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N1-Src kinase is required for primary neurogenesis in *Xenopus tropicalis*

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1 Abstract

2 The presence of the neuronal-specific N1-Src splice variant of the C-Src tyrosine 3 kinase is conserved through vertebrate evolution, suggesting an important role in 4 complex nervous systems. Alternative splicing involving a N1-Src specific microexon leads to a five or six amino acid insertion into the SH3 domain of Src. A prevailing 5 model suggests that N1-Src regulates neuronal differentiation via cytoskeletal 6 7 dynamics in the growth cone. Here we have investigated the role of n1-src in the early development of the amphibian Xenopus tropicalis, and find that n1-src 8 9 expression is regulated during embryogenesis, with highest levels detected during the phases of primary and secondary neurogenesis. In situ hybridisation analysis, 10 using locked nucleic acid (LNA) oligo probes complementary to the *n1-src* microexon 11 12 indicate that *n1-src* expression is highly enriched in the open neural plate during 13 neurula stages and in the neural tissue of adult frogs. Given the *n1-src* expression 14 pattern, we investigated a possible role for n1-src in neurogenesis. Using splice site-15 specific antisense morpholino oligos, we are able to inhibit *n1-src* splicing, whilst preserving *c-src* expression. Differentiation of neurons in the primary nervous system 16 17 is reduced in *n1-src* knockdown embryos, accompanied by a severely impaired touch 18 response in later development. These data reveal an essential role for n1-src in 19 amphibian neural development and suggest that alternative splicing of C-Src in the 20 developing vertebrate nervous system evolved to regulate neurogenesis.

21

22 Significance statement

The Src family of non-receptor tyrosine kinases act in signalling pathways that regulate cell migration, cell adhesion and proliferation. Srcs are also enriched in the brain where they play key roles in neuronal development and neurotransmission.

Vertebrates have evolved a neuron-specific splice variant of C-Src, N1-Src, which differs from C-Src by just five or six amino acids. N1-Src is poorly understood and its high similarity to C-Src has made it difficult to delineate its function. Using antisense knockdown of the *n1-src* microexon, we have studied neuronal development in the *Xenopus* embryo in the absence of *n1-src*, whilst preserving *c-src*. Loss of n1-src causes a striking absence of primary neurogenesis, implicating n1-src in the specification of neurons early in neural development.

33

34 Introduction

35 The Src family of eleven non-receptor tyrosine kinases evolved to regulate key signalling pathways involved in cell adhesion, migration and cell fate in multicellular 36 organisms (Thomas and Brugge, 1997). Several Src family members, including C-37 Src, Fyn and Yes, are enriched in the vertebrate nervous system with roles in the 38 39 developing and mature brain and have been implicated in the pathology of 40 neurological disorders (Grant et al., 1992; Maness, 1992; Zhao et al., 2000; Ohnishi et al., 2001; Kalia et al., 2004; Nygaard et al., 2014). Further complexity and 41 specificity of C-Src signalling in the brain, is conferred by neuronal-specific splicing to 42 43 yield N1- or N2-Src (Brugge et al., 1985; Pyper and Bolen, 1990). The N-Src splice 44 variants contain an additional six or seventeen amino acids respectively in the SH3 45 domain, and are encoded by microexons situated between exons three and four of 46 C-Src (Martinez et al., 1987). We and others have shown that N-Srcs have a higher constitutive kinase activity and an altered SH3 domain substrate specificity compared 47 to C-Src (Dergai et al., 2010; Keenan et al., 2015), however, their in vivo substrates 48 49 are unknown.

C-Src expression has been identified in a wide range of animal groups, 50 including basal metazoans, such as sea sponges (Ottilie et al., 1992), but its 51 52 neuronal splicing to yield N1-Src only appears in the vertebrate lineage (Fig. 1A; Levy et al., 1987; Martinez et al., 1987; Raulf et al., 1989) and N2-Src is restricted to 53 mammals (Pyper and Bolen, 1990). Within the N1-Src microexon, there are minor 54 differences in the length and sequence between vertebrate species. For example, a 55 six amino acid N1-Src insert has been detected in brain tissue from the teleost fish 56 57 *Xiphophorus* (Raulf et al., 1989), whereas the *c-src* locus of the diploid amphibian Xenopus tropicalis and the two pseudoallelic loci of allotetraploid Xenopus laevis 58 contain five amino acid inserts (Collett and Steele, 1992). Identical six amino acid 59 60 neuronal Src inserts are observed in N1-Src of chicks, rodents and humans (Levy et 61 al., 1987; Martinez et al., 1987). The appearance and conservation of a neural-62 restricted src isoform in the vertebrate lineage raises the intriguing possibility that n1-63 src function is related to the evolution and development of the complex vertebrate 64 nervous system.

65 Previous studies in which N1-Src was overexpressed suggest N1-Src regulates neuronal morphology through cytoskeletal modifications affecting neurite 66 outgrowth and axonogenesis (Worley et al., 1997; Kotani et al., 2007). However, no 67 68 studies have thus far observed the development of the nervous system in the absence of N1-Src splicing. Here, we investigated n1-src function in the amphibian 69 Xenopus tropicalis. We found that n1-src expression is localised to the dorsal 70 71 ectoderm of the neural plate, which gives rise to the central nervous system during 72 development. Using antisense morpholino oligos, we have for the first time achieved 73 specific inhibition of *n1-src* splicing in a vertebrate nervous system, without affecting *c-src* expression. The knockdown of *n1-src* caused abnormal touch responses in 74

Iarval stage embryos, with a concomitant reduction in neuronal-specific tubulin
(*tubb2a*) positive neurons during primary neurogenesis. We propose that neuronal
splicing of C-Src has evolved to be essential for vertebrate neurogenesis.

78

79 Materials and Methods

80 Sub-cloning of Xenopus n1-src

A plasmid encoding C-terminal FLAG-tagged *Xenopus* n1-src (pFLAG-Xn1-Src) was generated by amplifying the *Xenopus laevis n1-src b* variant open reading frame from IMAGE clone: 5572523 with the following PCR primers incorporating 5' BgIII and 3' KpnI restriction sites. This codes for an n1 insertion identical to that of *Xenopus tropicalis* n1-src, as determined by examination of the *Xenopus tropicalis* genome and sequencing of relevant rt-PCR products.

87 forward 5'-AGATCTCTCTAGAACCATGGGTGCCACTAAAAGCAAGCCA-3'

88 reverse 5'-GGTACCGTAGATCCAAGGTGTTCCCCAGGCTGGTACTG-3'.

Digested product was ligated into pEGFP-N1 (Clontech, Mountain View, CA) in which the GFP tag was replaced with a FLAG tag (pFLAG). The pCS2+-Xn1-src-FLAG plasmid was generated by excising FLAG-tagged Xn1-src from pFLAG-Xn1-src with Xbal and ligating into Xbal digested pCS2+. The preparation of pFLAG-C-Src and -N1-Src was previously described (Keenan et al., 2015).

94

95 Fibroblast cell morphology assay

96 Ten thousand COS7 fibroblast cells were plated onto 13 mm coverslips. Twenty four 97 hours after plating, cells were transfected with 1 µg plasmid DNA using Ecotransfect 98 (Oz Biosciences) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Cells were fixed 48 h 99 after transfection in 4 % paraformaldehyde, 4 % sucrose for 20 min and then 100 permeabilised in 0.1 % Triton, 1 % BSA and stained with primary antibodies (mouse 101 anti-FLAG (M2), 1:1000; rabbit anti-GFP, 1:500) in 1 % BSA in PBS for 2 h at room 102 temperature. After 3 washes in PBS, secondary antibodies (anti-mouse Alexa Fluor-564 and anti-rabbit Alexa Fluor-488; Invitrogen, Paisley, UK) were applied at 1:500 in 103 104 1 % BSA in PBS for 1 h in the dark. Coverslips were mounted on slides using Mowial mountant (10 % Mowial, 25 % glycerol in 0.1 M Tris pH 8.5) containing 1 µg/ml DAPI. 105 106 Images were acquired using a 40x objective on a Nikon TE200 epifluorescence 107 inverted microscope using a RoleraXR CCD (QImaging) camera controlled by 108 SimplePCI Software (Hamamatsu). The percentage of COS7 cells bearing neurite-109 like processes, defined as being longer than the cell soma diameter and having a 110 width of less than 2 µm, was calculated and statistical analysis of the data was 111 performed with SigmaPlot software using a Kruskal-Wallis two tailed analysis of 112 variance. The experimenter was blind to the plasmid transfected in each condition.

113

114 Embryological methods

Xenopus tropicalis embryos were produced as previously described (Khokha et al., 2005; Winterbottom et al., 2010). Embryos were microinjected at the 2- or 4-cell stage and cultured at 22°C in MRS/9+3% Ficoll, before transferring to MRS/20 for long term culture. The sequences for the splice blocking antisense morpholino oligos (GeneTools, LLC) are shown below.

120 AMO a (splice acceptor) 5'-GTCAGGTCTCCTATGGCACAGCATG-3'

121 AMO d (splice donor) 5'-GCCGCCGGATGGTCACATACCTCAT-3'

Videos of the locomotive phenotypes of Stage 28 or 41 embryos in response to touch
stimuli were acquired using a JVC TK-C1381 camera and processed with ArcSoft
ShowBiz software.

125 RNA extraction and semi-quantitative rt-PCR

126 Demembranated embryos or tissues dissected from male adult Xenopus tropicalis were flash frozen on dry ice. Total RNA was extracted from tissues using Tri-Reagent 127 128 and precipitated with 7.5 M LiCl/50 mM EDTA (Warrander et al., 2016). First strand cDNA was synthesised from 1-3 µg total RNA using random hexamer primers and 129 Invitrogen SuperScript II Reverse Transcriptase according to the manufacturer's 130 131 instructions (Warrander et al., 2016). Promega PCR Master Mix was used to amplify cDNA from the embryos at the different developmental stages, with rpl8 used as a 132 133 loading control. Primers used to detect gene expression were as follows.

- 134*rpl8* forward5'-GGGCTGTCGACTTCGCTGAA-3'135*rpl8* reverse5'-ATACGACCACCACCAGCAAC-3'136*c-src* forward5'-ATCTCGCACCGAGACAGACT-3
- 137*c-src* reverse5'-CAGTCGCCTTCCGTGTTATT-3'
- 138*n1-src* forward5'-ACTGTGACCTGACGCCTTTT-3'
- 139 *n1-src* reverse 5'-CCTCATGTCAGGTCTCGTGT-3'.
- 140

141 In situ hybridisation and β-galactosidase staining

Tubb2a (*n-tubulin*) probe synthesis and *in situ* hybridisation were carried as previously described (Winterbottom et al., 2010). A 19-mer digoxigenin end-labelled locked nucleic acid (LNA) probe was designed against the 15 base *n1-sr*c microexon sequence, with the addition of two bases from the flanking *c-src* exons. The probe with the following sequence was synthesised by Exiqon (Vedbaek, Denmark; (Darnell et al., 2010). Locked nucleotides are indicated in bold.

148 *n1-src* microexon probe 5'-TCCCTCATGTCAGGTCTCG-3'

149 It was confirmed that no off-target sequence identities of more than 12 nucleotides were present in the Xenopus tropicalis genome. The LNA in situ hybridisation was 150 151 undertaken as previously described (Sweetman, 2011; Warrander et al., 2016). 152 Briefly, de-membraned embryos were fixed in 0.1 M MOPS, 2 mM EDTA, 1 mM 153 MgSO4, 3.7 % formaldehyde. The hybridisation and washes were carried out at 154 57°C. Embryos were hybridised for 36 h with 20 nM LNA probe preabsorbed again 155 tailbud stage embryos. Colour was developed with BM Purple (Roche) substrate until 156 diffuse purple staining was visible, at which point embryos were washed for 12 h. The 157 staining and washing cycle was then repeated until strong specific staining was 158 present. For lineage tracing, β -galactosidase mRNA synthesis, embryo injection and 159 enzyme staining was undertaken as previously described (Pownall et al., 1996). Both 160 in situs and fixed phenotypes were imaged using a Leica MZ FLIII microscope 161 (Leica), a SPOT 14.2 Colour Mosaic camera and SPOT Advanced software 162 (Diagnostic Instruments Inc.).

163

164 **Results**

165 *The* Xenopus n1-src *splice variant promotes neurite outgrowth*

166 We first investigated whether the activity of N1-src isoforms has been conserved 167 during vertebrate evolution. There are minor differences in the length and sequence 168 of the *n1-src* microexon between mammals, amphibians and fish, however, the 169 distribution of charged and hydrophobic residues is conserved (Fig 1A). 170 Overexpression of mammalian N1-Src (but not C-Src) was previously shown to elicit 171 morphological changes in Xenopus kidney epithelial cells (Worley et al., 1997) and 172 we therefore performed a similar assay to compare the biological activity of *Xenopus* 173 n1-src and mammalian N1-Src (Fig. 1B,C). COS7 fibroblasts were co-transfected

174 with soluble CFP (to aid the visualisation of cell morphology) and a C-terminal FLAGtagged Src construct (C-, N1- or n1-src) or a vector control. We and others have 175 176 previously shown that C-terminal fusion tags do not affect Src activity in cells (Sandilands et al., 2004; Keenan et al., 2015). We assayed cell morphology by 177 178 quantifying the percentage of cells bearing neurite-like processes. In agreement with 179 previous findings. C-Src did not elicit process outgrowth compared to the vector 180 control, while approximately one third of N1-Src and n1-src transfected cells bore 181 processes (Fig. 1*B*,*C*), suggesting that, despite sequence differences their N1-Src 182 insertions, activities of the amphibian and mammalian N1-Src enzymes have been highly conserved during evolution. 183

184

185 N1-src is expressed during neurogenesis

186 We next examined the temporal expression of *Xenopus n1-src* during development. Using splice variant specific PCR primer sets, we undertook RT-PCR analysis of c-187 188 src and *n1-src* expression from cleavage to early larval stages (Fig. 2A). Expression 189 of *c-src* is relatively constant throughout early development. In contrast, *n1-src* 190 expression is highly regulated over the same period. Prior to the onset of 191 transcription from the zygotic genome at blastula stage 8, only very low levels of 192 maternally deposited *n1-src* mRNA are detected. Zygotic *n1-src* expression begins to 193 rise at gastrula stage 11, reaching its highest level at neurula stage 18, and this is 194 maintained through early tailbud stage 25. However, by early larval stage 35 195 expression has fallen dramatically. Fig 2B indicates that *n1-src* expression increases 196 again at stage 46, correlating with secondary neurogenesis of motor, inter- and 197 sensory neurons in the closed neural tube (Schlosser et al., 2002). Therefore, *n1-src* 198 expression is maximal during phases of neurogenesis in the primary nervous system.

We also examined the expression of *c-src* and *n1-src* in adult tissues and found that the highest level of *n1-src* expression is within the adult brain, with heart muscle the only other tissue, where we were able to detect low levels of *n1-src* expression (Fig. 2C).

203

204 N1-src expression is enriched in the neural plate

205 To visualise the spatial expression pattern of *n1-src* in the developing embryo we 206 used a 19-mer locked nucleic acid (LNA) probe specific for the *n1-src* microexon 207 sequence. Traditional antisense mRNA *in situ* probes are typically greater than ~150 bases in length and are unable to distinguish between the small sequence 208 209 differences exhibited by the *c-src* and *n1-src* splice variants. Early and late stage 210 neurula embryos were probed with a digoxigenin labelled *n1-src* specific LNA probe. 211 In keeping with our RT-analysis we find that *n1-src* expression is highly enriched in 212 the neural plate of neurula stage embryos (Fig. 3). Our analysis indicates general 213 expression of *n1-src* in cells of the neural plate at stage 14 (Fig 3A and B). 214 Expression is fairly constant along the anteroposterior axis of the neural plate, with 215 expression being detected in cells of the presumptive fore, mid and hindbrain 216 regions, as well as the spinal cord (Fig 3A, C and D). n1-src expression continues to 217 be enriched in the neural plate as it narrows and rolls up to from the neural tube in late stage 19 neurula embryos (Fig. 3E and F). 218

219

220 *Morpholino mediated knockdown of* Xenopus *n1-src disrupts the touch* 221 *response of embryos*

222 Morpholino oligos (MOs) are nucleic acid analogs with a modified backbone 223 chemistry which are able to hybridize to target RNA in a highly specific, sequence 224 dependent fashion. Antisense MOs (AMOs) are able to knockdown gene function in a number of systems (Eisen and Smith, 2008). Typical knockdown strategies use 225 226 AMOs to block translation or nuclear pre-mRNA processing. AMOs targeted to splice acceptor and donor sites in pre-mRNas have been used to block normal splicing 227 228 events leading to the formation of aberrant mRNAs containing intron sequences, thus 229 disrupting the protein coding information normally found in the mature mRNA. AMOs 230 have also been successfully used to induce exon skipping (Goyenvalle et al., 2010; 231 Kang et al., 2011). Here we use this approach to block splicing involving the *n1-src* 232 specific microexon. Non-overlapping AMOs targeted to the splice acceptor (AMO a) and donor (AMO d) sites of the *n1-src* microexon were designed (Fig.4A). *n1-src* 233 234 AMOs were delivered to the cells of the embryo by microinjection. In contrast to 235 uninjected control embryos, we are unable to detect *n1-src* expression in embryos 236 injected with a combination of AMO a+d. Furthermore, injection of AMO a or d alone also effectively blocked *n1-src* expression (Fig. 4B). Consistent with an effect on 237 238 exon skipping, the expression of *c-src* was unaffected by the AMOs. We conclude 239 that AMOs represent highly specific tools for investigating the function of the 240 Xenopus n1-src isoform in early development.

241 Injection of a standard control MO has little effect on the phenotype of larval 242 stage 41 embryos, whereas injection of the AMO a+d mixture leads to a mild, but 243 highly penetrant phenotype, which is characterised by shortening and/ or kinking of 244 the tail, and variable disruption to the pigmented retina of the eye (Fig. 4C). To assess the function of the primary nervous system in *n1-src* ablated embryos, we 245 246 applied a touch stimulus to the side of larval stage embryos, which elicits a dart 247 response. The neuronal circuitry for the touch reflex (Fig. 4D; Movie 1) is well characterised and comprises Rohon-Beard sensory neurons, which activate 248

249 commissural interneurons that in turn synapse onto contralateral motor neurons to stimulate muscle contraction, propelling the embryo away from the stimulus (Boothby 250 251 and Roberts, 1995; Li et al., 2003; Roberts et al., 2010). (Fig 4D; Movie 1, 3). We 252 tested the same embryos at developmental stages 28 and 41 (prior to and during the 253 onset of myelination) and the dart response was commonly abnormal or absent in n1-254 src AMO a+d injected embryos (Fig. 4E). These embryos instead frequently 255 displayed an uncoordinated twitch or spasm response, indicating abnormal 256 development of the neural circuitry necessary for the dart response (Fig 4D; Movie 2, 257 4).

258

259 N1-src knockdown disrupts primary neurogenesis

260 To ascertain which neurons in the touch reflex are affected by *n1-src* knockdown, we 261 next investigated the early development of the primary nervous system. During primary neurogenesis, the motor, inter and Rohon-Beard sensory neurons 262 263 differentiate to form medial, intermediate and lateral columns respectively, either side 264 of the neural plate midline. These columns of differentiating neurons are separated by non-differentiating, proliferative progenitors and can be identified by expression of 265 the neuronal specific *tubb2b* gene (Chitnis et al., 1995). Fig. 4F shows differentiating 266 267 primary neurons visualised by in situ hybridization for tubb2b mRNA. Unilateral injection of AMO a+d resulted in penetrant reduction of *tubb2b* expression in all three 268 269 columns relative to the uninjected contralateral side. (90%, n=55 from four 270 independent fertilisations) or embryos unilaterally injected with a control MO (24%, 271 n=39 from four independent fertilisations). Thus we concluded that rather than regulating the development of specific subsets of neurons, *n1-src* is required for 272

273 neurogenesis of all *tubb2b*-positive neurons in *Xenopus* primary nervous system
274 development.

275

276 **Discussion**

277 The activity of amphibian and mammalian n1-src is conserved

The alternative splicing of neuronal src isoforms alters the ligand binding specificity of 278 279 the C-Src SH3 domain and the catalytic activity of its kinase domain (Brugge et al., 1985; Keenan et al., 2015). These differences are believed to underpin the reported 280 281 differential activity of neuronal Srcs. The position of the N1-specific insertion into the SH3 domain of C-Src is conserved between amphibians and amniotes, and we 282 investigated whether the differential biological activity of N1-Src isoforms has been 283 284 conserved in amphibians. We find that, unlike C-Src, both Xenopus n1-src, and mammalian N1-Src, despite different SH3 inserts (5 versus 6 amino acid in 285 286 amphibians and mammals respectively), are able to induce neurite-like processes 287 when transfected into COS-7 cells. In keeping with this, it has been shown previously that N1-Src overexpression in Xenopus A6 epithelial cells, induced neurite-like 288 processes, in contrast to the rounded phenotype of C-Src transfected cells (Worley et 289 290 al., 1997).

291

292 n1-src expression correlates with primary neurogenesis

A previous study indicated that the expression of the *n1-src* isoforms of the tetraploid amphibian *Xenopus laevis*, are initiated by mid-neurula stage 15 (Collett and Steele, 1992). We find that in the diploid amphibian *Xenopus tropicalis*, there is low level maternal *n1-src* expression from the start of development, and, in contrast to the previous study, activation of zygotic *n1-src* expression is initiated as early as mid to late gastrula stages, and by early neurula stages expression is restricted to the openneural plate.

300 The period from late gastrula to early neurula is a key phase in the 301 development of the primary nervous system; a simple functional nervous system, 302 characteristic of anamniotic aquatic vertebrates, including fish and amphibians (Hartenstein, 1989). Differentiation of primary neurons enables the early development 303 304 of motility, and helps embryos avoid predation in an aquatic environment. Primary 305 neurons begin to differentiate at open neural plate stages in *Xenopus* embryos and 306 primary neurogenesis continues through neurula and early tailbud stages (Schlosser 307 et al., 2002). In keeping with our findings that n1-src expression is initiated during the 308 gastrula stage, a subsequent study by Collet and Steele (1993) showed that *n1-src* 309 expression is rapidly activated in competent gastrula dorsal ectoderm by endogenous 310 neural inducing signals and the neural inducing activity of the phorbol ester TPA in 311 the absence of protein synthesis.

312

313 Abnormal neural development in n1-src knockdown embryos

314 We present the first analysis of the consequences of blocking the splicing events 315 required for the expression of *n1-src* during vertebrate development. An advantage of 316 our approach is that the morpholinos ablated n1-src expression whilst c-src 317 expression was unaffected. N1-src knockdown caused striking behavioural, 318 morphological and neuronal phenotypes in the Xenopus embryo. At the larval stage 319 we found that AMO injected embryos exhibited a severely abnormal locomotor 320 response to touch stimuli, with many observed to twitch or spasm following the touch. 321 The Xenopus touch reflex and subsequent swimming circuits involve the co-322 ordination of sensory, inter and motor neurons (Roberts et al., 2010). In stage 14

323 embryos, and in keeping with the widespread expression of *n1-src* in the neural plate, we found the columns of differentiating *tubb2a*-positive neurons that subsequently 324 325 form the touch and swimming circuits are reduced or absent. Due to the labile nature 326 of the morpholinos, we predict that n1-src expression will slowly return, leading to a 327 delay and perturbation in primary neurogenesis that generates the aberrant circuits observed in the larval embryo. The reduced touch response could also result from a 328 329 defect in myelination, a process that begins at approximately stage 42 (Yoshida, 330 1997). Furthermore, oligodendrocytes arise from the same precursors as motor 331 neurons (Park et al., 2002). However, our observation that both stage 28 and stage 332 41 embryos exhibit the same defects rules out myelination as the sole cause of the 333 phenotype.

334 Morphologically, n1-src knockdown embryos exhibited a loss of retinal 335 pigmentation and a kinked tail. The optic stalk, retina and retinal pigmented 336 epithelium develop from an outpocketing of the diencephalon (Fuhrmann et al., 337 2014). Therefore, the loss of eye pigmentation in n1-src knockdown embryos may 338 indicate a common role for n1-src in regulating the differentiation of cells derived from the neuroepithelium. The morphogenesis of the vertebrate main body axis involves 339 340 coordinated cell movements in the axial mesoderm and the neuroepithelium 341 (Nikolopoulou et al., 2017). Posterior axial defects have been observed in embryos in 342 which normal convergent extension within the neuroepithelium has been inhibited 343 through interference with components of the planar cell polarity signalling pathway 344 (Goto and Keller, 2002). We speculate that the kinking of the posterior axis observed 345 in n1-src knockdown embryos arises through deregulation of the process of 346 convergent extension, which drives elongation and narrowing of the neuroepithelium

and reflects abnormal signalling within the neuroepithelium in the absence of n1-srcactivity.

349 At present we are unable to say with any confidence where n1-src functions in 350 the pathway leading to neuronal differentiation. However, n1-src's general neural 351 expression is similar to a group of neural stabilization genes, including members of the Sox, Zic and Iroquois families (reviewed by Moody and Je, 2002). These code for 352 353 transcription factors and, as is the case with n1-src, several of these genes are 354 expressed in response to neural induction. Neural stabilization genes have multiple 355 overlapping functions, providing a link between the signals that induce the neural 356 plate and the hierarchy of proneural and neurogenic genes that are required for 357 neuronal specification and differentiation. Thus, early expressed neural stabilization 358 genes have roles in regulating the competence of ectodermal cells to respond to 359 neural inducing signals, and later expressed ones regulate the progression from 360 neuronal progenitor to differentiated neuron (Moody and Je, 2002). Current evidence 361 is suggestive of a role for n1-src in the process of neural stabilization. However, 362 future studies will be required to investigate the regulatory interactions between the n1-src kinase and known components of the vertebrate neurogenic pathway. 363

364

365 N1-Src function and neurogenesis in higher vertebrates

Our data show that following primary neurogenesis *n1-src* expression falls, but is again elevated during a second phase of neurogenesis in late larval stages. A primary nervous system is absent in amniotes, and it is the later phase of secondary neurogenesis in the closed neural tube that is more akin to the neurogenesis of amniotes, including mice and humans (Wullimann et al. 2005). A connection between neuronal differentiation and N1-Src function in amniotes is supported by an analysis

372 of N1-Src (also termed pp60⁺) activity in the developing mouse brain, which showed a rapid increase in N1-Src activity at E12 and which peaks at E18, when increasing 373 374 numbers of neuroblasts are exiting the cell cycle and differentiating (Wiestler and Walter, 1988). Furthermore, cultured neurons of the rat striatum contain little 375 376 detectable N1-Src activity, however, neuronal differentiation induced by serum starvation leads to a seven-fold increase in N1-Src activity relative to C-Src 377 (Cartwright et al., 1987). Similarly, embryonic carcinoma cells treated with retinoic 378 379 acid to induce neuronal differentiation express increased levels of N1-Src (Lynch et 380 al., 1986), and there is an increase in both N1-Src and N2-Src expression during 381 differentiation of the neuroblastoma cell line LAN-5 (Matsunaga et al., 1993a).

We present evidence for an early role for n1-src in neural development 382 383 regulating the transition from neural progenitors to differentiated neuron. However, 384 there is also evidence that N1-Src has roles regulating the cellular architecture and 385 morphogenesis of neurons. Transgenic mice expressing N1-Src in Purkinje neurons 386 of the cerebellum display defects in migration and dendrite morphology, which might 387 be linked to defects in microtubule structure (Kotani et al., 2007). Conversely, in 388 Xenopus laevis, overexpression of mammalian N1-Src in the optic tectum enhanced 389 axonogenesis of retinal progenitors. Thus n1-src is likely to have multiple roles in 390 neural development regulating neuronal specification and morphogenesis.

391

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498 **Figure legends**

499 **Figure 1.** *Xenopus* n1-src elicits neurite-like processes in fibroblasts.

500 **A**, Amino acid alignment of the N1-microexon in mammalian, *Xenopus,* and fish

501 species. +=basic; -=acidic and Φ =hydrophobic amino acid sidechains. **B**,

502 Representative COS7 cells co-transfected for four days with Src-FLAG and CFP

503 constructs. Cells were stained for Src (anti-FLAG) and CFP. **C**, Quantification of

504 process outgrowth in COS7 cells. Each process was defined as an extension longer

than one cell soma diameter and less than 2 μm in diameter. Data are plotted as

506 mean ± SEM, n=3 independent experiments. Kruskal-Wallis two-tailed analysis of

507 variance. ***, P<0.001. Scale bar = $10 \mu m$.

508

509 **Figure 2.** *n1-src* mRNA expression levels during *Xenopus tropicalis* development 510 and in adult tissues.

A, rt-PCR analysis of *c-src* and *n1-src* mRNA expression levels from early cleavage stage 4 to tailbud stage 35. *rpl8* is used as a ubiquitously expressed loading control. rt= no reverse transcriptase control and water= no template control. **B**, rt-PCR analysis of *c-src* and *n1-src* expression levels during (stage 25) and after (stage 35) primary neurogenesis, and during secondary neurogenesis (stage 46). **C**, rt-PCR analysis of c-src and n1-src expression in a range of adult tissues.

517

518 **Figure 3.** Expression pattern of *n1-src* during *Xenopus tropicalis* primary 519 neurogenesis.

In situ hybridisation analysis of n1-src mRNA expression using a 19-mer digoxigenin
end-labelled antisense probe directed against n1-src specific sequence. A, B, C and
D are early neurula stage 14 embryos. E and F are late neurula stage 19 embryos. A,

dorsal view, anterior to left. **B**, lateral view anterior to the left. **C**, anterior view, dorsal to the top. **D**, posterior view, dorsal to the top. **E**, dorsal view anterior to the left. **F**, anterior view dorsal to the top. F+mb = presumptive forebrain and midbrain, sc = presumptive spinal cord, bp = blastopore.

527

Figure 4. Abnormal touch response and primary neurogenesis in n1-src knockdownembryos

A, diagram showing the sequences and corresponding RNA target sequences of the 530 531 splice acceptor (AMO a) and donor (AMO d) splice blocking antisense morpholinos. **B**, rt-PCR analysis of *c-src* and *n1-src* mRNA expression at stage 16 in control 532 uninjected and injected with a total of 20 ng of AMO a, AMO d or AMO a+d. rpl8 is 533 534 used as a ubiquitously expressed loading control. -rt = no reverse transcriptase 535 control and water = no template control. \mathbf{C} , representative phenotypes of embryos at larval stage 41 bilaterally injected at the 2- or 4-cell stage with 10 ng total of a 536 537 standard control MO or the AMO a+d combination. Embryos were co-injected with 100 pg nuclear β -galactosidase and subsequently stained with X-gal (light blue 538 colour) to demonstrate successful injection targeting. D, cartoon of embryo touch 539 540 reflex. Touching the skin stimulates Rohon-Beard sensory neurons (s), which 541 synapse onto commissural interneurons (i) that activate contralateral motor neurons 542 (m), leading to muscle contraction. E, Quantitation of touch response phenotype of 543 the same embryos at larval stage 28 and 41 bilaterally injected at the 2- or 4-cell 544 stage with 10 ng total of a standard control MO or the AMO a+d combination. Data 545 are plotted as mean ± SEM, n=4 independent experiments. F, in situ hybridisation 546 analysis of *tubb2b* expression in differentiating primary neurons of open neural plate 547 stage 14 embryos unilaterally injected with 5 ng total of a standard control MO or the

548 AMO a+d combination. The injected side shows faint blue nuclear staining with the β -549 *galactosidase* lineage tracer, and is indicated with a black asterisk, anterior is to the 550 left. m=motor neurons; i=interneurons; s=sensory neurons.

551

552 **Movies 1-4.** Normal and abnormal touch responses in stage 28 and stage 41 553 *Xenopus tropicalis* embryos.

Movies 1 & 3, real time videos showing the normal touch response of stage 28 (Movie 1) or stage 41 (Movie 3) embryos injected with 10 ng of a standard control MO. Embryos right themselves and swiftly swam a short distance from the point of contact. **Movies 2 & 4**, real time videos of the abnormal touch response in stage 28 (Movie 2) or stage 41 (Movie 4) embryos injected with 10 ng *n1-src* AMO a+d. Nonresponding phenotypes remain horizontal and moved slowly from the point of contact with uncoordinated twitching movements.







