting the

recognition by the antibodies. Our work is consistent with previous findings that mutating the

terminal Y to A in TBA-1 and TBA-2 caused defects in the centration and rotation of centrosome

in early embryos (Barbosa et al., 2017), suggesting that tyrosination/detyrosination state of

tubulins may indeed regulate MT dynamics in *C. elegans*, although the enzymes that catalyze

these PTMs remain elusive.

Discussion

Analyzing the function of tubulin PTMs in neurons with gene editing

Compared to other cell types, microtubules in neurons are highly decorated with a range

of tubulin PTMs, including acetylation, polyglutamylation, detyrosination, and Δ2 modifications

(Janke and Magiera, 2020). Whether these PTMs are simply markers for mature neurons or play

important functions during neuronal differentiation is not entirely clear. In this study, we

established an *in vivo* model to test the functional relevance of tubulin PTM by editing the

endogenous loci of neuron type-specific tubulin genes to install PTM-mimicking or

nonmodifiable mutations. Leveraging the ease of genetic engineering in *C. elegans* and the

simple morphology and functional readout of the mechanosensory TRNs, we investigated the

role of several tubulin PTMs in axonal growth and regeneration at the single-cell level. In

general, two large categories of tubulin PTMs were found (Figure 8). One category, such as β-

tubulin S172 phosphorylation and K252 acetylation, has strong impact on neuronal

morphogenesis by affecting the incorporation of tubulin heterodimers; the other category, such

as tubulin polyglutamylation and detyrosintion, has subtle effects on neurite development by

possibly altering the interaction between MTs and MAPs. One clear theme that stemmed from

these analyses is that normal neuronal development requires an optimal level of tubulin PTMs.

Either the complete absence or the excessive accumulation of tubulin PTMs would cause

developmental defects.

For example, eliminating S172 phosphorylation through S172A mutation led to the

formation of hyperstable MTs and ectopic neurite growth, whereas mimicking permanent

phosphorylation through S172E mutation resulted in highly dynamic MTs, disrupted MT

polarity, and strongly impaired neurite development. Both mutations impaired axonal

regeneration and caused defects in MT-dependent cargo transport. Previous studies found that

S172-phosphorylated tubulin dimers cannot be incorporated into growing MTs (Fourest-Lieuvin
et al., 2006). The fact that S172E mutants showed an antimorphic gain-of-function phenotype
(indicated by severe neurite growth defects) instead of a loss-of-function phenotype (moderate
growth defects found in S172P and *mec-7(-)* mutants) suggested that hyperphosphorylation did
not simply inactivate the tubulin but produced dominant-negative effects. We suspect that MEC-
7(S172E) proteins may form non-functional heterodimers with all α-tubulin isotypes expressed
in TRNs and thus disabling all tubulins for MT polymerization, causing strong phenotypes. In
contrast, the lack of MEC-7 in the deletion mutants may be partly compensated by other β-
tubulin isotypes, resulting in a less severe phenotype.

mec-7/β-tubulin K252 acetylation serves as another example for the requirement of
optimal PTM levels, as both the acetyl-mimicking K252Q and the unmodifiable K252R mutants
caused antimorphic phenotypes. Chu et al. (2011) previously found that acetylation of K252
slowed down tubulin incorporation into MTs, which is consistent with K252Q phenotype. But
the stronger defects in K252R mutants suggested that the complete elimination of K252
acetylation may cause more severe consequence on MT stability. Nevertheless, we could not rule
out the possibility that K252R mutation induced structural changes of tubulin heterodimer
independently of disabling K252 acetylation.

α-tubulin K40 acetylation has little effects on neuronal differentiation

Although α-tubulin K40 acetylation serves as a marker for stable MTs in neurons,
whether its relationship with MT stability is correlative or causative remains elusive. The loss of
tubulin K40 acetyltransferase MEC-17 caused a range of defects in MT structure and
organization, neurite development, and touch sensation in *C. elegans* (Topalidou et al., 2012).
Drosophila α-tubulin acetylase also appeared to be required for mechanosensation in the larval
peripheral nervous system (Yan et al., 2018). However, mouse lacking the acetyltransferase
ATAT1 or the deacetylase HDAC6 did not show obvious defects in neuronal development and
functions (Kalebic et al., 2013; Kim et al., 2013). Moreover, despite *in vivo* evidence for the
correlation of acetylation level with binding of motor protein and cargo transport in neurons
(Reed et al., 2006), *in vitro* assays found that motor motility was not affected by acetylation
status (Kaul et al., 2014). Since K40 is located in the MT lumen, its acetylation may not directly
affect MAP binding.

By editing the endogenous locus of the only α-tubulin gene that codes for a K40-

containing isotype, we partly solved the controversy in *C. elegans* by finding a lack of

acetyltransferase mutant phenotypes in the non-acetylatable tubulin mutants. None of the

morphological and functional defects in *mec-17(-)* mutants were observed in *mec-12(K40R)*

mutants and only some were observed in *mec-17* enzymatically dead mutants, suggesting that

MEC-17 likely functions by acetylating other substrates and/or acts independently of its

enzymatic activity. The discrepancy between the phenotypes of *mec-17(-)* and *mec-12* K40

mutants highlights the need of directly assessing the effects of tubulin PTMs through

endogenous gene editing.

Although our results argued against a causative relationship between K40 acetylation and

MT stability during neuronal development, we could not rule out effects of K40 acetylation in

other cellular conditions. For example, excessive acetylation in *mec-12(K40Q)* mutants appeared

to limit the ability of the axons to branch and regenerate, indicating that acetylation may reduce

polymerization dynamics when they were needed in response to external cues or stress. In

addition, previous studies found that K40 acetylation increased mechanical resilience against

damages caused by repetitive bending, thus protecting MTs from mechanical aging (Portran et

al., 2017; Xu et al., 2017). Such function may be important in preserving axon integrity during

neuronal aging. In fact, Neumann and Hilliard (2014) found that the loss of MEC-17 led to an

age-related, adult-onset, and progressive axonal degeneration, but this phenotype appeared to be

independent of MEC-17-mediated tubulin acetylation. Thus, whether K40 acetylation plays a

role in neuronal aging awaits further investigation.

Polyglutamylation and tyrosination promotes MT dynamics likely by recruiting kinesin-13

The C-terminal tail of tubulin, which protrudes from the MT surface, serves as a hotspot

for PTMs that regulate the dynamic properties of MTs by fine-tuning their interaction with

MAPs. For example, *in vitro* studies in a recombinant system found that the motility of kinesin

motors were regulated by polyglutamylation, and the length of the glutamate side chain

determined the type of kinesin motor that were activated (Sirajuddin et al., 2014). Similarly,

detyrosination enhanced the interaction with kinesin-2 and kinesin-7 motor proteins, thus

increasing their motility and processivity on MTs (Barisic et al., 2015; Sirajuddin et al., 2014). In

our studies, we found that eliminating polyglutamylation or installing permanent detyrosination

through the editing of α-tubulin locus increased MT stability and caused ectopic neurite growth.

Genetic studies suggested that these effects are likely caused by reduced interaction with the

MT-depolymerizing kinesin-13 motor protein, since the loss of kinesin-13 generated similar

phenotypes, which was not enhanced by the tubulin PTM mutations. Moreover, our results are

consistent with previous findings that kinesin-13 and polyglutamylation function in the same

pathway to restrict axonal regeneration (Ghosh-Roy et al., 2012), while detyrosination was

known to reduce the interaction with kinesin-13 (Peris et al., 2009). Thus, at least in *C. elegans*

TRNs, both polyglutamylation and tyrosination seem to promote MT dynamics by enhancing the

recruitment of kinesin-13. In fact, we observed additive effects of the two PTMs in double

mutants that disabled both polyglutamylation and tyrosination.

Interestingly, removing the polyglutamylation sites in MEC-7/β-tubulin did not produce

any defects and did not exacerbate the phenotypes of the *mec-12* mutants with no

polyglutamylation sites, suggesting functional differences of the PTM on α- and β-tubulin.

Previous studies found that α-tubulin polyglutamylation was abundant at all stages of neuronal

development in mouse brain and in culture, whereas β-tubulin polyglutamylation only

accumulated in mature neurons and was less abundant in general (Audebert et al., 1994). So, the

higher abundance of α-tubulin polyglutamylation may explain the stronger effects. Alternatively,

it is also possible that glutamylation on the C-terminal tail of the α-tubulin had stronger

structural influences on kinesin-13 binding compared to the modification of the β-tubulin.

However, the enzymes that mediate polyglutamylation and tyrosination in the TRNs

remain elusive. Deletion of the *ttll* enzymes did not eliminate the polyglutamylation signals in

the TRN axons and did not cause the ectopic growth of ALM-PN as the removal of

polyglutamylation sites did. Although *C. elegans* contains tubulin carboxypeptidases (CCPP-1

and CCPP-6) that catalyze deglutamylation (Ghosh-Roy et al., 2012; Kimura et al., 2010; Klimas

et al., 2023; O'Hagan et al., 2011), there is no *C. elegans* homolog of the known tubulin

detyrosinase. Further studies are needed to identify the potential enzymes that catalyze these

tubulin PTMs.

Materials and Methods

Strains and transgenes

C. elegans strains were maintained at 20°C as previously described (Brenner, 1974).

Strains used in this study were listed in Supplemental File 1. Some strains were provided by the

Caenorhabditis Genetics Center (CGC) or by the National BioResource Project (NBRP) of

Japan. Transgenes *uIs115[mec-17p::TagRFP] IV*, *uIs134[mec-17p::TagRFP] V*, *uIs31[mec-*

17p::GFP] III, and *zdIs5[mec-4p::GFP] I* were used to visualize TRNs. Transgene *jsIs609*

[mec-7p::mitoGFP] and *jsIs821[mec-7p::GFP::rab-3] X* was used to visualize the transport of

mitochondria and synaptic vesicles; transgene *juIs338 [mec-4p::ebp-2::GFP + ttx-3p::RFP]* was

used to track the dynamics of MTs. For *hpk-1* promoter-reporter, we cloned a 5-kb promoter

sequence upstream of the start codon of *B* isoform of *hpk-1* and inserted it into pPD95.75 to

make *hpk-1p::GFP*, which was then injected into worms to create *unkEx194 [hpk-1Bp::GFP;*

unc-119(+)]. To conduct TRN-specific RNAi, we cloned the sense (without start codon) and

antisense sequence of *mbk-2* and placed them downstream of a 1.9 kb TRN-specific *mec-17*

promoter; both constructs were injected together to create the *unkEx101[mec-17p::mbk-2-*

dsRNA; ceh-22p::GFP] transgene. OD2984 *ItSi953 [mec-18p::vhhGFP4::Zif-1] II* strain was

used for TRN-specific protein degradation.

CRISPR/Cas9-mediated gene editing

We adapted a previously published method for CRISPR/Cas9-medicated gene editing

(Dokshin et al., 2018). Optimal single guide RNA (sgRNA) targets were found using the online

tool CHOPCHOP (https://chopchop.cbu.uib.no/). The sgRNAs were synthesized using the NEB

EnGen sgRNA Synthesis Kit (E3322S) and purified using NEB Monarch RNA Cleanup Kit

(T2030L). 1 μg of the sgRNA was complexed with 20 pmol recombinant Cas9 endonuclease

(NEB # M0646T) and injected into the *C. elegans* gonads with 1 μg single-stranded DNA donors

as repair templates for precise editing through homologous recombination. Synonymous

mutations were introduced in the repair template. Successful edits were first identified by single-

worm PCR and then verified by Sanger sequencing. For each edit, two or three independent lines

were obtained and examined. To create genetic knockouts, we selected Cas9 targets in the

beginning exons and designed repair templates containing frameshift-causing small deletions.

The CRISPR targets and repair templates used for each editing are listed in Supplemental File 2.

Microscopy and statistical analysis

Unless otherwise stated, all strains subjected to data collection were bleached and grown

at 20 °C for 3 days on nematode growth medium (NGM) agar plates seeded with *E. coli* OP50

bacteria. Young adults were anesthetized on 3% agarose pads containing 3% 2,3-Butanedione

monoxime (BDM) and imaged using a Leica DMi8 microscope equipped with K5 sCMOS

Camera. Measurements of neurite length and fluorescence intensity were made by LAS X

software. To compare fluorescence intensity, strains were prepared simultaneously and imaged at

the same settings (e.g., 100-ms exposure). In general, at least 40 worms were examined for each

strain. Statistical analysis of one-way ANOVA followed by Dunnett's multiple comparisons test

of different mutants with the wild-type animals or a Tukey's honestly significant difference

(HSD) test for all pairs of conditions was performed using GraphPad Prism 8. Data were plotted

as mean ± SD, and adjusted *p* value < 0.05, 0.01, 0.001, and 0.0001 were indicated by one, two,

three, and four asterisks, respectively.

Laser Axotomy and axonal regeneration

Laser-mediated axonal cutting was adapted from a previous study (Neumann et al.,

2015). Polystyrene microspheres (Polysciences #00876-15; 5-fold dilution) were used to

immobilize late-L4 animals on 10% agarose pads. PLM axons were cut 50 μm anterior to the cell

body, using a Pulsed Laser Unit attached to the Infinity Scanner on a Leica DMi8 using 63x

water lenses. To minimize injury, the lowest energy that enabled the generation of a 2- to 3-μm

gap on the axon was used. Animals were then rescued and placed on NGM plates for recovery

and were imaged 24 hours after the axotomy. We considered two categories of axonal

regeneration: 1) reconnection, which means the proximal and distal axon segments were

connected and the connection was clearly visualized in the same focal plane; 2) regrowth, which

means that the proximal segment did not reconnect with the distal segment and the distal axon

was often degenerated. Only the regrowth cases were used to calculate the average regrowth

length, which is the length of the longest regenerative branch from the cut site.

Microtubule dynamics analysis

Day-one adult animals expressing *ebp-2::GFP* in the TRNs were immobilized as stated

above and imaged with 500-ms exposure continuously for 60 s (i.e. one frame every 529 ms and

115 frames in total were collected). ImageJ was used to generate kymographs by placing a 50-

μm ROI on PLM-AN starting from the cell body, and the number of EBP comets in the distal 30-

μm segment were counted for quantification (we found the 20-μm proximal segment near the

cell body sometimes contained many very short EBP comets, obscuring the counting). To

increase MT dynamics in some strains, we used a mild colchicine treatment previously reported

(Hsu et al., 2014). L4 animals were first transferred to seeded NGM plates containing 0.125 mM

colchicine and grown on these plates for 6.5 hours before being transferred back to normal NGM

plates for recovery. After a one-hour recovery, the animals were mounted for video recording.

Recombinant proteins and kinase assays

Recombinant *C. elegans* MEC-12/MEC-7 tubulin dimers and MBK-2 kinase were

produced in insect cells using the baculovirus-insect protein expression system. The *Spodoptera*

frugiperda Sf9 cells (Thermo #11496015) were used to generate and propagate recombinant

baculoviruses, and the *Trichoplusia ni* ovary High Five cells (Thermo #B85502) were used for

protein expression. For the tubulins, the cDNA sequences encoding MEC-12 and MEC-7 were

codon-optimized for expression in High Five cells, and the recombinant tubulin heterodimer

were generated using a previously published protocol (Ti et al., 2020).

For MBK-2, we cloned the cDNA of the *m* isoform of MBK-2 (NP_001293914.1) into

the pACEBac1 vector and infected the High Five cells with P3 virus. About 60 hours after the

infection, cells were harvested by centrifugation (1,000 g, 15 minutes) and lysed in lysis buffer

(50 mM Tris-HCl, 20 mM imidazole, 500 mM KCl, 1 mM $MgCl_2$, 0.5 mM β-mercaptoethanol, 1

mM ATP, 1% IGEPAL, 5% glycerol, 3 U/ml Benzonase and Roche Complete EDTA-free

protease inhibitor, pH 8.0) using dounce homogenization (20 strokes) on ice or at 4°C. The

extracts were clarified by centrifugation at 55,000 rpm for 1 hour. Supernatant was then filtered

through the 0.22 μm Millex-GP PES membrane (Millipore) and loaded onto HisTrap HP

column. After washing the HisTrap HP column with lysis buffer till the absorbance at 280 nm

reaches the baseline, the bound protein was eluted with elution buffer (25 mM Tris-HCl, 250

mM imidazole, 500 mM KCl, 1 mM $MgCl_2$, 2 mM β-mercaptoethanol, 1 mM ATP, 5% glycerol,

pH 8.0). The eluate was mixed with TEV protease (final 0.75 mg/ml) and dialyzed against low

salt buffer (25 mM Tris-HCl, 20 mM imidazole, 100 mM KCl, 1 mM $MgCl_2$, 2 mM β-

mercaptoethanol, 1 mM ATP, 5% glycerol, pH 8.0) for 18 hours. The dialyzed protein solution

was then loaded onto HisTrap HP and HiTrap Q FF columns. After washing the columns with

low salt buffer, the HisTrap HP column was disconnected, and the HiTrap Q FF column was eluted with a 0-100% gradient to the high salt buffer (25 mM Tris-HCl, 20 mM imidazole, 500 mM KCl, 1 mM $MgCl_2$, 2 mM β-mercaptoethanol, 1 mM ATP, 5% glycerol, pH 8.0). The fractions containing MBK-2m were collected and loaded onto a Superdex 75 16/60 column (Cytiva #28989333) equilibrated in the size-exclusion buffer (1X BRB80, 5% glycerol, 1 mM ATP, 2 mM β-mercaptoethanol, pH 6.8). The peak fractions were pooled for SDS-PAGE analysis and mass spectrometry characterization.

The kinase assay was performed as previously described (Fourest-Lieuvin et al., 2006; Ori-McKenney et al., 2016). 500 nM recombinant MEC-12/MEC-7 tubulins and a kinase candidate [500 nM recombinant MBK-2m or 475 nM CDK1/Cyclin B (Thermo Fisher; Cat# PV3292)] were incubated in MEM buffer [100 mM MES, pH 6.7, 1 mM EGTA, 1 mM $MgCl_2$, 0.1 mM DTT] supplemented with 5 mM $MgCl_2$ and 1 mM ATP or BRB80 buffer (80 mM PIPES, 1 mM $MgCl_2$, and 1 mM EGTA, pH 6.8) supplemented with 1 mM DTT, 1 mM PMSF, and 1 mM ATP at 30°C for 1 hour. Reaction controls were set up by replacing the kinase or tubulins with water. Samples were boiled for 10 min and analyzed by western blot using the anti-phospho-S172 antibodies (abcam #ab76286; 1:3000 diluted in TBST buffer) and the anti-α-tubulin antibodies (abcam #ab7291; for loading controls) as the primary antibodies.

Immunofluorescence

To detect tubulin PTM signals in the animals, we conducted immunofluorescent staining using a previously published protocol (Finney and Ruvkun, 1990). Briefly, worms fixed in 2% formaldehyde (in Ruvkun Finney Buffer) were subjected to three cycles of freeze-and-thaw. After washing twice with Tris-Triton Buffer (TTB; 100 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.4, 1% Triton X-100, 1 mM EDTA), worms were treated with 1% β-mercaptoethanol in TTB at 37°C with gentle agitation for 4 hours. Samples were then washed with Borate buffer (25 mM H_3BO_3, 25 mM NaOH, pH 9.2) and incubated in borate buffer with 10 mM DTT at 37°C and in borate buffer with 0.3% H_2O_2 at room temperature, sequentially; each incubation lasted 15 min under agitation and was followed by a wash using borate buffer. At this stage, worms were permeable to macromolecules due to the reduction of cuticular disulfide bonds to -SH and the subsequent oxidation of -SH to $-SO_3$. Permeabilized worms were then blocked with Antibody Buffer (PBST containing 1% BSA and 1 mM EDTA) for 1 h and incubated with antibodies at a 1:100 (for

primary antibody) or 1:1000 (for secondary antibodies) dilution in Antibody Buffer for 2 hours.

Three washes with shaking for a total of 2 hours were applied after antibody incubation.

Antibodies used in this study included the anti-phospho-S172 (abcam; #ab76286), anti-

acetyl-K40 (abcam; #ab24610), anti-polyE GT335 (AdipoGen Life Science; #AG-20B-0020-

C100), anti-polyE chain IN105 (AdipoGen; #AG-25B-0030-C050), anti-glycylated tubulin Gly-

pep1 (AdipoGen; AG-25B-0034-C100), anti-tyrosinated α-tubulin (Sigma; #MAB1864-I), anti-

detyrosinated α-tubulin (Sigma; #MAB5566), and fluorophore-labeled secondary antibodies

from Thermo Fisher (#A32723 and #A11006) and Jackson ImmunoResearch (#115-025-164,

#111-545-003, #111-025-003, and #115-545-003).

***In vitro* culture of *C. elegans* embryonic cells**

C. elegans embryos were collected from gravid adults through a bleaching procedure,

washed with M9 buffer and then egg buffer (118 mM NaCl, 48 mM KCl, 3.4 mM CaCl2, 3.4

mM MgCl2, 5 mM Hepes, pH 7.4), and incubated in egg buffer (1 ml per 100 µl egg pellet)

supplemented with 0.5% chitinase (Sigma #C6137) for ~20 minutes until the eggshells were

dissolved. Digested embryos were washed in egg buffer twice and subsequently in L-15CM

medium [Leibovitz's L-15 Medium (Thermo Fisher #11415064) supplemented with 10% FBS,

100 U/ml penicillin-streptomycin (Sigma; P4333), and 0.85% sucrose]. Cells were dissociated in

L-15CM using a 25-gauge needle and then adhered to slides pre-coated with 0.5 mg/ml lectin

(Sigma #L0881) and 0.01 mg/ml poly-D-lysine (Thermo Fisher #A3890401). After 1 hour of

adhesion, more L-15CM medium was added to the petri dish to submerge the slides and to

support the growth of cells, which were examined 24 hours later.

For the subsequent immunostaining, cells were carefully washed with PBS twice, fixed

with 4% formaldehyde in PBS for 8 min, and washed with ice-cold PBS. They were then

permeabilized using PBST (0.1% Triton X-100 in PBS) for 10 min, blocked in the blocking

buffer (4% BSA in PBST) for 30 min, and stained with antibodies (1:1000 dilution) in the

blocking buffer for 2 hours; PBST wash was conducted 5 times after each step above. Slides

were mounted using VECTASHIELD Antifade Mounting Medium (Vector Laboratories #H-

1000), and coverslips were sealed by nail polish before imaging. In order to identify the TRNs

among the embryonic cells, we used animals carrying a TRN marker *mec-17p::TagRFP* for the

experiments and the cells that express RFP were identified as TRNs. Nevertheless, we could not distinguish the TRN subtypes in cell culture.

Acknowledgement

We thank the Caenorhabditis Genetics Center, which is funded by the National Institutes of Health (NIH) Office of Research Infrastructure Programs (P40 OD010440), and the National BioResource Project (NBRP), which is funded by the Japanese government, for providing strains. We thank Nina Peel for providing some *ttll* mutants. We thank Rui Wang in the Zheng lab for technical assistance in staining the embryonically derived TRNs. We thank Paige Wilson for technical assistance in creating the *mec-7* S172 mutants in the Martin Chalfie lab at Columbia University. This study was supported by funds from the National Natural Science Foundation of China (Excellent Young Scientists Fund for Hong Kong and Macau 32122002 to C.Z.), the Research Grant Council of Hong Kong [ECS 27104219, GRF 17107021, GRF 17106322, and CRF C7026-20G to C.Z., and C7064-22GF to S.-C.T.], the Food and Health Bureau of Hong Kong [HMRF 07183186 and 09201426 to C.Z.], and the seed fund from the University of Hong Kong [201910159087 and 202011159053 to C.Z.].

References

Akagawa, R., Y.I. Nabeshima, and T. Kawauchi. 2021. Alternative Functions of Cell Cycle-Related and DNA Repair Proteins in Post-mitotic Neurons. *Front Cell Dev Biol*. 9:753175.

Akella, J.S., D. Wloga, J. Kim, N.G. Starostina, S. Lyons-Abbott, N.S. Morrissette, S.T. Dougan, E.T. Kipreos, and J. Gaertig. 2010. MEC-17 is an alpha-tubulin acetyltransferase. *Nature*. 467:218-222.

Audebert, S., A. Koulakoff, Y. Berwald-Netter, F. Gros, P. Denoulet, and B. Edde. 1994. Developmental regulation of polyglutamylated alpha- and beta-tubulin in mouse brain neurons. *J Cell Sci*. 107 (Pt 8):2313-2322.

Barbosa, D.J., J. Duro, B. Prevo, D.K. Cheerambathur, A.X. Carvalho, and R. Gassmann. 2017. Dynactin binding to tyrosinated microtubules promotes centrosome centration in C. elegans by enhancing dynein-mediated organelle transport. *PLoS Genet*. 13:e1006941.

Barisic, M., R. Silva e Sousa, S.K. Tripathy, M.M. Magiera, A.V. Zaytsev, A.L. Pereira, C. Janke, E.L. Grishchuk, and H. Maiato. 2015. Mitosis. Microtubule detyrosination guides chromosomes during mitosis. *Science*. 348:799-803.

Brenner, S. 1974. The genetics of Caenorhabditis elegans. *Genetics*. 77:71-94.

Chalfie, M., and J.N. Thomson. 1979. Organization of neuronal microtubules in the nematode Caenorhabditis elegans. *J Cell Biol*. 82:278-289.

Chalfie, M., and J.N. Thomson. 1982. Structural and functional diversity in the neuronal
microtubules of Caenorhabditis elegans. *J Cell Biol*. 93:15-23.
Chang, J., R.H. Baloh, and J. Milbrandt. 2009. The NIMA-family kinase Nek3 regulates
microtubule acetylation in neurons. *J Cell Sci*. 122:2274-2282.
Chu, C.W., F. Hou, J. Zhang, L. Phu, A.V. Loktev, D.S. Kirkpatrick, P.K. Jackson, Y. Zhao, and H.
Zou. 2011. A novel acetylation of beta-tubulin by San modulates microtubule
polymerization via down-regulating tubulin incorporation. *Mol Biol Cell*. 22:448-456.
Cueva, J.G., J. Hsin, K.C. Huang, and M.B. Goodman. 2012. Posttranslational acetylation of
alpha-tubulin constrains protofilament number in native microtubules. *Curr Biol*.
22:1066-1074.
Dokshin, G.A., K.S. Ghanta, K.M. Piscopo, and C.C. Mello. 2018. Robust Genome Editing with
Short Single-Stranded and Long, Partially Single-Stranded DNA Donors in Caenorhabditis
elegans. *Genetics*. 210:781-787.
Even, A., G. Morelli, L. Broix, C. Scaramuzzino, S. Turchetto, I. Gladwyn-Ng, R. Le Bail, M. Shilian,
S. Freeman, M.M. Magiera, A.S. Jijumon, N. Krusy, B. Malgrange, B. Brone, P. Dietrich, I.
Dragatsis, C. Janke, F. Saudou, M. Weil, and L. Nguyen. 2019. ATAT1-enriched vesicles
promote microtubule acetylation via axonal transport. *Sci Adv*. 5:eaax2705.
Finney, M., and G. Ruvkun. 1990. The unc-86 gene product couples cell lineage and cell identity
in C. elegans. *Cell*. 63:895-905.
Fourest-Lieuvin, A., L. Peris, V. Gache, I. Garcia-Saez, C. Juillan-Binard, V. Lantez, and D. Job.
2006. Microtubule regulation in mitosis: tubulin phosphorylation by the cyclin-
dependent kinase Cdk1. *Mol Biol Cell*. 17:1041-1050.
Ghosh-Roy, A., A. Goncharov, Y. Jin, and A.D. Chisholm. 2012. Kinesin-13 and tubulin
posttranslational modifications regulate microtubule growth in axon regeneration. *Dev
Cell*. 23:716-728.
Hsu, J.M., C.H. Chen, Y.C. Chen, K.L. McDonald, M. Gurling, A. Lee, G. Garriga, and C.L. Pan.
2014. Genetic analysis of a novel tubulin mutation that redirects synaptic vesicle
targeting and causes neurite degeneration in C. elegans. *PLoS Genet*. 10:e1004715.
Jaglin, X.H., K. Poirier, Y. Saillour, E. Buhler, G. Tian, N. Bahi-Buisson, C. Fallet-Bianco, F. Phan-
Dinh-Tuy, X.P. Kong, P. Bomont, L. Castelnau-Ptakhine, S. Odent, P. Loget, M.
Kossorotoff, I. Snoeck, G. Plessis, P. Parent, C. Beldjord, C. Cardoso, A. Represa, J. Flint,
D.A. Keays, N.J. Cowan, and J. Chelly. 2009. Mutations in the beta-tubulin gene TUBB2B
result in asymmetrical polymicrogyria. *Nat Genet*. 41:746-752.
Janke, C. 2014. The tubulin code: molecular components, readout mechanisms, and functions. *J
Cell Biol*. 206:461-472.
Janke, C., and M.M. Magiera. 2020. The tubulin code and its role in controlling microtubule
properties and functions. *Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol*. 21:307-326.
Kalebic, N., S. Sorrentino, E. Perlas, G. Bolasco, C. Martinez, and P.A. Heppenstall. 2013.
alphaTAT1 is the major alpha-tubulin acetyltransferase in mice. *Nat Commun*. 4:1962.
Kaul, N., V. Soppina, and K.J. Verhey. 2014. Effects of alpha-tubulin K40 acetylation and
detyrosination on kinesin-1 motility in a purified system. *Biophys J*. 106:2636-2643.
Kim, A.H., and A. Bonni. 2008. Cdk1-FOXO1: a mitotic signal takes center stage in post-mitotic
neurons. *Cell Cycle*. 7:3819-3822.

Kim, G.W., L. Li, M. Ghorbani, L. You, and X.J. Yang. 2013. Mice lacking alpha-tubulin
acetyltransferase 1 are viable but display alpha-tubulin acetylation deficiency and
dentate gyrus distortion. *J Biol Chem*. 288:20334-20350.
Kimura, Y., N. Kurabe, K. Ikegami, K. Tsutsumi, Y. Konishi, O.I. Kaplan, H. Kunitomo, Y. Iino, O.E.
Blacque, and M. Setou. 2010. Identification of tubulin deglutamylase among
Caenorhabditis elegans and mammalian cytosolic carboxypeptidases (CCPs). *J Biol Chem*.
285:22936-22941.
Kirszenblat, L., B. Neumann, S. Coakley, and M.A. Hilliard. 2013. A dominant mutation in mec-
7/beta-tubulin affects axon development and regeneration in Caenorhabditis elegans
neurons. *Mol Biol Cell*. 24:285-296.
Klimas, A.S., J. Dominguez, B.P. Shah, Z.Y. Lee, and N. Peel. 2023. The C. elegans deglutamylase
CCPP-6 does not operate redundantly with CCPP-1 in gross cilia integrity. *MicroPubl Biol*.
2023.
Konishi, Y., and M. Setou. 2009. Tubulin tyrosination navigates the kinesin-1 motor domain to
axons. *Nat Neurosci*. 12:559-567.
Kubo, T., H.A. Yanagisawa, T. Yagi, M. Hirono, and R. Kamiya. 2010. Tubulin polyglutamylation
regulates axonemal motility by modulating activities of inner-arm dyneins. *Curr Biol*.
20:441-445.
Lacroix, B., J. van Dijk, N.D. Gold, J. Guizetti, G. Aldrian-Herrada, K. Rogowski, D.W. Gerlich, and
C. Janke. 2010. Tubulin polyglutamylation stimulates spastin-mediated microtubule
severing. *J Cell Biol*. 189:945-954.
Lee, H.M.T., N.Y. Sayegh, A.S. Gayek, S.L.J. Jao, M. Chalfie, and C. Zheng. 2021. Epistatic,
synthetic, and balancing interactions among tubulin missense mutations affecting
neurite growth in Caenorhabditis elegans. *Mol Biol Cell*. 32:331-347.
Lin, Z., I. Gasic, V. Chandrasekaran, N. Peters, S. Shao, T.J. Mitchison, and R.S. Hegde. 2020.
TTC5 mediates autoregulation of tubulin via mRNA degradation. *Science*. 367:100-104.
Lu, Y.M., and C. Zheng. 2022. The Expression and Function of Tubulin Isotypes in Caenorhabditis
elegans. *Front Cell Dev Biol*. 10:860065.
Mao, C.X., X. Wen, S. Jin, and Y.Q. Zhang. 2017. Increased acetylation of microtubules rescues
human tau-induced microtubule defects and neuromuscular junction abnormalities in
Drosophila. *Dis Model Mech*. 10:1245-1252.
Neumann, B., S. Coakley, R. Giordano-Santini, C. Linton, E.S. Lee, A. Nakagawa, D. Xue, and M.A.
Hilliard. 2015. EFF-1-mediated regenerative axonal fusion requires components of the
apoptotic pathway. *Nature*. 517:219-222.
Neumann, B., and M.A. Hilliard. 2014. Loss of MEC-17 leads to microtubule instability and
axonal degeneration. *Cell Rep*. 6:93-103.
Nieuwenhuis, J., A. Adamopoulos, O.B. Bleijerveld, A. Mazouzi, E. Stickel, P. Celie, M. Altelaar, P.
Knipscheer, A. Perrakis, V.A. Blomen, and T.R. Brummelkamp. 2017. Vasohibins encode
tubulin detyrosinating activity. *Science*. 358:1453-1456.
Nsamba, E.T., and M.L. Gupta. 2022. Tubulin isotypes - functional insights from model
organisms. *J Cell Sci*. 135.
O'Hagan, R., B.P. Piasecki, M. Silva, P. Phirke, K.C. Nguyen, D.H. Hall, P. Swoboda, and M.M.
Barr. 2011. The tubulin deglutamylase CCPP-1 regulates the function and stability of
sensory cilia in C. elegans. *Curr Biol*. 21:1685-1694.

Ori-McKenney, K.M., R.J. McKenney, H.H. Huang, T. Li, S. Meltzer, L.Y. Jan, R.D. Vale, A.P. Wiita,
863   and Y.N. Jan. 2016. Phosphorylation of beta-Tubulin by the Down Syndrome Kinase,
864   Minibrain/DYRK1a, Regulates Microtubule Dynamics and Dendrite Morphogenesis.
865   *Neuron*. 90:551-563.
866   Peris, L., M. Wagenbach, L. Lafanechere, J. Brocard, A.T. Moore, F. Kozielski, D. Job, L.
867   Wordeman, and A. Andrieux. 2009. Motor-dependent microtubule disassembly driven
868   by tubulin tyrosination. *J Cell Biol*. 185:1159-1166.
869   Portran, D., L. Schaedel, Z. Xu, M. Thery, and M.V. Nachury. 2017. Tubulin acetylation protects
870   long-lived microtubules against mechanical ageing. *Nat Cell Biol*. 19:391-398.
871   Puri, D., K. Ponniah, K. Biswas, A. Basu, S. Dey, E.A. Lundquist, and A. Ghosh-Roy. 2021. Wnt
872   signaling establishes the microtubule polarity in neurons through regulation of Kinesin-
873   13. *J Cell Biol*. 220.
874   Quintin, S., P.E. Mains, A. Zinke, and A.A. Hyman. 2003. The mbk-2 kinase is required for
875   inactivation of MEI-1/katanin in the one-cell Caenorhabditis elegans embryo. *EMBO*
876   *Rep*. 4:1175-1181.
877   Reed, N.A., D. Cai, T.L. Blasius, G.T. Jih, E. Meyhofer, J. Gaertig, and K.J. Verhey. 2006.
878   Microtubule acetylation promotes kinesin-1 binding and transport. *Curr Biol*. 16:2166-
879   2172.
880   Rogowski, K., J. van Dijk, M.M. Magiera, C. Bosc, J.C. Deloulme, A. Bosson, L. Peris, N.D. Gold, B.
881   Lacroix, M. Bosch Grau, N. Bec, C. Larroque, S. Desagher, M. Holzer, A. Andrieux, M.J.
882   Moutin, and C. Janke. 2010. A family of protein-deglutamylating enzymes associated
883   with neurodegeneration. *Cell*. 143:564-578.
884   Roll-Mecak, A. 2020. The Tubulin Code in Microtubule Dynamics and Information Encoding. *Dev*
885   *Cell*. 54:7-20.
886   Roth, D., B.P. Fitton, N.P. Chmel, N. Wasiluk, and A. Straube. 2018. Spatial positioning of EB
887   family proteins at microtubule tips involves distinct nucleotide-dependent binding
888   properties. *J Cell Sci*. 132.
889   Savage, C., M. Hamelin, J.G. Culotti, A. Coulson, D.G. Albertson, and M. Chalfie. 1989. mec-7 is a
890   beta-tubulin gene required for the production of 15-protofilament microtubules in
891   Caenorhabditis elegans. *Genes Dev*. 3:870-881.
892   Savage, C., Y. Xue, S. Mitani, D. Hall, R. Zakhary, and M. Chalfie. 1994. Mutations in the
893   Caenorhabditis elegans beta-tubulin gene mec-7: effects on microtubule assembly and
894   stability and on tubulin autoregulation. *J Cell Sci*. 107 (Pt 8):2165-2175.
895   Shida, T., J.G. Cueva, Z. Xu, M.B. Goodman, and M.V. Nachury. 2010. The major alpha-tubulin
896   K40 acetyltransferase alphaTAT1 promotes rapid ciliogenesis and efficient
897   mechanosensation. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 107:21517-21522.
898   Sirajuddin, M., L.M. Rice, and R.D. Vale. 2014. Regulation of microtubule motors by tubulin
899   isotypes and post-translational modifications. *Nat Cell Biol*. 16:335-344.
900   Suryavanshi, S., B. Edde, L.A. Fox, S. Guerrero, R. Hard, T. Hennessey, A. Kabi, D. Malison, D.
901   Pennock, W.S. Sale, D. Wloga, and J. Gaertig. 2010. Tubulin glutamylation regulates
902   ciliary motility by altering inner dynein arm activity. *Curr Biol*. 20:435-440.
903   Taylor, S.R., G. Santpere, A. Weinreb, A. Barrett, M.B. Reilly, C. Xu, E. Varol, P. Oikonomou, L.
904   Glenwinkel, R. McWhirter, A. Poff, M. Basavaraju, I. Rafi, E. Yemini, S.J. Cook, A. Abrams,
905   B. Vidal, C. Cros, S. Tavazoie, N. Sestan, M. Hammarlund, O. Hobert, and D.M. Miller,

3rd. 2021. Molecular topography of an entire nervous system. *Cell*. 184:4329-4347
e4323.

Ti, S.C., M. Wieczorek, and T.M. Kapoor. 2020. Purification of Affinity Tag-free Recombinant
Tubulin from Insect Cells. *STAR Protoc*. 1.

Tischfield, M.A., G.Y. Cederquist, M.L. Gupta, Jr., and E.C. Engle. 2011. Phenotypic spectrum of
the tubulin-related disorders and functional implications of disease-causing mutations.
Curr Opin Genet Dev. 21:286-294.

Topalidou, I., C. Keller, N. Kalebic, K.C. Nguyen, H. Somhegyi, K.A. Politi, P. Heppenstall, D.H.
Hall, and M. Chalfie. 2012. Genetically separable functions of the MEC-17 tubulin
acetyltransferase affect microtubule organization. *Curr Biol*. 22:1057-1065.

van Dijk, J., K. Rogowski, J. Miro, B. Lacroix, B. Edde, and C. Janke. 2007. A targeted
multienzyme mechanism for selective microtubule polyglutamylation. *Mol Cell*. 26:437-
448.

Wang, S., N.H. Tang, P. Lara-Gonzalez, Z. Zhao, D.K. Cheerambathur, B. Prevo, A.D. Chisholm, A.
Desai, and K. Oegema. 2017. A toolkit for GFP-mediated tissue-specific protein
degradation in C. elegans. *Development*. 144:2694-2701.

Wolff, A., B. de Nechaud, D. Chillet, H. Mazarguil, E. Desbruyeres, S. Audebert, B. Edde, F. Gros,
and P. Denoulet. 1992. Distribution of glutamylated alpha and beta-tubulin in mouse
tissues using a specific monoclonal antibody, GT335. *Eur J Cell Biol*. 59:425-432.

Wu, Z., A. Ghosh-Roy, M.F. Yanik, J.Z. Zhang, Y. Jin, and A.D. Chisholm. 2007. Caenorhabditis
elegans neuronal regeneration is influenced by life stage, ephrin signaling, and synaptic
branching. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 104:15132-15137.

Xia, L., B. Hai, Y. Gao, D. Burnette, R. Thazhath, J. Duan, M.H. Bre, N. Levilliers, M.A. Gorovsky,
and J. Gaertig. 2000. Polyglycylation of tubulin is essential and affects cell motility and
division in Tetrahymena thermophila. *J Cell Biol*. 149:1097-1106.

Xu, Z., L. Schaedel, D. Portran, A. Aguilar, J. Gaillard, M.P. Marinkovich, M. Thery, and M.V.
Nachury. 2017. Microtubules acquire resistance from mechanical breakage through
intralumenal acetylation. *Science*. 356:328-332.

Yan, C., F. Wang, Y. Peng, C.R. Williams, B. Jenkins, J. Wildonger, H.J. Kim, J.B. Perr, J.C.
Vaughan, M.E. Kern, M.R. Falvo, E.T. O'Brien, 3rd, R. Superfine, J.C. Tuthill, Y. Xiang, S.L.
Rogers, and J.Z. Parrish. 2018. Microtubule Acetylation Is Required for
Mechanosensation in Drosophila. *Cell Rep*. 25:1051-1065 e1056.

Yuan, Z., E.B. Becker, P. Merlo, T. Yamada, S. DiBacco, Y. Konishi, E.M. Schaefer, and A. Bonni.
2008. Activation of FOXO1 by Cdk1 in cycling cells and postmitotic neurons. *Science*.
319:1665-1668.

Zheng, C., M. Diaz-Cuadros, K.C.Q. Nguyen, D.H. Hall, and M. Chalfie. 2017. Distinct effects of
tubulin isotype mutations on neurite growth in Caenorhabditis elegans. *Mol Biol Cell*.
28:2786-2801.

948
Figure 1. Substitution of MEC-7/β-tubulin S172 led to neurite growth defects in *C. elegans*
TRNs. (A) TRN morphologies in wild-type animals, *S172A*, *S172E*, and *S172P* mutants.
Specific neurites are labeled by arrows. Asterisks indicate the position of vulva. Dashed arrows
point to the termini of neurites that are shortened in mutants. Scale bar = 100 μm. (B) The
distance of ALM-AN terminus to the tip of the nose in various strains. The longer the distance,
the shorter the ALM-AN. One and four asterisks indicate *p* < 0.05 and 0.0001, respectively, in
statistical significance when compared with the wild type. (C) The distance from the PLM-AN
terminus to the vulva in various strains. If the anteriorly directed PLM-AN grew past the vulva,
the distance is positive. If PLM-AN cannot reach the vulva, the distance is negative. (D)
Quantification of ALM-PN length. The wild-type animals have no or very short ALM-PN. (E)
Quantification of PLM-PN length. (F) Representative images of PLM-PN in various strains.
Dashed arrows indicate the neurite termini of shortened PLM-PN. (G) Representative images of
ALM-PN in *mec-7(S172A)* mutants. Arrowhead indicates the synaptic branch of PLM-AN in the
wild-type animals. Dashed arrows point to the branching defects where the synaptic branch
failed to extend to the ventral cord. (H) TRNs extracted from the embryos of S172 mutants and
cultured *in vitro*; they were identified by their expression of *mec-17p::TagRFP* among the
embryonic cells. TRNs from *S172E* mutants had no or very short neurites. (I) The length of the
longest neurite of the *in vitro* cultured TRNs from the S172 mutants. Scale bar = 20 μm.
967
968

Figure 2. MEC-7/β-tubulin S172 phosphorylation regulates MT dynamics, cargo transport, mechanosensory function, and axonal regeneration. (A) Representative kymographs of EBP-2::GFP dynamics in the PLM-AN of various strains. The wild-type animals and *S172A* mutants were subjected to a mild colchicine treatment to increase MT dynamics and imaged after one-hour recovery. (B) Quantification of the number of EBP-2 tracks. One, two, and four asterisks indicate $p < 0.05$, 0.01, and 0.0001, respectively, in statistical significance when compared with the wild type. (C) Percentages of retrograde and anterograde movement for the EBP-2 comets. (D) Comparison of the EBP-2::GFP signal in the cell body of wild-type and *mec-7(S172A)* animals. (E) Distribution of mitochondria in the ALM-AN indicated by the *jsIs609 [mec-7p::mitoGFP]* signal. (F) The quantification of the number of mitoGFP puncta in the distal segment of ALM-AN (150-300 μm away from the cell body). (G) Localization of the synaptic

vesicles (GFP::RAB-3), which are indicated by green dots in the cartoon in S172 mutants. The fluorescent image for the wild type is a representative image of the region in the dashed box of the cartoon; arrows indicate the normal localization of RAB-3 signal to the synapses made by synaptic branch of PLM-AN in the ventral nerve cord posterior to the vulval position (indicated by the asterisk). In S172A mutants, RAB-3 is mistargeted to the ALM-PN (dashed arrow) and accumulates at the PLM-AN (arrowhead) when the synaptic branch fails to extend, and the axon hooks ventrally. In S172E mutants, RAB-3 signal was trapped in the cell body as PLM-AN is severely shortened. (H) Anterior touch responses of various *mec-7* mutants; *mec-7(ok2151)* is a deletion allele. (I) Representative axonal regrowth of PLM-AN following laser axotomy in various strains; arrows indicate the cut site. (J) Quantification of PLM regrowth length for the regrowth cases. (K) Examples of reconnections after laser axotomy; arrows indicate the cut site. Scale bars = 20 μm for all panels.

1005

Figure 3. CDK-1 mediates MEC-7/β-tubulin S172 phosphorylation and regulates neurite growth. (A) Images of TRN morphologies in *cdk-1(he5)/+* heterozygotes and *cdk-1(he5)* homozygotes (escapers). Arrow points to the ectopic ALM-PN. Scale bar = 100 μm. (B) The length of ALM-PN in wild-type and *cdk-1* mutants. ALM-PN length in the escapers of *he-5* and *ok1882* homozygous mutants were measured. (C) The ratio of ALM-PN length to ALM-AN length in various strains. (D) The ALM-PN length in animals carrying both *mec-7(S172A)* and *cdk-1* mutations. (E) Western blot of the kinase reaction samples using anti-phospho-S172 (p-S172) antibodies. The kinase reaction was conducted in the MEM buffer with 475 nM CDK1/Cyclin B or 500 nM MBK-2m. The weak p-S172 signal in the first lane likely resulted from the nonspecific interaction of the anti-p-S172 antibodies with the unmodified MEC-12/MEC-7 heterodimer or the background phosphorylation level of the recombinant dimer. Anti-β-tubulin antibodies were used to ensure the equal loading of the tubulin dimers. (F) Quantification of the grey intensity ratio of p-S172 to β-tubulin signals in the western blot.

1019
1020
1021
1022

Figure 4. The effects of tubulin acetylation on neurite development. (A) The PLM-PN length in *mec-12* K40 mutants. (B) The length of ALM-PN in *mec-12* K40 mutants. (C) 20% of PLM-AN failed to extend the synaptic branch in *mec-12(K40Q)* mutants. Arrow points to the normal synaptic branch in *mec-12(K40R)* mutants and the dashed arrow indicates the branching defects. See Figure 1G for the wild-type control. (D) Quantification of the PLM regrowth length after laser axotomy in *mec-12* K40 mutants. (E) Anterior touch responses of *mec-17* and *mec-12* mutants. The deletion allele *ok2109* was used for *mec-17(-)* and the *unk126* (G121W & G123W) allele was used for *mec-17(dW)*. (F) Comparison of ALM-PN in *mec-17(-)* and *mec-17(dW)* mutants. (G) Quantification of ALM-PN lengths in *mec-17* mutants. Four asterisks indicate $p < 0.0001$ in a post-ANOVA Tukey's honestly significant difference (HSD) test. (H) Comparison and quantification of the neurite swelling and looping phenotypes in *mec-17(-)* and *mec-17(dW)* mutants (ALM-AN is shown). For the quantification, severe swelling is defined by having two or more bumps taller than 1 μm within 100 μm length of axon; partial swelling is defined by having smaller or fewer bumps than the severe ones; no swelling is defined by having no > 0.5 μm bumps in the entire axon. (I) The ALM and PLM morphologies in *mec-7* K252 mutants. Dashed arrows point to the termini of the shortened ALM-AN or PLM-AN or PLM-PN. See Figure 1A for the wild-type control. (J) Quantification of the shortening of the three neurites. For ALM-AN, the distance from the neurite ending to the nose tip was measured; the bigger the gap, the

1043 shorter the ALM-AN. For PLM-AN, the distance from the neurite terminus to the vulva was
1044 measured. Positive value means the neurite grew past the vulva and negative value means the
1045 neurite did not reach the vulva. Scale bars = 20 µm for all panels.

1061
Figure 5. Tubulin polyglutamylation regulates neurite growth and regeneration. (A) The
growth of ectopic ALM-PN (arrow) in *mec-12* mutants lacking the polyglutamylation sites. (B)
The quantification of ALM-PN length in various *mec-12* mutant strains. The changes made to
the last twelve amino acids of MEC-12 in the various alleles are shown. (C) Kymographs
showing EBP-2::GFP dynamics in wild-type and *mec-12(4Es-A)* animals after a mild colchicine
treatment and a one-hour recovery. (D) Quantification of the number of EBP-2 comets in *mec-*
12(4Es-A) mutants. (E) The percentage of retrograde and anterograde EBP-2 movements. (F)
PLM regrowth following laser axotomy in *mec-12(4Es-A)* and *ttll-5(tm3360)* mutants and the
double mutants; arrows indicate the cut site. (G) The quantification of PLM regrowth length in
various strains. (H) ALM-PN lengths in *spas-1(tm683)*, *klp-7(unk179; Δ11bp)*, *klp-7(unk171;*
Δ14bp), and *klp-7; mec-12(4Es-A)* double mutants. *unk171* was generated by gene editing in
both the wild-type and the *mec-12(4Es-A)* background, and #1 and #2 were two independent
lines. See Figure 5-figure supplement 2 for the details of the *klp-7* alleles. Scale bars = 20 μm for
all panels; n.s. indicates no statistical significance in a post-ANOVA Tukey's HSD test.

1076
Figure 6. Substitution of glutamates in MEC-12 and MEC-7 C-terminal tails eliminate
tubulin polyglutamylation in the axons. (A) Antibody staining of *in vitro* cultured TRNs
(labeled by RFP) with IN105 anti-polyglutamylation antibodies that recognize a chain of four or
more glutamates. (B) Antibody staining of *in vitro* cultured TRNs from various strains with
GT335 anti-polyglutamylation antibodies that recognize the branchpoint and a side chain of two
glutamyl units. CGZ1554 *ttll-4(tm3310); ttll-5(tm3360); ttll-12(unk185); uIs115* and CGZ1475
ttll-4(tm3310); ttll-5(tm3360) ttll-9(tm3889) ttll-15 (tm3871); ttll-12(unk185); uIs115 were used
in the experiment. Arrows point to the TRN cell bodies and arrowheads point to the staining
signal in the axon. (C-D) Quantification of the fluorescent intensity (in arbitrary units or a.u.) for
the polyE staining of TRN axons and cell bodies using GT335. (E) RNA level of the *ttll* genes in
ALM and PLM neurons according to the L4 stage single-cell transcriptomic data obtained from
wormbase.org. (F) ALM-PN length in *mec-7*, *mec-12*, and *ttll* mutant strains. CGZ1554,
CGZ1475, and CGZ1474 *ttll-4(tm3310); ttll-11(tm4059); ttll-5(tm3360) ttll-9(tm3889) ttll-*
15(tm3871); ttll-12(unk185); zdIs5 were used. Scale bars = 20 μm for all panels. Three and four
asterisks indicate $p < 0.001$ and 0.0001, respectively, in a post-ANOVA Dunnett's test
comparing all mutants with the wild-type animals.
1093
1094
1095
1096

Figure 7. The effects of tubulin detyrosination and Δ2 modification on neurite growth. (A)
The length of ALM-PN in strains deleting the terminal tyrosine or the last two residues. Two,
three, and four asterisks correspond to $p < 0.05$, 0.001, and 0.0001, respectively, in a post-
ANOVA Tukey's HSD test. (B) The weak staining of wild-type TRNs with the anti-tyrosinated
α-tubulin antibodies. (C) The staining of the wild-type animals and the various *mec-12* mutants
with anti-detyrosinated α-tubulin antibodies. Arrows point to the ALM cell bodies, ALM-AN,
and PLM-AN (zoom in to see the signal). (D) Quantification of the fluorescent intensity of the
anti-detyrosination staining signal in the axons. Arbitrary units (a.u.) were used.

1107
1108
1109

1110

1111

Figure 8. Summary of the phenotypes of the tubulin PTM site mutants. Cartoons represent
the morphologies of the ALM and PLM neurons in various *mec-7* and *mec-12* mutants. Severe
shortening of neurites often represents phenotypes of antimorphic alleles, while the growth of a
prominent ALM-PN is characteristic of neomorphic alleles. Dashed lines indicated partial
defects of forming the PLM synaptic branch. For synaptic vesicle (SV) trafficking, mistargeting
means SV is trafficked to ALM-PN; transport defects mean that SV is mostly trapped in cell
bodies or proximal segment of the neurite. MT stability is measured by EBP-2 comets; increased
EBP-2 dynamics indicates reduced MT stability, and reduced EBP-2 dynamics indicates elevated
MT stability. Blank space means phenotype not determined; + means phenotype similar to the
wild-type animals.

1122

1123

1124

1125

1126

1127

1128

1129

1130

1131

1132

1133 **Figure Supplements**

1134
Figure 1-figure supplement 1. *mec-7* **S172A and S172E mutations are semidominant.** (A)
Evolutionary conservation of S172 (highlighted) and flanking sequences among β-tubulin genes
across species. Ce for *C. elegans*, Dm for *Drosophila melanogaster*, Xl for *Xenopus laevis*, and
Hs for *Homo sapiens*. (B) The length of ALM-PN in day-one adults (three days after bleaching)
of wild-type animals, *mec-7(S172A)/+* heterozygotes, and *mec-7(S172A)* homozygotes. (C) The
distance from the PLM-AN terminus to the vulva in the wild-type animals, *mec-7(S172E)/+*
heterozygotes, and *mec-7(S172E)* homozygotes. If PLM-AN grew past the vulva, the distance is
positive. If PLM-AN cannot reach the vulva, the distance is negative. Four asterisks indicate $p <$
0.0001 in a post-ANOVA Tukey's HSD test.

1155
1156
Figure 1-figure supplement 2. *mec-7* S172 mutations altered β-tubulin S172
phosphorylation level. (A) Anti-β-tubulin phospho-S172 antibody staining of *in vitro* cultured
C. elegans embryonic cells from the indicated strains. Cells expressing the *mec-17p::TagRFP*
were identified as the TRNs. Scale bar = 20 μm. (B) Fluorescent intensity in the axons were
measured and quantified. Four asterisks indicate $p < 0.0001$ in a Dunnett's test comparing the
mutant cells with the wild-type cells.

1168
Figure 3-figure supplement 1. Expression and phenotypes of the minibrain homologs, *mbk-*
1, mbk-2, and hpk-1 in the TRNs. (A) The expression of *cmIs6 [mbk-1::GFP]* in the TRNs
labeled by *mec-17p::TagRFP*. Circles indicate the expression of GFP in TRNs, including ALM,
PLM, and AVM neurons. (B) The expression of *cmEx6 [mbk-2p::GFP]* in the TRNs. (C) The
expression of *unkEx194 [hpk-1Bp::GFP]* in TRNs. Scale bar = 20 μm for all panels. (D)
Quantifications of ALM-PN length in various strains. ALM-PN was measured in the arrested
larvae of the *mbk-2(ok2235)* single and *mbk-1(pk1389); mbk-2(ok2235)* double mutants; the rest
were measured in adults. Both *ne992* and *dd5* are temperature-sensitive alleles and were first
grown at 15 °C to L1 stage and then shifted to 25 °C and scored at adult stage. *mbk-2(i)* indicates
feeding RNAi done in the CGZ963 *mbk-1(pk1389) X; eri-1(mg366ts) IV; uIs115 IV* strain for
enhanced RNAi. *TRN::mbk-2(i)-g* and *-c* indicate double strand RNA expressed from the TRN-
specific *mec-17* promoter against the genomic DNA and cDNA of *mbk-2*, respectively.

1181

Figure 3-figure supplement 2. Potential TRN-specific degradation of MBK-2 does not result in the growth of long ALM-PN. (A) Gene structure of *mbk-2* downloaded from Wormbase.org (WS292); the exon structures of 14 isoforms are shown. Dashed box is enlarged to show the GFP insertion site. (B) Expression of MBK-2::GFP in adult animals with or without the TRN-specific expression of ZIF-1 fused with anti-GFP nanobodies (*vhhGFP4::ZIF-1*). No GFP signals (dashed circles) were detected in TRNs labeled by *mec-17p::TagRFP*, but GFP signals (arrows) were found in the embryos (with potential concentration in the P lineage). (C) Quantification of ALM-PN length in various strains. n.s. indicates no statistical significance in a post-ANOVA Tukey's HSD test. Four asterisks indicate *p* < 0.0001 in comparison with the wild-type animals.

Anti-p-S172 β-tubulin

Figure 3-figure supplement 3. Kinase assay for MBK-2 in BRB80 buffer. 500 nM recombinant MEC-12/MEC-7 heterodimer and 1 mM ATP were incubated with various concentration of MBK-2. Western blot of the kinase reaction samples was done using the anti-phospho-S172 antibodies.

A

		31	40	50
Ce	MEC-12	QPDGQMPSD	K	SLGGSDDSFS
Ce	TBA-1	QPDGTMPSDQ	Q	ADG--ESFT
Ce	TBA-2	QPDGTMPTQ	S	TNEG--ESFT
Dm	TBA1	QPDGQMPSD	K	TVGGGDDSFN
Dm	TBA2	QPDGHMPSD	K	TVGGGDDSFS
Dm	TBA3	QPDGQMPSD	K	TVGGGDDSFN
Xl	TBA1	QPDGQMPSD	K	TIGGGDDSFN
Hs	TUBA1A	QPDGQMPSD	K	TIGGGDDSFN
Hs	TUBA3C	QPDGQMPSD	K	TIGGGDDSFN
Hs	TUBA4A	QPDGQMPSD	K	TIGGGDDSFT
Hs	TUBA8	QADGTFDAQ	A	SKINDDDSFT

B

		241	252	260
Ce	MEC-7	RFPGQLNADLR	K	LAVNMVPF
Ce	TBB-1	RFPGQLNADLR	K	LAVNMVPF
Ce	TBB-2	RFPGQLNADLR	K	LAVNMVPF
Ce	BEN-1	RFPGQLNADLR	K	LAVNMVPF
Dm	TBB1	RFPGQLNADLR	K	LAVNMVPF
Dm	TBB3	RFPGQLNADLR	K	LAVNMVPF
Xl	TBB2	RFPGQLNADLR	K	LAVNMVPF
Xl	TBB5	RFPGQLNADLR	K	LAVNMVPF
Hs	TUBB	RFPGQLNADLR	K	LAVNMVPF
Hs	TUBB2B	RFPGQLNADLR	K	LAVNMVPF
Hs	TUBB3	RFPGQLNADLR	K	LAVNMVPF

1218
1219 **Figure 4-figure supplement 1. Evolutionary conservation of α-tubulin K40 and β-tubulin**
1220 **K252 residues.** (A) Comparison of K40 (highlighted) and the flanking sequences (a.a. 31-40) in
1221 MEC-12 with other α-tubulin genes across species. Ce for *C. elegans*, Dm for *Drosophila*
1222 *melanogaster*, Xl for *Xenopus laevis*, and Hs for *Homo sapiens*. (B) The conservation of K252
1223 (highlighted) and the adjacent sequences (a.a. 241-260) among β-tubulin genes across species.

1231
1232
Figure 4-figure supplement 2. *mec-12* K40R and K40Q mutations and the combined loss of *mec-17* and *atat-2* affect α-tubulin K40 acetylation. (A) Anti-acetyl-K40 staining of the wild-type, *mec-12(K40R)*, and *mec-12(K40Q)* animals. Only the wild-type animals showed the staining in TRNs. Neither *mec-12(K40R)* nor *mec-12(K40Q)* mutants showed any staining. Arrows point to the staining signal in cell bodies or axons. Scale bar = 20 μm. (B-C) Anti-acetyl-K40 staining of acetyltransferase mutants. *mec-17(dW)*, *mec-17(-)*, and *atat-2(-)* single mutants showed clear staining signal, whereas the *mec-17; atat-2* double mutants showed no signal at all. Arrows point to the staining signal in the neurites. Scale bar = 20 μm.

```
TBA-8    EGEFMEARDDLAALEKDYAEVSRDTADLEEENDEF---------  452
TBA-6    EGEFSEAREDMAALEKDYEEIGEDELPDDIDDQSYRGRSSGSRY  464
TBA-5    EGEFSEAREDMAALEKDYEEVGVDSFDPNDEEY-----------  447
TBA-9    EGEFSEAREDLAALEKDYEEVGLDAGEPDEEDD-------YSHY  456
TBA-7    EGEFSEAREDLAALEKDYEEVGADSDANDNG---------DDEY  444
MEC-12   EGEFSEAREDLAALEKDYEEVGVDSMEDNG-EE-------GDEY  450
TBA-4    EGEFTEAREDLAALEKDYEEVGADSNEGL-EED-------GEEY  448
TBA-1    EGEFTEAREDLAALEKDYEEVGADSNEGGNEEE-------GEEY  454
TBA-2    EGEFTEAREDLAALEKDYEEVGADSNEGGEE-E-------GEEY  448
         ****  ***:*:******* ** .  *
```

1253
1254   **Figure 5-figure supplement 1. Sequence divergence of α-tubulin C-terminal tails in *C.***
1255   ***elegans.*** Comparison of the amino acid sequences of the C-terminal region of the α-tubulin
1256   isotypes. The last twelve amino acids of MEC-12 are highly divergent among the isotypes
1257   (boxed region).
1258
1259
1260
1261

1262
1263   **Figure 5-figure supplement 2. Mutations in *klp-7* result in the growth of an ectopic ALM-**
1264   **PN.** (A) The gene structure of *klp-7* (from Wormbase.org) and the nucleotides deleted in *unk171*
1265   and *unk179* alleles, which were generated by CRISPR/Cas9-mediated gene editing. (B) The
1266   ectopic ALM-PN in *klp-7(unk171)* mutants.

1273
Figure 5-figure supplement 3. The lack of cargo transport and mechanosensory defects in
***mec-12(4Es-A)* mutants.** (A) The normal localization of synaptic vesicles (GFP::RAB-3) to the
synaptic branch (arrows) of PLM-AN in *mec-12(4Es-A)* mutants. Focal plane 1 focuses on the
neurites, while focal plane 2 focuses on the ventral cord. (B) Distribution of mitochondria in the
ALM-AN of *mec-12(4Es-A)* mutants. (C) Quantification of the number of mito::GFP puncta in
the distal segment (150~300 μm from the cell body) of ALM-AN. (D) Anterior touch response in
the *mec-12(4Es-A)* mutants.

```
A   TBB-6   EFTDAENKVNDLISEFQQYE KVHSA------------------ 426
    TBB-1   EFTEAESNMNDLISEYQQYQEATAEDEPLDEFAG-EGETYESEQ 449
    TBB-2   EFTEAESNMNDLISEYQQYQEATAEDDVDGYAEGEAGETYESEQ 450
    BEN-1   EFTEAESNMNDLVSEYQQYQEATAEEDGE--LDGTDGDAE---- 444
    MEC-7   EFTEAESNMNDLVSEYQQYQEAAADEDAAEAF-DGE-------- 441
    TBB-4   EFTEAESNMNDLVSEYQQYQEATADDEGEFDEHDQDVE------ 444
            ***:**.::***:**:***:..  :
```

1301
Figure 6-figure supplement 1. Sequence divergence of the C-terminal tail among β-tubulin
1302
isotypes and the molecular details of *ttll-12* CRISPR allele. (A) Comparison of the amino acid
1303
sequences of the C-terminal region of the β-tubulin isotypes in *C. elegans*. The last twelve amino
1304
acids of MEC-7 are divergent among the isotypes (boxed region). (B) Five nucleotides (red with
1305
strikethrough) were deleted in *ttll-12(unk185)* allele. (C) Anti-polyglutamylation staining of
1306
CGZ1474 *ttll-4(tm3310) III; ttll-11(tm4059) IV; ttll-5(tm3360) ttll-9(tm3889) ttll-15(tm3871) V;*
1307
ttll-12(unk185) II; zdIs5[mec-4p::GFP] I with GT335 antibodies and rhodamine-conjugated
1308
rabbit anti-mouse secondary antibodies. The staining pattern is similar to the quintuple mutants
1309
shown in Figure 6B.
1310
1311