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

Philip A. Lewis\*, Isobel C. Bradley\*, Alastair R. Pizzey, Harry V. Isaacs<sup>1\*\*</sup> and Gareth J.O. Evans<sup>1\*\*</sup>

Department of Biology and Hull York Medical School, University of York, Wentworth Way, York, YO10 5DD, UK.

\*Equal contributions

\*\*Equal contributions

## **<sup>1</sup>To whom correspondence should be addressed:**

Dr Gareth J.O. Evans, Department of Biology, University of York, Wentworth Way, York, YO10 5DD, UK, Tel: +44 (0)1904 328571, Fax: +44 (0)1904 328555, E-mail: [gareth.evans@york.ac.uk](mailto:gareth.evans@york.ac.uk)

Dr Harry V Isaacs, Department of Biology, University of York, Wentworth Way, York, YO10 5DD, UK, Tel: +44 (0)1904 328266, Fax: +44 (0)1904 328555, E-mail: [harry.isaacs@york.ac.uk](mailto:harry.isaacs@york.ac.uk)

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## 1 **Abstract**

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

21

## 22 **Significance statement**

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

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

33

## 34 **Introduction**

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

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

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

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

78

## 79 **Materials and Methods**

### 80 ***Sub-cloning of Xenopus n1-src***

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

87 **forward** 5'-AGATCTCTCTAGAACCATGGGTGCCACTAAAAGCAAGCCA-3'

88 **reverse** 5'-GGTACCGTAGATCCAAGGTGTTCCCCAGGCTGGTACTG-3'.

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

94

### 95 ***Fibroblast cell morphology assay***

96 Ten thousand COS7 fibroblast cells were plated onto 13 mm coverslips. Twenty four  
97 hours after plating, cells were transfected with 1 µg plasmid DNA using Ecotransfect  
98 (Oz Biosciences) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Cells were fixed 48 h  
99 after transfection in 4 % paraformaldehyde, 4 % sucrose for 20 min and then

100 permeabilised in 0.1 % Triton, 1 % BSA and stained with primary antibodies (mouse  
101 anti-FLAG (M2), 1:1000; rabbit anti-GFP, 1:500) in 1 % BSA in PBS for 2 h at room  
102 temperature. After 3 washes in PBS, secondary antibodies (anti-mouse Alexa Fluor-  
103 564 and anti-rabbit Alexa Fluor-488; Invitrogen, Paisley, UK) were applied at 1:500 in  
104 1 % BSA in PBS for 1 h in the dark. Coverslips were mounted on slides using Mowial  
105 mountant (10 % Mowial, 25 % glycerol in 0.1 M Tris pH 8.5) containing 1 µg/ml DAPI.  
106 Images were acquired using a 40x objective on a Nikon TE200 epifluorescence  
107 inverted microscope using a RoleraXR CCD (QImaging) camera controlled by  
108 SimplePCI Software (Hamamatsu). The percentage of COS7 cells bearing neurite-  
109 like processes, defined as being longer than the cell soma diameter and having a  
110 width of less than 2 µm, was calculated and statistical analysis of the data was  
111 performed with SigmaPlot software using a Kruskal-Wallis two tailed analysis of  
112 variance. The experimenter was blind to the plasmid transfected in each condition.

113

#### 114 ***Embryological methods***

115 *Xenopus tropicalis* embryos were produced as previously described (Khokha et al.,  
116 2005; Winterbottom et al., 2010). Embryos were microinjected at the 2- or 4-cell  
117 stage and cultured at 22°C in MRS/9+3% Ficoll, before transferring to MRS/20 for  
118 long term culture. The sequences for the splice blocking antisense morpholino oligos  
119 (GeneTools, LLC) are shown below.

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

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

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

125 **RNA extraction and semi-quantitative rt-PCR**

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

134 ***rpl8* forward**                    5'-GGGCTGTCGACTTCGCTGAA-3'

135 ***rpl8* reverse**                    5'-ATACGACCACCACCAGCAAC-3'

136 ***c-src* forward**                    5'-ATCTCGCACCGAGACAGACT-3'

137 ***c-src* reverse**                    5'-CAGTCGCCTTCCGTGTTATT-3'

138 ***n1-src* forward**                    5'-ACTGTGACCTGACGCCTTTT-3'

139 ***n1-src* reverse**                    5'-CCTCATGTCAGGTCTCGTGT-3'.

140

141 ***In situ* hybridisation and β-galactosidase staining**

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

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



149 It was confirmed that no off-target sequence identities of more than 12 nucleotides  
150 were present in the *Xenopus tropicalis* genome. The LNA *in situ* hybridisation was  
151 undertaken as previously described (Sweetman, 2011; Warrander et al., 2016).  
152 Briefly, de-membrated embryos were fixed in 0.1 M MOPS, 2 mM EDTA, 1 mM  
153 MgSO<sub>4</sub>, 3.7 % formaldehyde. The hybridisation and washes were carried out at  
154 57°C. Embryos were hybridised for 36 h with 20 nM LNA probe preabsorbed again  
155 tailbud stage embryos. Colour was developed with BM Purple (Roche) substrate until  
156 diffuse purple staining was visible, at which point embryos were washed for 12 h. The  
157 staining and washing cycle was then repeated until strong specific staining was  
158 present. For lineage tracing,  $\beta$ -galactosidase mRNA synthesis, embryo injection and  
159 enzyme staining was undertaken as previously described (Pownall et al., 1996). Both  
160 *in situs* and fixed phenotypes were imaged using a Leica MZ FLIII microscope  
161 (Leica), a SPOT 14.2 Colour Mosaic camera and SPOT Advanced software  
162 (Diagnostic Instruments Inc.).

163

## 164 **Results**

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

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

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

184

### 185 ***N1-src is expressed during neurogenesis***

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

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

203

#### 204 ***N1-src expression is enriched in the neural plate***

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

219

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

222 Morpholino oligos (MOs) are nucleic acid analogs with a modified backbone  
223 chemistry which are able to hybridize to target RNA in a highly specific, sequence

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

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

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

258

### 259 ***N1-src knockdown disrupts primary neurogenesis***

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

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

275

## 276 **Discussion**

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

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

291

### 292 ***n1-src expression correlates with primary neurogenesis***

293 A previous study indicated that the expression of the *n1-src* isoforms of the tetraploid  
294 amphibian *Xenopus laevis*, are initiated by mid-neurula stage 15 (Collett and Steele,  
295 1992). We find that in the diploid amphibian *Xenopus tropicalis*, there is low level  
296 maternal *n1-src* expression from the start of development, and, in contrast to the  
297 previous study, activation of zygotic *n1-src* expression is initiated as early as mid to

298 late gastrula stages, and by early neurula stages expression is restricted to the open  
299 neural plate.

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

312

### 313 ***Abnormal neural development in n1-src knockdown embryos***

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

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

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



347 and reflects abnormal signalling within the neuroepithelium in the absence of n1-src  
348 activity.

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

364

### 365 ***N1-Src function and neurogenesis in higher vertebrates***

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

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

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

391

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498 **Figure legends**

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

500 **A**, Amino acid alignment of the N1-microexon in mammalian, *Xenopus*, and fish  
501 species. +=basic; -=acidic and  $\Phi$ =hydrophobic amino acid sidechains. **B**,  
502 Representative COS7 cells co-transfected for four days with Src-FLAG and CFP  
503 constructs. Cells were stained for Src (anti-FLAG) and CFP. **C**, Quantification of  
504 process outgrowth in COS7 cells. Each process was defined as an extension longer  
505 than one cell soma diameter and less than 2  $\mu$ m in diameter. Data are plotted as  
506 mean  $\pm$  SEM, n=3 independent experiments. Kruskal-Wallis two-tailed analysis of  
507 variance. \*\*\*, P<0.001. Scale bar = 10  $\mu$ m.

508

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

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

517

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

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



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

527

528 **Figure 4.** Abnormal touch response and primary neurogenesis in *n1-src* knockdown  
529 embryos

530 **A**, diagram showing the sequences and corresponding RNA target sequences of the  
531 splice acceptor (AMO a) and donor (AMO d) splice blocking antisense morpholinos.

532 **B**, rt-PCR analysis of *c-src* and *n1-src* mRNA expression at stage 16 in control  
533 uninjected and injected with a total of 20 ng of AMO a, AMO d or AMO a+d. *rpl8* is  
534 used as a ubiquitously expressed loading control. -rt = no reverse transcriptase

535 control and water = no template control. **C**, representative phenotypes of embryos at  
536 larval stage 41 bilaterally injected at the 2- or 4-cell stage with 10 ng total of a

537 standard control MO or the AMO a+d combination. Embryos were co-injected with  
538 100 pg nuclear  $\beta$ -galactosidase and subsequently stained with X-gal (light blue

539 colour) to demonstrate successful injection targeting. **D**, cartoon of embryo touch  
540 reflex. Touching the skin stimulates Rohon-Beard sensory neurons (s), which

541 synapse onto commissural interneurons (i) that activate contralateral motor neurons  
542 (m), leading to muscle contraction. **E**, Quantitation of touch response phenotype of

543 the same embryos at larval stage 28 and 41 bilaterally injected at the 2- or 4-cell  
544 stage with 10 ng total of a standard control MO or the AMO a+d combination. Data

545 are plotted as mean  $\pm$  SEM, n=4 independent experiments. **F**, *in situ* hybridisation  
546 analysis of *tubb2b* expression in differentiating primary neurons of open neural plate

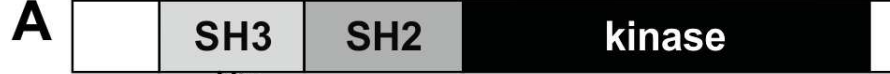
547 stage 14 embryos unilaterally injected with 5 ng total of a standard control MO or the

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

551

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

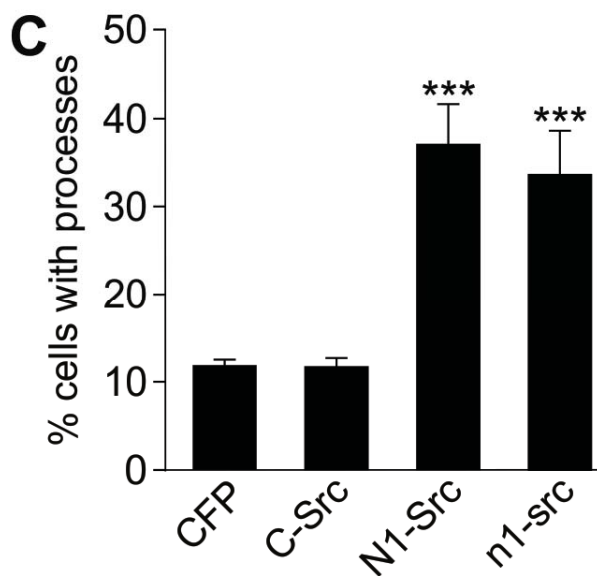
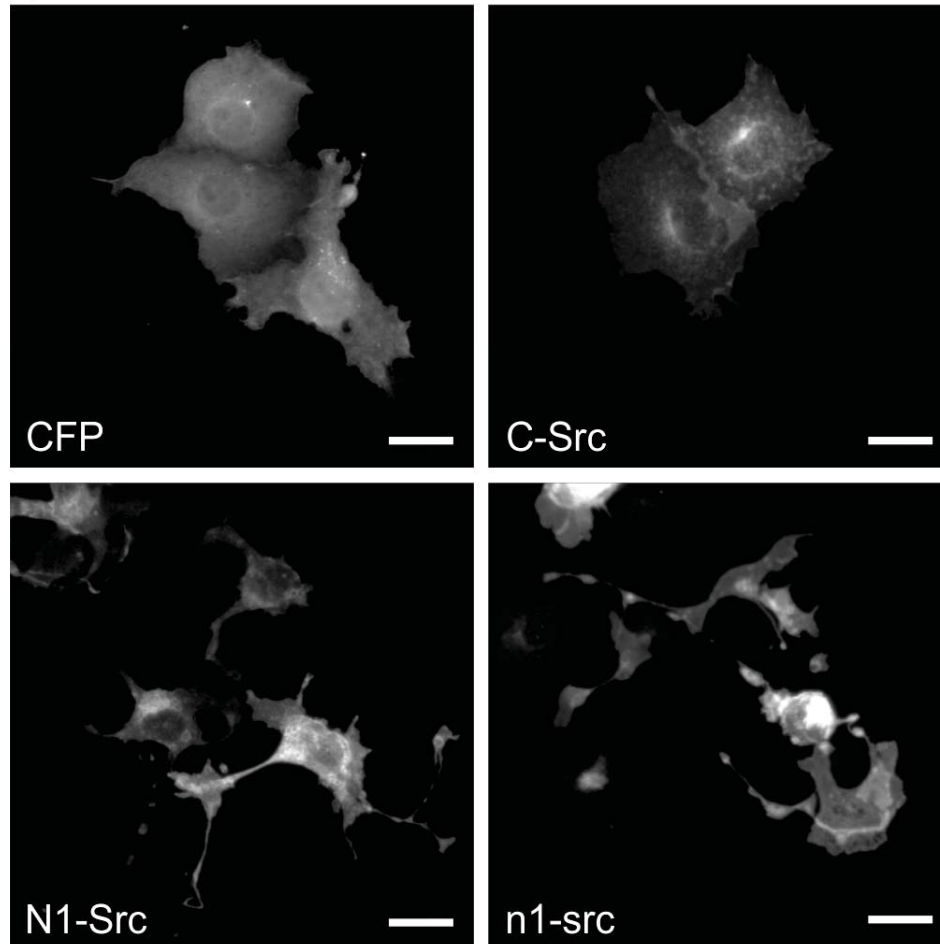
554 **Movies 1 & 3,** real time videos showing the normal touch response of stage 28  
555 (Movie 1) or stage 41 (Movie 3) embryos injected with 10 ng of a standard control  
556 MO. Embryos right themselves and swiftly swam a short distance from the point of  
557 contact. **Movies 2 & 4,** real time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

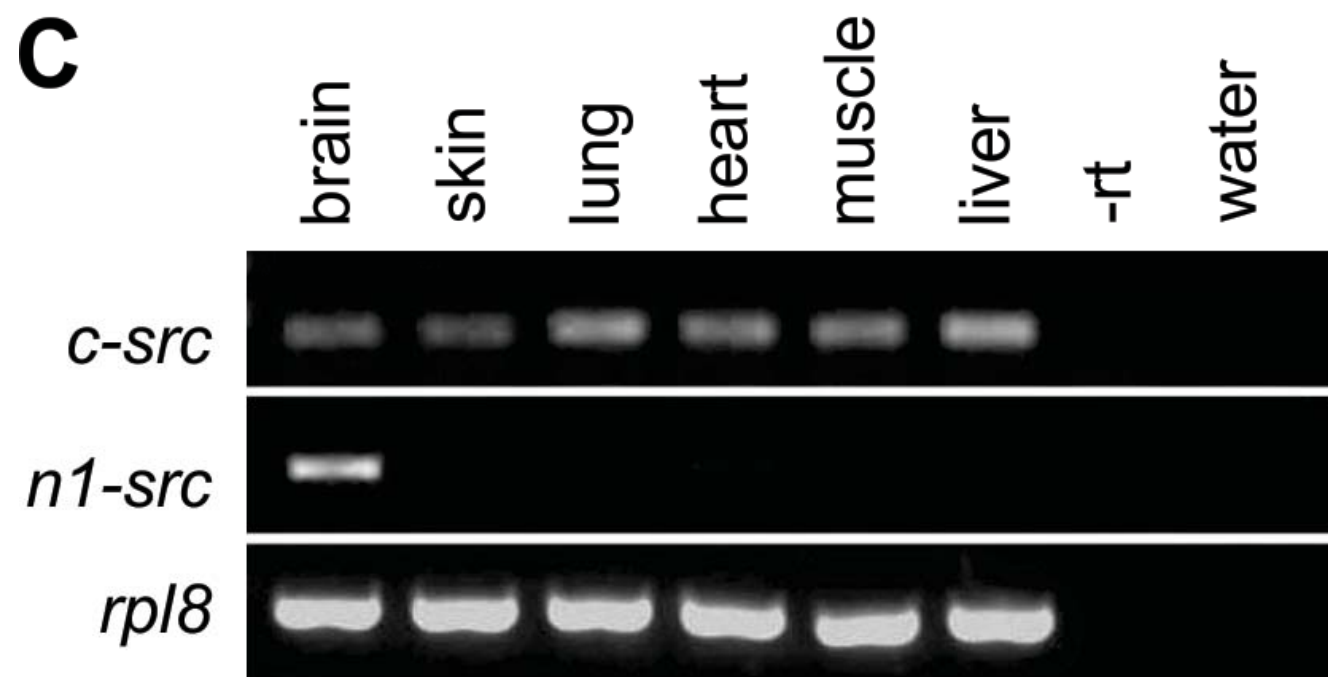
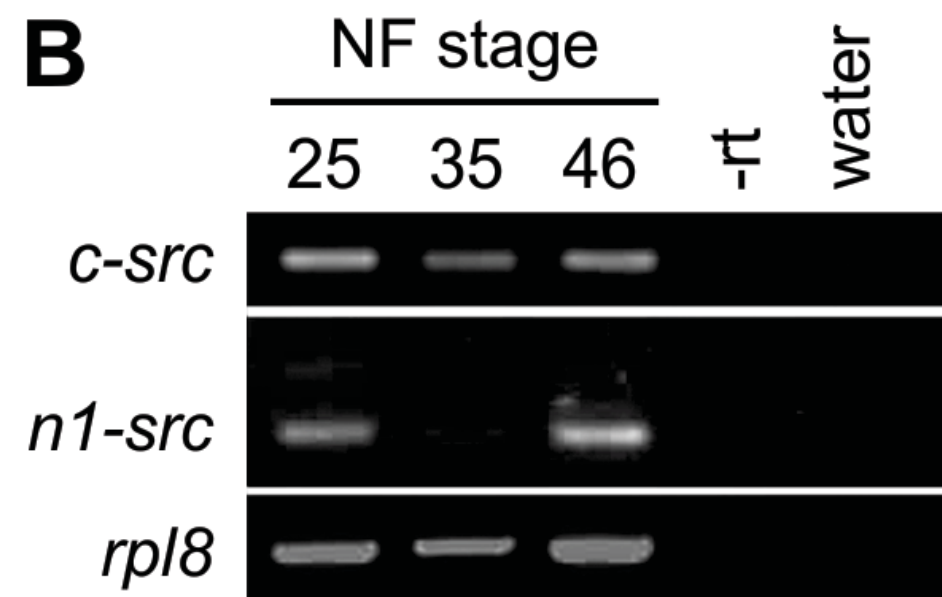
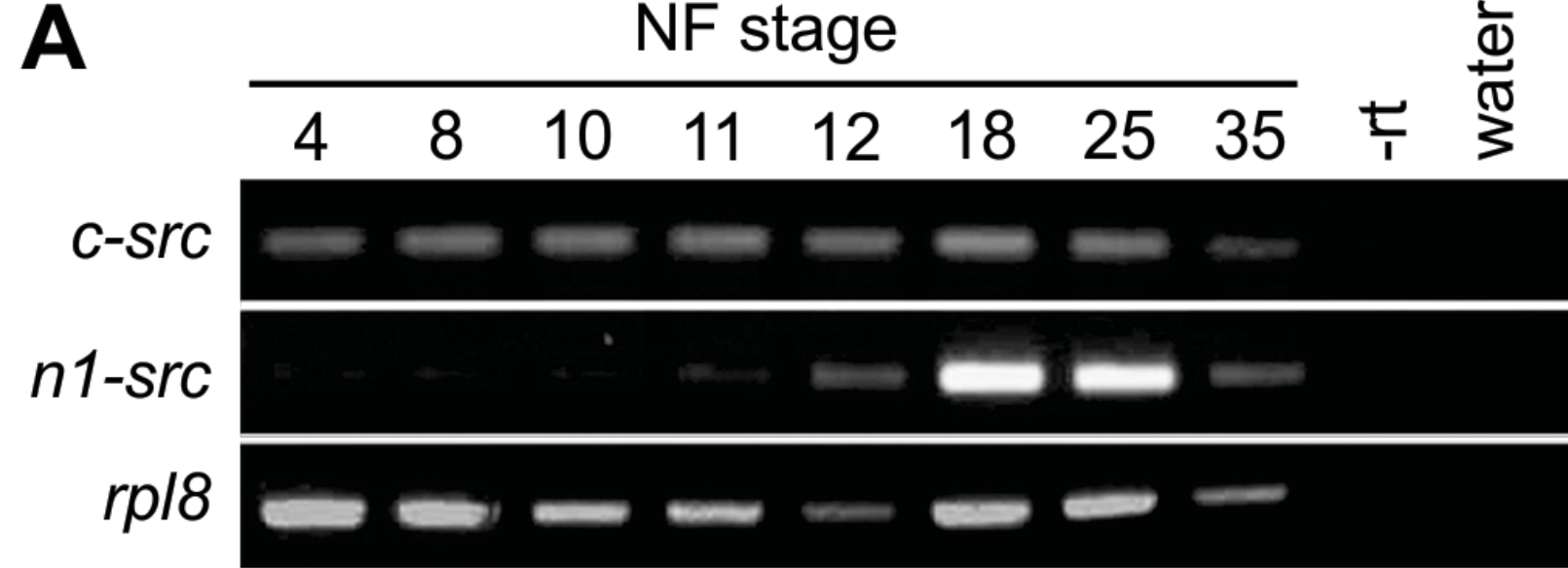


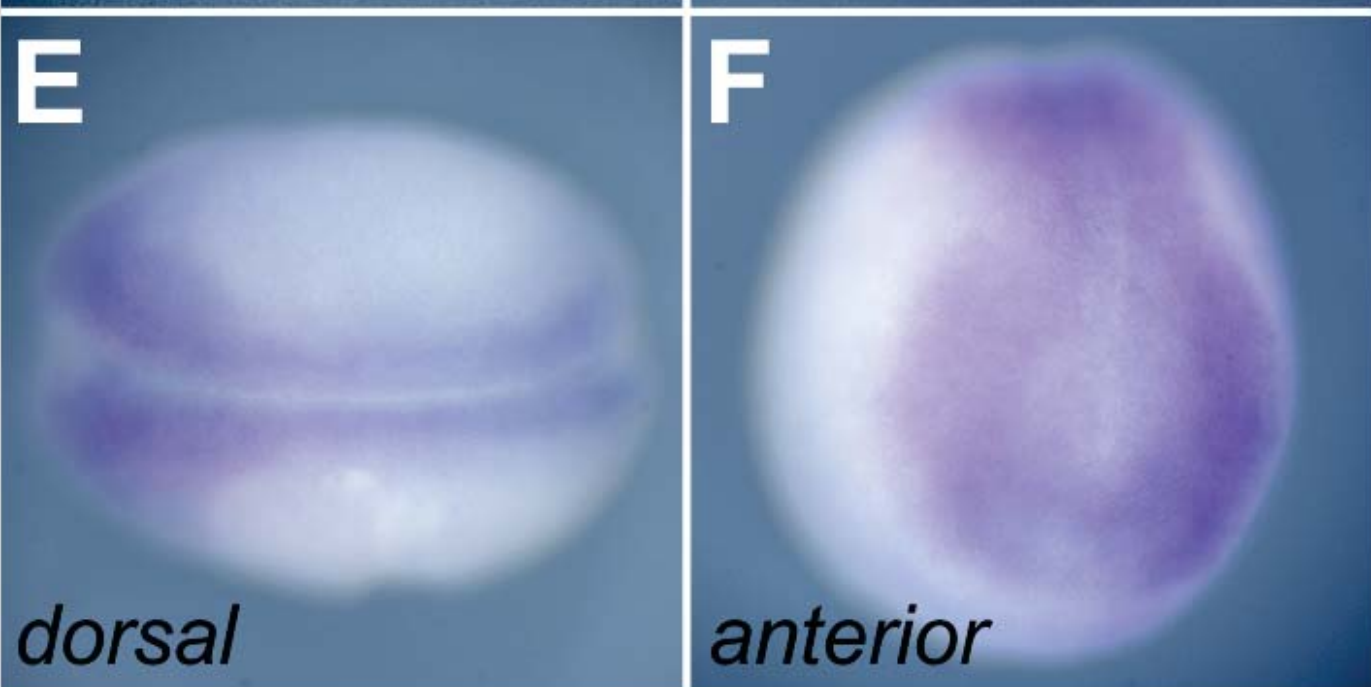
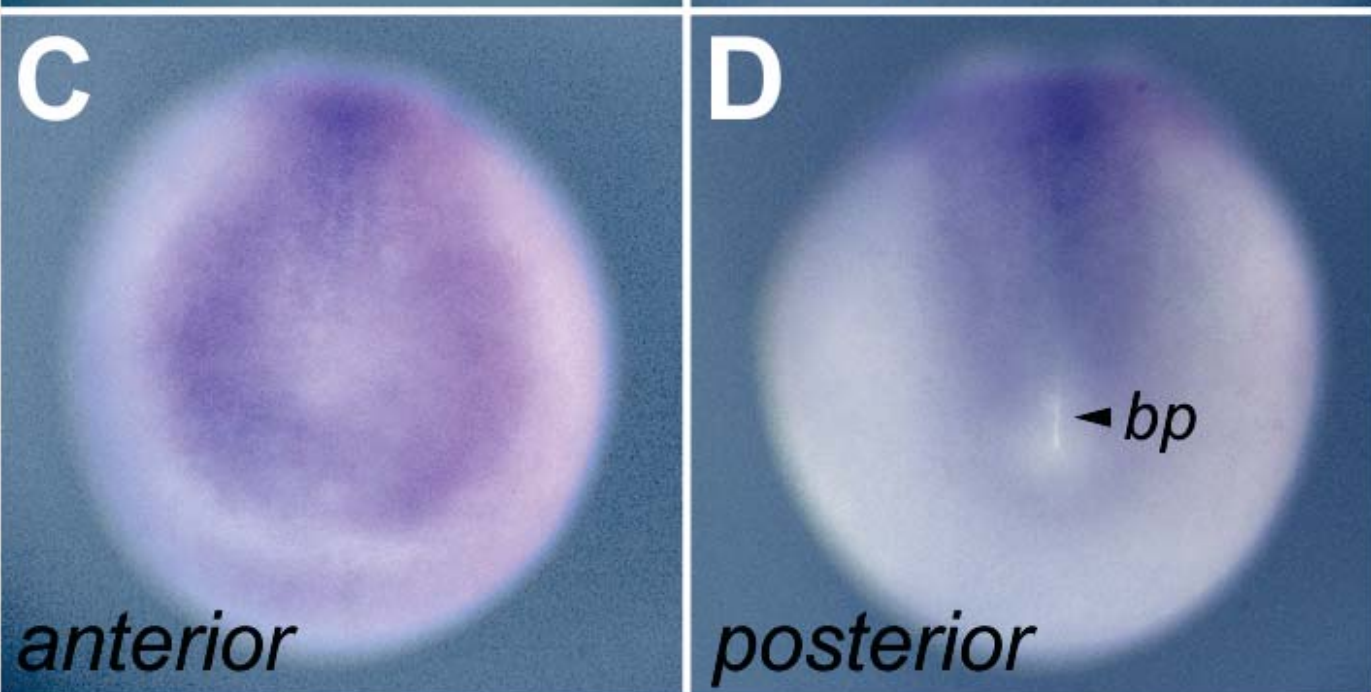
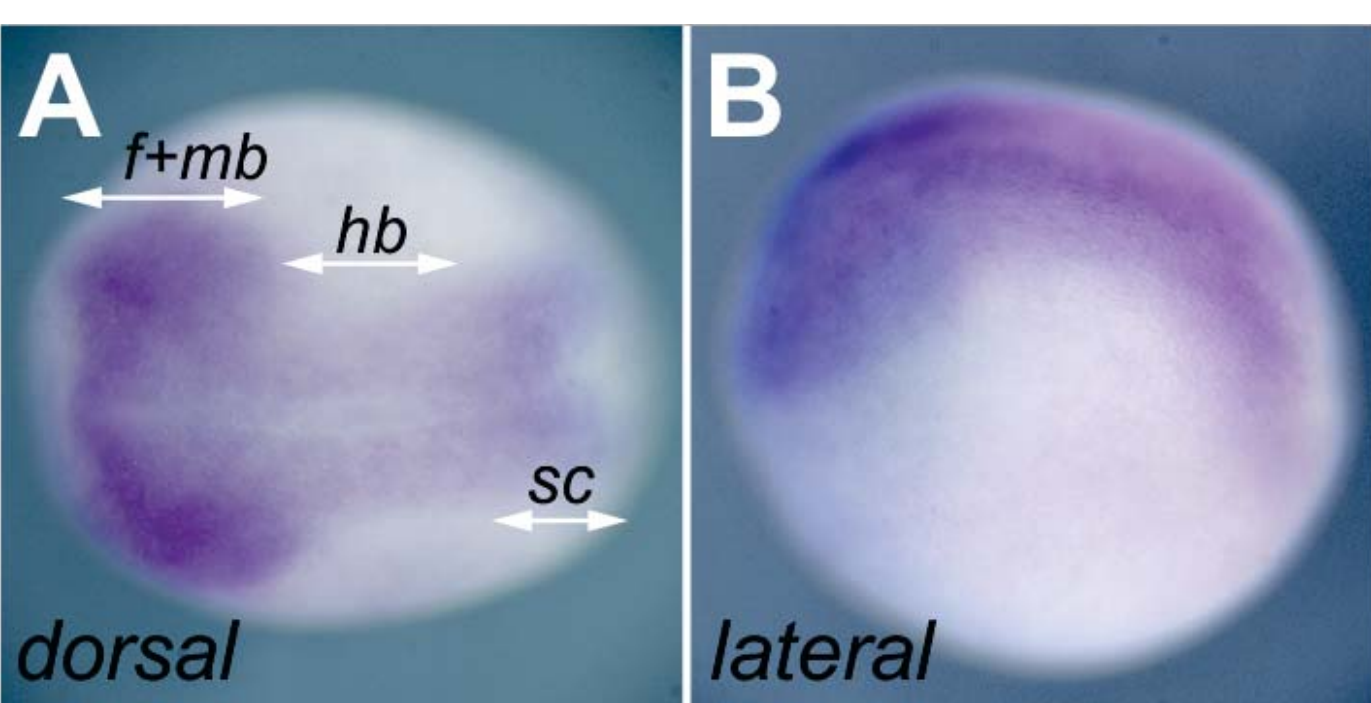
<i>H sapiens, M musculus</i>	VNNT	+ $\phi$ - $\phi$ +	EGDW
<i>R rattus, G gallus</i>	VNNT	R	EGDW
<i>X laevis a</i>	VNNT	R	EGDW
<i>X laevis b</i>	VNNT	R	EGDW
<i>X tropicalis</i>	VNNT	R	EGDW
<i>D rerio</i>	VNNT	R	EGDW
<i>Scyliorhinidae (catshark)</i>	VNNT	R	EGDW

...exon 3      N1      exon 4...  
microexon

**B**







early neurula  
(stage 14)

late neurula  
(stage 19)

