Characterization of Caenorhabditis elegans Lectin-Binding Mutants

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ABSTRACT

We have identified 45 mutants of *Caenorhabditis elegans* that show ectopic surface binding of the lectins wheat germ agglutinin (WGA) and soybean agglutinin (SBA). These mutations are all recessive and define six genes: srf-2, srf-3, srf-4, srf-5, srf-8 and srf-9. Mutations in these genes fall into two phenotypic classes: srf-2, -3, -5 mutants are grossly wild-type, except for their lectin-binding phenotype; srf-4, -8, -9 mutants have a suite of defects, including uncoordinated movement, abnormal egg laying, and defective copulatory bursae morphogenesis. Characterization of these pleiotropic mutants at the cellular level reveals defects in the migration of the gonadal distal tip cell and in axon morphology. Unexpectedly, the pleiotropic mutations also interact with mutations in the *lin-12* gene, which encodes a putative cell surface receptor involved in the control of cell fate. We propose that the underlying defect in the pleiotropic mutations may be in the general processing or secretion of extracellular proteins.

THE body of the nematode Caenorhabditis elegans is surrounded by an acellular, collagenous cuticle (COX, KUSCH and EDGAR 1981; COX, STAPRANS and EDGAR 1981). This cuticle is secreted by the underlying hypodermis, and as such, is representative of the developmental and biochemical state of this tissue. The hypodermis of *C. elegans* consists of a single layer of cells, derived from 78 embryonic cells (SULS-TON et al. 1983). As pointed out by HEDGECOCK et al. (1987), the hypodermis not only secretes the cuticle, but is also intimately involved (directly or indirectly) in guiding the attachment and migration of underlying muscle, neuronal, and gonadal cells.

We have previously shown that the surface of the cuticle is specifically modified at the hermaphrodite vulva and the male copulatory bursa by demonstrating that these regions specifically bind the lectin wheat germ agglutinin (WGA) (LINK, EHRENFELS and WOOD 1988). It is not known how (or why) the hypodermis restricts lectin-binding components to specific regions of the cuticle. Cuticle surface binding of lectins has been observed in other free-living (ZUCKERMAN, KA-HANE and HIMMELHOCH 1979) and parasitic (RUDIN 1990) nematodes, and in some instances, specific glycoproteins have been implicated (MAIZELS et al. 1989; SELKIRK et al. 1990). Little work has been done on glycosylation or glycoproteins in C. elegans; the cuticle surface component(s) bound by WGA have not been identified. [The carbohydrate bound by WGA is presumably not sialic acid, as this carbohydrate has recently been shown to be absent in C. elegans (BACIC, KAHANE and ZUCKERMAN 1990).]

By identifying mutants with altered lectin-binding phenotypes, we have sought to identify genes involved in hypodermal function. We have sought mutants that show ectopic lectin binding, as opposed to absence of lectin binding, because these mutants are technically much easier to identify in large-scale screens. (Because surface lectin binding is restricted to small regions of the adult wild-type animal, mutants missing this lectin binding are difficult to identify in a dissecting microscope screen.) There is a precedent for ectopic lectinbinding mutants: in *lin-22* mutants, which show alteration of hypodermal cell fate such that anterior cells assume the fate of more posterior cells (HORVITZ *et al.* 1983), male animals show strong ectopic binding of WGA (LINK, EHRENFELS and WOOD 1988).

As described below, we have recovered 45 mutant strains that define six genes that can be mutated to produce an ectopic lectin binding phenotype. Mutations in three of these genes have extensive pleiotropic effects, suggesting that these genes play multiple roles in the development of C. elegans.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Strains and general methods: All strains used in this work were derived from *Caenorhabditis elegans* var. Bristol strain N2. Culturing, handling, and genetic manipulation were as described by BRENNER (1974); all experiments were performed at 20° unless noted otherwise. Nomenclature follows the guidelines of HORVITZ *et al.* (1979). Neuronal designations are those used by WHITES *et al* (1986). The following genes and alleles were used:

Linkage group (LG) I: dpy-5(e61), srf-2(yj262);

LG II: bli-2(e768);

- LG III: unc-32(e189), dpy-17(e164), lin-12(n302, n379, n676 n930, n676 n904am), daf-2(e1370);
 - LG IV: unc-5(e53), srf-3(yj10);
 - LG V: dpy-11(e224), unc-51(e369), him-5(e1490, e1467),

rol-9(sc148), unc-76(e911), sma-1(e30), unc-23(e25), unc-68(e540), unc-42(e220), her-1(n695, y101), dpy-21(e428), par-4(it33), fog-2(q71);

LG X: lon-2(e678), unc-9(e101), lin-15(n765).

(New alleles generated in this work are described in Table 2.)

srf-2 and srf-3 have been described by POLITZ et al. (1990); lin-12 by GREENWALD, STERNBERG and HORVITZ (1983); daf-2 by RIDDLE, SWANSON and ALBERT (1981); him-5 by HODGKIN, HORVITZ and BRENNER (1979); fog-2 by SCHEDL and KIMBLE (1988); her-1 (n695) by TRENT, WOOD and HORVITZ (1988); dpy-21(e428) by HODGKIN and BRENNER (1977); and par-4 by KEMPHUES et al. (1988). rol-9 (sc148) was isolated by R. S. EDGAR (personal communication) and her-1(y101) by A. VILLENEUVE and B. MEYER (personal communication). All other mutants were described by BRENNER (1974).

The following genetic rearrangements were also used: translocations eT1 (ROSENBLUTH and BAILLIE 1981) and nT1 (SANFORD, GOLOMB and RIDDLE 1983); and genetic deficiencies sDf20, sDf29 (ROSENBLUTH, CUDDEFORD and BAILLIE 1985), sDf35 (MCKIM, HESHL and BAILLIE 1988), ctDf1 (MANSER and WOOD 1990), ozDf1, oz Df2 (T. SCHEDL, personal communication), and yDf4 (B. MEYER, personal communication).

Screening for lectin-binding mutants: Animals were mutagenized by incubation in 0.5% or 0.25% ethyl methyl sulfonate (EMS) as described by BRENNER (1974). Mutagenized fourth larval stage (L4) or young adult animals were transferred to large $(100 \times 15 \text{ mm})$ NGM plates seeded with Escherichia coli, five animals per plate. These animals were allowed to propagate for two generations, at 20° (7-8 days), at which point these plates contained roughly 5000 adult F2 animals. The F_2 animals were stained for surface lectin binding as follows (all incubations at room temperature). Animals were rinsed from plates and washed three times in M9 buffer by centrifugation in a low-speed centrifuge, then incubated for 90 min in 50 µg/ml biotinylated WGA (Vector Labs Inc., 5 mg/ml stock diluted 1:100 in M9 buffer). Animals were then washed $2 \times in M9$ and incubated for 90 min in 50 μ g/ml avidin-horseradish peroxidase (Vector Labs Inc., 5 mg/ml stock diluted 1:100 in M9 buffer). Animals were again washed two times in M9 buffer, then resuspended in 200 µg/ml of the chromogen 3-amino-9-ethylcarbazole (4 mg/ml stock solution in N-dimethyl formamide, diluted 1:20 in 0.05 M citrate buffer, pH 5.0). Staining of animals was initiated by addition of H2O2 to a final concentration of 0.01%. After five to ten minutes, chromogenic development was quenched by washing animals in M9 buffer. This treatment results in the WGA-binding portion of animals staining red-brown. (Although most animals readily survive this staining protocol, strongly staining animals suffer significant cuticle damage, presumably from localized oxidative damage resulting from the activity of the bound horseradish peroxidase. Although this cuticle damage is usually fatal, the eggs of gravid hermaphrodites remain viable, so progeny are readily recovered from strongly staining candidate mutants.)

After staining, animals were transferred to large agar plates, and those showing ectopic staining were identified using a dissecting microscope (outfitted with a thin piece of white paper over the transillumination source to whiten background illumination). This method allows the rapid screening of large populations of mutagenized animals. The progeny of candidate mutants were retested by incubation in fluorescently labeled WGA [WGA-fluorescein isothiocy-

TABLE 1

Summary of mutagenesis experiments

Mutagenesis	[EMS] (%)	Parental strain	No. of F ₂ screened	Alleles recovered
Α	0.5	n695	33,000	ct104-ct109
В	0.5	wt	26,000	ct110, 111, 112
С	0.5	n695	50,000	ct113-ct118
D	0.25	y101	18,000	dvl
Ε	0.25	y101	30,000	dv2, 3, 4, 5
F	0.25	y101	140,000	dv7-dv18
G	0.25	y101	180,000	dv20-dv40

Mutagenesis and screening performed as described in MATERIALS AND METHODS. wt = wild type.

anate (FITC)] and subsequent observation by epifluorescence microscopy as previously described (LINK, EHRENFELS and WOOD 1988). The seven screens used to generate the alleles described in this work are summarized in Table 1. To assure independence of the recovered mutants, only one mutant was retained from each independently processed population of animals. Therefore, our calculated frequency of approximately one mutant/10,000 F_2 animals screened significantly underestimates the actual mutation frequency for this phenotypic class.

Complementation analysis: All mutants that showed consistent ectopic WGA binding [thus having the Surface (Srf) phenotype] were tested for their heterozygous phenotype by mating these mutants with wild-type males and examining the resulting cross-progeny animals by staining with WGA-FITC. [Because most mutants were isolated in an n695 or y101 background, cross-progeny could be easily identified as non-egg-laying defective (nonEgl) hermaphrodites.] All alleles were recessive in this test. Initial isolates were outcrossed to him-5(el490), and him-5 double mutants were recovered. Alleles were tested for complementation either by mating him-5; mutant $1(m_1)$ males to n695 (or y101); m_2 hermaphrodites, and scoring the resulting nonEgl crossprogeny, or by mating $m_1/+$ males to dpy-17(e164); m_2 hermaphrodites and scoring the nonDpy cross-progeny, onehalf of which will be mutant if noncomplementation is observed. In this manner the 45 mutants tested were assigned to six complementation groups.

Mapping of representative alleles: dv25, one of 27 alleles in the largest complementation group, was mapped to LGI using the mapping strains dpy-5(e61)I; bli-2(e768)II; unc-32(e189)III; and unc-5(e53)IV; dpy-11(e224)V; lon-2(e678)X. him-5; dv25 males were mated to mapping strain hermaphrodites, and phenotypically wild-type cross-progeny were recovered. The self-progeny of these animals were then screened for WGA binding to recover dv25 homozygous animals. If dv25 is unlinked to a given marker gene, then $\frac{2}{3}$ of these dv25 homozygous (but otherwise phenotypically wild type) animals should be heterozygous for this marker. This prediction held true for all markers except dpy-5, where only 1/9 dv25 homozygous animals segregated dpy-5 selfprogeny, indicating linkage to LGI. Since the previously identified srf-2 gene also maps to this linkage group (POLITZ et al. 1990), the reference allele, srf-2(yj262), was tested for WGA binding and for complementation with dv25 and other alleles of this complementation group. srf-2(yj262) was found to bind WGA and failed to complement all of the dv25 complementation group alleles tested. Thus, dv25 and the other members of this complementation group are alleles of srf-2.

ct107 was the sole member of its complementation group.

Unlike the other mutants described in this paper, ct107 shows somewhat weak WGA staining. However, this mutant does have a strong, highly penetrant SBA-binding phenotype. ct107 was mapped to LG IV with the mapping protocol described above, using SBA binding to identify ct107 homozygotes. Since the previously identified srf-3 gene also maps to this linkage group (POLITZ et al. 1990), the reference allele srf-3(yj10) was tested for SBA binding and complementation of ct107. srf-3(yj10) also binds SBA and fails to complement ct107. Thus, ct107 is an allele of srf-3.

ct115 was assigned to a six-member complementation group that appeared X-linked: when wild-type males were mated to ct115 homozygous hermaphrodites, cross progeny males, but not hermaphrodites, showed the ct115 lectinbinding phenotype. By three-factor mapping, ct115 lies between *unc-9* and *lin-15*: from *unc-9* + *lin-15/+* ct115 + heterozygotes, 1/11 Unc nonLin and 10/11 Lin nonUnc recombinants were heterozygous for ct115. From *unc-9* ct115/+ + heterozygotes, 70/72 Unc segregants retain ct115, placing ct115 approximately 1.4 map units (0.2–4.8 map units at a 95% confidence level) to the right of *unc-9* on the genetic map. The ct115 complementation group defines a novel genetic locus, designated *srf-5*.

ct109 is one of eight mutations that fail to complement and also have very similar pleiotropic effects. All members of this complementation group are uncoordinated (Unc) and have protruding vulvae (P-vul) and abnormal male bursae (Mab), in addition to their lectin-binding phenotype. Initial outcrossing experiments suggested that ct109 was linked to him-5 V. The following three-factor cross indicated that ct109 was closely linked to unc-51: from dpy-11 + unc-51/+ ct109 + heterozygotes, 64/64 Dpy-nonUnc recombinants were heterozygous for ct109. The following four factor cross was performed to order ct109 with respect to unc-51: from ct109 + + rol-9/+ unc-51 fog-2 + heterozygotes, 33 Rol nonSrf recombinants were identified. Of these recombinants, 8/33 were heterozygous for unc-51 and fog-2, 15/33 were heterozygous for unc-51, but not fog-2, and 10/33 were heterozygous for neither unc-51 nor fog-2. By extrapolation from the previous estimate of 0.65 map unit between unc-51 and fog-2 (T. SCHEDL, personal communication), ct109 lies approximately 0.4 map unit to the left of unc-51 on the genetic map. ct109 was not complemented by ozDf1 or ozDf2, two deficiencies that had previously been shown to include unc-51 and fog-2 (T. SCHEDL, personal communication), as demonstrated by the following crosses: when srf-4/+ males were mated to ozDf1/unc-76 rol-9 or ozDf2/dpy21 par-4 hermaphrodites, half of the crossprogeny males had an Unc Mab Srf phenotype. The ct109 complementation group defines a new gene designated srf-4.

dv38 has pleiotropic effects very similar to ct109, but complements this and other srf-4 alleles. In outcrossing experiments, dv38 also appeared linked to him-5. The following three-factor cross demonstrates that dv38 maps between unc-23 and sma-1 (clearly away from srf-4): from unc- $23 + sma \cdot 1/+ dv \cdot 38 + heterozygotes, 11/15$ Unc nonSma recombinants were heterozygous for dv38, and 2/11 Sma nonUnc recombinants were heterozygous for dv38. Deficiency mapping was used to confirm this map position. dv38is complemented by sDf20, sDf35 and ctDf1 as demonstrated by the following crosses: when dpy-11 dv38/+ + males were mated to eT1/sDf20 hermaphrodites, all Dpy cross-progeny were nonSrf; when unc23 dv38/+ + males were mated to eT1/sDf35, all Unc cross-progeny were nonSrf; and when dv38 sma-1/+ males were mated to nT1 unc(n754)/ctDf1 hermaphrodites, all Sma cross-progeny were nonSrf. These results place dv38 in an interval to the left of sma-1, between

the right endpoint of sDf35 and the left endpoint of ctDf1. The following two-factor cross also places dv38 left of sma-1, approximately 2.65 map units from dpy-11: from dpy-11dv38/+ + heterozygotes, 24/452 Dpy progeny fail to segregate dv38. dv38 defines a new gene, designated srf-8.

The noncomplementing mutations dv4 and dv16 have the same pleiotropic effects as srf-4 and srf-8 alleles, but complement alleles of these genes. Outcrossing experiments again indicated that dv4 was linked to him-5. The following threefactor cross indicated that dv4 mapped between dpy-11 and unc42: from dpy-11 + unc-42/+ dv4 + heterozygotes, 7/13 Dpy nonUnc recombinants were heterozygous for dv4, while 2/6 Unc nonDpy were heterozygous for dv4. Deficiency mapping confirmed that dv4 mapped to a different interval than srf-8. dv4 was complemented by sDf20 and sDf29, but not mDf3, as demonstrated by the following crosses: dpy-11 dv4/+ + males mated to eT1/sDf20 hermaphrodites produced Dpy outcross that were nonSrf; dv4 unc- $\frac{42}{+}$ + males mated to $\frac{eT1}{sDf29}$ hermaphrodites produced Unc cross-progeny that were nonSrf; but dv4 unc42/+ + males mated to mDf3/unc-23 sma-1 hermaphrodites produced Unc(-42) cross-progeny that were also Srf. These experiments localize dv4 to an interval between the left endpoints of mDf3 and sDf29, near rol-3. The following twofactor cross places dv4 approximately 1.9 map units to the right of dpy-11: from dpy-11 dv4/+ + heterozygotes, 13/ 339 Dpy segregants were nonSrf. dv4 and dv16 define a new gene, designated srf-9.

The approximate map position of the genes described in this paper are shown in Figure 1.

Construction of srf-9 srf-8 srf-4 triple mutant: First, a srf-9 srf-8 double mutant was constructed by screening srf-9 + unc-42 + + unc-23 + srf-8 heterozygotes for Srf nonUnc(-42 or -23) recombinants. One recombinant was identified that resulted from a recombinantion event between unc-23 and unc-42, resulting in a srf-9 + + srf-8 chromosome. A homozygous srf-9 srf-8 strain was established and its genotype was verified by complementation testing. A srf-9 srf-8 unc-51 strain was then constructed by identifying Unc(-51) Srf recombinants from srf-9 srf-8 +/+ + unc-51 heterozygotes. srf-9 srf-8 unc-51/+ + + males were mated to sma-1 srf-4 hermaphrodites and srf-9 srf-8 + + unc-51/ + + sma-1 srf-4 + heterozygotes were recovered. Srf nonSma nonUnc recombinants were recovered from these heterozygotes, thus establishing a srf-9 srf-8 srf-4 triple mutant strain. The genotype of this strain was also verified by complementation testing.

Construction of transgenic strains: Strains containing the chimeric mec-7/lacZ transgene were derived from strain JN640, in which an extrachromosomal array (evEx1) containing mec-7/lacZ and rol-6 transgenes has been integrated into LGI, generating jeIn1 I (M. HAMELIN, personal communication). This strain has a dominant Roller (Rol) phenotype; genetic constructs containing the transgenes can be identified by virtue of their Rol phenotype. jeIn1/+ males were mated to srf hermaphrodites, and Rol nonSrf crossprogeny (jeIn1/+; srf/+) were identified. Self-progeny of these animals were picked, and Srf segregants from Rol homozygous clones were recovered.

Immunocytochemistry: γ -Amino butyric acid-containing (GABAnergic) neurons were visualized using a modification of the anti-serotonin immunocytochemical protocol described by DESAI *et al.* (1988) (S. MCINTIRE and L. BLOOM, personal communication). Animals were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde, 1% gluteraldehyde in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS): 50 mM Na₂HPO₄, 140 mM NaCl, pH 7.2) for 16–18 hr at 4°. After washing three times in PBS, animals were incubated for 48 hr at 37° in 5% β -mercaptoethanol,

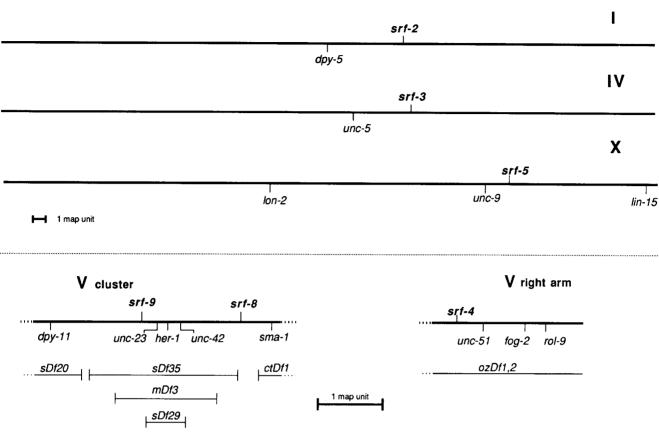


FIGURE 1.—Genetic map positions of srf genes. Approximate genetic map positions of the srf genes relative to marker genes were determined as described in MATERIALS AND METHODS, except for srf-2 and srf-3, whose positions are based on the data of POLITZ et al. (1990).

1% Triton X-100, and 125 mM Tris, pH 7.4, with gentle agitation. Animals were then digested with 2 mg/ml collagenase (Sigma type IV, 460 units/mg) in 100 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 1 mM CaCl₂ by agitating vigorously at 37° for 1-2 hr. After washing three times in PBS, animals were incubated in rabbit anti-GABA serum (Sigma) diluted 1:100 in incubation buffer [1% bovine serum albumin (BSA), 0.5% Triton X-100, 0.05% sodium azide, 1 mM EDTA in PBS] for 24 hr at room temperature. Animals were then washed four times in wash buffer (0.1% BSA, 0.5% Triton X-100, 0.05% sodium azide, 1 mm EDTA in PBS) for a total of 2.5 hr at room temperature before being incubated in FITCconjugated secondary antibody (goat anti-rabbit, U.S. Biochemical, 1:100 dilution in incubation buffer) for 3 hr at room temperature. Animals were then washed 4X in wash buffer (including one 10-min wash in wash buffer containing $10 \,\mu$ g/ml Hoechst 33258) before being mounted on agarose slabs (50 mm Tris-Cl, pH 9.5, 5 mm MgCl₂, 2% agarose).

The ALM neurons were stained with monoclonal antibody 6-11B-1 using the whole mount squash protocol of SIDDIQUI (1990), without modification. Muscles were stained using the actin probe Bodipy-phallacidin (Molecular Probes, Inc.). Animals were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde (in PBS) at 4° for at least 24 hr, then permeablized using the reduction/oxidation protocol of FINNEY and RUVKIN (1990). Fixed and permeablized animals were stained for at least 1 hr at room temperature in 200 μ l of antibody binding buffer containing 1 unit of Bodipy-phallacidin.

 β -Galactosidase-expressing neurons were visualized by a protocol derived from published procedures (FIRE 1986). Animals containing the *jeIn1* transgene were grown for at least 2 days at 25°, then washed free of bacteria and resuspended in PBS. The animals were then fixed for 15 min in

2.5% glutaraldehyde at room temperature. After washing in H₂O, the animals were lyophilized by placing a 10- μ l drop on a microscope slide and drying in a Savant speed concentrator for 15 min. After dipping slides in acetone (-20°) for 3 min, β -galactosidase activity was detected by placing a 50–100- μ l drop of X-Gal staining solution (FIRE 1986) on the slides and incubating at 37° for 24 hr.

RESULTS

Identification of lectin-binding mutants: We sought to devise a screen that could identify, and recover self-progeny from, mutants that ectopically bound WGA, even if this ectopic binding was restricted to male animals (as is the case, for example, with *lin-22* mutants). Most of our screens were therefore done by mutagenizing the gain-of-function *her-1* alleles n695 or y101. These alleles variably transform XX (normally hermaphrodite) animals into intersexual animals that are usually self-fertile but have masculinized somatic tissues. In a reconstruction experiment, approximately 20% of self-fertile *lin-22(n372); her-1(y101)* XX animals were sufficiently transformed to show the ectopic surface binding of WGA characteristic of *lin-22(n372)* males.

Mutagenized animals were screened for ectopic surface binding of the lectin WGA using a biotinylated-WGA/avidin-horseradish peroxidase staining protocol (described in detail in MATERIALS AND METHODS).

TABLE 2

Summary of complementation analysis

Gene	Alleles identified
srf-2 I	ct104, 105 110, 112, 116, 117 dv1, 2, 3, 6, 9, 10, 12, 13, 14, 15, 19, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 31, 34, 37
srf-3 IV	ct107
srf-4 V	ct109, 11, 113 dv11, 20, 35, 36, 39
srf-5 X	ct114, 115 dv18, 28, 32, 40
srf-8 V	dv38
srf-9 V	dv4, dv16

Complementation analysis, genetic mapping and gene assignments are described in MATERIALS AND METHODS.

Candidate mutants were retested by staining with WGA-FITC and by examining with epifluoresence microscopy. Mutations that resulted in consistent WGA-binding phenotypes were assigned to complementation groups by complementation analysis, and representative alleles of each complementation group were positioned on the genetic map. The 45 mutants analyzed were all recessive and identified six genes: srf-2, -3, -4, -5, -8 and -9 (see Tables 1 and 2, and Figure 1). Alleles of two of these genes, srf-2 and srf-3, have previously been recovered in a screen using adult-specific anti-cuticle antisera (POLITZ et al. 1990). Representative alleles of the newly identified genes, srf-4, -5, -8 and -9, were outcrossed ten times before phenotypic analysis.

The ectopic WGA-binding pattern of representative alleles of the six srf genes are shown in Figure 2. All of these alleles have highly penetrant ectopic lectin-binding phenotypes in both males and hermaphrodites; males for all alleles showed more intensive posterior staining than hermaphrodites. For all alleles, there was some variability in the expressivity of the staining phenotype. No allele could be distinguished solely on the basis of its staining phenotype, with the exception of srf-3. Both srf-3 alleles (yi10 and ct107) had weaker staining in both hermaphrodites and males than the other srf alleles, characteristically staining only in the area surrounding the vulva in hermaphrodites and the posterior in males (see Figure 2C). The observation that both sexes stain suggests that the ectopic WGA binding is not the result of the type of changes in cell fate observed in lin-22 mutants. Consistent with this view, the adult lateral alae (a marker for hypodermal cell fate) of srf mutants are normal, as judged by differential interference contrast (DIC) microscopy. These mutants also show ectopic binding of the lectin soybean agglutinin (SBA), but not concanavalin A (data not shown).

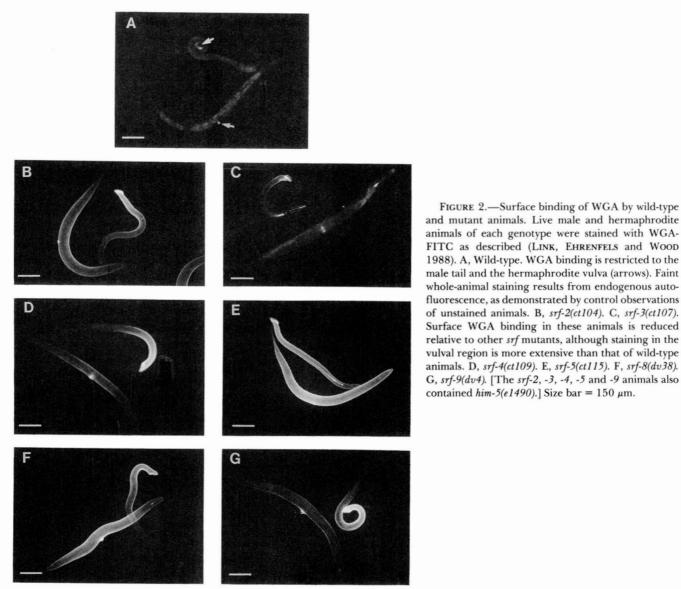
Light microscope observations: Although all of the

srf mutants we have isolated show similar patterns of lectin binding, these mutants could easily be divided into two classes based on their phenotypes under the dissecting microscope. Alleles of srf-2, srf-3 and srf-5 appeared grossly wild-type in morphology and movement, and males carrying these mutations mated well. Conversely, srf-4, srf-8 and srf-9 mutants showed uncoordinated movement, a distinctive body morphology including protruding vulvae, and male infertility. (These phenotypes were all recessive and highly penetrant.) Furthermore, these pleiotropic mutants showed a progressive egg-laying defect (see Figure 3) and produced dauer larvae that were sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS)-sensitive. (These phenotypes are summarized in Table 3.) The pleiotropic mutants were examined in more detail to better understand the basis of the multiple phenotypes. One question we sought to answer was whether an altered cuticle could account for all the observed defects. As described below, the many abnormalities observed in the pleiotropic mutants suggest a more pervasive underlying defect, possibly one in hypodermal function.

To investigate whether the egg-laying defect of the pleiotropic srf mutants has a neuronal or muscular origin, we examined the response of the srf mutants to exogenous serotonin or imipramine (a serotonin agonist). The vulval muscles are innervated by the serotonergic HSN neurons, and exogenous serotonin or imipramine will stimulate egg-laying in wild-type C. elegans (TRENT, TSUNG and HORVITZ 1983). As argued by these authors, an egg-laying defective mutant with nonfunctional vulval muscles would not respond to either serotonin or imipramine, while a mutant with nonfunctional HSN neurons would respond to serotonin (by direct stimulation of the vulval muscles), but not imipramine, which acts by blocking neuronal re-uptake of serotonin. We found that all the pleiotropic srf mutants had reduced sensitivity to both serotonin and imipramine (see Table 4). Although this result is consistent with a muscular basis for the egg-laying defect in these mutants, other interpretations are possible (see DISCUSSION).

Male animals containing *srf-4*, *srf-8* or *srf-9* mutations were examined by DIC microscopy. All these mutants had abnormal copulatory bursae characterized by a reduced fan and a swollen bursa. The sensory rays were normal in number but generally shortened. In addition, the copulatory spicules were commonly crumpled or malformed (see Figure 4, A and B).

DIC microscopy also revealed that srf-4, srf-8 and srf-9 hermaphrodites have variably abnormal gonad morphology. The wild-type adult hermaphrodite gonad is a bilobed structure that is derived from a 4cell primordium located ventrally in the midbody of first stage larvae (KIMBLE and HIRSH 1979). Extension of this primordium and proper reflection of the grow-

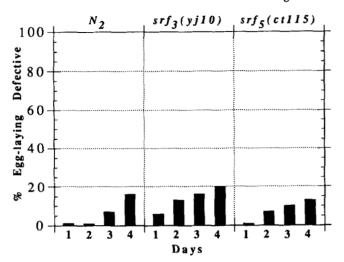


ing gonad into the U-shaped tube found in adult hermaphrodites require proper migration of the distal tip cells (HEDGECOCK, CULOTTI and HALL 1987). Alterations in the trajectory of the migrating distal tip cells lead to predictable abnormalities in adult gonad morphology. For example, *unc-6* mutants, which are defective in circumferential migration of the distal tip cells, commonly have "ventralized" gonads (HEDGE-COCK, CULOTTI and HALL 1990). We observed similar, although usually less severe, defects in adult gonad morphology in the pleiotropic *srf* mutants (see Figure 4, C and D; Table 5).

Immunocytochemistry: The uncoordinated movement of the pleiotropic *srf* mutants suggested that these mutants may have muscle or neuronal defects. All of the pleiotropic alleles have essentially identical uncoordinated phenotypes, characterized by slow movement, occasionally nonsinusoidal body posture, and a distinctive "head-waving" backwards movement displayed when the animals are prodded at the head. Muscle structure in these mutants was examined by polarization optics visualization of muscle birefringence and actin staining using fluorescently labeled phallacidin (FRANCIS and WATERSTON 1985). Muscle fiber organization and muscle cell arrangement appeared generally wild-type in all of the pleiotropic mutants (see Figure 5, A and B).

The pleiotropic *srf* mutants were also examined for neuronal defects. Specifically, we sought to determine if these mutants have neuronal structural defects, as has been demonstrated for *unc-6* (SIDDIQUI 1990). We were able to examine a subset of neurons using probes for the DD and VD motor neurons, and the ALM mechanosensory neurons.

The structure of the DD and VD motor neurons was visualized using anti-GABA antisera, which specifically binds to these neurons (JOHNSON and STRET-TON 1987; S. MCINTIRE, personal communication). In



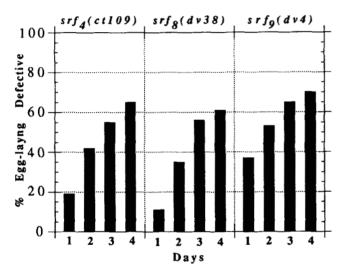


FIGURE 3.—Egg-laying in wild-type and *srf* mutant animals. Fourth larval stage hermaphrodites were individually transferred to NGM plates. After 20–24-hr incubation at 20° (day 1), animals were scored for the bloated appearance characteristic of egg-laying defective animals. These animals were rescored for this phenotype for the following 3 days (days 2, 3 and 4). The histograms represent the cumulative number of egg-laying defective animals. One hundred (or more) animals were scored for each genotype.

wild-type animals, these neurons have cell bodies in the ventral nerve cord that send projections (commissures) circumferentially to the dorsal cord (see Figure 6A). In *unc-6* mutants, these commissures are severely affected, and rarely reach the dorsal cord (see Figure 6B). In the pleiotropic *srf* mutants, these commissures reach the dorsal cord normally, although their morphology is quantitatively different from wild-type commissures (see Figure 6, C and D). As shown in Table 6, the commissures of the pleiotropic *srf* mutants have many more varicosities than those of wildtype animals, and are also more likely to cross or fasciculate with neighboring commissures. The three pleiotropic *srf* alleles examined are very similar in

TABLE 3

Summary of mutant phenotypes

Genotype	Movement	Male bursa	Egg laying	Dauer larvae
srf-2(ct104)	+	+	+	+
srf-3(ct107)	+	+	+	SDS sens.
srf-4(ct109)	Unc	Mab	Egl	SDS sens.
srf-5(ct115)	+	+	+	+
srf-8(dv38)	Unc	Mab	Egl	SDS sens.
srf-9(dv4)	Unc	Mab	Egl	SDS sens.

+ = indistinguishable from wild-type animals. Unc = uncoordinated movement. Mab = abnormal male bursae. Egl = egg-laying defective. SDS sens. = dauer larvae do not survive 1-hr treatment in 1% SDS.

TABLE 4

Egg-laying response to serotonin and imipramine

	E	ggs Laid per Anir	nal
Genotype	M9	Serotonin	Imipramine
N2	0.8 ± 0.4	9.2 ± 2.4	9.8 ± 3.8
srf-2(ct104)	0.3 ± 0.2	3.7 ± 1.2	6.8 ± 2.4
srf-3(yj10)	0.7 ± 0.3	11.9 ± 3.0	16.6 ± 3.6
srf-4(ct109)	0.4 ± 0.3	1.0 ± 0.7	1.3 ± 1.1
srf-5(ct115)	0.3 ± 0.3	2.6 ± 1.4	1.4 ± 0.7
srf-8(dv38)	0.3 ± 0.3	1.7 ± 0.9	2.8 ± 1.2
srf-9(dv4)	0.1 ± 0.1	1.2 ± 0.6	2.0 ± 0.9

For each genotype, five young adult hermaphrodites (staged from eggs) were incubated in a $35-\mu$ l drop of M9 buffer containing either 2.5 mg/ml serotonin or 7.5 mg/ml imipramine for one hour at 20°, and the total number of eggs were scored. Twenty replicates of each genotype were done for the serotonin and imipramine tests; eight replicates were done for the M9 buffer controls.

their frequencies of varicosities and crossed or fasciculated commissures.

The six mechanosensory touch cells have an unusual microtubule structure (CHALFIE and THOMSON 1982) and can be visualized using a monoclonal antibody, 6-11B-1, originally raised against acetylated tubulin (SIDDIQUI et al. 1989). Although these neurons are not directly involved in movement, we chose to examine them as well characterized "surrogate" neurons to ask if any neuronal morphology abnormalities could be observed in the pleiotropic srf mutants. Whole-mount squash preparations of wild-type and pleiotropic srf mutant animals were stained with antibody 6-11B-1. We restricted our observations to the two anterior lateral touch cells (ALML and ALMR), since these neurons could be unambiguously scored in squashed preparations. In wild-type animals, these cells send a single anterior projection to the nerve ring (see Figure 7A). In the pleiotropic srf mutants, these cells were often found to have an additional posterior projection (see Table 7, Figure 7B).

To confirm the abnormal ALM posterior projections observed in the pleiotropic *srf* mutants using the 6-11B-1 antibody, an alternative approach was used to visualize the ALM cells. This approach employed

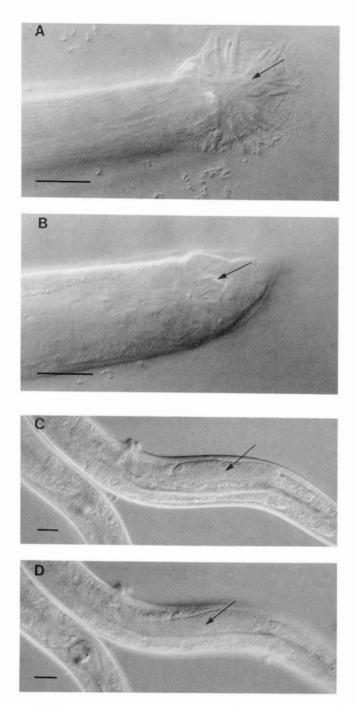


FIGURE 4.—Copulatory bursa and gonad abnormalities in *srf* mutants. Live animals were mounted on agar slabs in 0.1% sodium azide and observed under DIC optics. A, Ventral view of *him*-5(e1490) *srf*-4(ct109) male copulatory bursa (ventral focal plane). Note swollen bursa (arrow). [For comparable view of wild-type bursa, see LINK, EHRENFELS and WOOD (1988).] B, Same view as A, but more dorsal focal plane. Note malformed copulatory spicules (arrow). C, Young adult *srf*-9(dv4) *srf*-8(dv38) *srf*-4(ct109) hermaphrodite, focal plane through proximal portion of the posterior gonad (arrow). D, Same view as C, except focal plane through distal portion of gonad (arrow). Note that both proximal and distal sections of the gonad are located in the ventral portion of the animal, and thus the posterior gonad is lying in an abnormal left/right orientation. Size bar = $20 \ \mu m$.

Т	A	B	L	E	5	

Gonad	morphology	of p	leiotropic	srf	mutants
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	Percent abnormal gonads		
Genotype	Anterior	Posterior	
N2	0	0	
srf-4(ct109)	2	39	
srf-8(dv38)	8	59	
srf-9(dv4)	5	30	
srf-9(dv4) srf-8(dv38) srf-4(ct109)	7	43	

One hundred young adult animals of each genotype were scored by DIC optics at 400×. Gonad arms were scored as abnormal if the overall morphology, particularly in the area of the gonad reflection, differed significantly from wild-type animals. The most common defect for all *srf* genotypes was the misplacement of the distal portion of the gonad to a more ventral position in the animal.

genetic constructs containing a transgenic reporter gene whose expression is restricted to the touch cells. A chimeric gene containing the mec-7 control region fused to the E. coli lac-Z gene has been constructed and introduced into wild-type C. elegans animals by microinjection resulting in a transgenic strain that expresses β -galactosidase activity only in the touch cells (M. HAMELIN, personal communication). We introduced a chromosomally integrated copy of this transgene into the pleiotropic srf mutants by standard genetic techniques (see MATERIALS AND METHODS). When these animals were stained for β -galactosidase activity, ALM neurons with posterior processes were occasionally observed in the pleiotropic srf mutants (see Figure 7C). However, the fraction of ALM neurons observed to have posterior processes by this method was significantly smaller than the fraction determined by 6-11B-1 staining. For example, in srf-4 transgenic animals, only 6/138 ALM neurons showed posterior processes by β -galactosidase staining, while 28/81 ALM neurons were observed to have posterior processes in srf-4 animals stained with antibody 6-11B-1. This difference may result from the (presumably nonfunctional) posterior processes containing microtubules but being unable to accumulate β -galactosidase.

Interactions with lin-12: The pleiotropic srf mutants were observed to have a low penetrance, weakly expressive multivulval (Muv) phenotype. A much more dramatic Muv phenotype was observed when the pleiotropic srf mutants were combined with lin-12(n302). This weak dominant lin-12 allele (GREEN-WALD, STERMBERG and HORVITZ 1983) also produces a low penetrance, weak Muv phenotype. Double mutant lin-12(n302); pleiotropic srf constructs have a highly penetrant, strong Muv phenotype characteristic of strong dominant lin-12 alleles (see Table 8). None of the nonpleiotropic srf mutants show this apparent enhancement of lin-12(n302). This interaction does not appear to be allele-specific. For example,

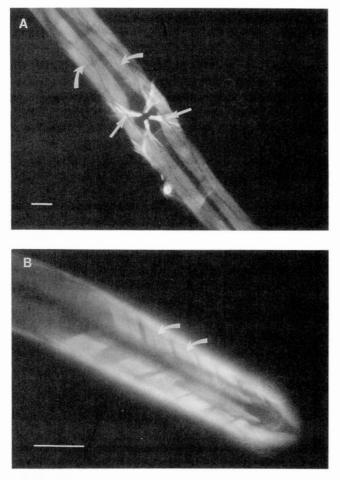


FIGURE 5.—Muscle structure in *srf-4* animals. Animals were fixed and stained with Bodipy-phallacidin as described in MATERIALS AND METHODS. A, Ventral mid-animal view of *srf-4* hermaphrodite stained with Bodipy-phallacidin. Note structure of body wall muscles (curved arrows) and vulval muscles (straight arrows). B, Ventral posterior view of *srf-4* male stained with Bodipy-phallacidin. Note normal structure of diagonal sex muscles (arrows). Size bar = 20 μ m.

srf-4(ct109) also enhances the Muv phenotype of the weak dominant lin-12(n379) allele as well as the strong dominant/hypomorphic recessive allele combination lin-12(n676n930). In contrast, srf-4(ct109) appeared to have no effect on the recessive (putative null) lin-12 allele n904 am, as lin-12(n904am); srf-4(ct109) animals had the characteristic vulvaless phenotype seen in lin-12(n904am) animals (data not shown).

DISCUSSION

We have identified six genes that can mutate to produce ectopic surface binding of the lectin WGA. Two of these genes, *srf-2* and *srf-3*, had previously been identified in a screen designed to identify larval animals expressing adult surface antigens (POLITZ *et al.* 1990). Ectopic surface binding of lectins could theoretically result from either the deposition of novel carbohydrate residues on the cuticle surface or the removal of surface components that normally mask endogenous carbohydrates. Surface radiolabeling experiments with *srf-2* and *srf-3* mutants have indicated that these mutants are missing surface proteins normally found on wild-type animals (POLITZ *et al.* 1990; M. BLAXTER, personal communication). We have performed similar surface radiolabeling experiments with representative alleles of the six *srf* genes, and found a protein of approximately 10 kD that strongly labels in wild-type animals and is missing or strongly diminished in these mutants (data not shown). These results are consistent with the recessive nature of these mutations, and suggest that the lectin-binding phenotypes caused by these mutations have similar (immediate) biochemical origins.

The srf mutants could be readily divided into two classes based on their additional phenotypes. Except for their lectin-binding phenotypes, srf-2, srf-3 and srf-5 mutations appear grossly wild-type, while srf-4, srf-8 and srf-9 mutants have a collection of pleiotropic effects, including uncoordinated movement, defective egg-laying, and abnormal gonad and bursal morphology. (This division of these mutants into pleiotropic and nonpleiotropic classes is imperfect, as the srf-3 mutants also have SDS-sensitive dauer larvae. We have grouped the srf-3 mutants in the nonpleiotropic class because of their much greater overall similarity to the srf-2 and srf-5 mutants.) We have focused on the pleiotropic mutants because we suspect these animals are defective in a process involved in cell-cell or cellmatrix interactions occurring in a range of developmental processes (see arguments below). The following observations suggest that the best characterized pleiotropic alleles [srf-4(ct109), srf-8(dv38) and srf-9(dv4)] are likely to be strong or complete loss-offunction alleles. First, srf-4(ct109)/Df (ozDf1 or yDf4) and srf-9(dv4)/sDf35 animals are indistinguishable (at least by plate phenotype) from the homozygous mutants (no deficiencies are available for the *srf-8* region). Second, the 11 alleles in the pleiotropic class, despite being identified solely on the basis of their ectopic lectin binding, have very similar, complex phenotypes. This similarity of phenotypes would be unlikely if these were hypomorphic alleles. Although the incomplete penetrance of some of the pleiotropic defects might imply some residual gene function in these alleles, it is not uncommon in C. elegans for null alleles of genes involved in developmental processes to show incomplete penetrance [e.g., animals containing unc-6(e400), a presumed null allele of unc-6, can have normal gonads.]

Male animals containing any of the pleiotropic *srf* mutations have abnormal copulatory bursae, commonly with crumpled or misshapen spicules. The copulatory spicules are hollow, sclerotized, spikelike structures that are formed by descendents of the B blast cell (SULSTON, ALBERTSON and THOMSON 1980);

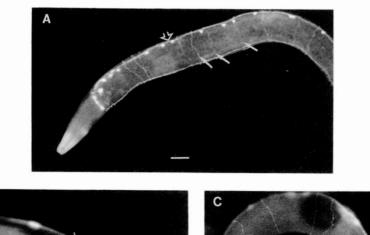


FIGURE 6.—Immunological staining of GABAnergic neurons in wild-type and mutant animals. Animals were fixed and stained with anti-GABA antisera as described in MATERIALS AND METHODS. A, Wildtype animal. The DD and VD motor neurons have cell bodies in the ventral nerve cord (open arrow) and send circumferential processes (commissures, closed arrows) to the dorsal nerve cord. B, *unc-6* animal. Commissures fail to reach the dorsal nerve cord (arrow). C, *srf-4* animal. Commissures reach dorsal cord, but have increased frequency of crossed or fasciculated commissures (arrow). D, *srf-4* animal. Commissures have increased frequencies of varicosities (arrows). Size bar = 20 μ m.

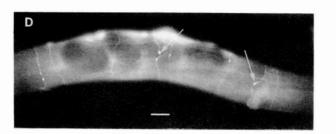


TABLE 6

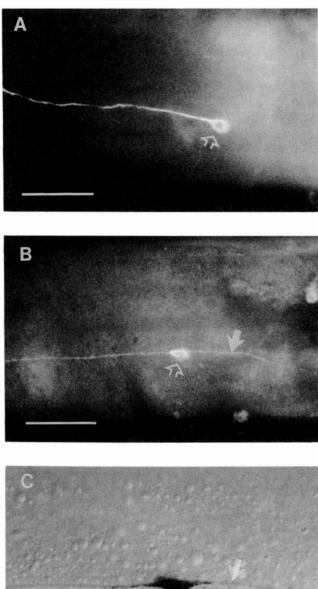
Quantifying DD and VD commissure morphological abnormalities

Strain	Animals scored	Commissures scored	Abnormal commissures	Total varicosities	Percent abnormal commissures	Varicosities/ commissure
N2	63	623	27	44	4.3	0.07
srf-4(ct109)	28	260	23	85	8.8	0.33
srf-8(dv38)	25	240	25	70	10.4	0.29
srf-9(dv4)	38	366	38	117	10.4	0.32
srf-9(dv4) srf-8(dv38) srf-4(ct109)	23	244	20	104	9.0	0.43

Animals were fixed and stained with anti-GABA antibodies as described in MATERIALS AND METHODS. Scoring was done blindly and was restricted to predominantly intact adult animals in which at least seven commissures were scorable. Commissures were scored as abnormal if they crossed or fasciculated with neighboring commissures.

mutations that perturb the B cell lineage can result in abnormal spicules. The pleiotropic *srf* mutants, however, appear to have normal B cell lineages (H. CHAM-BERLIN, personal communication). Proper spicule morphogenesis also requires proper function or attachment of the male sex muscles, as well as proper secretion of the spicule material by B cell descendents. Either of these processes may be defective in the pleiotropic *srf* mutants.

The pleiotropic *srf* mutants show a progressive egglaying defect (see Figure 3) and reduced sensitivity to exogenous serotonin and imipramine (see Table 4). This reduced sensitivity could result from non- or subfunctional vulval muscles. (As shown in Figure 5A, vulval muscles in these mutants appear to have normal morphology.) An alternative explanation is that this reduced sensitivity results because the pleiotropic srf mutants are less permeable to serotonin and imiprimine. We note that nonpleiotropic srf-3 and srf-5 animals have wild-type egg-laying but show altered serotonin and imipramine responses. (srf-3 animals are hypersensitive to these compounds; srf-5 animals



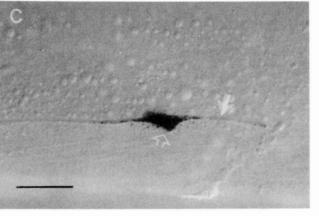


FIGURE 7.-Staining of ALM mechanosensory neurons in wildtype and mutant animals. Animals were fixed and stained as described in MATERIALS AND METHODS. A, Visualization of ALM neuron in wild-type animals using anti-acetylated tubulin antibody 6-11B-1. Note single process extending anteriorly from cell body (open arrow). B, Visualization of ALM neuron in srf-9(dv-4) animal using antibody 6-11B-1. Note posterior process (closed arrow) extending from cell body (open arrow). C, Visualization of ALM neuron in srf-8(dv38) animals containing mec-7/lac Z transgene by β -galactosidase staining. Note posterior process (closed arrow) extending from cell body (open arrow). Size bar = $20 \ \mu m$.

show reduced sensitivity.) In light of these observations, it is difficult to interpret the serotonin and imipramine responses of the pleiotropic srf mutants, and the basis of the egg-laying defect in these mutants remains unclear.

TABLE 7

Quantifying posterior processes in ALM neurons

Genotype	ALM neurons with posterior processes per total ALMs scored	Percent abnormal ALMs
N2	1/50	2.0
srf-4(ct109)	28/81	34.6
srf-8(dv38)	9/58	15.5
srf-9(dv4)	42/78	53.8
srf-9(dv4)srf-8(dv38)srf-4(ct109)	36/63	57.1

Animals were fixed and stained with antibody 6-11B-1 using the whole mount squash protocol of SIDDIQUI (1990). ALM neurons of adult hermaphrodites were scored for posteriorly-directed axonal projections by epifluorescence microscopy. ALM neurons were judged to have a posterior projection if a posteriorly directed axonal projection longer than the width of the ALM cell body was observed.

TABLE 8

Multivulval (Muv) phenotypes of single and double mutants

Genotype	Fraction Muv	Percent Muy
lin-12(n302)	80/654	12.2
srf-4(ct109)	34/500	6.8
srf-8(dv38)	4/502	0.8
srf-9(dv4)	12/500	2.4
lin-12(n302); srf-4(ct109)	261/262	99.6
lin-12(n302); srf-8(dv38)	104/105	99.0
lin-12(n302); srf-9(dv4)	93/95	97.9
lin-12(n302); srf-2(ct104)	11/104	10.6
lin-12(n302); srf-3(yj10)	17/100	17.0
lin-12(n302); srf-5(ct115)	16/101	15.8
lin-12(n379)	25/448	5.6
lin-12(n379); srf-4(ct109)	131/187	70.0
lin-12(n676 n930) (16°)	0/72	0
lin-12(n676 n930); srf-4(ct109)	104/105	99.0
lin-12(n302); srf-4(ct109)/+	138/458	30.1
glp-1(q35)	21/107	19.6
glp-1(q35); srf-4(ct109)	25/141	17.7

Animals were mounted on agar slabs on microscope slides with coverslips and scored with a dissecting microscope at 50×, with the exception of the lin-12(n302); pleiotropic srf double mutants, which were scored at 400× under DIC optics. [This alternative scoring procedure was used because these animals were derived from heterozygous mothers, and were therefore stained with WGA-FITC and examined by epifluorescence microscopy to confirm their genotype. Homozygous (WGA⁺) or heterozygous (WGA⁻) animals were then scored by DIC optics. In these experiments, srf-4(ct109) was balanced with an unc-51(e369) rol-9(sc148) chromosome, while srf-8(dv38) and srf-9(dv4) were balanced with an unc-68(e540) sma-1(e30) chromosome.] Animals were scored as Muv if they were observed to have two or more vulval protrusions.

The pleiotropic srf mutants have variably abnormal gonad morphology, the most common defect being the ventral mispositioning of the distal portion of the gonad. We interpret these gonad abnormalities as the result of abnormal migration of the distal tip cells that lead the growing gonad. For all the srf mutants examined, the posterior arm of the gonad is much more likely to be abnormal; this unexplained bias has also been observed for other mutations that affect gonad morphology (HEDGECOCK, CULOTTI and HALL 1990). Although the *srf* mutants typically have ventralized gonads, other abnormalities have been observed. For example, animals were occasionally observed to have "Z"-shaped gonads, presumably the result of the distal tip cell migrating centripetally (opposite of the normal migration) after reaching the dorsal side. [Gonads with this morphology are seen in dpy-24 mutants (HEDGECOCK *et al.* 1987).] HEDGECOCK, CULOTTI and HALL (1990) have interpreted the ventralized gonads observed in *unc-6* mutants to be the result of a general inability of cells to migrate circumferentially. The range of gonad morphology abnormalities in the *srf* mutants suggests that these mutants may have a less specific migration defect.

The pleiotropic srf mutants have uncoordinated movement, but apparently normal body wall muscle structure. In these mutants, we observed specific axonal abnormalities in the subset of nerve cells that we were able to visualize using immunocytochemical staining. The DD and VD neurons had an increase in varicosities and in the fraction of crossed or fasciculated commissures, while the ALM neurons had an increased fraction of posteriorly directed processes. Neither of these defects is likely to account directly for the uncoordinated movement in these mutants, as the ALM neurons are mechanosensory, and the level of defects seen in the DD and VD neurons seems insufficient to cause the srf uncoordinated phenotype, which is completely penetrant and highly reproducible from animal to animal. Instead, the uncoordinated phenotype may result from structural or functional defects in other neurons that were not scored.

Our most surprising finding was the strong enhancement of weak dominant lin-12 alleles by the pleiotropic srf mutations. The lin-12 gene encodes an apparent cell surface receptor with strong homology to the Drosophila Notch gene (YOCHEM and GREEN-WALD 1989). Dominant lin-12 alleles behave genetically as if they are constitutive or hypersensitive for receptor activation. The srf:lin-12 interaction is unlikely to be a secondary result of the other pleiotropic defects: srf-4(ct109)/+ animals, which are phenotypically wild-type for all dissecting microscope phenotypes, show significant enhancement of lin-12(n302) (see Table 8). This point is also supported by the observation that the nonpleiotropic srf mutants do not significantly enhance lin-12(n302), despite having lectin-binding and surface-radiolabeling characteristics similar to the pleiotropic srf mutants. The enhancement of lin-12 is also not restricted to the vulval lineages. Unlike lin-12(n302) or srf-4(ct109) males, lin-12(n302);srf-4(ct109) males have ectopic sensory hooks, indicative of P9.p and P11.p cells assuming the P10.p cell fate, as observed in strong dominant lin-12 alleles (data not shown).

The phenotypic similarities of srf-4, srf-8 and srf-9

alleles suggest that these genes are involved in the same biological process. One simple interpretation is that these genes function in different steps of a linear, sequential pathway, and removal of gene function at any step leads to dysfunction of the pathway. We have tested this hypothesis by constructing a srf-4(ct109) srf-8(dv38) srf-9(dv4) triple mutant (see MATERIALS AND METHODS). This triple mutant is indistinguishable from the single mutants under the dissecting microscope and has quantitatively similar neurological and gonadal defects (see Tables 5 and 6). This result supports the linear pathway model and argues against these genes functioning in an additive or parallel manner.

All the mutations that we have identified perturb the normal localization (or accessibility) of cuticle carbohydrates. The recessive nature of these mutations, along with surface radiolabeling experiments, suggest that the ectopic lectin binding of these mutants results from the modification or absence of a cortical cuticle layer. Since mutations in the genes srf-2, srf-3 and srf-5 result in defects apparently restricted to the cuticle, these genes may encode structural cuticle proteins or proteins required for proper cuticle assembly or modification. In contrast, mutations in srf-4, srf-8 and srf-9 genes lead to developmental defects that cannot be explained by cuticle abnormalities. What is the underlying defect in the pleiotropic srf mutants? In the following discussion, we address this question by considering two related issues: what is the site of pleiotropic srf gene action, and what are the molecular functions of these genes?

Despite the range of phenotypes observed in the pleiotropic srf mutants, the action of these genes may be restricted to one tissue, the hypodermis. Clearly, defects in hypodermal function could account for the cuticle alterations observed in the pleiotropic srf mutants, since the hypodermis secretes the cuticle. The hypodermis also plays an important role in the development of internal structures, because it secretes a basal lamina. This lamina is the site of (and possibly substrate for) distal tip cell migration, axon pathfinding, and muscle cell attachment. Thus, the neuronal and gonadal defects observed in the pleiotropic mutants could result from a defective basal lamina. This appears to be the primary defect in unc-6 mutants, as the unc-6 gene has been shown to encode a lamininlike molecule (W. WADSWORTH and E. M. HEDGE-COCK, personal communication). An alternative hypothesis is that the pleiotropic srf phenotypes result from absence of gene function in multiple tissues (i.e., distal tip cell migration abnormalities result from defective srf gene function in these cells). These competing hypotheses should be readily testable by genetic mosaic analysis using free duplications (HERMAN 1989).

The enhanced multivulval phenotype observed in lin-12(n302); pleiotropic srf double mutants also involves hypodermal tissue, as hypodermal cells assume vulval cell fates. This enhancement may act either cell autonomously (i.e., requiring the absence of srf gene function in the cells assuming the vulval cell fate), or non-cell autonomously. Pleiotropic srf mutations could enhance weak lin-12 dominant mutants by altering the makeup or amount of the lin-12 receptor protein, such that its level of activation is effectively increased. Alternatively, pleiotropic srf mutations could act downstream of the lin-12 receptor in an intracellular signalling system to increase the activation of the vulval cell fate. These two models would predict cell autonomous enhancement. Other models posit that pleiotropic srf mutations promote lin-12 activation by increasing the effective concentration of the (currently unidentified) lin-12 ligand. In these models, lin-12 enhancement could occur in a non-cell autonomous manner.

The interaction between *lin-12* and pleiotropic srf mutations is reminiscent of the interaction of glp-1 and dumpy(dpy) mutations (MAINE and KIMBLE 1989). glp-1 mutations perturb germline proliferation (Aus-TIN and KIMBLE 1987) and embryonic induction of the pharynx (PRIESS, SCHNABEL and SCHNABEL 1987). This gene encodes a putative receptor protein with homology to lin-12 (YOCHEM, WESTON and GREEN-WALD 1988); glp-1 and lin-12 have also been shown to have overlapping functions (LAMBIE and KIMBLE 1991). Hypomorphic recessive alleles of *glp-1* can be suppressed by recessive mutations in dpy-1, -2, -3, -7, -8, -9, -10 and sqt-1. These suppressing mutations all cause altered body shape; sqt-1 has been shown to encode a collagen gene (KRAMER et al. 1988). It has been proposed that the glp-1 suppression occurs via changes in the extracellular matrix (MAINE and KIM-BLE 1989). Similar arguments can be made for the mechanism of srf enhancement of lin-12, implying a potentially non-cell autonomous interaction.

The glp-1: dpy and lin-12: srf interactions differ in a number of respects, however. Although both interactions may result from an effective increase in gene function, the dpy mutations suppress recessive glp-1 alleles, while the srf mutations enhance dominant lin-12 alleles. (To our knowledge, no glp-1 alleles dominant for the Glp phenotype or simple hypomorphic lin-12 alleles have been identified.) We find that srf-4(ct109) can enhance lin-12(n302) in a semidominant fashion, an effect not observed between glp-1 and dpy-10 (MAINE and KIMBLE 1989). We have also looked for an interaction between glp-1 and srf-4, but have not observed any suppression of the embryonic lethality of the hypomorphic glp-1 alleles e2141ts or e2144ts, nor any enhancement of the weak Muv phenotype displayed by the unusual semi-dominant glp-1 allele q35 (see Table 8).

The broad effects of pleiotropic srf mutations are more readily explicable if we postulate that these mutations perturb a process, as opposed to the function of a single protein. This interpretation is consistent with the evidence that these genes function in a linear pathway instead of in a parallel, additive manner. An obvious candidate process is the modification or secretion of extracellular proteins. A defect in proper production of extracellular proteins could account for cuticle, basal lamina, and spicule abnormalities, as well as perturbations in the *lin-12* signalling system (by affecting lin-12 receptor or ligand activities). Defects in protein secretion could occur at a biochemical level (e.g., processing of signal sequences, glycosylation) or at the level of cell function (e.g., proper Golgi body formation). Defects in the latter class may be discernable by ultrastructural analysis. However, because complete disruption of secretory processes would likely be lethal, we would postulate that the pleiotropic srf genes are required for secretion of only a subset of extracellular proteins, or, alternatively, for only some fraction of the secretion of many proteins.

If the pleiotropic srf mutations are defective in the processing or secretion of extracellular proteins, an underlying defect in protein glycosylation is an intriguing possibility. A block in the latter stages of glycosylation (e.g., addition of terminal sugars) would seem most likely, since this would presumably affect a subset of glycoproteins. The ectopic binding of the lectins WGA and SBA (which show affinity for Nacetyl glucosamine and N-acetyl galactosamine, respectively) could conceivably result from the absence of terminal sugar residues that normally block these lectins from binding to cuticle glycoproteins. This effect has been observed in CHO cell glycosylation mutants (STANLEY 1984). There is also some experimental evidence that glycosylation can play a role in neurite outgrowth (LANDMESSER et al. 1990; CHAN-DRASEKARAN et al. 1991) and cell migration (BRAN-DLEY, SHAPER and SCHNAAR 1990; KUNEMUND et al. 1988; STOOLMAN 1989). It has been proposed that activation of the lin-12 receptor gene involves multimerization of the receptor protein (GREENWALD and SEYDOUX 1990), as has been described for the insulin receptor. It is not difficult to imagine this multimerization being modulated by levels of lin-12 protein glycosylation, thus suggesting a mechanism by which the pleiotropic srf mutation could alter lin-12 function. Examination of the glycosylation hypothesis will require analysis of cuticle and basal lamina glycoproteins.

Determination of the exact function of the pleiotropic srf genes will likely require their molecular cloning and sequencing. The *srf-8* and *srf-9* genes are located in a region of LGV that is completely covered by the *C. elegans* physical map (COULSON *et al.* 1986), and should be recoverable by positional cloning approaches (*e.g.*, HAN and STERNBERG 1990).

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