KEIU KASK

The role of RIC8A in the development and regulation of mouse nervous system





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LIST OF ORIGINAL PUBLICATIONS

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- II. Kask K, Ruisu K, Tikker L, Karis K, Saare M, Meier R, Karis A, Tõnissoo T, Pooga M. 2015. Deletion of RIC8A in neural precursor cells leads to altered neurogenesis and neonatal lethality of mouse. Dev. Neurobiol. 75(9):984–1002.
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- III. Saare M, Lulla S, Tõnissoo T, Meier R, Kask K, Ruisu K, Karis A, Salumets A, Pooga M. 2015. Expression pattern and localization dynamics of guanine nucleotide exchange factor RIC8 during mouse oogenesis. PLoS One. 10(6), e0129131.
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- IV. Ruisu K, Meier R, Tõnissoo T, **Kask K**, Velling T, Pooga M. RIC8A is essential for the organisation of actin cytoskeleton and cell-matrix interaction.
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- V. Kask K, Tikker L, Ruisu K, Lulla S, Oja E-M., Velling T, Meier R, Tõnissoo T, Pooga M. Targeted deletion of RIC8A from mouse neural precursor cells gives rise to defects resembling congenital muscular dystrophies. Manuscript.

My contributions to the listed articles are as follows:

- Ref. I Performed and analysed a part of the experiments, participated in the manuscript drafting and finalisation
- Ref. II Participated in the design of the study, performed most of the experiments, analysed the data and wrote the manuscript draft.
- Ref. III Performed a part of the experiments and contributed to the compilation and finalisation of the manuscript.
- Ref. IV Contributed to the writing, editing, and finalisation of the manuscript.
- Ref. V Participated in the design of the study, performed most of the experiments, analysed the data and wrote the manuscript draft.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AC Adenylyl cyclase

AP2α Activating enhancer binding Protein 2 alpha

aPKC Atypical protein kinase C

bIP Basal intermediate progenitor cells

BM Basement membrane

CMD Congenital muscular dystrophy

CNS Central nervous system
CSF Cerebrospinal fluid

CXCL12 C-X-C motif chemokine ligand 12

DAG Diacylglycerole
E Embryonic day
ECM Extracellular matrix

ERK Extracellular regulated MAP kinase

ES Embryonic stem cells FAK Focal adhesion kinase

FCMD Fukuyama Congenital Muscular Dystrophy

FGF Fibroblast growth factor GAP GTPase-activating protein

GDI Guanine nucleotide dissociation inhibitor

GEF Guanine nucleotide exhange factor

GPCR G-protein coupled receptor IGF Insulin-like growth factor ILK Integrin linked kinase

Insc. Inscuteable, adaptor protein

IP₃ Inositol trisphosphate

LGN Leucine-Glycine-Asparagine
MEB Muscle-Eye-Brain disease
MEFs Mouse embryonic fibroblasts

NCCs Neural crest cells
NE Neuroepithelial cells
NuMA Nuclear mitotic apparatus

P Postembryonic day

Par3 Partitioning defective protein 3
Par6 Partitioning defective protein 6

PDGF Platelet-derived growth factor

PIP Phosphoinositides

RIC8 Resistance to Inhibitors of Cholinesterase 8

RG Radial glial cells

RTK Receptor tyrosine kinase

SHH Sonic hedgehog SVZ Subventricular zone VZ Ventricular zone

WNT Wingless/Integrated

WWS Walker-Warburg syndrome

INTRODUCTION

Six-layered neocortex has emerged latest in the evolution of the mammalian brains and is the most expanded part of the nervous system in vertebrates. Neocortex controls nearly all aspects of behaviour, including perception, voluntary movements, cognition, language, and decision-making. Neocortex contains an immense number of neurons that can be broadly divided into two groups, excitatory neurons and inhibitory interneurons. Glutamatergic excitatory neurons comprise the majority (70–80%) of neocortical circuit neurons and are responsible for generating the output. Excitatory neurons are generated in the proliferative ventricular zone of the dorsal telencephalon and migrate radially to constitute the future neocortex. GABAergic inhibitory interneurons are produced in the proliferative zone of the ventral telencephalon and migrate tangentially to reach the neocortex, co-assemble with excitatory neurons and form functional circuits. Defects in those developmental stages lead to several malformations that severely affect mental capabilities and cytoarchitecture of the brain.

To generate neurons and guide their migration to the specific positions, cells must perceive and adequately respond to the changes in their surrounding environment. Proper interaction and communication between the cells is the key to the development and functioning of a multicellular organism. The seventransmembrane domain G-protein coupled receptors (GPCRs) represent the most widely used system to transmit information across the cell membrane. Via coupling of such receptors to heterotrimeric G proteins and by the help of accessory proteins, numerous effectors can be activated. A chaperone and a non-canonical guanine nucleotide exchange factor RIC8A is a highly conserved protein that interacts with a subset of $G\alpha$ subunits. RIC8A has been reported in different model organisms to participate in the control of mitotic cell division, cell signalling, cell migration and development. In the mammalian nervous system, RIC8A is expressed at the high level in the developing nervous system and in adult brain regions involved in the regulation of memory and emotional behaviour, which manifest as anxiety and impaired memory in the mice heterozygous for the *Ric8a* allele. However, the homozygous *Ric8a*^{-/-} embryos die at E6.5 – E8.5 due to a gastrulation defects, hence, the function of RIC8A in the mammalian nervous system has not been sufficiently analysed.

The main goal of this thesis is to analyse the role of RIC8A in the development and function of the mammalian nervous system. Two different conditional knockout mice models were generated where Ric8a was specifically deleted from the differentiated neurons and from the neural precursor cells. The ablation of RIC8A function in either cell type resulted in severe neuromuscular phenotype of mice. Additionally, the deficiency of RIC8A in neural precursor cells led to a type II lissencephaly-like defect with characteristic malformations in the brain, eyes, skeletal muscle and heart. The underlying causes for these deformities are thoroughly examined in this dissertation.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

1. Development of the mouse neocortex

During the development of the neocortex, a limited number of neural stem cells give rise to a vast array of neurons and macroglial cells. Prior to the neurogenesis the neural plate and neural tube consist of a pseudostratified neuroepithelium. All neurons of the mammalian neocortex originate from neuroepithelial cells (NE) that are apico-basally polarised multipotent neural progenitor cells (Götz and Huttner, 2005). NE cells show typical epithelial features: they are connected to each other by adherens junctions and tight junctions at the most apical end of the lateral plasma membrane; and they are attached to the pial basement membrane (BM) with integrins and α-dystroglycan, which are concentrated at the basal plasma membrane (AakuSaraste et al., 1996; Wodarz and Huttner, 2003). In concert with the mitotic cell cycle, NE cells undergo interkinetic nuclear migration where nuclei shift between the basal side (S phase) and the apical side (M phase), giving neuroepithelium a pseudostratified appearance (Götz and Huttner, 2005). Before active neurogenesis, the NE cells undergo several symmetric self-amplicative divisions in the ventricular zone (VZ) to expand their progenitor population (Miyata et al., 2010). With the onset of neurogenesis (at about E9.0 in mouse) the activation of Notch and fibroblast growth factor (FGF) pathway drive the NE cells to reveal the features typical to glial cells and lose tight junctions to become the radial glial cells (RG) (AakuSaraste et al., 1996; Hatakeyama et al., 2014; Sahara and O'Leary, 2009). RG cells are also apico-basally oriented, undergoing interkinetic nuclear migration and contribute to RG cell self-renewal but they are more fate restricted neural progenitor cells compared with NE cells (Anthony et al., 2004; Noctor et al., 2002). Most of the projection neurons form directly or indirectly through RG cell divisions (Anthony et al., 2004; Malatesta et al., 2000). Direct neurogenesis vields a neuron immediately after RG cell division producing two daughter cells with the same fate (Miyata et al., 2001; Noctor et al., 2004). Indirect neurogenesis is accomplished through asymmetric cell division where dividing RG cell gives two daughter cells with different fates: one daughter cell self-renews itself and the other loses its RG cell identity and becomes multipolar basal intermediate progenitor cell (bIP) (Miyata et al., 2001; Noctor et al., 2004). bIP cells translocate to the basal part of the VZ forming subventricular zone (SVZ) where they undergo subsequent symmetric division to produce neurons, thereby expanding the neurogenic output (Haubensak et al., 2004; Miyata et al., 2004; Noctor et al., 2004) (Figure 1). Neuronal diversity and output are also increased using other less abundant progenitor cells that populate the mouse embryonic cortex, such as short apical intermediate progenitors (aIPs), subapical progenitors (SAPs), basal radial glial cells (bRGs), which share similarities with bIP or RG cells but differ in cell cycle kinetics and locations in the VZ and SVZ (Pilz et al., 2013; Shitamukai et al., 2011; Stancik et al., 2010; Tyler and Haydar, 2013; Wang et al., 2011b).

Upon exiting the cell cycle, newborn excitatory neurons need to migrate out of the VZ into the cortical plate, where they in response to environmental signals position themselves to appropriate layers (Hatten, 2002; Marin and Rubenstein, 2003). Processes of the RG cells provide the necessary substrate and guide to radially migrating neurons (Nadarajah et al., 2003; Nadarajah et al., 2001). There are two distinct modes for postmitotic neurons to migrate radially: somal translocation and locomotion (Nadarajah et al., 2003; Nadarajah et al., 2001). In early neocortical development, the principal mode of neuronal migration is the somal translocation, in which neurons have a long radial process attached to the pial surface and move their cell soma toward the leading edge of all (Gupta, 2002). At later stages, as the cerebral cortex grows bigger, the distance between the ventricular zone (VZ) and the marginal zone (MZ) increases, neurons predominantly start migrating using locomotion, where they use the radial processes of RG cells as a scaffold to reach their final positions (Gupta et al., 2002; Tan and Shi, 2013). The neocortical layers of II-VI are generated in an "inside-out" manner, meaning that neurons generated earlier reside in the deeper layers, whereas later-born neurons migrate past the existing neurons to occupy more superficial layers (Hatten, 1999; Nadarajah et al., 2001).

The proper arrangement of cortical plate neurons in an inside-out manner depends on the function of *Reelin* expressed by a unique group of cells in the marginal zone, the Cajal-Retzius cells (Soriano and del Rio, 2005). Cajal-Retzius cells originate from several sources outside the neocortex such as cortical hem, ventral pallium and septum (Bielle et al., 2005; Yoshida et al., 2006; Zhao et al., 2006). At the onset of neurogenesis, Cajal-Retzius cells migrate tangentially to populate developing neocortex to help future neurons to migrate to their appropriate layers (Magdaleno et al., 2002). Later in development GABAergic interneurons generated in distinct regions of the ventral telencephalon also migrate tangentially to enter the developing cortex (Jimenez et al., 2002). Interneurons invade the neocortex after their partners, excitatory neurons have reached their location, reflecting the possible requirement for signals from appropriately located excitatory neurons (Tan and Shi, 2013). As neurogenesis proceeds, the VZ shrinks and it is finally replaced by a single layer of ependymal cells that line the lateral ventricles (Kriegstein et al., 2006).

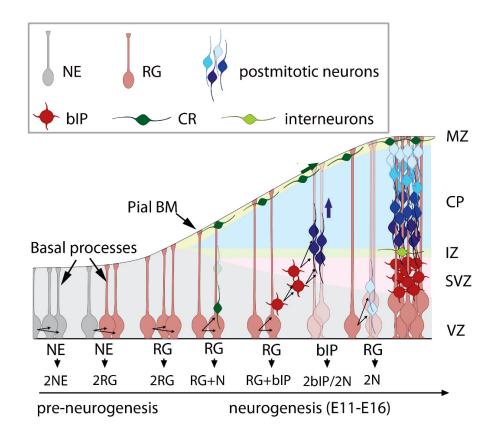


Figure 1. Neural progenitor cells and the phases of neurogenesis in mice. A limited number of neuroepithelial cells (NE) self-renew by symmetric divisions in the ventricular zone (VZ), then convert into radial glial cells (RG) to give rise to a high number of diverse neural cell types through asymmetric cell divisions. Cajal-Retzius cells (CR) migrate tangentially from ventral telencephalon to the marginal zone (MZ) to guide radial migration in neocortex. Intermediate progenitor cells (bIP) that are produced through asymmetric cell division populate the subventricular zone (SVZ). Neurons migrate along the basal processes of RG cells through the intermediate zone (IZ) to populate cortical plate (CP) from where they migrate towards their destined layer. During the radial migration, interneurons generated in the ganglionic eminences migrate tangentially in IZ and contribute to the neocortical layer formation. At later stages, RG cells undergo their final division generating symmetrically two neurons (N). Modified from (Jiang and Nardelli, 2016).

2. Cell division in mouse neurogenesis

2.1. Cell polarity in asymmetric cell division

Asymmetric cell division and the establishment of cell polarity are essential processes generating a vast variety of neuronal cell types. In order to establish the polarity and correctly locate the cell-fate determinants, the orientation of the division in animal cells requires complex coordination of external and internal cues, including signalling pathways, scaffold proteins and the mitotic spindle apparatus (Taverna et al., 2014). An axis of polarity is established in the mother cell and coordinated with the asymmetrically located fate determinants, membrane compartments and spindle orientation to create two daughter cells containing different amounts of these determinants (Götz and Huttner, 2005; Sanada and Tsai, 2005). For example, since NE and RG cells are highly polarized, their apical compartment is composed of the apical plasma membrane, the primary cilium, centrosomes and the junctional belt and it substantially differs from the basolateral compartment and the basal endfeet that are attached to the basal lamina (Kosodo et al., 2004; Paridaen et al., 2013; Peyre et al., 2011; Peyre and Morin, 2012; Tong et al., 2014).

The apical plasma membrane is in close contact with the lumen of the ventricles and mediates the signals communicated by the cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) such as IGF, SHH and WNT (Johansson, 2014; Lehtinen et al., 2011). These signals are received by primary cilium, an organelle protruding from the apical plasma membrane into the lumen of the ventricle (Arellano et al., 2012; Tong et al., 2014). When the function of primary cilium is interfered, the circulation of the cerebrospinal fluid is impaired, which, in turn, affects neurogenesis and brain homoeostasis (Boutin et al., 2014; Tong et al., 2014). The primary cilium is directly linked to the centrosome at the base of the cilium as its basal body, which forms the poles of the mitotic spindle during mitosis and after centriole duplication. Centrosomes are always asymmetrically inherited by the daughter cells because, with the self-renewing, RG cell retains the mother centriole and the differentiating cell receives the daughter centriole (Paridaen et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2009) (Figure 2).

In addition, the unequal distribution of the entire apical plasma membrane is important in generating asymmetric cell fate in daughter cells, even if the majority of divisions in the VZ occur in a planar manner (Kosodo et al., 2004). The apical membrane also embeds the cell polarity determinants such as Par3, Par6, aPKC, which are dynamically distributed in the apical membrane (Costa et al., 2008; Imai et al., 2006; Kosodo et al., 2004; Manabe et al., 2002). In RG cells the Par-complex proteins localise only in the apical endfoot and are segregated equally at the early divisions but exhibit different inheritance in later divisions (Farkas and Huttner, 2008; Manabe et al., 2002). During interphase, Par3 is localised to the lateral membrane of the ventricular endfeet, during mitosis it becomes dispersed in the apical compartment which allows Par3 protein asymmetric inheritance and distinct daughter cell fate specification by

the unequal activation of Notch signalling (Bultje et al., 2009). The daughter cell that inherits a higher amount of Par3 protein develops higher Notch signalling activity and undergoes self-renewal, whereas the daughter cell receiving less Par3 and possessing lower Notch activity acquires either neuronal or bIP fate (Bultje et al., 2009). The apical membrane contains apical junctional complexes that have crucial roles in establishing and maintaining cell polarity and cell fate. The junctions govern the association neighbouring NE and RG cells and are required for maintaining the proper tissue architecture (Aaku-Saraste et al., 1996). Adherens junctions are comprised of three membrane domains (Par-3/aPKC apically, ZO-1 and Afadin centrally, N-cadherin/β-catenin basally). During asymmetric cell division, these domains are split so that both daughter cells retain the adhesive proteins that control the cell positioning, but only one of them inherits the polarity proteins along with the apical membrane (Marthiens and Ffrench-Constant, 2009). The localisation of proteins controlling the cell polarity is regulated by the small GTPases Cdc42, RhoA, and Rac1 which are concentrated at the apical cell cortex (Cappello et al., 2006; Cappello et al., 2012). The main function of Cdc42 in mammalian neurogenesis is to activate the Par complex in order to maintain the adherens junctions coupling and progenitor cell fate. Deletion of Cdc42 caused the conversion of apical progenitors to basal SVZ progenitor cells that had also acquired the SVZ characteristic fate determinants (Cappello et al., 2006). Rac1 is required for maintaining the cell proliferation, in the absence of Rac1 cells undergo early differentiation leading to a smaller brain size (Chen et al., 2009; Leone et al., 2010). Loss of RhoA in neural progenitor cells causes the disruption of adherens junction and hyperproliferation (Katayama et al., 2011). RhoA plays an important role in maintaining the balance between actin and tubulin cytoskeleton which regulates apical and basal anchoring and proliferation of progenitor cells (Cappello et al., 2012).

On the opposite side of the apical junctions lies the basolateral plasma membrane which forms the majority of the NE and RG cells plasma membrane. Basolateral plasma membrane surrounds the nucleus and elongates through the neuronal layers attaching to the basal lamina by the endfoot (Miyata et al., 2001; Miyata et al., 2004). The basal process is recognised as an active subcellular compartment involved in signalling and fate specification. During NE cells proliferation, when the neuroepithelium is relatively thin, the basal processes are bisected and inherited equally between the daughter cells (Kosodo and Huttner, 2009). During RG cell divisions and active neurogenesis, the basal process is asymmetrically inherited. During mitosis, the daughter cell inheriting the basal process often maintains its proliferative capacities (Konno et al., 2008; Miyata et al., 2001) (Figure 2). The endfoot of the basal process makes a direct contact with the basement membrane and is able to receive signals generated by the basal lamina and meninges which has an important role in the establishment of the epithelial cell polarization and the generation of differentiated cells (Halfter et al., 2002; Li et al., 2003; Zarbalis et al., 2007). A critical receptor is the GPR56 that localizes to basal endfeet and associates with extracellular matrix (ECM) components in the basal lamina, such as collagen III, and that promotes proliferation of radial glial cells (Jeong et al., 2013; Singer et al., 2013; Zarbalis et al., 2007). Mutations of *Foxc1* which reduces retinoic acid production by cells in the dorsal meninges, delay the onset of neurogenesis and asymmetric cell division (Siegenthaler et al., 2009).

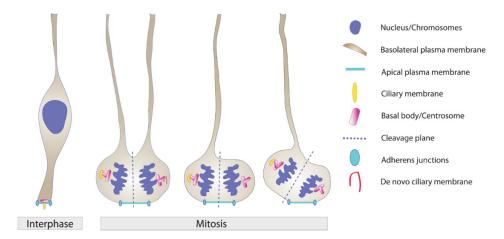


Figure 2. Asymmetric polarity in apical neural progenitor cell division. In NE and RG cells the apical polarity cues are presented by the apical plasma membrane, the adherens junctions, centrosome and ciliary membrane. The basolateral compartment contains the plasma membrane around the nucleus and the basal process. These cues can be divided symmetrically or asymmetrically which determine the cleavage plane and the fate of the daughter cells.

2.2. Spindle orientation in asymmetric cell division

The generation of multiple neurons and secondary progenitor cells from RG cells is tightly controlled by orientation of the mitotic spindle during cell division, which influences the acquisition of asymmetric cell fate determinants and apical/basolateral membrane compartment between cortical progenitors (Huttner and Kosodo, 2005; Peyre and Morin, 2012; Shitamukai and Matsuzaki, 2012). Daughter cells must be properly positioned in order to maintain the tissue structure and to contribute to tissue morphogenesis. In the mouse neurogenesis the RG cells divide mainly in a planar manner with the horizontal orientation of spindle but also exhibit oblique and vertical divisions that are suggested to be required for the bIP cell production (Konno et al., 2008; Morin et al., 2007; Peyre et al., 2011; Postiglione et al., 2011).

The mitotic spindle is formed during the prophase when the duplicated centrosomes nucleate spindle microtubules to position the chromosomes (Lancaster and Knoblich, 2012). Then, the astral microtubules elongate from the centrosomes and are fixed by capture at the plasma membrane to position the spindle (Lancaster and Knoblich, 2012). Numerous studies in different tissues in

invertebrate and vertebrate species have shown that an evolutionarily conserved complex, composed of the heterotrimeric G protein GDP-bound $G\alpha_i$ subunit, LGN (Leucine-Glycine-Asparagine) protein and nuclear mitotic apparatus (NuMA) molecules associate strongly with the spindle pole (Buchman and Tsai, 2007; Du and Macara, 2004; Du et al., 2001; Konno et al., 2008; Morin et al., 2007; Peyre et al., 2011; Schaefer and Knoblich, 2001; Schaefer et al., 2001; Zheng et al., 2013). During mitosis, $G\alpha_i$:GDP-LGN-NuMA complex localises to particular sites of basolateral membrane cortex and directs the recruitment of the minus-end-directed microtubule motor protein dynein/dynactin complex (Couwenbergs et al., 2007; Peyre et al., 2011; Zheng et al., 2013). This directed movement of dynein/dynactin complex along cortically anchored astral microtubules generates pulling forces on the spindle poles that leads to the positioning of the spindle (Siller and Doe, 2009) (Figure 3).

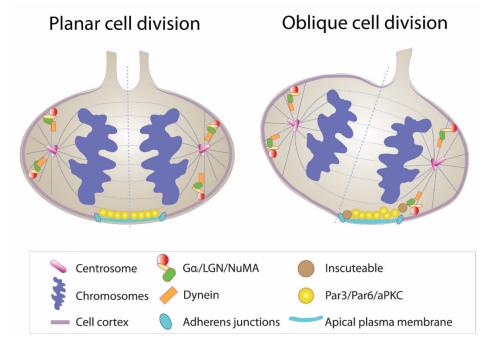


Figure 3. Spindle orientation during the planar and oblique cell division in mammalian neurogenesis. During early neurogenesis, the majority of the divisions occur in a planar manner that segregates equally apical (Par3/Par6/aPKC; apical plasma membrane) and basal compartments (basolateral membrane, basal process). Astral microtubules are nucleated to the centrosomes and are recruited to the cortex by LGN/NuMA/G α complex. This directs the minus-end-directed microtubule motor protein dynein to move towards the centrosomes which generates pulling forces on the spindle poles. During oblique cell divisions, apical and basal compartments are segregated unequally: the self-renewing daughter cell inherits the majority of the Parcomplex proteins, apical plasma membrane and the basal process, also Inscuteable promotes oblique cell division since it competes with LGN over the interaction of NuMA that is associated with spindles.

The polarity proteins Par3:Par6:aPKC promote the recruitment of Gα_i:GDP-LGN-NuMA complex via an adaptor molecule known as Inscuteable (Insc) that is shown to promote oblique and vertical divisions in the cortex (Postiglione et al., 2011; Williams et al., 2011). When mInsc is present, the communication between LGN and the spindle via NuMA is disrupted by competition with mInsc (Mapelli and Gonzalez, 2012; Zhu et al., 2011) (Figure 3). This competitive behaviour is important for the asymmetric cell division since LGN presence favours more planar spindle orientation and mInsc shifts the spindle towards the oblique orientation (Konno et al., 2008; Postiglione et al., 2011). In addition, interaction with NuMA is necessary to switch LGN to an open conformation that increases its ability to bind the Gα_i subunits (Du and Macara, 2004). LGN is initially recruited all around the cell cortex but its localisation is restricted to two cortical crescents facing the spindle poles during metaphase and anaphase (Kiyomitsu and Cheeseman, 2012). During interphase, NuMA localises to the nucleus and after nuclear envelope breakdown, it needs to be phosphorylated by CDK1 (cyclin dependent kinase-1) (Du and Macara, 2004; Kotak et al., 2013). Then, the anaphase-specific cortical recruitment is accomplished through the interaction between phosphoinositides PIP/PIP2 and NuMA (Kotak et al., 2013, 2014). Thus, the formation of the Gα_i/LGN/NuMA cortical complex is restricted to the cortex only in mitosis (Du and Macara, 2004; Kotak et al., 2013, 2014). Increased cortical levels of NuMA in anaphase drive the recruitment of additional dynein into the cortex which is important for spindle elongation and chromosome separation (Kotak et al., 2013).

Recent studies have shown that in parallel to Gα_i/LGN/NuMA complex the intact cortex is required for the correct localisation of the spindle orientation machinery and for the stabilisation of force generators. Almost all animal cells become round or spherical as they enter mitosis which requires profound changes in cell organisation (Lancaster and Baum, 2014). Cytoskeletal remodelling begins in prophase when interphase microtubules are disassembled and a new population of shorter, more dynamic microtubules are nucleated from centrosomes (Niethammer et al., 2007). When nuclear envelope breaks down, the plus ends of centrosome-nucleated microtubules establish contacts with chromosomes at kinetochores (Lancaster and Baum, 2014). Microtubule nucleation and dynamics regulate the number of microtubules reaching the cortex, these microtubules need to establish proper contacts with the cortex and force generators (Lancaster and Baum, 2014). While cells round up and nucleate microtubules, they remain connected to the adhesive substrate through retraction fibres which are cytoplasmic extensions filled with actin filaments. These retraction fibres have been proposed to recruit polarising factors to the cell cortex, leading to spindle orientation (Fink et al., 2011; Thery et al., 2007). Moreover, the previous study has shown that amorphous clusters or membrane ruffles composed of actin filaments are formed during early prometaphase, which revolves along the cell cortex concentrating near the retraction fibres and disappear into the contractile ring upon cytokinesis (Kunda et al., 2008; Mitsushima et al., 2010). The cortical regions with attached retraction fibres organise the adjacent cytoplasm by controlling a dynamic subcortical actin network which in turn concentrates force-generating molecules on astral microtubules (Fink et al., 2011; Kwon et al., 2015; Mitsushima et al., 2010). Microtubule binding protein Myosin-10 is required for the spindle orientation by modulating microtubule dynamics towards the polarised actin clusters and retraction fibres (Kwon et al., 2015). Myosin-10 mediated spindle positioning is acting in parallel and independently of dynein/LGN mechanism since combined depletion of myosin-10 and LGN resulted in randomised spindle orientation whereas depleting each complex individually did not impair dynein cortical localisation or Myosin-10 cortical distribution, respectively (Kwon et al., 2015).

Defects in astral microtubule stability also affect spindle orientation. Most of the studies on astral microtubules have been performed in cultured cells, but recent evidence *in vivo* has demonstrated that two different astral microtubule subpopulations regulate spindle orientation and thus proliferative or neurogenic divisions (Mora-Bermudez et al., 2014). In proliferating NE cells, there are more astral microtubules that reach the apical and basal cell cortex that collectively help to stabilise the cell shape and anchor the spindle to the cortex, which promotes symmetric divisions (Mora-Bermudez et al., 2014). In contrary, in RG cells that undergo neurogenic divisions the number of astral microtubules that reach the apical and basal cortex decreases and cells are more sensitive to other intra- and extracellular forces that can induce tilt in cleavage plane (Mora-Bermudez et al., 2014).

Intrinsic actions in cells are activated mostly by the extracellular stimuli. Integrins are transmembrane receptors that interact with extracellular matrix proteins and upon binding undergo a conformational change that induces the recruitment of integrin-interacting partners to the cortex which in turn activates a variety of processes, like cell survival, migration and proliferation. β1 integrins are implicated in regulating the mitotic spindle orientation relative to the substratum and sensing the extracellular matrix so that the cell can divide parallel to the substratum (Morris et al., 2015). The absence of β1 integrin signalling disrupts the epithelial cell polarity and correct apical localisation of the LGN complex, thus randomising the spindle orientation (Lechler and Fuchs, 2005). In addition, the direct interaction between the integrin-linked kinase (ILK) and dynactin-2 links integrins to the dynein complex independent of Ga_i/LGN/NuMA complex and controls the position of the force generators. For example, when the integrin and ILK signalling were blocked in intestinal epithelial cells, the spindle orientation was more random, which influenced the gross morphology of the bowel (Morris et al., 2015). Thus, the cell-shape-sensing mechanism contributes to the default planar orientation independently from cortical force generators (Morris et al., 2015). Also, integrin/laminin interactions are necessary for maintaining the stem cells at the apical VZ surface within their niche and preserving the architecture of the VZ (Loulier et al., 2009). After blocking the interaction between the $\beta 1$ integrin and laminin $\alpha 2$, the apical progenitors detached from the ventricular surface. Also, divisions along the oblique and horizontal cleavage planes exhibited mostly planar divisions instead, which suggests different outcomes and pathways acting through integrin signalling (Loulier et al., 2009).

3. The meninges in neurogenesis

Telencephalic development is accompanied by the concomitant development of meninges which comprise the layers surrounding the central nervous system: the dura mater, arachnoid mater and pia mater (last two are also considered together as leptomeninges) (Decimo et al., 2012; Radakovits et al., 2009). The meninges gives physical protection to the brain parenchyma by covering it with thick layering and by enabling circulation of cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) around the central nervous system, which cushions the brain in case of rapid movements (Nakagomi et al., 2015; Siegenthaler and Pleasure, 2011). The essentiality of pia mater lies in production and organisation of the BM covering the brain and it allows the blood vessels to traverse and nourish the cerebral cortex (Radakovits et al., 2009). The arachnoid mater is in contact with pia mater through arachnoid trabeculae which span the subarachnoid space and enable the CSF circulation (Decimo et al., 2012; Saboori and Sadegh, 2015). The dura mater is the outermost part of the meninges and is essential for the skull development (Siegenthaler and Pleasure, 2011).

Development of the meninges in mouse starts at about E9 – E10 (Siegenthaler and Pleasure, 2011). Meningeal layers need the contribution of cephalic neural crest cell (NCC) to their development since surgical removal of NCCs from posterior diencephalon, mesencephalon and rhombencephalon leads to the activation of massive cell death within the forebrain neuroepithelium (Decimo et al., 2012; Etchevers et al., 1999; Inoue et al., 2008). Cephalic NCCs altogether contribute to the development of the facial skeleton and overlying dermis and to the development of forebrain leptomeninges, the rest of the meninges in the central nervous system are entirely of mesodermal origin (Etchevers et al., 1999; Siegenthaler and Pleasure, 2011; Zarbalis et al., 2007). Thus, the presence of NCC-derived mesenchyme is necessary for the growth and survival of the telencephalic neuroepithelium and the paraxial mesodermal population near the prosencephalon is not capable of forming forebrain meninges on its own (Etchevers et al., 1999).

Little is known about the meningeal development, but few studies have revealed that the loss of presenilin-1 or transcription factor *Foxc1* disrupts the formation of forebrain meninges which accelerates the cortical BM breakdown, mislocalisation of Cajal-Retzius cells and formation of cortical dysplasias (Hartmann et al., 1999; Hecht et al., 2010; Zarbalis et al., 2007). Furthermore, recent evidence has revealed that in addition to the protective role of the meninges, they secrete several trophic factors that regulate the proliferative and migratory behaviour of neural progenitor cells (Bifari et al., 2015; Borrell and Marin, 2006; Siegenthaler et al., 2009). For example, meninges serve as a necessary substrate for the tangential spread of Cajal-Retzius cells by expressing

chemoattractive CXCL12 (Borrell and Marin, 2006; Zarbalis et al., 2007). Also, mice that fail to form complete forebrain meninges have major defects in the switch to neurogenic radial expansion due to a loss of meninges derived retinoic acid which leads to a prolonged NE cell stage and symmetric division (Siegenthaler et al., 2009).

Meningeal fibroblasts produce the key components of the extracellular matrix (ECM): laminins, collagens and nidogen that form the pial BM covering the developing neocortex (Erickson and Couchman, 2000; Siegenthaler and Pleasure, 2011). Lots of effort has been invested to the pial BM interaction with the RG cell endfeet. The pial BM and RG cell interact through transmembrane receptors, such as integrins and dystroglycan, on RG cell endfeet. Alterations in the pial BM composition and in the function of ECM-associated proteins including laminin y1 chain, perlecan, and collagen type III, result in cortical lamination defects, accompanied by the fragility of the pial BM and detachment of the RG cell endfeet from the BM. Moreover, mutations in genes encoding cell-surface receptors for BM (β 1 and α 6 integrins, α -dystroglycan and GPR56), disrupt normal deposition of cortical BM and result in a disorganized type II lissencephaly-like cortex (Beggs et al., 2003; Cappello et al., 2012; Costell et al., 1999; De Arcangelis et al., 1999; Georges-Labouesse et al., 1998; Graus-Porta et al., 2001; Halfter et al., 2002; Jeong et al., 2013; Li et al., 2008; Luo et al., 2011; Moers et al., 2008; Moore et al., 2002; Niewmierzycka et al., 2005).

4. Congenital muscular dystrophies

Abnormalities in aforementioned events can cause severe neuronal defects and are associated with various diseases like lissencephaly, microcephaly, polymicrogyria, different heterotopias and epilepsy (Manzini and Walsh, 2011; Noatynska et al., 2012; Olson and Walsh, 2002).

Cobblestone lissencephaly (type II lissencephaly) is a neuronal over-migration defect where neurons and glial cells migrate through the breaches of the superficial pial BM (Olson and Walsh, 2002). It is often associated with autosomal recessive disorders like Fukuyama congenital muscle dystrophy (FCMD), Walker-Warburg syndrome (WWS) and muscle-eye-brain disease (MEB) that negatively affect skeletal muscle, central nervous system (CNS) and the development of the eyes (Barkovich et al., 2012; Devisme et al., 2012; Olson and Walsh, 2002). These syndromes are characterised by CNS symptoms such as type II lissencephaly, enlarged lateral ventricles, meningeal thickening and hydrocephalus (Bouchet et al., 2007; Brasseur-Daudruy et al., 2012; Hartmann et al., 1999; Hehr et al., 2007; Lach and Arredondo, 2013; Nabi et al., 2003; Pabuscu et al., 2003; Saito, 2006; Yoshioka and Higuchi, 2005; Yoshioka et al., 2008). In addition to brain defects, several ocular malformations and neuromuscular innervation defects characterised by lower-limb stiffness and muscle fibre atrophy have been reported (Belpaire-Dethiou et al., 1999; Nabi et al., 2003; Pabuscu et al., 2003). Also, heart and kidney defects have been reported in some of the FCMD, WWS or MEB patients (Devisme et al., 2012). FCMD patients survive beyond infancy, ocular manifestations are rare and usually mild. Patients with WWS are severely affected from birth, and only a few live beyond infancy. In MEB, the cerebral and ocular anomalies are severe, but some patients reach adulthood. Although FCMD is frequent only in Japan, WWS has been found in many different nationalities, and MEB has been observed mainly in Finland (Silan et al., 2003).

Several studies have implicated that proteins and enzymes that are involved in glycosylation of dystroglycan cause these disorders (Grewal and Hewitt, 2003; Miyata et al., 2004; Saito et al., 2007; Satz et al., 2010; Takeda et al., 2003; van Reeuwijk et al., 2005a; van Reeuwijk et al., 2005b; Yamamoto et al., 2004). Abnormally modified α -dystroglycan is deficient in binding to extracellular matrix ligands, including laminin and agrin (Grewal and Hewitt, 2003). WWS and MEB are associated with the mutations in two genes involved in O-mannosylation, POMT1 and POMGnT1; *Fukutin* mutations are associated with FCMD (Grewal and Hewitt, 2003; Takeda et al., 2003). Despite the intensive research and genetic screening of genes involved in glycosylation of α -dystroglycan, about half of the cases remain unexplained suggesting that other genes and/or signaling pathways may be involved (Belpaire-Dethiou et al., 1999; Cormand et al., 2001; Devisme et al., 2012; Manzini et al., 2008; Vajsar and Schachter, 2006).

Integrins represent a parallel system to the dystrophin-glycoprotein complex by which the cytoskeleton is linked to the extracellular matrix. Therefore, it is possible that the signalling pathways triggered by laminin receptors (integrins and dystroglycan) are essential for BM integrity and may underlie the pathologies of these disorders. Affecting the cell signalling via integrin-mediated pathway – integrin linked kinase (Ilk), Focal Adhesion Kinase (FAK), small GTPase RhoA, G protein-coupled receptor GPR56 and G proteins $G\alpha_{12}/G\alpha_{13}$) – in the developing cerebral cortex results in type II lissencephaly (Beggs et al., 2003; Cappello et al., 2012; Jeong et al., 2013; Moers et al., 2008; Niewmierzycka et al., 2005). Few of these studies with neural precursor specific mouse models have implicated also neuromuscular disorders (Beggs et al., 2003; Niewmierzycka et al., 2005) and strong resemblance of described congenital muscular dystrophies (CMD).

5. G-Proteins

To generate neurons and guide their migration to the specific positions, cells must perceive and correctly respond to the changes in their surrounding environment. To accomplish this, cells contain receptors for chemical and physical signals and intracellular signalling molecules among which the G-proteins are one of the most prominent families. Heterotrimeric G-protein mediated signal transduction is a complex and very versatile transmembrane signalling system involving hundreds of different receptors and multiple

G-proteins and effectors. Heterotrimeric G-proteins are composed of α , β and γ subunits where β and γ are tightly associated and considered as one functional unit (Gilman, 1987; Neer, 1995). The $\beta\gamma$ -dimer and the guanosine diphosphate (GDP) bound α -subunit are associated at the inner side of the plasma membrane, and the heterotrimer can be recognised by an appropriately activated receptor (Wettschureck and Offermanns, 2005). To dynamically couple activated receptors to effectors, the heterotrimeric G-protein undergoes activation-inactivation cycle (Bastiani and Mendel, 2006; Wettschureck and Offermanns, 2005).

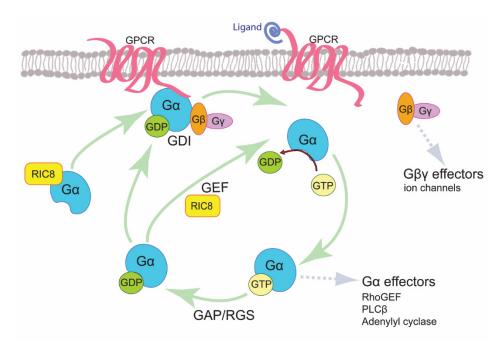


Figure 4. A classical model of the G protein signalling regulation. Heterotrimeric GDP-bound $G\alpha\beta\gamma$ is associated with the transmembrane G-protein coupled receptor (GPCR). GDP-bound G-proteins are in an inactive state and the spontaneous release of GDP is inhibited by the GDI (guanine nucleotide dissociation inhibitor). The signalling of G-protein is activated by the ligand binding to the GPCR which changes the conformation of GPCR and the exchange of GDP from $G\alpha$ subunit with GTP which dissociates the $G\alpha\beta\gamma$ to $G\alpha$ subunit and $G\beta\gamma$ dimer. Released functional subunits are then in an active state and can participate in downstream interactions with various cellular effectors. $G\alpha$ subunit's intrinsic GTPase activity or regulator of G-protein signalling (RGS) proteins that act as GTPase-activating proteins (GAP) terminate the activity of $G\alpha$ by hydrolysing the bound GTP to GDP. Inactivated $G\alpha$:GDP reassociates again with the $G\beta\gamma$ dimer or is activated in a receptor-independent fashion via guanine nucleotide exchange factors (GEF). RIC8 acts as a receptor-independent GEF to monomeric $G\alpha$ subunits, it is also necessary for $G\alpha$ plasma membrane localisation.

The classical G-protein cycle is activated by the binding of a ligand, ranging from photons to hormones and neurotransmitters, to the transmembrane G-protein coupled receptor (GPCR) (Wettschureck and Offermanns, 2005). This interaction rearranges the conformation of the GPCR so that it acts as a guanine nucleotide exchange factor (GEF) triggering the exchange of guanosine diphosphate (GDP), bound to the $G\alpha$ subunit, with guanosine triphosphate (GTP) and the dissociation of $G\alpha$ subunit from $G\beta\gamma$ dimer (Bastiani and Mendel, 2006; Siderovski and Willard, 2005). Both released functional subunits are then in an active state and can participate in further interactions with various cellular effectors (Neves et al., 2002). The signalling of the Gα subunit is terminated by the intrinsic GTPase activity of Ga, which hydrolyses the bound GTP to GDP and inactivated Gα:GDP reassociates the Gβγ dimer (Bastiani and Mendel, 2006; Neer, 1995). In addition to GPCRs, other proteins also regulate the activity of the heterotrimeric G-proteins such as GEFs, regulators of G-protein signalling (RGS), guanine nucleotide dissociation inhibitors (GDIs), GTPase-activating proteins (GAPs), and βy-interacting proteins (Sato et al., 2006) (Figure 4). The downstream effectors activated by G-proteins interact with one another to form a network that regulates metabolic enzymes, ion channels, transporters, and other components controlling processes like transcription, motility, contractility and secretion which in turn regulate systemic functions such as embryonic development, gonad development, learning and memory, and organism homeostasis (Neves et al., 2002).

Several subtypes of α -, β - and γ -subunits have been described and G-proteins are classified into four groups by their Ga subunit sequence and functional similarities: $G\alpha_s$, $G\alpha_i/G\alpha_0$, $G\alpha_0/G\alpha_{11}$ and $G\alpha_{12}/G\alpha_{13}$ (Wettschureck and Offermanns, 2005). Each family consists of various members that often show very specific expression patterns. Members of one family are structurally similar and share some of their functional properties (Wettschureck and Offermanns, 2005). Currently, these families altogether comprise 18 different $G\alpha$ subunits (Syrovatkina et al., 2016). In addition to Ga subunits, G-proteins also contain 5 Gβ and 12 Gγ genes in the human and mouse genomes (Syrovatkina et al., 2016). In brief, both $G\alpha_s$ and $G\alpha_i$ families regulate adenylyl cyclase (AC) where $G\alpha_s$ stimulates AC to convert ATP to cAMP which results in the activation of cAMP-regulated proteins (Wettschureck and Offermanns, 2005). Gai, on the other hand, can inhibit certain isotypes of AC, leading to reduced intracellular cAMP levels (Wettschureck and Offermanns, 2005). AC has a physiological influence on cardiac function and $G\alpha_s^{-}$ and $G\alpha_s^{-}$ knockout mice have shown to have a failure in cardiac contractility (Lohse et al., 2003; Rudolph et al., 1996). The $G\alpha_0$ is highly abundant in the mammalian nervous system where it constitutes up to 0.5% of membrane proteins (Offermanns, 2001). Its expression has also been shown in neuroendocrine cells as well as at low levels in the heart (Offermanns, 2001). $Ga_o^{-/-}$ mice showed no gross morphological abnormalities, but were smaller and weaker than their littermates and showed greatly reduced postnatal survival rates (Jiang et al., 1998). In addition, the $Ga_o^{-/-}$ mice had impaired motor control and they were hyperactive, running continuously in circles (Jiang et al., 1998). The Gα₀/Ga₁₁ family of G-proteins are widely expressed in the CNS and are coupled to numerous receptors that regulate the activity of β-isoforms of phospholipase C (β1-4), which cleave the phosphatidylinositol 4,5-bisphosphate (PIP₂) into inositol trisphosphate (IP₃) and membrane-bound diacylglycerol (DAG). IP₃ opens the calcium channel IP₃receptor on the endoplasmic reticulum membrane, and DAG activates protein kinase C (Syrovatkina et al., 2016). Mice lacking $G\alpha_q$ and $G\alpha_{II}$ genes have multiple defects including impaired motor coordination, hyperparathyroidism associated with defective cerebellar development, embryonic cardiomyocyte proliferation and craniofacial development (Dettlaff-Swiercz et al., 2005; Offermanns et al., 1997; Wettschureck et al., 2001). In addition, $G\alpha_{q}$ family members can induce Rho-mediated responses including the activation of RhoA in smooth muscle cells and the neurotransmitter acetylcholine release at the neuromuscular junction in *C.elegans* (Miller et al., 2000; Williams et al., 2007). The activity of RhoGEF and its related proteins is also increased by the membrane recruitment and direct interaction with $G\alpha_{13}$ from $G\alpha_{12}/G\alpha_{13}$ family (Wettschureck and Offermanns, 2005). $G\alpha_{12}$ gene deleted mice were normal, but $G\alpha_{13}^{-/-}$ mice died at E9.5 (Gu et al., 2002; Offermanns et al., 1997). $G\alpha_{13}$ is essential for blood vessel formation and is highly expressed in endothelial cells (Offermanns et al., 1997). The $G\alpha_{13}^{-/-}$ mice have a defective vascular system that shows no blood vessels (Ruppel et al., 2005). Ablation of $G\alpha_{12}$ and $G\alpha_{13}$ genes from the nervous system results in neuronal ectopia in the cerebral and cerebellar cortices suggesting they have an essential role in the proper positioning of migrating cortical plate neurons and Purkinje cells during development (Moers et al., 2008).

6. RIC8A Protein

6.1. Biochemical properties of RIC8A and cell signalling

RIC8 (<u>Resistant to Inhibitors of Cholinesterase &</u>) is a highly conserved 63-kDa protein that was first characterised during a genetic screening of aldicarbresistant <u>Caenorhabditis elegans</u> (<u>C.elegans</u>) mutants that were defective in synaptic transmission and suggested its interaction with $G\alpha_q$ (Miller et al., 1996; Miller et al., 2000). RIC8 mutants were able to survive the neurotoxic effects of cholinesterase inhibitors by decreasing the amount of neurotransmitter released at the synapse (Miller et al., 2000). Further purification and biochemical characterisation of the protein have revealed that RIC8 acts as a receptor-independent guanine nucleotide exchange factor (GEF) for $G\alpha$ proteins (Tall et al., 2003). A single *ric8* gene has been described in *C.elegans* and in *Drosophila melanogaster* (<u>D.melanogaster</u>) and two homologues in mammals: *Ric8A* and *Ric8B* (Tall et al., 2003). RIC8A has been shown to regulate the activity of monomeric G protein α subunits such as $G\alpha_{q/}$ $G\alpha_{11}$, $G\alpha_{i/}$ $G\alpha_{0}$, $G\alpha_{12/}$ $G\alpha_{13}$ families and RIC8B has been mostly described in association with the $G\alpha_s$ family proteins

(Chan et al., 2011; Gabay et al., 2011; Tall et al., 2003). The structure of *Xenopus laevis* Ric8A has been suggested to contain 10 armadillo folding motifs organised in a right-twisted α -alpha super-helix (Figueroa et al., 2009). Proteins containing armadillo motif have been shown to interact with multiple partners and participate in diverse cellular functions (Figueroa et al., 2009).

Currently, RIC8A is defined as a multifunctional protein. RIC8A may act as a GEF by interacting with GDP-bound or monomeric G α subunits forming a stable nucleotide-free G α -RIC8A complex whereafter GTP binds to G α -RIC8A and disrupts the complex, releasing RIC8A and activated G α protein (Tall et al., 2003). Several studies have also implied that RIC8A may act as a molecular chaperone that regulates G protein biosynthesis and folding (Chan et al., 2013; Gabay et al., 2011) or inhibit G protein ubiquitination and degradation (Chishiki et al., 2013; Nagai et al., 2010). Moreover, recent studies have shown that RIC-8A and G α ₁₃ regulate each other: G α ₁₃ stimulates the tyrosine phosphorylation of RIC8A and subsequent translocation of RIC8A to the plasma membrane, whereas RIC8A potentiates the activation of RhoA and Cdc42 through G α ₁₃ signalling (Xing et al., 2013; Yan et al., 2015). Through G α _q signalling RIC8A positively regulates the G α _q coupled receptor-mediated ERK activation and intracellular calcium mobilisation (Nishimura et al., 2006).

6.2. The role of RIC8A in asymmetric cell division and embryogenesis

GPCR independent activation of G-proteins by RIC8A is highly conserved signaling mechanism required for the mitotic spindle orientation and asymmetric cell division in the early embryogenesis in *C.elegans* and in *D.melanogaster* and in mammalian cells (David et al., 2005; Miller et al., 2000; Miller and Rand, 2000; Wang et al., 2005; Woodard et al., 2010). These studies have shown that RIC8A triggers a conserved receptor-independent mechanism that controls the interaction between the cell membrane and microtubules, thus affecting spindle orientation and the generation of pulling forces.

Briefly, during the first division of wild-type *C.elegans* embryos, the asymmetry is dependent on the partitioning of several Par-proteins and cell fate determinants to either the anterior or the posterior cell cortex (Betschinger and Knoblich, 2004). Then, the posterior centrosome while nucleating the mitotic spindles must migrate towards the posterior pole by the end of anaphase resulting in an unequal cleavage into a larger anterior and a smaller posterior blastomere (Miller and Rand, 2000). Therefore, the $G\alpha_i$ -mediated pulling activity must be greater at the posterior pole of the cell which moves the entire mitotic spindle posteriorly to help define the characteristic asymmetric cleavage plane (Afshar et al., 2004). RIC8 has been shown to localise similarly like GOA-1 ($G\alpha_i$ in mammals) in the cell cortex and on the astral microtubules of the mitotic spindle in *C.elegans* early 1-cell embryo (Afshar et al., 2004; Couwenbergs et al., 2004). RIC8 is additionally localised on the central spindles, at the nuclear envelope, around the chromatin and at the junctions

between the cells (Afshar et al., 2004; Couwenbergs et al., 2004; Hess et al., 2004).

During the cell division, RIC8 activates GOA-1 subunits to associate with GPR1/2:LIN-5 (LGN:NuMA in mammals, respectively) which binds to dynein/dynactin complex to generate the pulling forces (Afshar et al., 2004; Afshar et al., 2005) (Analogous mechanism is shown in Figure 3). Without RIC8 the first division exhibits defects in centrosome movements and in the regulation of pulling forces. This produces equally sized blastomeres and causes embryonic lethality with phenotype identical to *goa-1* mutant embryos (Afshar et al., 2004; Afshar et al., 2005; Couwenbergs et al., 2004; Miller et al., 2000; Miller and Rand, 2000).

Also, in D. melanogaster neuroblasts and sensory organ precursor cells, RIC8 is localised in the cytoplasm throughout the cell cycle and accumulates to the mitotic spindle during mitosis (Hampoelz et al., 2005; Wang et al., 2005). In order to control the asymmetric cell division the adaptor protein Inscuteable (Insc.) segregates the polarity proteins (Par-proteins such as Bazooka (Par-3 in mammals), Par-6, aPKC) apically which then mediate the localization of the cell fate determinants (Numb; Brat, Miranda) to the opposite side of the membrane (Knoblich, 2008). Then, RIC8 activates the apically located Ga which binds to the GoLoco domains of Pins (Partner of Inscuteable; LGN in mammals) and recruits Pins to the apical plasma membrane where it also mediates the binding of dynein/dynactin complex via Mud protein (NuMA in mammals) providing necessary pulling forces (Bowman et al., 2006; David et al., 2005; Hampoelz et al., 2005; Izumi et al., 2006; Nipper et al., 2007; Schaefer et al., 2000; Siller et al., 2006; Siller and Doe, 2009; Wang et al., 2005). Gα_i:Pins:Mud complex is linked to the apical polarity proteins by the adaptor protein Insc. which associates with Bazooka and Pins and orients the mitotic spindle (Schaefer et al., 2000; Yu et al., 2000). Thus, in D.melanogaster RIC8 is essential for proper spindle orientation, modulating differences in daughter cell size and in asymmetric localisation of cell-fate determinants (David et al., 2005; Hampoelz et al., 2005; Wang et al., 2005; Yu et al., 2006). In the absence of RIC8, all the G-protein subunits fail to localize to the cell cortex and subsequently the recruitment of Pins to the cortex also fails which disrupts the formation of spindle asymmetry and different daughter cell size (David et al., 2005; Hampoelz et al., 2005; Wang et al., 2005; Yu et al., 2006). In addition, D.melanogaster ric-8 mutants exhibit embryonic lethality and have various defects during gastrulation (Hampoelz et al., 2005; Schaefer et al., 2001; Wang et al., 2005).

The role of mammalian RIC8A and $G\alpha_i$ has been studied in HeLa and MDCK cells where RIC8A localises at the cell cortex, spindle poles, centromeres, central spindle, and midbody depending on the cell cycle phase (Woodard et al., 2010). At the onset of mitosis, mammalian $G\alpha_i$ -GDP:LGN:NuMA complexes form at the sites of astral microtubule regulation (Tall and Gilman, 2005). Afterwards, the GEF activity of RIC8A stimulates the release of GDP and the binding of GTP to $G\alpha_i$, which catalyses the dissociation

of the complex into Gα_i-GTP, LGN and NuMA. Finally, RGS activity (GAP) stimulates the hydrolysis of GTP on $G\alpha_i$ and the resultant $G\alpha_i$ -GDP could reform the active Gα_i-GDP/LGN/NuMA complex (Tall and Gilman, 2005). Perturbation of RIC8A function reduces the localisation of LGN, NuMA and dynein at the cell cortex in metaphase, causing the failure of astral microtubule capture which leads to prolonged mitosis or mitotic arrest (Woodard et al., 2010). Without correct spindle positioning or inappropriate application of pulling forces the cell fate decisions are altered, which subsequently impede embryogenesis (Woodard et al., 2010). Compliance with the genetic studies in C.elegans and D.melanogaster, loss of Ric8a also results in an early embryonic lethality within E6.5 – E8.5 due to gastrulation defects in mice (Tõnissoo et al., 2006; Tõnissoo et al., 2010). The gastrulation is initiated in $Ric8a^{-/-}$ embryos but their growth is retarded, epiblast and mesoderm are disorganised (Tonissoo et al., 2010). Additionally, the BM is disorganised and the folding of the amnion, the formation of allantois and cavitation are defective (Tonissoo et al., 2010).

6.3. RIC8A in the development of the nervous system

RIC8 has a crucial role in the nervous system. First, RIC8 was characterised during a genetic screening of aldicarb-resistant C.elegans mutants that were defective in synaptic transmission (Miller et al., 1996; Miller et al., 2000). Neurotransmitter release in the presynapse is modulated by G-protein coupled receptors (GPCR) and by the $G\alpha_q$ - $G\alpha_o$ signalling pathway. RIC8 is present throughout the C.elegans nervous system in the juvenile and adult worms where it functions upstream of or in conjunction with $G\alpha_0$ (Miller et al., 2000). RIC8 activates $G\alpha_0$ that activates PLC β and leads to the production of DAG which positively regulates neurotransmitter secretion via UNC-13 interaction (Miller and Rand, 2000). Gα₀ stimulates DAG kinase to reduce the functional levels of DAG, thus negatively regulating the $G\alpha_q$ pathway (Miller and Rand, 2000). Reduction of RIC8 function in *C.elegans* results in a strong neuronal phenotype including decreased locomotion, egg laying, and body flexion (Miller et al., 2000). A recent study has shown that in the D.melanogaster nervous system RIC8 binds to the Ca²⁺ sensor NCS-1 to regulate the synapse number and neurotransmitter release (Romero-Pozuelo et al., 2014).

The expression of RIC8A in the murine nervous system has also been documented. During the early development of mice (E9.5 – E12.0), RIC8A is expressed in the developing nervous system in the neural tube, cranial ganglia, dorsal root ganglia and in the sympathetic chain (Tõnissoo et al., 2003). Furthermore, RIC8A is also found in the lens, vomeronasal organ, and endolymphatic sac (Tõnissoo et al., 2003). In adult mice, RIC8A is expressed in the neocortex, hippocampus, and cerebellum and has a role in the regulation of emotional behaviour and memory since haploinsufficiency of *Ric8a* in mice causes increased anxiety and impaired spatial memory (Tõnissoo et al., 2006;

Tõnissoo et al., 2003). Conditional knockout studies have additionally revealed that RIC8A is specifically required in Bergmann glia during cerebellar foliation (Ma et al., 2012). Interference of RIC8A function in neural precursor cells results in Bergmann glial disorganised scaffolding due to a decreased affinity for BM components and interaction, defective granule cell migration, and disrupted Purkinje cell positioning (Ma et al., 2012). Moreover, studies with the model organism Xenopus tropicalis have revealed a requirement for RIC8A also in neural crest (NCC) derived structures (Maldonado-Agurto et al., 2011). RIC8A levels are also critical for the migration of cranial NCCs and their subsequent differentiation into craniofacial cartilage (Fuentealba et al., 2013). Furthermore, cells in Ric-8A knockdown animals showed anomalous radial migration, displaying a strong reduction in cell spreading and focal adhesion formation (Fuentealba et al., 2013). Earlier, RIC8A has been linked to growth factor-induced cell migration of mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs) (Wang et al., 2011a). Downregulation of RIC8A protein levels slowed down plateletderived growth factor (PDGF)-induced dorsal ruffle turnover and inhibited PDGF-initiated cell migration (Wang et al., 2011a). Subsequent research indicated that RIC8A is critical for coupling receptor tyrosine kinase (RTK) to $G\alpha_{13}$, which is essential for actin cytoskeleton reorganisation (Wang et al., 2011a). Other studies have found that deletion of *ric8a* resulted in the reduction of the amount of total and polymerized actin which affected formation of blebs and filopodia-like structures on the ventral cellular surface of the *D.melanogaster* blastoderm cells and mouse *Ric8a*^{-/-} embryonic stem cells (mES), respectively (Gabay et al., 2011; Kanesaki et al., 2013).

AIMS OF THE STUDY

RIC8A regulates the activity, stability and localisation for a subset of $G\alpha$ subunits ($G\alpha_i$, $G\alpha_q$ and $G\alpha_{13}$) acting as a GEF and a chaperone. RIC8A participates in the regulation of cell division, gastrulation, cell signalling, adhesion and migration. Mammalian RIC8A is expressed in the central nervous system and it affects behavioural physiology in mice. However, $Ric8a^{-/-}$ embryos exhibit defects in the basement membrane integrity and die due to severe gastrulation defects.

The current dissertation is focused on the elucidation of RIC8A function in the development of the nervous system in mammals and in asymmetric cell division using knockout mouse models and primary cell cultures. The thesis covers five linked studies that are focused on four main goals:

- 1. To assess the role of RIC8A in the development of the nervous system and in the synaptic signal transduction. We assessed the effect of the targeted ablation of *Ric8a* in neural progenitor cells and in differentiated neurons.
- 2. To analyse the role of RIC8A in the cell division in mouse neurogenesis and in mouse oocytes.
- 3. To examine the role of RIC8A in cell migration and adhesion using RIC8A deficient mouse primary embryonic cells.
- 4. To characterise the similarities of the phenotypes with congenital muscular dystrophies.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. RIC8A in neuromuscular signalling (Ref. I, Ref. II and Ref. V)

1.1. Deletion of RIC8A from the developing nervous system of mouse leads to neuromuscular defects and postnatal lethality (Ref.I; Ref.II)

The expression pattern of *Ric8a* in the early stages of mouse organogenesis (E9.5 – E12.0) is highly neurospecific. In adult brains, *Ric8a* is expressed in areas that are responsible for the regulation of behaviour and memory (e.g. neocortex, cingulate cortex, caudate putamen, hippocampus, cerebellum) (Tõnissoo et al., 2003). Haploinsufficiency of *Ric8a* results in behavioural abnormalities such as increased anxiety-like behaviour and impaired spatial memory (Tõnissoo et al., 2006). The function of RIC8A in neurogenesis and in the nervous system is largely unknown since homozygous Ric8a^{-/-} mice die at E6.5 – E8.5 due to multiple gastrulation defects (Gabay et al., 2011; Tõnissoo et al., 2010). In order to circumvent the embryonic lethality and examine the role of RIC8A in the mouse nervous system, we generated two conditional knockout mice models where RIC8A was specifically knocked out from neural precursor cells or from presynaptic terminals of postmitotic neurons. Transgenic mouse strains expressing Cre-recombinase under Nestin or Synapsin I promoter were introduced into the conditional Ric8a ($Ric8a^{lacZ/F}$) background which ablated RIC8A function in neural precursor cells (Nes;Ric8a^{CKO} mice) and differentiated neurons (Syn; Ric8a^{CKO} mice), respectively.

Neurospecific *Ric8a* conditional mutant mice were born at expected Mendelian ratio (22–24%), however, the genotyping data from our crossings indicated that the number of newborn pups per litter was lower than the average in *Nes;Ric8a^{CKO}* mice. Nevertheless, all *Nes;Ric8a^{CKO}* mice died within 12 h after birth and the majority of analysed *Syn;Ric8a^{CKO}* mice died between P4 – P6 postnatally. Moreover, most *Nes;Ric8a^{CKO}* pups and some *Syn;Ric8a^{CKO}* were abandoned or killed by their mother during first days after their birth due to a lack of feasible viability.

The absence of RIC8A in neurons in *Syn;Ric8a^{CKO}* mice and in neural precursor cells in *Nes;Ric8a^{CKO}* pups give rise to a severe neuromuscular phenotype. The *Syn;Ric8a^{CKO}* mice had abnormal body curvature and were not able to right themselves due to impaired motor skills and muscular spasms (Ref.I, Figure 2A–2C). The *Nes;Ric8a^{CKO}* pups also showed strong neuromuscular phenotype characterised by limited capacity for movement and they always lied on one side. Moreover, they exhibited a barrel-like body shape, dropping forelimbs and stiffness of lower limbs (Ref.II, Figure 1K,1L).

The body-weight of $Nes;Ric8a^{CKO}$ mice varied within litters, being slightly lower or the same with the littermates, but the body weight of $Syn;Ric8a^{CKO}$

mice was significantly lower throughout the observed period compared to littermates (P0-P5) (Ref. I, Figure 2F). Syn; Ric8a^{CKO} mice were able to gain weight, but not in an exponential manner as their littermates and their weight gain stopped completely at P5. The inadequate weight-gain was probably due to a low level or absence of milk in their stomach as was also seen in Nes; Ric8a^{CKO} mice (Ref.I, Figure 2E; Ref.II, Figure 1O;1P). The mutant mice were probably not able to compete with their littermates for food, however, the inability to feed themselves might also be associated with neuromuscular or craniofacial defects (Turgeon and Meloche, 2009) which can be caused by the removal of RIC8A from the neural crest cells (NCC) since RIC8A has been shown to be necessary for the cranio-facial development in vertebrates (Fuentealba et al., 2013). NCCs also contribute to the palate and tongue development (Caruana and Bernstein, 2001; Liu et al., 2012). Other studies with neonatal mutant mice have revealed that nonfeeding newborns die within 12 – 24 h after birth due to the lack of nutrients or due to disturbed liquid homeostasis, which leads to dehydration (Dechiara et al., 1995; Mizushima et al., 2001; Segre et al., 1999; Turgeon and Meloche, 2009). Nes:Ric8a^{CKO} mice died within 12 h postpartum but mostly because their mother abandoned them that lead to quick dehydration and hypothermia.

However, *Syn;Ric8a^{CKO}* mice were able to feed because their stomachs contained milk in the early neonatal period, but from P3 onward, the amount of milk in the stomach decreased. The main reason for the early neonatal and postnatal death is probably malnutrition and an alteration in liquid homoeostasis. Indeed, the *Syn;Ric8a^{CKO}* mice revealed the ossification delay at P3 and it is consistent with the fact that postnatal nutrition and bone development are known to be directly linked (Land and Schoenau, 2008; Triffitt, 1987). Another indicator for malnutrition is the brain and liver weight ratio that was significantly higher in *Syn;Ric8a^{CKO}* mice confirming their malnutrition (Mitchell, 2001). Taken together, the early lethality of both conditional knockout mice was probably mostly caused by the lack of postnatal care, interfered development or defective innervation of their cranio-facial structures that lead to the inability to feed.

1.2. Deficiency of RIC8A in neurons and precursor cells leads to skeletal muscle atrophy in mice (Ref.I; Ref.V).

The analysed phenotypes revealed the evident neuromuscular defects in $Syn;Ric8a^{CKO}$ mice and in $Nes;Ric8a^{CKO}$ mice. The histological analyses of brains of $Syn;Ric8a^{CKO}$ mice did not show any obvious malformations (Ref.I, Figure 3) indicating that the brain development has not been markedly disturbed in $Syn;Ric8a^{CKO}$ mice. However, the histological examination of the skeletal muscles at P0 and P5 of $Syn;Ric8a^{CKO}$ mice and P0 $Nes;Ric8a^{CKO}$ mice revealed that the skeletal muscle tissue was hypoplastic compared to littermate controls. This was caused by the atrophy of myocytes, and the diameter of the muscle fibres was

substantially decreased and the fibres were also sparsely distributed and less compact resembling endomysial fibrosis (Ref.I, Figure 2G; Ref.V, Figure 4C;4D). The muscle atrophy may be the result of an insufficient neuronal stimulation at the neuromuscular junction. RIC8A has been established as a receptor-independent activator for $G\alpha_i$, $G\alpha_o$, $G\alpha_o$ and $G\alpha_{13}$ subunit families (Tall et al., 2003). This particular activity has been confirmed by separate studies that demonstrate the capacity of the RIC8A protein to potentiate the $G\alpha_0$ and $G\alpha_i$ signal (Fenech et al., 2009; Nishimura et al., 2006; Wang et al., 2007). Furthermore, RIC8A has also been suggested to function as a molecular chaperone required for $G\alpha$ subunit biosynthesis (Gabay et al., 2011). The collective data on the biochemical function of RIC8A protein strongly suggests that the neuromuscular defects of Syn; Ric8a^{CKO} and Nes; Ric8a^{CKO} mice are caused by the reduced activity of G-proteins in neurons. Indeed, $G\alpha_0$ is abundantly expressed in neurons and mediates the effects of a group of receptors such as opioid, α2-adrenergic, M2 muscarinic and somatostatin receptors. $G\alpha_0^{-/-}$ mice were weaker and smaller and had impaired motor control compared to their littermates, they also displayed the neural phenotype of ataxia and impaired motor control and lived for about 7 weeks (Jiang et al., 1998; Offermanns et al., 1997).

Poor muscle innervation in $Nes;Ric8a^{CKO}$ mice may also be due to defects in the peripheral nerve myelination, which develops through radial sorting that has been shown to be GPCR signalling dependent (Berti et al., 2011; Mogha et al., 2016). Mouse models where the $\beta1$ integrin, laminin $\alpha2$ or α -dystroglycan functioning is deficient have myelination defects that often cause paralyses, tremor and muscular dystrophy similar to the $Nes;Ric8a^{CKO}$ mice (Berti et al., 2011; Chen and Strickland, 2003; Feltri et al., 2002; Saito et al., 2007). These results suggest that RIC8A may also have a role in myelination process through Schwann cells that have neural crest origin.

1.3. Deficiency of RIC8A in neurons and neural precursor cells affects the heart development, function and morphology (Ref.I; Ref.V).

In addition to impaired neuromuscular signalling, the heart of *Syn;Ric8a^{CKO}* mice was markedly smaller than in littermate controls indicating that the heart functioning was also insufficient (Ref.I, Figure 4A;4B). Indeed, the hematoxylineosin stained tissue sections of mutant mice contained more blood which indicates malfunctioning of the cardiac muscle, suggesting *Syn;Ric8a^{CKO}* heart could not pump blood out after dissection (Ref.I, Figure 4C;4D). Moreover, the myocardium of these hearts was also substantially thinner than in littermates (Ref.I, Figure 4G;4H). Similarly, the majority of Po *Nes;Ric8a^{CKO}* pups had considerably thinner myocardium and coronary artery anomalies. Furthermore, about half of the mice had severe ventricular septum defects (Ref.V, Figure 5C–5H). The closer inspection of *Ric8a* expression in E14.5 *Ric8a^{lacZ/+}* mice revealed that RIC8A is expressed in the areas of developing coronary artery and

in the wall of the aorta (Ref.V, Figure 5A). The same region was also populated with cells expressing *NestinCre* transgene (Ref.V, Figure 5B). NCCs give rise to cardiac smooth muscle cells and contribute to the coronary artery and to the interseptum development (Arima et al., 2012; Dettlaff-Swiercz et al., 2005; Waldo et al., 1998). Similar defects were also described in neural crest cell-specific $G\alpha_{12}/G\alpha_{13}$ -deficient mice (Dettlaff-Swiercz et al., 2005) further corroborating the essentiality of RIC8A functioning in the neural crest-derived structures.

Neural crest-derived structures were in general normally developed in Syn; Ric8a^{CKO} mice. However, the sinoatrial node was located more anteriorly and appeared to be substantially smaller than in littermates (Ref, I, Figure 4E;4F). The sinoatrial node is innervated by both sympathetic and parasympathetic axons, and it contains pacemaker cells, which are responsible for the generation of normal sinus rhythm (Durham and Worthley, 2002). In the case of a defective sinoatrial node, the heart rhythm becomes abnormally fast, slow or their combination (Durham and Worthley, 2002). As expected, the heart rate of Syn; Ric8a^{CKO} mice was significantly slower than that of littermates. The lack of RIC8A may affect the neurotransmitter release since it has been shown to participate in the regulation of neurotransmitter secretion by activating $G\alpha_0$ and PLCB signalling in C.elegans (Miller et al., 2000). In mice, ubiquitously expressed $G\alpha_0$ and PLC β proteins are mostly studied within the context of cardiac function and development (Wettschureck et al., 2001). Double knockout mice of $G\alpha_0/G\alpha_{11}$ died at E11.5 whereas mutants with a single active allele survived until birth, but then died within a couple of hours because of numerous cardiac malformations. Furthermore, they were of small size, anoxic and poorly responded to tactile stimulation (Offermanns et al., 1998). Mice lacking only $G\alpha_{\alpha}$ were viable but suffered from ataxia and typical signs of motor discoordination (Offermanns et al., 1997). These results indicate that in parallel with the skeletal muscle atrophy, *Syn;Ric8a*^{CKO} mice and *Nes;Ric8a*^{CKO} mice have strong cardiac muscle hypoplasia, which affects their cardiac function. Additional defects in neural crest-derived structures in Nes; Ric8a^{CKO} mice strongly influence the morphology of the heart tissue which most likely further aggravates the cardiac function and thus might also be one of the causes triggering the death of Nes:Ric8a^{CKO} mice.

2. RIC8A in the cell-ECM interaction (Ref.II; Ref.IV; Ref.V)

2.1. Ablation of RIC8A in neural precursor cells disrupts the pial basement membrane and cortical cytoarchitecture (Ref.II).

As was mentioned earlier, *Nes;Ric8a^{CKO}* mice were readily identifiable by their appearance revealing severe neuromuscular phenotype. The analyses of the whole brain revealed an enlarged area of the neocortex in *Nes;Ric8a^{CKO}* mice and the presence of several extravasations (Ref.II, Figure 1M,1N). However, a

closer examination of histological sections exhibited much thinner cortex in the brain of newborn *Nes;Ric8a^{CKO}* than in control mice (Ref.II, Figure 2A;2B). In several cortical areas, the aberrant column-like cell clusters were discovered in the uppermost layers that had invaded to the marginal zone resembling type II lissencephaly-like cortical ectopias (Ref.II, Figure 2B, red arrowhead). In the anterior part of the Nes; Ric8a^{CKO} mice cortexes the cortical heterotopias were bigger and the number of ectopias was higher when compared to the posterior part of the cortexes (Ref.II, Figure 2C;2D). However, we could not detect differences in RIC8A protein expression along rostro-caudal axis (data not shown) by immunofluorescence analysis. The cortical ectopias strongly affected the overall lamination of the developing neocortex where most cortical ectopias were comprised of neurons from the upper layers but also contained occasional cells from the mid-part of the cortex (Ref.II, Figure 4A-4F compared to 4G-4L). However, with severe lamination defects, the cells from the deepest layers were detected within the over-migration in the marginal zone (Ref.II, Figure 4M-4R). These neuronal over-migrations were probably due to the defects in basement membrane (BM) since several other studies have shown analogous type II lissencephaly-like cortical ectopias accompanied with BM defects (Beggs et al., 2003; Costell et al., 1999; Georges-Labouesse et al., 1998; Graus-Porta et al., 2001; Halfter et al., 2002; Hartmann et al., 1999; Haubst et al., 2006; Hecht et al., 2010; Inoue et al., 2008; Jeong et al., 2012; Jeong et al., 2013; Li et al., 2008; Luo et al., 2011; Myshrall et al., 2012; Niewmierzycka et al., 2005; Radakovits et al., 2009; Radner et al., 2013; Singer et al., 2013; Zarbalis et al., 2007).

BMs are thin and dense sheets comprised of highly cross-linked extracellular matrix (ECM) proteins that are located at the basal side of every epithelium and endothelia and also surround muscle, fat and Schwann cells (Hohenester and Yurchenco, 2013; Yurchenco, 2011). Mutations in genes of BM constituent proteins are either embryonically lethal or lead to muscular dystrophy, vasculature ruptures, or CNS malformations (Halfter and Yip, 2014). Indeed, our research group has previously also demonstrated that the Ric8a^{-/-} embryos died due to gastrulation defects that were accompanied with BM integrity (Tonissoo et al., 2010). Moreover, the absence of RIC8A in cerebellum development caused impaired adhesion of the Bergmann glia to the BM, leading to the impaired migration of granular progenitor cells and to failure in the generation of cerebellar fissures (Ma et al., 2012). Therefore we analysed the morphology of BM by characterising Laminin-I localisation in murine CNS. In control mice and in Nes; Ric8a^{CKO} mice the BM was intact at E12.5 showing continuous Laminin-I localisation (Ref.II, Figure 5A–5D). However, at neurogenesis peak phase at E14.5 (when the first ectopias were detected) and in newborn mice, the BM was ruptured as suggested by fragmentary Laminin-I localisation pattern and numerous gaps in BM in the mutant mice (Ref.II, Figure 5E-5P). Thus, the absence of functional RIC8A in the neural precursor cells leads the loss of the pial BM integrity suggesting a putative role for RIC8A in the cell adhesion.

The assembly of the BMs depends on the meninges and radial glial endfeet that tightly associate with each other to form a barrier (glia limitans). The evolutionarily conserved mechanism of BM assembly is initiated through the recruitment of laminin by integrin and α -dystroglycan receptors (Beggs et al., 2003; McKee et al., 2007). Mutations in genes encoding extracellular matrix components like laminins ($\alpha 5$; $\beta 2$ or $\gamma 1$, $\gamma 3$), perlecan and Collagen III disrupt normal BM maintenance and cause cortical ectopias and BM breaches (Costell et al., 1999; Haubst et al., 2006; Luo et al., 2011; Radner et al., 2013). Consistent with the ECM studies, deletion of *Integrin a6B1*, B1-class integrins, and conditional deletion of α-dystroglycan in mice also lead to breaks in BM integrity and allowed migration of ectopic neurons to the marginal zone (Georges-Labouesse et al., 1998; Graus-Porta et al., 2001; Myshrall et al., 2012; Radakovits et al., 2009). The meninges covering the developing brain also participate in the formation of the BM since meningeal fibroblasts secrete ECM components and organise the BM lining over the cortex (Beggs et al., 2003; Decimo et al., 2012; Radakovits et al., 2009). Defects in meninges differentiation lead to the breakdown of the pial BM in the development of mouse brain cortex and cause severe cortical dysplasia associated with the marginal zone heterotopias and dyslamination (Hecht et al., 2010; Inoue et al., 2008; Zarbalis et al., 2012). It seems that in Nes; Ric8a^{CKO} mice Laminin-I production was not affected as the BM was organised correctly at E12.5. However, considering the fragmented and scattered localisation of Laminin-I in between and around the cells at E14.5 and P0, the ability to maintain an intact BM is lost after E12.5. We hypothesise that intactness of BM is lost due to the impaired polarisation of the RIC8A deficient pial cells. In fact, the polarised distribution of RhoA and microtubule dynamics has been shown to play a role in the disruption of the BM maintenance during gastrulation (Nakaya, 2008). Cells surrounded by Laminin-I, in an analogous manner to the RIC8A deficient pial cells, were also detected in the primitive streak region of the *Ric8a*^{-/-} embryo at E7.5 (Tonissoo et al., 2010). Moreover, our in vitro studies showed that RIC8A plays an important role in the organisation and remodelling of actin cytoskeleton since Ric8a^{-/-} mouse embryonic stem cells (mES) were not able to form stress fibres or spread properly (Ref.IV, Figure, 3A;3A';3B;3B'). Also, recent studies have proposed the participation of RIC8A in the activation of RhoA and Cdc42 which play a crucial role in cell polarisation (Gabay et al., 2011; Yan et al., 2015). Hence, abnormal localisation of laminin accompanying the RIC8A deficiency also implies the malfunctioning of the RhoA pathway leading to a defective epithelial tissue polarity (Cappello et al., 2012; Daley et al., 2012). Therefore we suggest that insufficient activation of RhoA pathway could be the reason for the breakdown of the pial BM seen in Nes; Ric8a^{CKO} mutants.

2.2. RIC8A is needed for the attachment of radial glial endfeet to BM and Cajal-Retzius cell positioning (Ref.V).

Intact pial BM is necessary for the anchorage of radial glial endfeet using integrins or α -dystroglycan. Cortical abnormalities in laminar organization were also found in studies in mice with deletion of nidogen-binding site of laminin y1, integrin-linked-kinase (Ilk), focal adhesion kinase (FAK), adhesion G protein-coupled receptor GPR56, Gα₁₂/Gα₁₃ (Beggs et al., 2003; Halfter et al., 2002; Jeong et al., 2012; Jeong et al., 2013; Li et al., 2008; Moers et al., 2008; Niewmierzycka et al., 2005). Consistent with the results found in Nes; Ric8a^{CKÓ} mice where the anterior cortical heterotopias were bigger, the GPR56 expression pattern mimics the anterior-to-posterior gradient of defects associated with loss of GPR56 in mice (Jeong et al., 2012; Li et al., 2008; Singer et al., 2013). These results strongly suggest that RIC8A might associate with GPR56 and $G\alpha_{13}$ since GPR56 has been shown to function using interaction with $G\alpha_{13}$ (Luo et al., 2011). All of the aforementioned studies also reported that the radial glial endfeet were detached from the BM and the Cajal-Retzius cells were mislocalized around the ectopias. In Nes; Ric8a^{CKO} mice the first ectopias were detected at (data not shown) and the first BM breach already at E13.5 and these were not present in control mice (Ref.V, Figure 2G;2H;2G';2H'). In ectopias the Cajal-Retzius cells were randomly distributed, the radial glial processes were disorganised and the Laminin-I lining was fragmentary (Ref.V, Figure 2A'-2F', respectively). Since Cajal-Retzius cells did not express RIC8A, the mislocalization was probably a concurrent feature and dependent on the detachment of radial glia and BM defects as reported earlier (Kwon et al., 2011). Taken together, the absence of RIC8A in the neural precursor cells affects the attachment of radial glia to the BM and the localisation of CR cells which in turn may affect the signal molecules secreted by them.

2.3. RIC8A deficiency causes impaired cell migration (Ref.II, Ref. IV)

Along with the defects in the BM integrity, different signals from the surrounding environment (e.g signal molecules secreted by Cajal-Retzius cells) can also lead to mislocalization of the migrating neurons. Removal of RIC8A function from neural progenitors in $Nes;Ric8a^{CKO}$ mice did not influence the generation of neural progenitor cell types at early embryonic ages or the onset of neurogenesis. Furthermore, newborn neurons were able to start the migration towards the pial surface (Ref.II, Figure 3), and to form cortical layers in an "inside-out" manner (Ref.II, Figure 4). However, the cells were not correctly positioned in the layers in $Nes;Ric8a^{CKO}$ mice. The binding partners of RIC8A – $G\alpha_{12}/G\alpha_{13}$ – have been shown to provide the positioning cues for the cortical neurons during brain development and ablation of the genes encoding these α -subunits in neural precursor cells resulted in a cobblestone-like cortical mal-

formation (Moers et al., 2008). One of the possibilities for these cortical overmigrations is that the cells have lost the ability to respond to the repulsive mediators that signal via GPCRs. Indeed, embryonic cortical neurons lacking $G\alpha_{12}/G\alpha_{13}$ did not retract, the neurites in response to repulsive mediators, indicating that they had lost the ability to transmit the stop signals from $G\alpha_{12}/G\alpha_{13}$ coupled receptors and therefore cortical plate neurons were not correctly positioned during development (Moers et al., 2008). $G\alpha_{12}/G\alpha_{13}$ stimulate the small GTPase RhoA-dependent actomyosin-based contractility and it is likely that the loss of this regulatory pathway interferes with the normal regulation of cell migration (Buhl et al., 1995). Consistently, the genetic deletion of RhoA in the developing neocortex lead to two migrational disorders: the cobblestone lissencephaly and subcortical band heterotopia (SBH) which were perhaps caused by partial or incomplete migration of neurons to their cortical locations (Cappello et al., 2012). In vivo and in vitro studies have shown that RhoA^{-/-} neurons were able to initiate migration, however, they showed decreased the formation of F-actin and reached the cortical plate faster (Cappello et al., 2012). Ablation of RhoA in the RG cells caused profound destabilisation of the actin and tubulin cytoskeleton in RG cells and loss of apical anchoring as well as defects in formation or maintenance of basal process (Cappello et al., 2012). In the RIC8A-deficient neural precursor cells, the levels of Ga_{13} were decreased (Ref.II, Figure S2), which incorporates RIC8A into the RhoA-mediated signalling pathway as also shown before (Gabay et al., 2011; Yan et al., 2015). Therefore, the cortical ectopias forming in Nes; Ric8a^{CKO} mutants may be caused by defects in $G\alpha_{12}/G\alpha_{13}$ and RhoA signalling pathways.

Next, we studied the migratory capacity of RIC8A deficient cells in more detail. However, instead of neural cells, for simplicity, we used mouse embryonic stem (mES) cells and mouse primary fibroblasts (MEFs) where first four exons were flanked by loxP sites and the ablation of functional RIC8A was achieved by transfection of cells with Cre-recombinase-expressing vector. We discovered the deficiency of RIC8A indeed affects the cell migration but this is highly dependent on the substrate. Migration of Ric8a^{-/-} cells was impaired on laminin 521 (Ref.IV, Figure 5C) when no chemotactic stimulus was introduced. However, upon chemotactic stimulation with foetal bovine serum (FBS) the migration of RIC8A deficient mES cells was increased on type IV collagen and on laminin 521 compared to control cells (Ref. IV, Figure 5E). MEFs displayed similar tendencies with decreased migration on type I collagen and increased migration when the chemotactic stimulus was added. Cells mostly bind to laminin and collagens using β1 integrin subfamily integrins (Humphries et al., 2006). These results indicated that RIC8A is involved in the regulation of cell migration, which is dependent on the ECM substrate, probably through \(\beta\)1integrin signalling. To verify this hypothesis, we analysed whether RIC8A regulates the activity of β 1-integrins by quantifying the amount of β 1-integrins active in conformation on the cell surface using flow cytometry. We discovered that the activation of \(\beta 1 \)-integrins upon cell adhesion to type I collagen was decreased in RIC8A-deficient cells as was the activating phosphorylation of Akt downstream of integrins when compared to control cells (Ref.IV, Figure 6C;6D). These results suggest that the lack of RIC8A does not impair the cell migration as such, rather RIC8A-deficient cells are unable to properly interact with specific ECM components and this interaction is most likely integrin $\beta 1$ dependent.

Integrins link the ECM to F-actin in focal adhesion complexes, hence we analysed the formation of focal adhesion complexes. RIC8A deficient cells did not assemble ordinary focal adhesion complexes since β1-integrin was distributed rather randomly in the plasma membrane (Ref.IV, Figure 4B;4B') whereas it had accumulated into sprouting clusters in RIC8A expressing cells (Ref.IV, Figure 4A;4A'). Vinculin, which is a major component of focal adhesions, also showed similar localisation pattern in RIC8A deficient cells (Ref.IV, Figure 4D; 4D'). The reduction of focal adhesion complexes in RIC8A deficient conditions was also detected in *X.laevis* NCCs (Fuentealba et al., 2013). The downregulation of RIC8A in *X.laevis* resulted in reduced adhesion of neural crest cells to fibronectin (Fuentealba et al., 2013) and upon its deletion from mouse neural progenitor cells reduced adhesion to laminin (Ma et al., 2012).

The lack of focal adhesion complexes was probably due to an inability to properly organise actin cytoskeleton. No stress-fibre-like structures were found in the RIC8A-deficient cells in contrary to control mES colonies (Ref.IV, Figure 3). This is probably due to the downregulation of $G\alpha_{13}$ in RIC8A deficient cells (Ref.IV, Figure 1F) and reduction of RhoA activity since the activation of RhoA is known to be required for the formation of actin stress fibres (Ridley and Hall, 1992) and RIC8A has previously been shown to affect RhoA activity (Gabay et al., 2011). Another key component of this pathway is the focal adhesion kinase (FAK) which has a similar phenotype with Ric8a^{-/-} cells since Fak -- cells have an increased number of immature focal adhesions, resulting in cell rounding and reduced cell migration as well as the altered regulation of the actin cytoskeleton (Beggs et al., 2003). FAK is a nonreceptor tyrosine kinase that is activated following integrin binding to various components of ECM (Parsons, 2003). Interference with FAK function in neural precursor cells or in meningeal cells leads to a severe cortical dysplasia resembling typeII lissencephaly (Beggs et al., 2003). These observed defects resemble the phenotype of Nes; Ric8a^{CKO} mice and Ric8a^{-/-} cells. Therefore, based on our results and studies by others, we can conclude that RIC8A is an essential regulator of cell-matrix interactions and can modulate the cell migration in early cerebral cortex development.

4. RIC8A in asymmetric cell division (Ref. II; Ref. III)

Dorsal meninges and radial glial endfeet lie in close proximity to each other and their interactions may be crucial for cell specification through extrinsic signals (Siegenthaler and Pleasure, 2011). As reported earlier, the disruption of the pial BM in mice could lead to miscommunication between the meninges and the RG

endfeet and may trigger neurogenic fate (Siegenthaler et al., 2009). The reduction of the cortical thickness of *Nes;Ric8a^{CKO}* mice at P0 is indicative of the premature neurogenesis where postmitotic cells are generated too early at the expense of progenitor cells. Therefore, we analysed the division of mitotic cells by measuring their cleavage plane angles in relation to the VZ surface and grouped the angles using 10° intervals. The results were somewhat surprising, since usually planar divisions are analysed using the angle intervals of 30° (0-30°; 30-60°; 60-90°) (Haubst et al., 2006; Kosodo et al., 2004; Noctor et al., 2002), but our results showed significant increase of the cleavage planes between 70-90° range and obvious decrease in the range of 0-70° in Nes; Ric8a^{CKO} mice (Ref.II, Figure 6E). These results indicate that the loss of RIC8A in neural progenitor cells shifts the balance between the planar and oblique cell divisions towards planar divisions. In addition, studying the cell lineage of daughter cells after mitosis revealed an imbalance between the direct or indirect neurogenesis since the amount of radial glial cells and neurons (could be produced through planar divisions) increased while the number of intermediate progenitors (produced through oblique divisions) decreased in *Nes;Ric8a*^{CKO} cortices (Ref.II, Figure 6G–6L).

Cleavage plane is oriented through the correct attachment of astral microtubules to the cell cortex which requires the formation of Ga_i-LGN-NuMA complex (Morin and Bellaiche, 2011; Nipper et al., 2007; Schaefer et al., 2001). RIC8A is required for the asymmetric cell division and it catalyses the release of $G\alpha_i$ -GTP and NuMA from $G\alpha_i$ -GDP:LGN:NuMA complex (Tall and Gilman, 2005). Gα_i that serves as an attachment point for astral microtubules at the plasma membrane, locates mostly in the cytoplasm and only occasionally at the cell cortex in the neural precursor cells of Nes, Ric8a^{CKO} mutants at E14.5 (Ref.II, Figure S2B-S2E). Such localisation of Gα_i is in good concordance with the studies where RIC8A was shown to function as a chaperone that governs the membrane-association of nascent G-protein α-subunit (Chan et al., 2013; Gabay et al., 2011; Tall et al., 2013). The Gα_i-LGN-NuMA complex on the ends of astral microtubules can also associate with Inscuteable (Postiglione et al., 2011). The loss and gain of function analysis of the mouse Inscuteable (mInsc) gene indicated that mInsc interferes with the horizontal orientation of mitotic spindle during RG cell division and increases the number of forming neurons. The oblique spindle orientation is required for the production of intermediate progenitor cells and thereby causes the increase in the final brain size (Postiglione et al., 2011). In our studies, the number of cells in mitosis did not differ in brains of control and Nes; Ric8a^{CKO} mice. However, the number of cells in anaphase differed remarkably, especially the number of planarly dividing cells was significantly higher in the brain of mutant mice than in control cortices (Ref.II, Figure 6F). These results are consistent with the results from an earlier study where RIC8A removal in HeLa cells interfered with the localisation of $G\alpha_i$ subunit to the cell cortex in metaphase and disrupted correct mitotic spindle alignment, which in turn caused the occasional mitotic arrest and prolonged mitosis (Woodard et al., 2010).

When RIC8A regulated asymmetric cell division is excluded, the resulting LGN-complex-independent actin spindle orientation could lead to unregulated and rather symmetric divisions as a default state (Kwon et al., 2015). Moreover, aforementioned proteins that mediate cell adhesion also participate in orientation of the mitotic spindle. For example, the main function for Cdc42 in mammalian neurogenesis is to activate the Par complex in order to maintain the adherens junctions coupling and progenitor cell fate. In line with this, the deletion of Cdc42 caused the conversion of apical progenitors to bIP cells that had also acquired the SVZ characteristic fate determinants (Cappello et al., 2006). Furthermore, during cell division, Ilk localises to the centrosome and plays an essential role in mitotic spindle assembly and colocalizes with tubulininteracting proteins (Fielding et al., 2008). Overall, Ilk has been implicated in regulating migration, cell survival, proliferation, and IP₃ dependent signal transduction. Similarly to Ilk, RIC8A has also been shown to localise in centrosomes, in the mitotic spindles and in the midbody in HeLa cells (Miller and Rand, 2000; Woodard et al., 2010). Additionally, in *C.elegans* RIC8 has been shown to participate in IP₃ signalling, thus, RIC8 may also be involved in mitotic spindle assembly and other centrosome-mediated processes (Miller and Rand, 2000). Accordingly, mice deficient in centrosomal protein Pericentrin have similar spindle orientation defects in neural progenitor cells and also possess malformations in the heart septum (Chen et al., 2014). Pericentrin is necessary for spindle orientation and functions by regulating the astral microtubule length and density. Based on extensive similarities of the phenotype of Pent— and Nes; Ric8a^{CKO} mice, it seems feasible that RIC8A may act in the regulatory network of astral microtubule length and density. Moreover, a recent study revealed the importance of astral microtubule density and dynamics on the stability of mitotic spindle orientation (Mora-Bermudez et al., 2014). The authors suggested that in neuroepithelial cells (NE) the astral microtubule density is high which keeps the cells parallel to the substratum, but when NE cells transform into RG cells, which is at about the same time when RIC8A is upregulated, the density of astral microtubules decreases and they become more dynamic (Mora-Bermudez et al., 2014). The orientation of spindle that becomes less tightly anchored is, therefore, more easily readjusted by intra- and extracellular forces that can induce tilts (Mora-Bermudez et al., 2014). Thus, the regulation of astral microtubule assembly, density, and dynamics may be influenced by the Gα_i-RIC8A interplay during cell division, but this is a completely unexplored area in mammals and definitely needs further investigations before solid conclusions can be drawn.

In a separate line of investigation, we studied the RIC8A role in mammalian oocyte divisions, since oocyte undergoes highly asymmetric cell divisions resulting in the formation of small polar bodies and one large oocyte. The size difference between the daughter cells is achieved by the asymmetric spindle positioning before the cytokinesis. Gene expression analyses have shown that *Ric8a* is upregulated at the beginning of meiosis (Olesen et al., 2007). Moreover, xRic-8 is maternally expressed in amphibian oocytes where it

participates in the maintenance of meiotic arrest (Maldonado-Agurto et al., 2011; Romo et al., 2008). In meiosis, RIC8A localises to the cytoplasm at the early and in germinal vesicle at later stages. Upon meiotic spindle formation, RIC8A shifted to the spindle in metaphase and retained there during the anaphase and telophase of meiosis I and II (Ref. III, Figure 2). RIC8 also colocalizes with its known interaction partners NuMA, LGN and Gail/2 in the meiotic spindle (Ref.III, Figure 4; Figure 5). LGN has been shown to participate in chromosome alignment by regulating the spindle elongation and cortical localisation (Guo and Gao, 2009). NuMA is associated with the centrosome core structure in meiotic cells and functions during meiotic maturation. Accurate translocation to the meiotic poles is important for maturation that leads to functional spindle poles (Schatten and Sun, 2011). RIC8A may regulate these processes since the downregulation of RIC8A synthesis by RNA interference during oocyte maturation interfered with the correct localisation of $G\alpha_{i1/2}$ and reduced its level in the cell cortex (Ref.III, Figure 8G). Although the downregulation of *Ric8* had no statistically significant effect on morphology, we observed a tendency for some unfertilized oocytes to divide abnormally (forming two or three almost equal cells). Furthermore, meiosis I lasted longer in Ric8 siRNA treated cells and also some oocytes could not maintain the correct positioning in metaphase.

Meiotic spindle positioning in mouse oocytes relies mostly on actindependent mechanisms but not microtubules (Lancaster and Baum, 2014). In mammalian oocytes, there are no true centrosomes and astral microtubules, therefore different pools of F-actin meshworks in the cortex and in the cytoplasm play the key role in the positioning of spindles (Almonacid et al., 2014; Chaigne et al., 2012). To compensate the lack of centrosomes and astral microtubules, oocytes use several alternative strategies depending on the species (Almonacid et al., 2014). Although, we have shown that RIC8A is important in F-actin assembly, in oocyte meiotic divisions there are possibly other regulators that could compensate for RIC8A downregulation after siRNA treatment.

5. RIC8A and neural crest-derived structures (Ref.II, Ref.V)

Previous results have suggested that functionality and behaviour of the neural crest cells may be affected in *Nes;Ric8a^{CKO}* mice. The cranial neural crest cells migrate first rostrally between E9 and E10 in mouse embryo to contribute to the initial layer of meningeal cells that becomes a part of the leptomeninges (Etchevers et al., 1999; Siegenthaler and Pleasure, 2011). Without this migration, the development of the telencephalon and cranio-facial development are interrupted (Etchevers et al., 1999). The genotyping data of *Nes;Ric8a^{CKO}* mice indicated that the number of newborn pups per litter was smaller than the average, therefore the embryos at different development stages were evaluated. The phenotypic evaluation revealed that at E10.5, almost 40% of *Nes;Ric8a^{CKO}* embryos had severe developmental abnormalities and they died around that

period or shortly after. These mutant mice displayed neural tube closure defects in the trunk and head regions, morphologically defective brain vesicles, twisted body shape and cranio-facial defects that were not detected in the littermate controls (Ref.II, Figure 1A–1D). A larger group of Nes; Ric8a^{CKO} embryos had rather mild phenotypic defects or were even indistinguishable from littermates. Therefore, in some cases, the absence of RIC8A in the neural progenitors affects more severely the migrating cranial NCCs and results in the defective telencephalon and cranio-facial development. However, at the peak phase of mouse neurogenesis at E14.5, the majority of Nes; Ric8a^{CKO} embryos (~80%) were indistinguishable from the control embryos. Nevertheless, at the age of E18.5 the Nes; Ric8a^{CKO} mutant animals were again easily recognisable by their neuromuscular phenotype (described earlier in Results and Discussion Chapter 1.1.). Some of the observed defects in Nes; Ric8a^{CKO} mice again point to developmental aberrations in the neural crest-derived structures, such as the short snout and steep forehead. The RIC8A expression (E9.5) and NestinCre upregulation (E9.5) in the neuroepithelium (Ref.V, Figure S1) probably overlap with the time of cranial neural crest migration and the deficiency of RIC8A sum to randomly affect the neural crest cells that migrate to the rostral region or influences the rear part of cranial NCCs.

NCCs also provide all parasympathetic innervation of the heart which influences the normal myocardial function (Kirby et al., 1983). Therefore, we analysed RIC8A and *NestinCre* transgene expression at E14.5 in the area of coronary artery and in the wall of the aorta (Ref. V, Figure 5A,5B). The NCCs contribute to the heart development in the same area giving rise to cardiac smooth muscle cells which contribute to the development of coronary artery and interseptum (Arima et al., 2012; Dettlaff-Swiercz et al., 2005; Waldo et al., 1998). Moreover, in the heart development, it has been demonstrated that the early migration of preotic NCCs, rather than postotic NCCs, gives rise to smooth muscle cells and contributes to coronary artery development (Arima et al., 2012). According to the above-mentioned results in some cases, RIC8A deletion affects the very early migrating cranial NCCs, however, in the majority of cases RIC8A deletion affects cranial NCCs in later stages resulting in malformations of heart and brain.

Moreover, poor muscle innervation described in *Nes;Ric8a^{CKO}* mice may also be due to defects in NCCs derived structures that in turn affect myelination of peripheral nerve and their development through radial sorting. Myelination in the peripheral nervous system is accomplished by Schwann cells which originate from NCCs (Witt and Brady, 2000). Schwann cells deposit polarised BM around themselves and the myelinated axon during the radial sorting. This process is dependent on the interaction between laminin and β 1-integrins or α -dystroglycan (McKee et al., 2012). Interference with this interaction in Schwann cells by ablation of laminins (α 2; γ 2), integrin β 1, Ilk, FAK, RhoGTPases, GPR56 or α -dystroglycan function causes dysmyelination and subsequent paralysis, tremors and muscular dystrophies (Berti et al., 2011; Berti et al., 2006; Feltri et al., 2008; Gheyara et al., 2007; Giera et al., 2015; Grove et al.,

2007; Pereira et al., 2009; Postel et al., 2008). These results strongly support the idea that RIC8A functionality is essential for nerve myelination by regulating the BM organisation through RhoA pathway. However, further studies are needed to unravel the role of RIC8A in nerve myelination.

In order to migrate along their cranial routes, cranial NCCs need to integrate positional and guidance cues to dynamically interact with each other and with their surrounding extracellular matrix (Deakin and Turner, 2008). Clusters of migrating cells firmly associate with each other while only transiently adhere to a substrate (Friedl et al., 2004). A myriad of molecular signals trigger the cascade of coordinated events like induction, specification, polarisation and migration (Theveneau et al., 2010). Signal transduction of heterotrimeric Gproteins has been described to regulate each of these events by promoting actin cytoskeleton reorganisation via activation of small GTPases such as Cdc42, Rac and Rho (Cotton and Claing, 2009; Kjoller and Hall, 1999; Nobes and Hall, 1995). It is well documented that Cdc42 has an essential role in NCC development. Cdc42 is activated by integrins and focal adhesion kinase (FAK) and loss of integrin 81 or FAK in NCCs result in craniofacial and cardiovascular developmental defects (Pietri et al., 2004; Vallejo-Illarramendi et al., 2009). The total deletion of Cdc42 caused embryonic lethality and aberrant actin cytoskeleton organisation (Chen et al., 2000; Liu et al., 2013). Cdc42 conditional knockout studies have indicated that Cdc42 plays a crucial role in the renewal of neural progenitor cell and cerebral hemisphere separation (Cappello et al., 2006; Chen et al., 2000; Peng et al., 2013). Moreover, deletion of Cdc42 in NCCs induced embryonic lethality with craniofacial morphogenetic defects showing similar defects in craniofacial and cardiovascular development as in Nes; Ric8a^{CKO} embryos (Liu et al., 2013). A recent study by Yan and colleagues also affirmed that RIC8A participates in Cdc42 activation through Gα₁₃ (Yan et al., 2015). Furthermore, the evidence that heterotrimeric G-protein signalling controls the collective and directional migration of NCCs was also provided recently (Theveneau et al., 2010; Theveneau and Mayor, 2011). However, the craniofacial defects mostly associate with defective signalling via $G\alpha_0/G\alpha_{11}$ rather than $G\alpha_{12}/G\alpha_{13}$ which insufficiency has been shown to contribute to the cardiac malformations such as coronary artery dilation and various VSD defects that were also manifested in newborn Nes; Ric8a^{CKO} pups (Dettlaff-Swiercz et al., 2005; Ref.V, Figure 5C-5H). Furthermore, similarly to Nes; Ric8a^{CKO} mice and Ric8a^{-/-} mES cells, Ric8A loss-of-function completely abolishes the ability of cranial NCCs to spread and migrate in *Xenopus laevis*, suggesting impaired cell adhesion, which in turn leads to craniofacial defects (Fuentealba et al., 2013; Maldonado-Agurto et al., 2011). These results strongly suggest the requirement for RIC8A functionality in migration and subsequent differentiation of NCCs that contribute to craniofacial development.

Intrigued by this data, I decided to identify possible neural crest migration defects in $Nes;Ric8a^{CKO}$ embryos for this dissertation by labelling migrating neural crest cells using transcription factor AP2 α (Activating enhancer binding Protein 2 alpha) as a marker. The results indicated that the neural crest cells

were able to migrate to their destination areas also in *Nes;Ric8a^{CKO}* embryos. AP2α-positive cells were found in leptomeninges of the telencephalic vesicles (Figure 5A;5A'), but they were not present in the meninges of mesencephalic vesicle (Figure 5B;5B'). AP2α-positive cells were also detected in the pharyngeal arches from where they migrate to the heart (Figure 5C;5C'), also in dorsal root ganglion and in the epidermis where NCCs contribute to the development of melanocytes (Figure 5D;5D'). Moreover, the deletion of RIC8A did not alter the initiation of cell migration in the cerebral cortex development (Ref. II, Figure 3G,3H), but showed aberrant positioning afterwards. Thus, incorrect positioning of cranial NCCs may be one of the reasons for craniofacial defects in E10.5 in *Nes;Ric8a^{CKO}* mice.

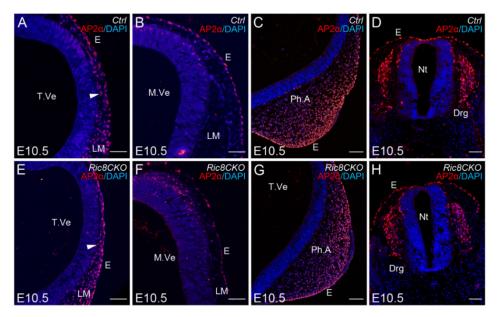


Figure 5. AP2α positive migrating neural crest cells in control (*Ctrl*) and *Nes;Ric8a^{CKO}* embryos (*Ric8CKO*) at E10.5. (A;A') AP2α positive neural crest cells (white arrowhead) in the telencephalic meninges. (B,B') The lack of neural crest cells in the mesencephalic meninges (C,C') Neural crest cell population in the pharyngeal arch and (D) in the dorsal root ganglion. Abbreviations: T.Ve – telencephalic vesicle; M.Ve – mesencephalic vesicle; LM – leptomeninges; Ph.A – pharyngeal arch; Nt – neural tube; Drg – dorsal root ganglion; E – epidermis. Scale bars: 100 μm.

6. The role of RIC8A in the development of congenital muscular dystrophies (Ref. II and Ref. V)

Nes; Ric8a^{CKO} mice exhibit a severe neuromuscular phenotype which is mainly due to multiple developmental defects. The enlarged ventricles, multiple cerebral cortical ectopias and breaches in the BM (Ref.II, Figure 1I–1N; Figure 2; Figure 4 and Figure 5, respectively) strongly resemble the symptoms found in the congenital muscular dystrophies, especially Fukuyama Congenital Muscular Dystrophy (FCMD), Walker-Warburg syndrome (WWS) and Muscle-Eye-Brain (MEB) disease (Bouchet et al., 2007; Pabuscu et al., 2003; Saito, 2006; Yoshioka and Higuchi, 2005). These syndromes are characterised by ocular defects, muscle dystrophy, dysmyelination and occasionally heart, kidney or thymus function failure.

In the current thesis, the brain, muscle and heart defects have been characterised earlier. In addition to these, *Nes;Ric8a^{CKO}* mice also display defective lens development revealing abnormal vacuoles between the secondary fibres (Ref.V, Figure 3). These vacuoles and aberrant Y-suture formation in lens secondary fibre elongation are linked to defective adhesion and migration, associated with aberrant RhoA signaling (Cammas et al., 2012; Maddala et al., 2011; Maddala et al., 2004; Maddala et al., 2003; Maddala et al., 2008). All of the deficiencies that are found in *Nes;Ric8a^{CKO}* mice add up to a phenotype that highly resembles congenital muscular dystrophies.

Since the WWS is the most severe syndrome among these disorders (Barkovich et al., 2012; Cormand et al., 2001; Devisme et al., 2012), we presume that the lack of RIC8A in neural progenitor cells mostly generates the phenotype resembling WWS. Persons with lissencephaly and only mild eye abnormalities develop muscle dysplasia but can live beyond infancy like FCMD and MEB patients (Jang et al., 2013; Yoda et al., 2011). However, WWS patients mostly live only for a few months, and never reach over 3 years. FCMD patients form a distinct group from other two having the mildest phenotype and mostly lacking ocular defects (Cormand et al., 2001; Vajsar and Schachter, 2006). MEB patients are usually floppy, mentally retarded with suspected visual problems, however, they are able to learn of few words and learn to walk (Cormand et al., 2001). The defects described in WWS individuals are the most severe and can be diagnosed already prenatally because of aggravated hydrocephalus (Cormand et al., 2001). However, a lot of patients possess clinical features somewhere in between these typical groups described (Cormand et al., 2001). Despite intensive research and genetic screening of genes involved in glycosylation of α -dystroglycan, a lot of the cases remain unexplained suggesting that other genes and/or signalling pathways may be involved in these pathologies (Belpaire-Dethiou et al., 1999; Devisme et al., 2012; Vajsar and Schachter, 2006).

Our hypothesis is that in addition to described features, the NCC with impaired functionality, due to the absence of RIC8A, may also cause additional defects in the heart development and nerve myelination. Our hypothesis is also

supported by case studies where cleft palate defects were described in WWS patients (Pratap et al., 2007; Vajsar et al., 2008). Our research also showed that RIC8A is expressed in neural crest cell derived structures (heart, meninges) and it is involved in regulation of cell shape, division adhesion, and migration. However, further studies are needed to clarify how the absence of RIC8A impairs the NCC migration and differentiation contributes to multiple developmental processes defects that could cause CMD.

To sum up, our findings demonstrate that the functional RIC8A is required for the development and normal functioning of the central nervous system in mammals as well as for the development of the peripheral nervous system. The removal of RIC8A from the neural precursor cells impairs differentiation and migration of progenitor cells in the neuroepithelium and also neural crest cells. On the cellular level RIC8A regulates reorganisation of BM and cell's morphogenetic changes which both require proper actin cytoskeleton organisation, and probably RIC8A modulates the activity of RhoA pathway. The phenotype of created mutant mice has features that are characteristic to CMD symptoms i.e the development of brain, eves, muscles and heart is affected. Among CMD disorders, Nes; Ric8a^{CKO} mouse model could be considered the most similar to Walker-Warburg syndrome, but being more severe and causing early lethality. In principle malfunctioning of RIC8A may be one of the factors generating WWS due to the failure in cell-ECM interaction and insufficient signalling via G-protein mediated RhoA pathway. We also suggest that defective neural crest cells might contribute to the emergence of the CMDs if the integrin-mediated interactions with ECM are defective.

CONCLUSIONS

RIC8A is a highly conserved protein that regulates the activity of a subset of G protein α subunits and is irreplaceable in the normal development and functioning of the brain regions that influence the emotional behaviour and memory. The total loss of RIC8A function is embryonically lethal and causes severe gastrulation defects in mice. To characterise the role of RIC8A function in the nervous system and its development we generated two knockout mouse models where RIC8A was knocked out from the postmitotic neurons and neural precursor cells, respectively. Additionally, the mechanism of RIC8A action in regulating the adhesion of cells to ECM, and in migration was analysed *in vitro* in primary cells.

The main results of this dissertation can be concluded as follows

- 1. Deletion of RIC8A from the nervous system during its development leads to the severe defects in neuromuscular signalling that affect the functioning of skeletal muscles and heart. The muscles of these animals suffer from progressive atrophy and fibrosis, the heart function is severely impaired due to several morphological defects.
- 2. RIC8A has an essential role in neurogenesis by maintaining the integrity of pial basement membrane. The breaches in the basement membrane cause further defects in the attachment of arachnoid trabeculae and radial glial endfect to it, which in turn leads to wrong positioning of Cajal-Retzius cells.
- 3. RIC8A functions as one of the organisers of actin filaments assembly. RIC8A deficient cells fail to activate β 1-integrin and form proper focal adhesion complexes or stress fibres, which subsequently impair cell migration.
- 4. Deletion of RIC8A from neural precursor cells shift the ratio of the planar and oblique cell division toward planar divisions and thereby the proportion of direct or indirect neurogenesis.
- 5. RIC8A also regulates the development of neural crest-derived structures such as meninges, cranio-facial development, the formation of coronary artery and interseptum in heart and innervation of nerves in muscles.
- 6. The phenotype and histological studies of the RIC8A deficient knockout mice reveal its high resemblance with the symptoms of congenital muscular dystrophies such as Walker-Warburg disease, Muscle-Eye-Brain disease and Fukuyama congenital muscular dystrophy.

SUMMARY IN ESTONIAN

RIC8A roll hiire närvisüsteemis ja selle arengus

Kesknärvisüsteemi ja perifeerse närvisüsteemi häireteta toimimine on olulise tähtsusega täisväärtusliku elu tagamiseks. Närvisüsteemi funktsioneerimiseks on vajalik neuraalsete eellasrakkude, gliiarakkude ja neuronite õigeaegne moodustumine ning paigutumine. Sellele paneb aluse korrektselt läbitud neurogenees, mis hõlmab endas neuraalsete eellasrakkude jagunemist, neuronite diferentseerumist ja migreerumist ning rakkudevaheliste võrgustike loomist (Bjornsson et al., 2015). Üheks ülioluliseks ja väga kompleksseks struktuuriks imetajate neurogeneesis on evolutsiooniliselt noor 6-kihiline neokorteks, mis vastutab tunnetuslike ja õppimis- ning tajufunktsioonide eest (Buchman and Tsai, 2007). Neokorteksi suurus oleneb aga embrüonaalse neurogeneesi käigus tekkinud neuronite arvust ning õigest paiknemisest kihtides (Fernandez et al., 2016).

Rakkude jagunemist, adhesiooni ja liikumist õigetesse piirkondadesse koordineerivad erinevad signaalide võrgustikud, mis vahendavad signaali ülekannet rakuvälisest keskkonnast rakku (Bastiani and Mendel, 2006). Loomariigis konserveerunud G-valkude vahendatud signaali ülekanne enim kasutatud mehhanismiks rakuvälise signaali viimiseks rakusisesesse keskkonda (Bastiani and Mendel, 2006). G-valkude aktiviseerimisel osalevad transmembraansed retseptorid ning rakusisesed G-valgu aktiivsuse regulaatorid. Üheks neist on RIC8A, mis mõjutab G-valgu $G\alpha_q/G\alpha_{11}$; $G\alpha_i/G\alpha_o$ and $G\alpha_{12}/G\alpha_{13}$ subühikute toimimist. Seni teadaolevalt omab RIC8A kahte funktsiooni, millest esmalt kirjeldati nukleotiidivahetuse võime (GEF) G valgu α subühiku aktiveerimisel ning hiljem G-valgu stabiliseerimine biosünteesil ja membraani suunamine (Chan et al., 2011; Gabay et al., 2011; Tall et al., 2013).

Imetaja närvisüsteemis on RIC8A täpselt kaardistatud koduhiires (*Mus musculus*). RIC8A ekspressioon on aktiivsel organogeneesi staadiumil (E9.5–E12.5) peamiselt neurospetsiifiline. Täiskasvanud hiire kesknärvisüsteemis on RIC8A avaldunud piirkondades, mis on seotud tunnetuslike ja õppimis- ning tajufunktsioonidega (Tõnissoo et al., 2003; Tõnissoo et al., 2006). Käitumiskatsed haplodefitsiitsete *Ric8a*^{+/-} hiirtega näitasid, et neil esinevad ärevushäired, neil on vähenenud ruumiline taju ning õppimisvõime (Tõnissoo et al., 2006). Homosügootsed *Ric8a*^{-/-} embrüod surevad gastrulatsiooni staadiumis (E6.5 – E8.5) tekkinud arenguanomaaliate tõttu (Tõnissoo et al., 2010).

Käesoleva töö eesmärgiks oli uurida RIC8A rolli närvisüsteemi arengus. Selleks loodi hiireliin, kus *Ric8a* geen oli välja lülitatud neuraalsetest eellasrakkudest. Lisaks loodi hiireliin, kus *Ric8a* oli inaktiveeritud diferentseerunud neuronites. RIC8A valgu puudumine hiire kesknärvisüsteemi ja perifeerse närvisüsteemi rakkudest põhjustab tugevat neuromuskulaarset fenotüüpi, mida iseloomustab liikumisvõime puudumine, värisemine ja tõmblused ning mis põhjustab hiirte sünnijärgse suremuse. Mõlemal närvisüsteemi-põhisel mutandil esinesid skeleti- ja südamelihaste atroofia. Hiirtel, kellel RIC8A puudus närvi-

süsteemi arengu ajal esinesid lisaks veel morfoloogilised defektid südame ja näo-kolju arengus.

Neuraalsetes eellasrakkudes RIC8A puudumine põhjustas rakkude migratsiooni häired neurogeneesis. Mutantsete hiirte ajukoor oli õhem ning ebakorrektse morfoloogiaga. Nende ajukoor sisaldas anomaalseid ektoopilisi väljakasve, mis olid eelkõige tekkinud pehmekesta basaalmembraani (BM) purunemise tagajärel. BM katked põhjustasid omakorda sellest sõltuvate rakkude jätkete kinnitumise (radiaalgliia rakud, ämblikvõrk-kelme trabeekulid) ning paiknemise häireid (Cajal-Retzius rakud). Lähemalt uuriti edasi RIC8A funktsiooni raku ja rakuvälise maatriksi interaktsioonil *in vitro*. Tulemused näitasid, et RIC8A defitsiitsed rakud ei ole võimelised moodustama rakk-maatriks interaktsioonil olulisi fokaalse adhesiooni komplekse ega ka stressifiibreid, mis põhjustasid ka rakkude vähenenud migreerumist. Need häired on peamiselt põhjustatud β1-integriini vahendatud signaaliraja defektsusega.

RIC8A puudus neuraalsetest eellasrakkudest mõjutas ka neurogeneesis toimuvaid rakujagunemisi, kus vähenes viltuste jagunemiste osakaal ning kasvas planaarselt jagunevate rakkude osakaal. Selline tasakaalu muutus mõjutab oluliselt tekkivate rakkude arvu ajukoore arengus, kus viltuste jagunemistega suurendatakse rakkude mitmekesisust erinevate eellasrakkude abil (kaudne neurogenees) ning samas säilitatakse eellasrakkude õige arvukus. Rohkete planaarsete jagunemiste käigus tekib pigem kaks sama saatusega rakku (otsene neurogenees) ning neurogenees peatub enneaegselt, põhjustades õhema ajukoore tekke.

RIC8A geeni inaktiveerimine närvisüsteemi arenemise ajal mõjutas ka neuraalharja rakkudest moodustatavate struktuuride arengut, põhjustades näokolju arenguhäireid ning südames pärgarterite ja vatsakeste vaheseina defekte. Samuti võib RIC8A puudus ajukelmetes põhjustada kõrvalekaldeid BM struktuuris ja koostises ning mõjutada närvide müeliniseerumist ja seeläbi ka lihaste innervatsiooni. Nii ajukelmete tekkesse kui ka müeliniseerumisse panustavad oluliselt omavad neuraalharja rakud.

Kirjeldatud defektid RIC8A puudulikel hiirtel sarnanevad kaasasündinud lihasdüstroofiate tunnustega, mis näiteks Fukuyama lihasdüstroofia, Walker-Warburgi sündroomi ja lihase-silma-aju haiguse korral patsientidel esinevad. Need haigused on eelkõige seotud häirunud rakk-maatriks vahendatud signalisatsiooni tõttu läbi düstroglükaanide ja integriinide. Seega, häired RIC8A funktsioonis koostöös G-valkude ja β1-integriinide vahendatud signalisatsiooniga võib olla seotud nende haiguste kujunemisel.

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