LGL-1 and the RhoGAP protein PAC-1 redundantly control polarization of the *C. elegans* embryonic epidermal epithelium

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Abstract

The formation of an apical–basal axis of polarity is essential for the organization and functioning

of epithelial cells. Apical–basal polarity is established by cortical polarity proteins that define the

apical, junctional, and basolateral domains. While cortical polarity proteins are highly conserved

and present in most epithelia, the mechanisms that establish polarity and the requirements for

canonical polarity factors can vary between tissues and organisms. For example, the basolateral

polarity protein lethal giant larvae (Lgl) is essential for the polarization of most *Drosophila*

epithelia, yet is dispensable for epithelial polarization and viability in *C. elegans*.

To better understand the epithelial polarity program in *C. elegans*, we performed a whole-

genome RNAi screen for synthetic lethality with an *lgl-1* deletion mutant. We found that

combined loss of LGL-1 and the RhoGAP protein PAC-1 (RhoGAP19D in flies) leads to embryonic

lethality due to defects in elongation and rupturing of the epidermis. We observed

mislocalization of junctional proteins to the lateral domain of epidermal cells, presumably

weakening tissue integrity. Furthermore, we observed expansion of the apical domain, sporadic

aPKC mislocalization, and localization of the basolateral polarity protein LET-413[Scribble] in patches

surrounded by DLG-1[Discs large]. These observations indicate that the combined loss of LGL-1 and

PAC-1 leads to an overactivity of apical domain specifying factors. Consistent with this, partial

inactivation of the apical polarity regulators aPKC or CDC-42 reduced the lethality of *pac-1(RNAi);*

lgl-1(null) animals. Taken together, our findings identify *pac-1* and *lgl-1* as redundant inhibitors of

apical polarity factors. While their relative contribution to the epithelial polarity program differ

from fly epithelia, the canonical apical-basal polarity machinery is thus active in the embryonic

epidermis of *C. elegans* – providing new insight into how conserved mechanisms are adapted

across species.

Introduction

The form and functioning of epithelial cells are dependent on their organization along an apical–
basal axis of polarity. Epithelial polarity is established by conserved polarity regulators that
engage in mutually antagonistic interactions to establish distinct apical, lateral, and basal
membrane domains, and position cell junctions [1–4]. Specification of the apical domain involves
the activities of the partitioning defective proteins Par3 (Bazooka in *Drosophila*) and Par6, atypical
protein kinase C (aPKC), the small Rho GTPase Cdc42, the transmembrane protein Crumbs, and
its intracellular adapter Pals1 (Stardust in *Drosophila*). Formation of the basolateral domain
depends on the Scribble module proteins Scribble (Scrib), Discs large (Dlg), and Lethal giant
larvae (Lgl), as well as on the kinase Par1.

Mutual inhibition between aPKC and Lgl plays a central role in the network of antagonistic
interactions that establish apical–basal polarity. At the apical domain, aPKC phosphorylates a
range of polarity proteins to mediate their exclusion from the plasma membrane, including Lgl
[5–9]. aPKC strongly interacts with Par6, and formation of an Par6/aPKC complex is necessary for
both localization and activity of aPKC [10–12]. Par6 can locate aPKC to the apical membrane
domain by interacting with Par3 or Cdc42, both of which can bind Par6 and recruit Par6/aPKC to
the membrane [11,13–18]. Full activation of the kinase activity of aPKC is promoted by binding to
Cdc42, and in the *C. elegans* zygote Par6/aPKC have been shown to shuttle between an inactive
PAR-3 complex and an active CDC-42 complex [11,12,14,19–22]. Binding of Par6/aPKC to Cdc42
also increases the affinity of Par6 for Crumbs, and handoff from Cdc42 to Crumbs may further
stabilize active Par6/aPKC at the membrane [15,20,23]. At the basolateral domain, Lgl is required
to antagonize the activity of Par6/aPKC [24–26]. Lgl forms a ternary complex with Par6/aPKC via
multiple interaction interfaces [8,27,28]. However, it is still unclear if the antagonistic activity
towards aPKC is based on inhibition of kinase activity or if Lgl prevents phosphorylation of other
aPKC targets by competitively keeping aPKC engaged with processive Lgl phosphorylation.

While these cortical polarity determinants are highly conserved in metazoans, much of our
understanding of their functioning in apical–basal polarity establishment in epithelia is based on
studies in *Drosophila.* It is clear, however, that there is considerable variation in the mechanisms
that establish apical–basal polarity between different organisms and between different epithelial
tissues in the same organism. For example, in *Drosophila*, not all epithelial tissues that express
Crumbs depend on it to establish polarity [29–31], while all three *C. elegans* Crumbs family
members collectively are dispensable for polarity establishment [32,33]. Recent studies in

Drosophila have also shown that the enterocytes of the midgut do not require any of the

canonical polarity factors and appear to use a different mode of polarization [34]. It is important

therefore to investigate the mechanisms that underly apical–basal polarization in different

developmental and organismal contexts, and determine how universal the roles of different

polarity modules are.

The *C. elegans* Lgl ortholog LGL-1 is a striking example of how polarity proteins may vary in their

importance in epithelial polarization. While *Drosophila* Lgl is essential for epithelial polarity

establishment, *C. elegans* lacking LGL-1 are viable and show no defects in polarity establishment.

[35,36]. In the one cell embryo, the lack of an essential role for LGL-1 may be explained by the

presence of the *C. elegans* specific protein PAR-2, which acts redundantly with LGL-1 [35,36].

However, expression of PAR-2 is limited to the germ lineage while LGL-1 is broadly expressed

[35–37]. LGL-1 may also antagonize aPKC in the spermatheca, as *lgl-1* mutants were found as

suppressors of a temperature sensitive *aPKC* allele that causes junction breaks in the

spermatheca and leads to sterility [38]. It is not known, however, whether LGL-1 functions

similarly in other epithelia or why loss of LGL-1 does not cause epithelial polarity defects.

Another polarity regulator whose functioning may differ between *Drosophila* and *C. elegans* is the

RhoGAP protein PAC-1 (RhoGAP19D in *Drosophila* and ARHGAP21 in mammals). PAC-1 was

identified as a regulator of radial polarization of *C. elegans* blastomeres, mediating the

asymmetric enrichment of Par6/aPKC to the outer contact-free cell surfaces [39]. E-cadherin-

dependent recruitment of PAC-1 to sites of cell–cell contact is thought to locally inactivate CDC-

42, restricting recruitment of Par6/aPKC by CDC-42 to the outer surfaces [39,40]. Additionally, in

epidermal cells of the embryo, PAC-1 is involved in regulating junctional actin organization and

the levels of AJ proteins, likely also by regulating CDC-42 activity [41]. However, *pac-1* is not an

essential gene. Loss of *pac-1* causes defects in cell positioning during gastrulation but >90% of

embryos hatch and develop normally [41]. In contrast, *Drosophila* RhoGAP19D was identified as

an essential protein that antagonizes aPKC at the lateral domain [42]. RhoGAP19D is recruited to

the lateral domain of follicle cells by the E-cadherin complex, and its loss leads to ectopic lateral

Cdc42 activity, increased Par6/aPKC activity, and expansion of the apical domain. *rhogap19d*

mutants die at various stages of development, indicating a broad role of RhoGAP19D in epithelial

polarization [42].

Here, we investigate the role of LGL-1 in polarity establishment in *C. elegans*. We performed an

RNAi-based synthetic lethality screen in an *lgl-1* deletion background and found that the

combined loss of *lgl-1* and *pac-1* leads to a fully penetrant lethal phenotype, with most animals

arresting at the embryonic elongation stage with frequent rupturing of the epidermis. The

rupturing is likely due to severe defects apical–basal polarization and apical junction formation in

the epidermis. We show that the lethality of combined *lgl-1* and *pac-1* loss can be reduced by

lowering the levels or activity of the apical polarity proteins CDC-42 or aPKC. These experiments

are the first demonstration that LGL-1 and PAC-1 act together in epithelial polarization in *C.*

elegans, likely by redundantly controlling aPKC activity. As LGL-1 has now been shown to act

redundantly with a second polarity regulator in two tissues, we speculate that such redundancy

is a general feature of LGL-1 in *C. elegans*. Our data thus imply that differences in essentiality of

cortical polarity regulators reflect changes in the strengths of the wiring of the different

connections in the epithelial polarity network, rather than major differences in the mode of

polarization.

Results

The RhoGAP protein PAC-1 acts redundantly with LGL-1 in embryonic

development

Previously, LGL-1 was shown to act redundantly with PAR-2 during polarity establishment in the

one cell embryo. To identify genes that may act redundantly with *lgl-1* in other developmental

stages, we performed an RNAi-based enhancer screen. We first generated the *lgl-1(mib44)*

deletion allele by replacing most of the *lgl-1* coding sequence with *GFP* expressed from the *myo-2*

promoter (Fig. S1A). We then used this strain to perform a whole-genome feeding RNAi screen

using the Ahringer feeding library in an automated robotics pipeline [43,44] (Fig. S1B). We

identified 79 RNAi clones that caused stronger fitness or developmental defects in *lgl-1(mib44)*

animals compared to wild-type controls. We discarded 27 of these that are frequently identified

as enhancers in the screening pipeline as likely false positives. Of the remaining clones, 5

retested positive by feeding RNAi on plates using sequence-verified RNAi clones (Fig. S1C). We

decided to focus on the RhoGAP encoding gene *pac-1* because of the strong synthetic lethality

displayed with *lgl-1* and its previously described roles in radial polarization of early embryonic

blastomeres and regulation of CDC-42 [28,39,45,45].

To further investigate the interaction between *pac-1* and *lgl-1*, we generated the *pac-1(mib269)*

deletion allele, which removes the entire *pac-1* coding sequence. We also generated a second *lgl-*

1 deletion allele *(mib201)*, replacing the GFP in *mib44* with BFP to mitigate imaging problems due

to the extreme brightness of *Pmyo-2::GFP* (Fig. S1A). The *lgl-1* and *pac-1* deletion strains are viable

and behave as previously described strains carrying loss-of-function alleles. Deletion of *lgl-1* does

not cause apparent developmental defects [35,36], while loss of *pac-1* causes ~10% embryonic

lethality with the remain animals developing normally [39,41] (Fig. 1A). In contrast, injection of

pac-1 dsRNA in *lgl-1(mib201)* or of *lgl-1* dsRNA in *pac-1(mib269)* resulted in nearly complete

embryonic lethality (Fig. 1A). To further confirm the genetic interaction, we generated animals

homozygous for *pac-1(mib269)* and heterozygous for *lgl-1(mib44)* and examined their offspring.

Interestingly, progeny from these *pac-1(mib269); lgl-1(mib44)/+* parents showed 43% embryonic

or early larval lethality rather than the expected 25%, indicating that the *lgl-1* deletion allele is

partially haplo-insufficient (Fig. 1A). Consistent with this interpretation, among the surviving

animals, 45% expressed GFP, and hence carried at least one copy of the *lgl-1* deletion allele,

rather than the expected 67%.

Differential interference contrast (DIC) microscopy of *lgl-1(mib201); pac-1(RNAi)* and *pac-*

1(mib269); lgl-1(mib44) embryos revealed that most arrest during the elongation phase of

embryonic development (Fig. 1B), with a bulging epidermis and frequent ruptures of the

epidermis (Fig. 1C). Together, these experiments show that *pac-1* and *lgl-1* are redundantly

required for embryonic development. As inactivation of *pac-1* by RNAi or gene deletion caused

indistinguishable results, most further experiments were done with *pac-1(RNAi)* for ease of use.

 Figure 1. The RhoGAP protein PAC-1 acts redundantly with LGL-1 in embryonic development.

(**A**) Embryonic lethality observed in progeny of animals of indicated genotypes. Data is represented

as mean ± SD and analyzed with a Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn's multiple pairwise

comparison test; ns = $p > 0.05$, *** = $p < 0.0005$, **** = $p < 0.0001$. (**B**) Stage of embryonic arrest of

double mutant *lgl-1(mib201); pac-1(RNAi)* and *pac-1(mib269); lgl-1(mib44)* embryos. Because of the

haplo-insufficiency of *lgl-1* loss*,* homozygous *pac-1(mib269); lgl-1(mib201)* embryos were derived from

pac-1(mib269); lgl-1::GFP(crk66)/lgl-1(mib201) parents, so they could be unambiguously identified by

the absence of GFP expression. (**C**) Representative DIC images of wild-type, *pac-1(mib269); lgl-*

1(mib44), and *pac-1(RNAi); lgl-1(mib201)* embryos. Strains used: CGC1, BOX1221, BOX919.

PAC-1 and LGL-1 redundantly control the positioning of apical junctions

Embryonic elongation is dependent on adherens junctions, and the defects we observe in

embryos lacking *lgl-1* and *pac-1,* including the 2-fold arrest and rupturing of the epidermis, are

also observed in embryos with defects in junctional integrity [46–48]. Moreover, loss of PAC-1

was previously shown to block elongation in embryos carrying the hypomorphic HMP-1/α-

catenin mutant *fe4,* which has reduced actin binding capability [41,49]. We therefore investigated

if combined loss of *pac-1* and *lgl-1* results in defects in junctional integrity in embryonic

epidermal cells. We visualized the distribution of each of the three junctional complexes [50] in

pac-1(RNAi); lgl-1(mib201) embryos using a representative protein endogenously fused to a

fluorescent protein. We imaged HMR-1::GFP (E-cadherin) from the cadherin/catenin complex

(CCC), AFD-1::GFP (Afadin) from the SAX-7/MAGI-1/AFD-1 complex (SMAC) and DLG-1::mCherry

from the DLG-1/AJM-1 complex (DAC) [50].

Consistent with our DIC observations, time-lapse imaging of DLG-1::mCherry or a membrane

marker, the PH domain fused to GFP (PH::GFP), in *lgl-1(mib201); pac-1(RNAi)* embryos showed that

most double mutant embryos completed ventral closure and arrested during elongation with

rupturing of the epidermis visible as expulsion of internal cells (Fig. S2A and Videos S1, 2). We

observed ruptures on both the ventral and dorsal side of the embryos, and at multiple positions

along the anterior–posterior body axis. Thus, the weakening of the epidermis does not appear to

be limited to any particular region.

In 3D confocal imaging, we observed aberrant lateral spreading of each of the three junctional

proteins, in addition to their normal subapical localization (visible as double lines in maximum

intensity projections, see arrowheads in Fig. 2A). The defects were most severe for DLG-1, which

also showed gaps in the normally continuous junctional band (arrows in Figs. 2A and S2B). To

better visualize the basolateral mislocalization, we imaged DLG-1 together with PH::GFP. In cross-
sections of *pac-1(RNAi); lgl-1(mib201)* embryos, DLG-1 was spread along the lateral membrane
compared to the tight subapical localization observed in controls expressing wild-type *lgl-1* and
pac-1 (Fig 2B). Finally, we rendered image stacks of embryos expressing HMR-1::GFP and DLG-
1::mCherry in 3D. Control animals showed the expected subapical localization of both proteins,
with HMR-1 signal appearing slightly more apical than DLG-1 (Fig. 2C, junctions 'i' and 'ii').
However, in *pac-1(RNAi); lgl-1(mib201)* embryos, DLG-1 and HMR-1 were spread along the lateral
membrane (Fig. 2C, junction 'iii'). The two proteins did not mix completely but showed remaining
organization with regions expressing predominantly DLG-1 being flanked by HMR-1 signal.
Additionally, we observed ring-like structures where junctional material appeared to encircle a
junction-free area on the lateral domain (Fig. 2C, junction 'iv').

To determine if the defects in junction formation are due to a loss of stability of DLG-1 protein at
the membrane, we performed fluorescence recovery after photobleaching (FRAP) experiments
using a DLG-1::mCherry endogenous fusion protein. The recovery of DLG-1 was not affected by
loss of *lgl-1* and *pac-1,* indicating that the junctional defects are not due to reduced stability of
DLG-1 at the membrane (Fig. S2C, D). Furthermore, time-lapse imaging of DLG-1 showed that
regions lacking DLG-1 protein remained stable over time (Videos S3, 4). Thus, the DLG-1
positioning defects observed in *pac-1; lgl-1* embryos do not appear to stem from a general
change in stability of DLG-1 at the membrane, but rather from defects in specifying the
positioning of junctional components.

Finally, loss of *pac-1* was previously shown to increase embryonic lethality in the genetically
sensitized *hmp-1(fe4)* background. The *fe4* allele encodes a HMP-1[α-catenin] variant with reduced
actin binding that has been used to identify multiple genes that play a role in adherens junction
(AJ) functioning [49,51–53]. To determine if *lgl-1* may directly affect AJs, we inactivated *lgl-1* in the
hmp-1(fe4) background. In contrast to *pac-1*, we did not observe any changes in survival of *hmp-
1(fe4)* progeny after injection of *lgl-1* dsRNA (Fig. 2D). This observation argues against a primary
role for *lgl-1* in regulating cell junctions.

In summary, the combined loss of *lgl-1* and *pac-1* leads to severe defects in the integrity of apical
cell junctions, which are likely the cause of the epidermal rupturing and elongation arrest. Unlike
pac-1, *lgl-1* does not synergize with junction compromised *hmp-1(fe4)* mutants, indicating that *lgl-
1* does not directly regulate AJ formation or functioning.

Figure 2. Aberrant localization of junctional marker proteins in *lgl-1(mib201); pac-1(RNAi)*

embryos compared to controls. (**A**) Maximum intensity projections of 3D stacks taken with a

spinning disc confocal microscope showing the localization of DLG-1::mCherry, AFD-1::GFP and HMR-

1::GFP. Arrowheads indicate sites of additional basal junctional signal. Asterisk indicates gap in

junctional band. Strains used: BOX804, BOX940, BOX258, BOX943. (**B**) Single plane internal view

showing the localization of DLG-1::mCherry in respect to the PH::GFP membrane marker. Enlarged

versions of the boxed regions are shown below each panel. Images were taken on a spinning disc

confocal microscope. Strains used: BOX1076, BOX1077. (**C**) 3D rendering of Airyscan confocal images

showing DLG-1::mCherry and HMR-1::GFP. Lateral views of the boxed junctions are depicted to the

right of the whole embryo images. Strains used: BOX804, BOX940. (**D**) Percentage of lethal embryos

from *hmp-1(fe4)* and upon knockdown of *lgl-1* or *pac-1*. Data is represented as mean ± SD and

analyzed with a Brown-Forsythe and Welch ANOVA test followed by Dunnett's T3 multiple

comparison test; ns = $p > 0.05$, **** = $p < 0.0001$.

Loss of LGL-1 and PAC-1 disrupts apical–basal polarity in the embryonic epidermis

Since both LGL-1 and PAC-1 are thought to directly or indirectly regulate aPKC localization or

activity, the junctional defects in *pac-1; lgl-1* embryos may be a result of defects in apical–basal

polarization. To investigate this, we examined the localization pattern of aPKC using an

endogenous N-terminal GFP::aPKC fusion protein (Castiglioni et al., 2020a). Consistent with

previous reports, GFP::aPKC was enriched at the apical cortex and at cell junctions of epidermal

epithelial cells during elongation (Fig. 3A). In *pac-1(RNAi); lgl-1(mib201)* embryos, aPKC occupied a

broader region apical to cell junctions, indicating enlargement of the apical domain (arrows in

Fig. 3A and Fig. S3A). Consistent with an expansion of the apical domain, cells appeared more

dome shaped than in wild-type controls (Fig. 3B). To quantify this, we determined the tortuosity

of the apical domains, defined as the ratio of the length of the apical surface to the direct

distance between its end points (the junctions). We indeed observed a significantly increased

tortuosity of 1.06 compared to 1.03 in controls (Fig. 3C).

In addition to the expanded apical domain, we found that in areas with ectopic lateral DLG-1

distribution, aPKC also localized laterally, directly adjacent to or interspersed with the DLG-1

signal. This was especially apparent in lateral regions where DLG-1 was present in a ring-like

structure (arrowheads in Fig. 3A and Fig. S3A). To further investigate the polarization in these

regions, we examined the localization of LET-413[Scribble], which is normally uniformly distributed

along the basolateral membrane and enriched at junctions. In *pac-1(RNAi); lgl-1(mib201)* embryos,

we observed lateral regions in which LET-413 was absent (Fig. 3D). Strikingly, in lateral areas with

a ring-like distribution of DLG-1, LET-413 was enriched within the ring and absent outside of it

(Fig. 3D and S3B). Thus, loss of *pac-1* and *lgl-1* can lead to patches of basolateral identity

surrounded by junctional material and aPKC.

As aPKC can be recruited by CDC-42, and PAC-1 is a RhoGAP for CDC-42, we also attempted to

determine if loss of LGL-1 and PAC-1 affects the activity of CDC-42 using a biosensor consisting of

the WSP-1 G-protein binding domain fused to GFP expressed from the *cdc-42* promoter

(GFP::GBD$_{WSP-1}$) [41,55,56]. However, the GFP::GBD$_{WSP-1}$ biosensor was strongly expressed and

uniformly localized to the entire cell cortex of embryonic epidermal cells, and therefore not likely

to be able to detect the local changes in CDC-42 activity expected from a loss of PAC-1. Indeed,

we observed no significant changes in apical GFP::GBD$_{WSP-1}$ membrane levels upon inactivation of

lgl-1 and *pac-1* (Fig. S3C, D).

Taken together, these data indicate that the combined loss of LGL-1 and PAC-1 results in a shift

in the balance of apical vs. basolateral specifying activities towards promotion of apical identity.

In most cells, this manifests as an expansion of the apical domain but in severe cases this can

lead to a largely apicalized cell membrane with small patches of basolateral domain (Fig. 3E).

Figure 3. Loss of *lgl-1* and *pac-1* disrupts apical-basal polarity in the embryonic epidermis. (A)

3D rendering of Airyscan confocal images showing DLG-1::mCherry and aPKC::GFP. Lateral views of

the boxed regions are depicted below the whole embryo images. Asterisk indicates expanded aPKC

domain and arrowheads indicate lateral mislocalization of aPKC. Strains used: BOX1160, BOX1161.

(**B**) Single plane internal view showing the curvature of the apical domain of the epidermal cells using

the PH::GFP as membrane marker. Enlarged versions of the boxed regions are shown below each

panel. Images were taken on a spinning disc confocal microscope. Strains used: BOX1076, BOX1077.

(**C**) Quantification of the tortuosity of the epidermal cell apical domain. Each point is the average

tortuosity of ≥10 cells in the embryo. Data is represented as mean ± SD and analyzed using the

unpaired t test; ** = $p ≤ 0.010$. (**D**) 3D rendering of Airyscan confocal images showing DLG-1::GFP and

LET-413::mCherry. Lateral views of the boxed junctions are depicted below the whole embryo

images. Strains used: BOX527, BOX1100. (**E**) 3D rendering of Airyscan confocal image showing an

extreme case of DLG-1::GFP and LET-413::mCherry mislocalization. Strain used: BOX1100.

PAC-1 and LGL-1 act in parallel to antagonize aPKC and CDC-42

If the loss of *lgl-1* and *pac-1* leads to higher level of apical versus basolateral domain specifying

activities, then reducing the activity of other apical polarity regulators might partially restore the

defects observed in *pac-1; lgl-1* embryos. Two obvious candidates for inactivation are CDC-42 as

the presumed target of PAC-1, and aPKC as a major apical domain specifying factor that is

counteracted by Lgl.

The complete loss of *cdc-42* leads to embryonic lethality. We therefore partially inactivated *cdc-42*

using RNAi by bacterial feeding, which causes only ~15% lethality by itself (mostly during

embryonic development) (Fig. 4A). To avoid complications from performing double RNAi, we

examined the effect of *cdc-42* RNAi on the offspring of *pac-1(mib269); lgl-1(mib201)/lgl-1::GFP*

parents. We only counted animals expressing BFP in the pharynx, which are homozygous or

heterozygous for the *lgl-1(mib201)* deletion. Consistent with our observation that *lgl-1* loss is

partially haplo-insufficient, in control populations 45% of viable offspring expressed BFP (as

opposed to the expected 67% if *lgl-1* was not haplo-insufficient) (Fig. 4B). On plates with *cdc-42*

RNAi bacteria, the fraction of BFP positive animals increased from 45% to 70% (Fig. 4B).

Importantly, when examining adult BFP expressing progeny in detail by confocal microscopy,

21/131 did not express any LGL-1::GFP, and were therefore homozygous *pac-1; lgl-1* mutants (Fig.

4C, D). Thus, reducing the levels of CDC-42 can partially rescue the embryonic lethality caused by

loss of *lgl-1* and *pac-1*.

Like CDC-42, the complete loss of aPKC is embryonic lethal. To investigate the effect of reducing

aPKC activity on animals lacking LGL-1 and PAC-1, we therefore used the temperature sensitive

allele a*PKC(ne4250),* which was contains an H390Q in the kinase domain [57]. We generated an

a*PKC(ts); lgl-1(mib201)* double mutant strain and inactivated *pac-1* by dsRNA injection. The

reduced aPKC activity at the semi-permissive temperature of 20°C significantly restored

embryonic viability of *pac-1(RNAi); lgl-1(mib201)* animals, from 17% in controls to 63% (Fig. 4E). We

also investigated the appearance of cell junctions in a*PKC(ts); pac-1(RNAi); lgl-1(mib201)* animals in

a strain expressing DLG-1::mCherry as well as an endogenous PAC-1::GFP fusion protein that

labels all PAC-1 isoforms (Fig. S4). At the semi-permissive temperature, the reduced aPKC activity

rescued the junctional defects of the *pac-1; lgl-1* mutant animals (Fig. 4F). Moreover, the presence

of PAC-1::GFP allowed us to rule out that the rescue by *aPKC(ts)* is due to an effect on *pac-1* RNAi

efficiency, as we observed the expected strong reduction of PAC-1::GFP signal (Fig. 4F).

The rescue of the combined loss of PAC-1 and LGL-1 by reducing the function of CDC-42 or aPKC

is consistent with PAC-1 and LGL-1 acting in parallel pathways that both regulate aPKC activity.

We therefore wanted to investigate the relative contributions of PAC-1 and LGL-1 to the

regulation of aPKC. To accomplish this, we determined whether the loss of PAC-1 or LGL-1

individually could compensate for the embryonic lethality associated with partial loss of aPKC or

CDC-42. Strikingly, loss of *lgl-1* increased the viability of both *cdc-42(RNAi)* and *aPKC(ts)* embryos,

but the loss of *pac-1* had no significant effect (Fig. 4G, H).

Taken together our findings support a model in which PAC-1 and LGL-1 act in parallel to antagonize

the apical polarizing activities of aPKC and CDC-42. Since individual loss of LGL-1, but not of PAC-

1, also suppresses the embryonic lethality of *cdc-42(RNAi)* or *aPKC(ts)* embryos, LGL-1 appears to

play a stronger role in the network of inhibitory interactions that establish apical–basal polarity

than PAC-1, while PAC-1 may play a more local role at cell junctions.

Figure 4. Reduction of CDC-42 or aPKC function rescues the pac-1; lgl-1 embryonic lethality. (**A**) Percentage of viable wild type embryos on empty vector (EV) and cdc-42 RNAi feeding plates. Data is represented as mean ± SD and analyzed with Mann-Whitney test; **** = p <0.0001. (**B**) Percentage of the offspring of *pac-1(mib269); lgl-1(mib201)/lgl-1::gfp* animals on either empty vector or cdc-42 RNAi feeding plates, which contain the *lgl-1(mib201)* allele. Data is represented as mean ± SD and analyzed with unpaired t-test with Welch's correction; **** = p <0.0001. (**C**) Genotype of offspring of *pac-1(mib269); lgl-1(mib201)/lgl-1::gfp* parents on empty vector or cdc-42 RNAi plates. (EV n= 390, *cdc-42*

RNAi n= 254) (**D**) Single plane images of pharyngeal markers showing examples of two genotypes of

animals from the cdc-42 RNAi plates. Strain used: BOX1176. (**E**) Percentage of viable *pac-1(RNAi); lgl-*

1(mib201) embryos in control and upon the partial reduction of aPKC(ts) activity at the semi-

permissive temperature of 20°C. Data is represented as mean ± SD and analyzed with Mann-Whitney

test; **** = $p < 0.0001$. (**F**) Maximum intensity projections of 3D stacks taken with a spinning disc

confocal microscope showing the localization of DLG-1::mCherry and PAC-1::GFP. Images of PAC-

1::GFP were processed using SAIBR for spectral auto fluorescence correction [58]. Arrowheads

indicate ectopic basal junctional signals. Strains used: BOX1179, BOX1177. (**G**) Percentage of viable

embryos from *aPKC(ts), aPKC(ts); lgl-1(mib201)* or *aPKC(ts); pac-1(mib269)*, at semi-permissive

temperature of 20°C. Data is represented as mean ± SD and analyzed with Kruskal-Wallis statistical

test with Dunn's multiple comparison test; ns = $p > 0.05$, ** = $p = 0.0012$. (**H**) Percentage of viable

embryos from wild-type, *lgl-1(mib201)* or *pac-1(mib269)* on *cdc-42* RNAi. Data is represented as mean

± SD and analyzed with Kruskal-Wallis statistical test with Dunn's multiple comparison test; ns = $p >$

0.05, * = $p = 0.0431$.

Discussion

Here we show that LGL-1 acts redundantly with the RhoGAP protein PAC-1 to control

morphogenesis of the embryonic epidermal epithelium of *C. elegans*. Loss of *lgl-1* alone does not

cause defects in cell polarization and does not affect viability. Loss of *pac-1* causes defects in cell

positioning during gastrulation, but ~90% of embryos recover and hatch with no morphological

defects [39,41]. In contrast, the combined loss of *pac-1* and *lgl-1* leads is fully penetrant lethal

phenotype. Most animals arrest as embryos around the 2-fold stage of elongation with severe

morphological defects in the epidermis, including rupture. These defects are likely caused by a

failure to properly polarize epidermal epithelial cells, as we observed an increased apical domain

size, defects in the localization of basolateral LET-413[Scribble], and severe defects in the positioning

of cell junctions.

The severe defects in apical–basal polarization strongly suggest that PAC-1 and LGL-1 act

redundantly to control epithelial polarity. At what level do these two proteins act redundantly? A

likely candidate is the regulation of aPKC. In flies and mammalian model systems, antagonism

between Lgl and aPKC is well established [1–4]. Previous studies in *C. elegans* have implicated

LGL-1 as a regulator of aPKC in the zygote and spermatheca. Loss of LGL-1 in one-cell embryos

that also lack PAR-2 results in an expansion of the anterior PAR-6–aPKC domain [35,36], and *lgl-1*

loss can suppress the sterility observed in a temperature sensitive *aPKC* mutant, which is likely

due to junctional defects in the spermatheca [38]. Our genetic analysis now indicates that LGL-1

acts as an inhibitor of aPKC activity in the epidermal epithelium. First, the combined loss of PAC-

1 and LGL-1 leads to increased apical domain size at the expense of the basolateral domain,

phenotypes consistent with overactivation of aPKC. Second, the lethality of combined loss of *pac-*

1 and *lgl-1* can be suppressed by reducing aPKC activity. Finally, loss of *lgl-1* alone suppresses the

embryonic lethality of *aPKC(ts)* mutants at the semi-permissive temperature. While additional

non-aPKC dependent roles are possible, the predominant function of LGL-1 in the epidermis

therefore likely is the inhibition of aPKC. Thus, *C. elegans* LGL-1 has now been shown to act as an

inhibitor of aPKC in multiple tissues.

PAC-1 was also identified as a regulator of aPKC during radial polarization of *C. elegans*

blastomeres. In *pac-1* mutant blastomere stage embryos, PAR-6 and aPKC localize uniformly to

the entire cell cortex rather than being enriched at the contact-free apical surface [39].

Experiments using constitutively active CDC-42 and PAR-6 mutants unable to bind to CDC-42

indicate that PAC-1 locally inactivates CDC-42 at cell–cell contacts to restrict PAR-6–aPKC

recruitment to the apical contact-free surface [39]. Inhibition of aPKC activity via downregulation

of Cdc42 is further supported by studies of the *Drosophila* PAC-1 ortholog RhoGAP19D. Similar to

Figure 5. Model of LGL-1 and PAC-1 function in the *C. elegans* embryonic epidermal cells.

Colored lines indicate the relative localization of proteins.

C. elegans blastomeres, RhoGAP19D is recruited to E-cadherin adhesion complexes in the

Drosophila follicular epithelium, and *rhogap19d* mutants show increased lateral Cdc42 activity

together with an expansion of the apical domain due to higher Par6–aPKC activity [42].

Moreover, *rhogap19d* mutant follicle cells invade the overlying germline cyst. This phenotype is

suppressed by loss of one copy of *aPKC*, and enhanced by loss of one copy of *lgl*, consistent with

our genetic analyses [42].

Interestingly, the roles of PAC-1 and CDC-42 have previously been investigated in the embryonic

epidermis. In that study, PAC-1 and CDC-42 were shown to be involved in regulating junctional

actin dynamics and adherens junction protein levels during elongation, but to be dispensable for

polarization and junction maturation [41]. Our data examining the roles of PAC-1 and CDC-42 in

an *lgl-1* mutant background now demonstrate that both proteins are important regulators of

epidermal cell polarity, consistent with the previously described function of PAC-1 in *C. elegans*

blastomeres [39], the essential role of CDC-42 regulating aPKC activity in the *C. elegans* zygote

[11], and the roles of orthologs of both proteins in other systems. Whether the previously

observed defects in actin regulation and adherens junction protein levels reflect aPKC

independent functions of CDC-42 and/or PAC-1 or are a manifestation of underlying minor

polarity defects remains to be determined. While the defects in polarization and junction

establishment are severe, we cannot exclude therefore that non-aPKC dependent roles of CDC-

42 and/or PAC-1 contribute to the morphogenesis defects of *pac-1 lgl-1* double mutants.

Taken together, the simplest model integrating our findings is that analogous to recent models

proposed for *Drosophila*, PAC-1 and LGL-1 act in parallel pathways that oppose aPKC activity (Fig.

5). In this model, LGL-1 directly binds to and inhibits PAR-6/aPKC, while PAC-1 indirectly reduces

aPKC activity by locally inactivating CDC-42. While the overall mechanisms of epithelial

polarization are thus conserved between *C. elegans* and *Drosophila*, important differences still

exist. In *C. elegans*, neither LGL-1 nor PAC-1 are essential proteins, whereas Lgl and RhoGAP19D

are both individually required for epithelial polarization [24,42,59]. Another difference is the

importance of the Crumbs proteins. While the single *Drosophila* Crumbs protein is essential for

epithelial polarization [60,61], a triple deletion strain lacking all three *C. elegans crumbs* genes is

viable and shows no polarity defects [33]. Nevertheless, minor defects in epithelial organization

upon loss of the Crumbs protein CRB-1 can been observed in a mutant background lacking the

Scribble ortholog *let-413* and the α-catenin ortholog *hmp-1* [62], and overexpression of the

Crumbs protein EAT-20 or CRB-3 in the intestine causes mild enlargement of the apical domain

[32]. One interpretation of these differences is that, for reasons remaining to be discovered,

regulation of aPKC is more critical in *Drosophila* than in *C. elegans.* Alternatively, the strength of

aPKC regulation by RhoGAP19D, Lgl, and Crumbs may be stronger in *Drosophila* than in *C.*

elegans, such that loss of any regulator more strongly affects overall aPKC activity levels.

Redundancy between Lgl and other polarity proteins may not be unique to *C. elegans*. The role of

Lgl proteins as negative regulators of aPKC is well established in mammalian models [8,9,63–66].

However, whether Lgl is broadly essential for polarity establishment in mammals has been

difficult to assess due to the presence of two paralogs, individual knockouts of which cause

tissue-specific and late appearing phenotypes. In mice, knockout of Lgl1 specifically affects

polarization of neuronal cells, and knockout mice die shortly after birth from severe

hydrocephalus [65], while Lgl2 knockout mice are born small due to a placental branching defect

but develop into normal adults [67]. In zebrafish, only cell-type specific roles have been reported

upon Lgl loss, including neuroepithelial polarity defects for Lgl1 [69] and basal and peridermal

formation defects for Lgl2 [66,70,71]. The presence of two paralogs may be an explanation for

the lack of more severe defects. However, a recent preprint study generating conditional double

knockouts found that mice lacking both *Lgl1* and *Lgl2* in the skin epidermis are viable and fertile

[72]. Thus, while the complete absence of polarity phenotypes upon Lgl loss appears unique to *C.*

elegans, Lgl proteins may well act redundantly with other polarity pathways in vertebrates as

well.

Finally, while we favor a model based on regulation of aPKC activity by PAC-1 via CDC-42, other

interpretations are possible. In the epidermis, degradation of CDC-42 does not block polarization

[41]. While apical PAR-6 levels are reduced, PAR-6 is still asymmetrically localized in CDC-42

depleted embryos. Thus, additional mechanisms to regulate PAR-6/aPKC localization may remain

to be discovered. A recent study of blastomere stage polarization has also suggested that PAC-1

may regulate aPKC independently of CDC-42 [73]. Quantitative analysis of aPKC levels showed

that the uniform localization of aPKC in *pac-1* mutants is due to a loss of apical aPKC rather than

to ectopic lateral recruitment. More importantly, CDC-42 degradation using the ZF1 degron did

not prevent aPKC polarization, yet in this CDC-42 depleted background *pac-1* RNAi still caused

aPKC to become uniformly localized. These results are inconsistent with PAC-1 acting via CDC-42.

As PAC-1 can act as a GAP for other Rho-family small GTPases [74], an alternative hypothesis that

was suggested is that PAC-1 acts via a different small GTPase. Our own genetic data cannot

elucidate whether PAC-1 acts solely via CDC-42 and aPKC. While the rescue of embryonic lethality

of *pac-1 lgl-1* double mutants by partial loss of *cdc-42* or *aPKC* is consistent with this, it was

surprising to us that loss of *pac-1* alone did not affect embryonic lethality of *cdc-42(RNAi)* or

aPKC(ts) animals. This result could be interpreted as PAC-1 not acting in the same pathway as

either CDC-42 or aPKC. However, even if PAC-1 were to act in a separate pathway controlling

apical–basal polarity, it's loss would still be expected to affect the phenotypes of other mutants

in polarity regulators, including CDC-42 or aPKC.

One difficulty in resolving the precise relationship between PAC-1, CDC-42, and aPKC is that we

cannot directly assess the activity of aPKC, and a currently available CDC-42 biosensor is not very

sensitive to small or local changes in CDC-42 activity, due to its strong and uniform cortical

localization. Only severe reductions in CDC-42 activity, *e.g.* through *cdc-42(RNAi)* or

overexpression of PAC-1, have been reported to result in consistent changes in localization of

the biosensor [41,56]. In *Drosophila,* analysis of Cdc42 sensors more clearly support that

RhoGAP19D acts via Cdc42, as RhoGAP19D loss results in lateral recruitment of the Cdc42

effectors N-WASP and Gek [42]. Moreover, induced recruitment of RhoGAP19D to the apical

domain mimics *cdc42* mutants. For these reasons, we consider it likely that PAC-1 does act

(predominantly) via CDC-42 and aPKC but plays a smaller role in regulating aPKC activity than

LGL-1. As long as LGL-1 is present, the loss of PAC-1 has little effect on aPKC activity.

In summary, our study shows that the overall network of proteins regulating epithelial polarity is

highly conserved in *C. elegans.* The surprising finding that LGL-1 is a non-essential protein does

not reflect an alternative mode of polarization but likely reflects variations in the strengths of

connections within this polarity network.

Methods

C. elegans strains and culture conditions

472 *C. elegans* strains were cultured under standard conditions [75]. Only hermaphrodites were used

473 and all experiments, until stated otherwise, were performed with animals grown at 15°C on

474 Nematode Growth Medium (NGM) agar plates seeded with *Escherichia coli* OP50 bacteria. Table 1

475 contains a list of all the strains used. All strains were derived from N2/CGC1.

CRISPR

The *lgl-1(mib44)* knockout allele and *afd-1(mib34)* knock-in allele, were generated using plasmid-

based expression of Cas9 and sgRNA using the self-excising cassette (SEC) for selection [76] and

the *lgl-1(mib201)*, *pac-1(mib269)*, *pac-1(mib296)* and *dlg-1(mib128)* were generated using a

plasmid-free approach [77]. The *lgl-1(mib44)* edit was made in N2 background and the other edits

were made in the CGC1 background. In cases where the sgRNA target site was not disrupted by

sequence integration, silent mutations were incorporated to prevent repeated DNA cleavage.

The sequences to generate the CRISPR alleles are found in table 2. The full genome sequences of

the final strains are available in Supplementary File 1.

For the plasmid-based CRISPR/Cas9 editing, the homology arms for *lgl-1(mib44)* were cloned in

SapTrap assembly vector pMLS257 [76]. The sgRNAs were expressed from a plasmid under a

control of a U6 promoter. To generate sgRNA vectors, antisense oligonucleotide pairs were

annealed and ligated into BbsI-linearized pJJR50 (Addgene ID #75026) [78]. Injection mixes were

prepared in MilliQ water and contained 50 ng/ml *Peft-3::cas9* (Addgene ID #46168) [79] 50-100

ng/ml *U6::sgRNA*, and 50-75 ng/ml of repair template. The mix contained 2.5 ng/ml of the co-

injection pharyngeal marker *Pmyo-2::tdTomato* to aid in the visual selection of transgenic strains.

Young adult hermaphrodite germlines were microinjected using an inverted microinjection setup

(Eppendorft FemtoJet 4x mounted on a Zeiss Axio Observer A. 1 equipped with an Eppendorf

Transferman 4r). The candidate edited progeny were selected on plates contain 250 ng/ml of

hygromycin [76] and correct genome editing was confirmed by Sanger sequencing (Macrogen).

From the correctly edited animals, the hygromycin selection cassette was excised by a heat

shock of L1 larvae at 34°C for 1 hour in a water bath.

For the knock-in and knockout strains generated using the plasmid-free approach, the repair

templates were PCR amplified using Q5 Hot Start Polymerase [77]. The amplification of the

repair template was done from the following pre-existing donor vectors: GFP from pJRK86

(Addgene ID #173743), BFP from pDD356, and mCherry from pRS004. The generated animals

were sequenced for correct gene editing by Sanger sequencing (Macrogen).

Genome wide-RNAi screen

The RNAi screen was conducted as described in [43]. The administered RNAi feeding used the

publicly available Ahringer RNAi clone library [44]. The primary screen was conducted using the

NYUAD high-throughput screening automated platform, using the wild-type N2 and *lgl-*

1(mib44) animals, in two replicates (described in [80]). From the screen, 79 clones caused

lethality, developmental delay or arrest, sterility, embryonic lethality or morphological defects in

the *lgl-1(mib44)* animals and not or to a lesser extent in the wild-type. 27 of the clones were

discarded as false positives, as they are frequently found in other RNAi screens done using the

same pipeline. The rest of the 52 clones were independently tested by putting L1 animals on

RNAi feeding using sequence verified Ahringer RNAi library clones (see section RNAi treatment).

RNAi treatment

All RNAi clones for the verification screen and targeted experiments were obtained from the genome wide Ahringer HT115 RNAi feeding library, supplied through Source BioScience, and verified using Sanger sequencing.

For feeding RNAi experiments, bacteria were pre-cultured in 2–4 ml lysogeny broth (LB) supplemented with 100 μg/ml ampicillin (Amp) and 2.5 μg/ml tetracycline (Tet) at 37°C in an incubator rotating at 220 rpm. Bacteria were then diluted 1:5 in 10 ml LB Amp/Tet for the genome-wide RNAi verification screen or 1:1000 in 25 ml LB Amp/Tet for the *cdc-42* RNAi feeding experiments. To induce production of dsRNA, the cultures were incubated for an hour with 1mM Isoporyl b-D-1-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG). Bacterial cultures were pelleted by centrifugation at 4000 g for 15 minutes at 4°C, and concentrated 5 times. NGM plates were supplemented with 100 μg/ml Amp, 2.5 μg/ml Tet and 1 mM IPTG, seeded with 200 μl of bacteria, kept at room temperature for 48 hours in the dark, until dry then kept at 4°C until used.

For the *cdc-42* RNAi experiments, young adults were placed on the seeded RNAi plates for 2 days, at 20°C. The following day the number of animals with a visible *lgl-1(mib201)* pharyngeal marker were counted and scored for their genotype based on their fluorescence, using a spinning disc fluorescence microscope.

For stronger RNAi, young adults were injected with dsRNA targeting *pac-1* and *lgl-1*. To generate dsRNA, *pac-1* and *lgl-1* clones from the Ahringer RNAi library were amplified using Q5 Hot Start High-Fidelity DNA polymerase (New England Biolabs). The PCR product was used as a template for in vitro dsRNA synthesis using MEGAscript T7 transcription kit (ThermoFisher Scientific). dsRNA was diluted 1:5 in RNase free water prior to micro-injection, and kept at -80°C. The injected animals were kept at 15°C for 24 hours, then transferred to new plates and used for lethality assays.

Embryonic viability and lethality assays

Young adult animals were cultured at 15°C on OP50 plates, and allowed to lay eggs for 24–36 hours. Animals were subsequently removed and after 24 hours the number of hatched or unhatched eggs was counted. Embryos that did not hatch and young dead larvae were counted as dead. For *aPKC(ts)* experiments young adults were allowed to lay eggs at the permissive temperature of 15°C for 20 hours, then were moved to a semi-permissive temperature of 20°C

543   for 8 hours. The adults were then taken off and the embryos were left to hatch at 20°C for 24

544   hours before counting viability.

Imaging

Imaging of *C. elegans* was done by mounting embryos or larvae on a 5% agarose pad in a 10 mM

Tetramizole solution in M9 buffer to induce paralysis. DIC imaging was performed using an

upright Zeiss Axio lmager Z2 microscope using a 100x 1.4 NA objective and Zeiss AxioCam 503

monochrome camera, driven by Zeiss Zen Blue Software. Spinning disc confocal imaging was

performed using a Nikon Ti-U microscope driven by MetaMorph Microscopy Automation and

Image Analysis Software (Molecular Devices) and equipped with Yokogawa CSU-X1-M1 confocal

head and a Prime BSI sCMOS camera (Teledyne Photometrics), using Nikon CFI Plan Apo λ 60 x

or 100 x 1.4 NA objectives. AiryScan imaging was done using Confocal Laser Scanning

microscope Zeiss LSM980 AiryScan 2 Axio Observer 7 SP with Definite Focus 3, driven by ZEN

Blue v3.9, using Alpha Plan-APO 100 x objective and Axiocam 305 mono R2 camera.

Time-lapse imaging for FRAP experiments was performed using a Nikon Eclipse Ti-E microscope

driven by MetaMorph Microscopy Automation and Image Analysis Software (Molecular Devices)

and equipped with Yokagawa CSU-X1-A1 confocal Spinning Disc unit and Prime BSI sCMOS

camera (Teledyne Photometrics), using a Plan Apo VC 100x 1.4 NA objective. Targeted

photobleaching was done using an ILas system (Roper Scientific France/PICT-IBiSA, Institute

Curie).

All stacks were obtained at 0.25 μm intervals. Images were analyzed and processed using Fiji and

Imaris. For quantifications, the same laser power, exposure times and z-stack sizes were used

within experiments. Time-lapse stacks of developing embryos were acquired every 5 minutes for

4.75 hours. Images of PAC-1::GFP were processed using SAIBR for spectral auto fluorescence

correction using the default settings [58]. Images of GFP::ABD$_{VAB-10}$ were processed using

unsharp mask, radius (Sigma) 1.0 pixels, mask weight 0.60.

Fluorescence recovery after photobleaching (FRAP)

For FRAP assays, laser power was adjusted in each experiment to avoid complete

photobleaching of the selected area. Photobleaching of epidermal DLG-1 was performed using a

consistent laser setting for all animals and a photobleached area of ~50 pixels in width. Time-

lapse images were taken prior, during, and immediately after photobleaching. Recovery was

followed at 1 s intervals for 200 s. Time-lapse movies were analyzed in Fiji. A 20 pixel wide line
was drawn over the middle of the bleached area defined by the bleached region in the first post-
bleach frame. For each time-lapse frame, the maximum intensity value within the bleached
region was determined, and the background, defined by the mean intensity of a non-bleached
region outside of the animal, was subtracted. The maximum intensities within the bleached
region were corrected for acquisition photobleaching per frame using the background-
subtracted maximum intensity of a similar non-bleached junction. FRAP recovery was calculated
as the change in the corrected intensity values within the bleached region. The first frame after
bleach was defined as 0% and the average maximum intensity of 8 frames before bleaching as
100%.

Apical curvature measurement

Apical curvature measurements were done using PH::GFP as a membrane marker. To measure
the apical curvature of the epidermal cells, a free hand line was drawn over the apical domain of
as many cells in a row as possible, defined as cells with clearly distinguishable apical and lateral
domains (minimum 10 cells). Then a segmented line was drawn from junction to junction for the
same cells. The length of the apical domain line was divided by the length of the junction-to-
junction line, giving one curvature value per embryo.

CDC-42 biosensor apical intensity measurements

To measure the CDC-42 biosensor intensity at the apical domain of the seam cells, a maximum
intensity projection of a 3D stack covering the apical domain of the cells was generated. For cells
with a clearly visible outline, a polygon selection tool was used to outline the area of the apical
domain, as big as possible for every cell, that did not include the signal from the junctions. For
each cell, the mean value was determined and background intensity from an area outside the
embryo subtracted. The values were averaged for the whole embryo.

Statistical analysis

All statistical analysis was done using GraphPad Prism 10. For populations comparisons, a
D'Agostino & Pearson test of normality was first performed to determine if the data was sampled
from a Gaussian distribution. For data drawn from a Gaussian distribution, comparisons
between two populations were done using an unpaired t test (with Welch's correction if the
standard deviations of the populations differed significantly), and for data that was not normally

distributed, a Mann-Whitney test was performed. For multiple comparisons tests, for data drawn

from Gaussian distribution, but with significantly different standard deviations, the Brown-

Forsythe and Welch ANOVA test followed by Dunnett's T3 multiple comparison test was used and

for non-normally distributed data the Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn's multiple pairwise

comparison test was performed.

Tables

Table 1. List of *C. elegans* strains used in the study.

Reagent type (species) or resource	Designation	Genotype	Source or reference
Strain, strain background (*C. elegans*)	PD1074	wild-type	CGC
Strain, strain background (*C. elegans*)	FT1459	*xnIs506 [Pcdc42::GST::GFP::wsp-1(GBD) + unc-119(+)]*	[41]
Strain, strain background (*C. elegans*)	PE97	*hmp-1(fe4[S823F]) V*	[53]
Strain, strain background (*C. elegans*)	WM151	*pkc-3(ne4250 [E9K; H390Q]) II*	Gift from Rodriguez lab
Strain, strain background (*C. elegans*)	BOX258	*afd-1(mib34[afd-1::GFP-LoxP]) I*	This study
Strain, strain background (*C. elegans*)	BOX527	*mibIs49[Pwrt-2::TIR-1::tagBFP2-LoxP::tbb-2-3'UTR, IV:5014740-5014802 (cxTi10816 site)]) IV; mib29[let-413::mCherry-LoxP]) V; dlg-1(mib35[dlg-1::AID::GFP-LoxP]) X*	[81]
Strain, strain background (*C. elegans*)	BOX804	*hmr-1(he298[hmr-1::GFP]) I; mibIs49[Pwrt-2::TIR-1::tagBFP2-LoxP::tbb-2-3'UTR, IV:5014740..5014802 (cxTi10816 site)]) IV; dlg-1(mib128[dlg-1::AID::mCherry-LoxP]) X*	This study
Strain, strain background (*C. elegans*)	BOX899	*lgl-1(mib201[Pmyo-2::NLS::mTagBFP2, X:863693..874171]) dlg-1(mib23[dlg-1::mCherry-LoxP]) X*	This study
Strain, strain background (*C. elegans*)	BOX907	*pac-1(mib269[III: 8494328..8519244]) III*	This study
Strain, strain background (*C. elegans*)	BOX919	*lgl-1(mib201[Pmyo-2::NLS::mTagBFP2, X:863693..874171]) X*	This study

Strain, strain background (*C. elegans*)	BOX921	*cxTi10816(he259[Peft-3::PH::GFP::LOV::tbb-2]; lgl-1(mib201[Pmyo-2::NLS::mTagBFP2, X:863693..874171]) X*	This study, PH::GFP from [82]
Strain, strain background (*C. elegans*)	BOX940	*hmr-1(he298[hmr-1::GFP]) I; lgl-1(mib201[Pmyo-2::NLS::mTagBFP2, X:863693..874171]) dlg-1(mib128[dlg-1::AID::mCherry-LoxP]) X*	This study
Strain, strain background (*C. elegans*)	BOX943	*afd-1(mib34[afd-1::GFP-LoxP]) I; lgl-1(mib201[Pmyo-2::NLS::mTagBFP2, X:863693..874171]) X*	This study
Strain, strain background (*C. elegans*)	BOX975	*mcIs50 [Plin-26::vab-10(actin-binding domain)::GFP + Pmyo-2::GFP + pBluescript]; lgl-1(mib201[Pmyo-2::NLS::mTagBFP2, X:863693..874171]) X*	This study
Strain, strain background (*C. elegans*)	BOX976	*mcIs50 [Plin-26::vab-10(actin-binding domain)::GFP + Pmyo-2::GFP + pBluescript]*	This study, backcrossed from ML1735
Strain, strain background (*C. elegans*)	BOX990	*ajm-1(ouIs20[ajm-1::mCherry + unc-119+]); lgl-1(mib201[Pmyo-2::NLS::mTagBFP2, X:863693..874171]) dlg-1(mib22[dlg-1::GFP-LoxP]) X*	This study
Strain, strain background (*C. elegans*)	BOX992	*xnIs506 [Pcdc42::GST::GFP::wsp-1(GBD) + unc-119(+)]; lgl-1(mib201[Pmyo-2::NLS::mTagBFP2, X:863693..874171]) X*	This study
Strain, strain background (*C. elegans*)	BOX1027	*pkc-3(ne4250 [E9K; H390Q]) II; lgl-1(mib201[Pmyo-2::NLS::mTagBFP2, X:863693..874171]) X*	This study
Strain, strain background (*C. elegans*)	BOX1076	*cxTi10816(he259[Peft-3::PH::GFP::LOV::tbb-2]); dlg-1(mib23[dlg-1::mCherry-LoxP]) X*	This study
Strain, strain background (*C. elegans*)	BOX1077	*cxTi10816(he259[Peft-3::PH::GFP::LOV::tbb-2]); lgl-1(mib201[Pmyo-2::NLS::mTagBFP2, X:863693..874171]) dlg-1(mib23[dlg-1::mCherry-LoxP]) X*	This study
Strain, strain background (*C. elegans*)	BOX1100	*let-413 (mib29[let-413::mCherry-LoxP]) V/+; dlg-1(mib35[dlg-1::AID::GFP-LoxP]) lgl-1(mib201[Pmyo-2::NLS::mTagBFP2, X:863693..874171]) X*	This study
Strain, strain background (*C. elegans*)	BOX1111	*pac-1(mib269[III: 8494328..8519244]) III; lgl-1(crk66[lgl-1::GFP]) /lgl-1(mib201[Pmyo-2::NLS::mTagBFP2, X:863693..874171]) X*	This study, lgl-1::GFP from [58]
Strain, strain background (*C. elegans*)	BOX1161	*pkc-3(mib78[GFP-LoxP::AID::pkc-3]) II; lgl-1(mib201[Pmyo-2::NLS::mTagBFP2, X:863693..874171]) dlg-1(mib23[dlg-1::mCherry-LoxP]) X*	This study, pkc-3 from [54]
Strain, strain background (*C. elegans*)	BOX1162	*pkc-3(mib78[GFP-LoxP::AID::pkc-3]) II; dlg-1(mib23[dlg-1::mCherry-LoxP]) X*	This study, dlg-1 from [83]

Strain, strain background (*C. elegans*)	BOX1176	*pac-1(mib269[III: 8494328..8519244]) III; lgl-1(crk66[lgl-1::GFP])/lgl-1(mib201[Pmyo-2::NLS::mTagBFP2, X:863693..874171]) dlg-1(mib23[dlg-1::mCherry-LoxP])/+ X*	This study
Strain, strain background (*C. elegans*)	BOX1177	*pkc-3(ne4250 [E9K; H390Q]) II; pac-1(mib296[pac-1::mIAA7::GFP])III; lgl-1(mib201[Pmyo-2::NLS::mTagBFP2, X:863693..874171]) X; dlg-1(mib23[dlg-1::mCherry-LoxP]) X*	This study
Strain, strain background (*C. elegans*)	BOX1179	*pac-1(mib296[pac-1::mIAA7::GFP]) III; lgl-1(mib201[Pmyo-2::NLS::mTagBFP2, X:863693..874171]) dlg-1(mib23[dlg-1::mCherry-LoxP]) X*	This study
Strain, strain background (*C. elegans*)	BOX1195	*pkc-3(ne4250 [E9K; H390Q]) II; pac-1(mib269[III: 8494328..8519244]) III*	This study
Strain, strain background (*C. elegans*)	BOX1221	*pac-1(mib269[III: 8494328..8519244]) III; lgl-1(mib201[Pmyo-2::NLS::mTagBFP2, X:863693..874171]) X/+*	This study

610   **Table 2. List of guide RNA and primers used to generate the CRISPR edited animals.**

Reagents to generate *lgl-1(mib44)*		Sequence source
crRNA		
N-terminal		
sgRNA forward primer	TCTTGTATAAGATCACTGCGCTGGA	Wormbase
sgRNA reverse primer	AAACTCCAGCGCAGTGATCTTATA	Wormbase
C-terminal		
sgRNA forward primer	AAACGAGGAGCATGCCATAGAACA	Wormbase
sgRNA reverse primer	TCTTGTGTTCTATGGCATGCTCCTC	Wormbase
Repair template primers		
Left arm		
Forward primer	GGCTGCTCTTCGTGGCAGTGCAGTAGCAGCAGCA	Wormbase
Reverse primer	GGGTGCTCTTCGCATCTCGGGTTCGTGATAAAACTTG	Wormbase
Right arm		
Forward primer	GGCTGCTCTTCGGGTGAAGGGCTGAAGATCAAAAA	Wormbase
Reverse primer	GGGTGCTCTTCGTACGCCACCTATGCGTTGACCTTT	Wormbase
Reagents to generate *lgl-1(mib201)*		**Sequence source**
crRNA		
N-terminal	TCTCCTTTACTCATggtcga	Wormbase
C-terminal	TGCTGGGATTACACATGGCA	Wormbase
Repair template primers		
Forward	cttctctccaccactttttcatttttaccctcgaccATGCCAGCCGCCAAGCGTGTCAAGCTCGACATGGTTTCGGAATTGATTAA	Wormbase
Reverse	GAGAGAAACGAGATGGAATTAGAGCAGTTGATCTAGTTGAGCTTGTGTCCGAGCT	Wormbase

Repair template	ATGCCAGCCGCCAAGCGTGTCAAGCTCGACATGGTTT CGGAATTGATTAAGGAAAAATATGCACATGAAGCTCTA CATGGAGGGAACCGTCGACAACCACCACTTCAAGTGC ACCTCCGAGGGAGAGGGAAAGCCATACGAGGGAACCC AAACCATGCGTATCAAGGTCGTCGAGGGAGGACCACT CCCATTCGCCTTCGACATCCTCGCCACCTCCTTCCTC TACGGATCCAAGgtaagtttaaacatatatatactaa ctaaccctgattatttaaattttcagACCTTCATCAA CCACACCCAAGGAATCCCAGACTTCTTCAAGCAATCC TTCCCAGAGGGATTCACCTGGGAGCGTGTCACCACCT ACGAGGACGGAGGAGTCCTCACCGCCACCCAAGACAC CTCCCTCCAAGACGGATGCCTCATCTACAACGTCAAG gtaagtttaaacagttcggtactaactaaccatacat atttaaattttcagATCCGTGGAGTCAACTTCACCTC CAACGGACCAGTCATGCAAAAGAAGACCCTCGGATGG GAGGCCTTCACCGAGACCCTCTACCCAGCCGACGGAG GACTCGAGGGACGTAACGACATGGCCCTCAAGCTCGT CGGAGGATCCCACCTCATCGCCAACGCCAAGgtaagt ttaaacatgattttactaactaactaatctgatttaa attttcagACCACCTACCGTTCCAAGAAGCCAGCCAA GAACCTCAAGATGCCAGGAGTCTACTACGTCGACTAC CGTCTCGAGCGTATCAAGGAGGCCAACAACGAGACCT ACGTCGAGCAACACGAGGTCGCCGTCGCCCGTTACTG CGACCTCCCATCCAAGCTCGGACACAAGCTCAACTAG	Wormbase
Reagents to generate *pac-1(mib269)*		**Sequence source**
crRNA		
N-terminal	acgcactttttgatgctcaa	Wormbase
C-terminal	atcctttcgtacctccggta	Wormbase
Repair template	tatcggtacacctcaactacgcactttttgatgctgt atgggtttcttctcctcatttctccattcattt	Wormbase
Reagents to generate *pac-1(mib296)*		**Sequence source**
crRNA		
C-terminal	AAGCGATGTTGATACTTTGA	Wormbase
Repair template primers		
Forward	CTGCCAGACGACACACGTTAAGCGATGTTGATACTGG ATTCTCCGAGACCGTCG	Wormbase
Reverse	ctttaacacttttatttcaatatttctgggattacCT TCAACTTGTAGAGCTCGTCCATTCCG	Wormbase
Reagents to generate *dlg-1(mib128)*		**Sequence source**
crRNA		
N-terminal	CTCAGGAGCATCGATGTCCA	Wormbase
C-terminal	CGGAATGGACGAGCTCTACA	Wormbase
Repair template primers		
Forward	aggcggcggcgttcgtgaagTCCTCAGGAGCATCGAT GTCCAAGGGAGAGGAGGAC	Wormbase
Reverse	aaacttacCTTTCCGGATTGAAAGTACAGATTCTCCT TGTAGAGCTCGTCCATTCCTC	Wormbase
Reagents to generate *afd-1(mib34)*		**Sequence source**
crRNA		
C-terminal		
sgRNA forward primer	TTGGAATTATGGCTTTTGCGGGG	Wormbase
sgRNA reverse primer	AACCCCCGCAAAAGCCATAATTC	Wormbase
Repair template primers		

Left arm		
Forward primer	GGCTGCTCTTCGTGGCATCTCGATGCACCAAGATTGAC	Wormbase
Reverse primer	GGGTGCTCTTCGCGCTGGCTTTTGCGGGGTGGCGG	Wormbase
Right arm		
Forward primer	CTGCTCTTCGACGTAATTCTTATGTATTTTTAAAGAAAATTGTTTTTTCAC	Wormbase
Reverse primer	GTGCTCTTCGTACGATCTCCGAACCCTAAGAAATTGTCC	Wormbase

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