

Distinct functionality of dishevelled isoforms on Ca²⁺/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase 2 (CamKII) in *Xenopus* gastrulation

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ABSTRACT Wnt ligands trigger the activation of a variety of β -catenin-dependent and β -catenin-independent intracellular signaling cascades. Despite the variations in intracellular signaling, Wnt pathways share the effector proteins frizzled, dishevelled, and β -arrestin. It is unclear how the specific activation of individual branches and the integration of multiple signals are achieved. We hypothesized that the composition of dishevelled- β -arrestin protein complexes contributes to signal specificity and identified CamKII as an interaction partner of the dishevelled- β -arrestin protein complex by quantitative functional proteomics. Specifically, we found that CamKII isoforms interact differentially with the three vertebrate dishevelled proteins. Dvl1 is required for the activation of CamKII and PKC in the Wnt/Ca²⁺ pathway. However, CamKII interacts with Dvl2 but not with Dvl1, and Dvl2 is necessary to mediate CamKII function downstream of Dvl1 in convergent extension movements in *Xenopus* gastrulation. Our findings indicate that the different Dvl proteins and the composition of dishevelled- β -arrestin protein complexes contribute to the specific activation of individual branches of Wnt signaling.

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INTRODUCTION

The wingless/integrated-1 protein (Wnt) ligands are glycosylated and palmitoylated paracrine growth factors that regulate patterning, cell migration, and differentiation in embryonic development and adult tissue homeostasis. Deregulated Wnt signaling is often associated with pathological disorders, including cancer and metabolic and neurodegenerative diseases (Cadigan and Nusse, 1997; Logan and Nusse, 2004; Clevers, 2006; Minami *et al.*, 2010). Cellular signaling triggered by Wnt ligands is generally subdivided into the β -catenin-dependent pathway activated by a frizzled and low density lipoprotein receptor-related protein 5/6 (LRP5/6) receptor

complex (Brown *et al.*, 1998; Tamai *et al.*, 2000) and multiple β -catenin-independent pathways, which are activated by frizzled and often in combination with a coreceptor of the receptor-tyrosine-kinase family such as Ror2 (Oishi *et al.*, 2003; Nishita *et al.*, 2010), Ryk (Kim *et al.*, 2008), or PTK7 (Lu *et al.*, 2004; Semenov *et al.*, 2007; Verkaar and Zaman, 2010; van Amerongen, 2012).

In the Wnt/ β -catenin pathway, the frizzled-LRP5/6 receptor complex recruits intracellular effector proteins, including β -arrestin (Arrb; Bryja *et al.*, 2007), axin, dishevelled (Dvl), glycogen-synthase kinase 3 β (GSK3 β ; Bilic *et al.*, 2007; Kim *et al.*, 2013), and casein kinase 1 (CK1; Davidson *et al.*, 2005) and inhibits the activity of axin and GSK3 β in the β -catenin destruction complex (Behrens *et al.*, 1998; Itoh *et al.*, 1998; Farr *et al.*, 2000). As a consequence, β -catenin accumulates in the cytoplasm and translocates into the nucleus, where it acts as a transcriptional coactivator with LEF/TCF transcription factors (McKendry *et al.*, 1997; Kries *et al.*, 2000).

Among the β -catenin-independent signaling cascades, the planar cell polarity (PCP) pathway (reviewed in Wu and Mlodzik, 2009) and the Wnt/Ca²⁺ pathway (reviewed in Kühl *et al.*, 2000b) have been characterized in more detail. In the Wnt/PCP pathway, activation of the receptor complex also induces recruitment of

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Address correspondence to: Alexandra Schambony (alexandra.schambony@fau.de). Abbreviations used: CamKII, Ca²⁺/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase 2; LRP, low density lipoprotein receptor-related protein; Wnt, wingless/integrated-1 protein.

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dishevelled (Strutt *et al.*, 1997; Boutros *et al.*, 1998; Wallingford *et al.*, 2000) and β -arrestin (Bryja *et al.*, 2008). However, in this signaling cascade, dishevelled mediates the activation of the Rho-family small GTPases RhoA and Rac1 (Strutt *et al.*, 1997; Habas *et al.*, 2001, 2003) and their downstream effector kinases Rho-associated protein kinase (ROCK; Marlow *et al.*, 2002; Simões *et al.*, 2010) and c-jun N-terminal kinase (JNK; Boutros *et al.*, 1998; Yamanaka *et al.*, 2002; Rosso *et al.*, 2005). The Wnt/Ca²⁺ pathway is characterized by the release of intracellular Ca²⁺ stores (Slusarski *et al.*, 1997b) and subsequent activation of Ca²⁺-dependent proteins, including protein kinase C (PKC; Sheldahl *et al.*, 1999), Ca²⁺/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase 2 (CamKII; Kühl *et al.*, 2000a), and the protein phosphatase calcineurin (Saneyoshi *et al.*, 2002). In addition to Wnt ligands, it has been shown that dishevelled is able to activate Ca²⁺ signaling in *Xenopus* embryos (Slusarski *et al.*, 1997a; Sheldahl *et al.*, 1999, 2003; Kühl *et al.*, 2000a).

The different Wnt signaling cascades share a number of proteins, which include Wnt ligands and frizzled receptors, as well as dishevelled, β -arrestin, GSK3 β , and CK1. It is becoming more and more evident that Wnt pathways and particularly the variety of β -catenin-independent signaling cascades are often tightly intertwined. However, it remains unclear how the activation of specific downstream effectors is achieved and how different signal inputs are integrated into a cellular response.

Individual Wnt pathways regulate distinct processes in embryonic development that require their specific, concerted, and tightly controlled activation in time and space. The Wnt/ β -catenin pathway is involved in the establishment of the embryonic body axes and embryonic patterning (Funayama *et al.*, 1995; Miller and Moon, 1996; Schneider *et al.*, 1996; Dorsky *et al.*, 1998; Kengaku *et al.*, 1998; Maloof *et al.*, 1999; Kiecker and Niehrs, 2001), as well as in the regulation of cell proliferation and differentiation (Kispert *et al.*, 1998; Tetsu and McCormick, 1999; Dunn *et al.*, 2000; Huelsenken *et al.*, 2001; Li *et al.*, 2002; Nakamura *et al.*, 2003). By contrast, the β -catenin-independent Wnt pathways directly influence cytoskeleton organization, cell morphology, cell polarity, and cell motility via the small GTPases, ROCK, PKC, and CamKII and are also essential for the establishment of planar cell polarity and the regulation of cell movements (Moon *et al.*, 1993; Strutt *et al.*, 1997; Heisenberg *et al.*, 2000; Tada and Smith, 2000; Habas *et al.*, 2001; Wallingford *et al.*, 2001; Darken *et al.*, 2002; Bastock *et al.*, 2003; Jenny *et al.*, 2003;

Unterseher *et al.*, 2004; Dabdoub and Kelley, 2005; Schambony and Wedlich, 2007; Gao *et al.*, 2011; Ho *et al.*, 2012; Seitz *et al.*, 2014).

In previous work we showed that dishevelled and β -arrestin are required in both β -catenin-dependent and -independent Wnt signaling to relay the signal to downstream effector proteins (Bryja *et al.*, 2007, 2008; Seitz *et al.*, 2014). We hypothesized that the composition of dishevelled/ β -arrestin protein complexes varies depending on Wnt signaling activity and that the recruitment of defined interaction partners might contribute to the directing of signaling activity toward specific downstream cascades. To characterize dishevelled/ β -arrestin protein complexes and the molecular interactions that contribute to the activation of different Wnt signaling pathways, we carried out interactome studies using quantitative functional proteomics. In particular, we identified CamKII δ as one protein that exhibits differential interaction with dishevelled/ β -arrestin. CamKII is an effector kinase in the Wnt/Ca²⁺ pathway (Kühl *et al.*, 2000a) and was previously reported to antagonize Wnt/ β -catenin signaling (Kühl *et al.*, 2001). Therefore we investigated the interactions between the three *Xenopus* members of the Dvl protein family and CamKII and their functional interaction in Wnt/Ca²⁺ signaling in human cells and in *Xenopus* embryos.

RESULTS

CamKII physically interacts with dishevelled 2

We demonstrated recently that β -arrestin 2 (Arrb2), dishevelled 2 (Dvl2), and the β and γ subunits of trimeric G-proteins, respectively G β and G γ (G $\beta\gamma$), interact physically and functionally in Wnt/Ca²⁺ signaling (Seitz *et al.*, 2014). Along this line, we performed quantitative functional proteomic experiments with Arrb2 as bait protein and identified CamKII as a novel binding partner of the Arrb2-Dvl2-G $\beta\gamma$ complex (Table 1). Quantitative analysis further revealed that coaffinity was substoichiometric relative to the bait protein, but the estimated relative interactor/bait ratio was comparable to the ratio obtained for known Arrb2- or Dvl-interacting proteins such as CK1 (Peters *et al.*, 1999; Sakanaka *et al.*, 1999) and CK2 (Willert *et al.*, 1997).

Consequently we performed the inverse experiment by coimmunoprecipitation of the Arrb2-Dvl2-G $\beta\gamma$ protein complex using Dvl2-green fluorescent protein (GFP) as bait protein. Of interest, we observed an approximate fivefold increased recovery of CamKII (Table 1). These results were in agreement with the previous experiments and indicated a physical interaction of CamKII,

Bait	Arrb2-Flag	Bait	Dvl2-GFP
Coexpressed	Dvl2-GFP	Coexpressed	Arrb2-Flag
	HA-G β		HA-G β
	HA-G γ		HA-G γ
Copurified CamKII: total abundance relative to bait 0.18%		Copurified CamKII: total abundance relative to bait 0.9%	
Peptides identified	Protein	Peptides identified	Protein
AGAYDFPSPEWDTVTPEAK	CamKII α , β , γ , δ	AGAYDFPSPEWDTVTPEAK	CamKII α , β , γ , δ
		DLKPENLLLASK	CamKII α , β , γ , δ
ESTESSNTTIEDVDK	CamKII δ	ESTESSNTTIEDVDK	CamKII δ
FTDEYQLFEELGK	CamKII δ	FTDEYQLFEELGK	CamKII δ

The indicated proteins were expressed transiently in HEK 293T cells, and the Arrb2/Dvl2 protein complexes were isolated by anti-Flag immunoprecipitation. CamKII δ was identified in Arrb2-Flag pull downs with three peptides and in Flag-Dvl2 pull downs with 10 peptides. Only peptides with a Mascot Score >20 were considered, and relative quantification to the bait was based on the most intensive three peptides (Vasilij *et al.* 2012). Isoform specificity of peptides was obtained from the proteomicsdb database (www.proteomicsdb.org; Wilhelm *et al.*, 2014).

TABLE 1: Identification of CamKII δ as a binding partner of Arrb2-Dvl2-G $\beta\gamma$ protein complexes by quantitative functional proteomics.

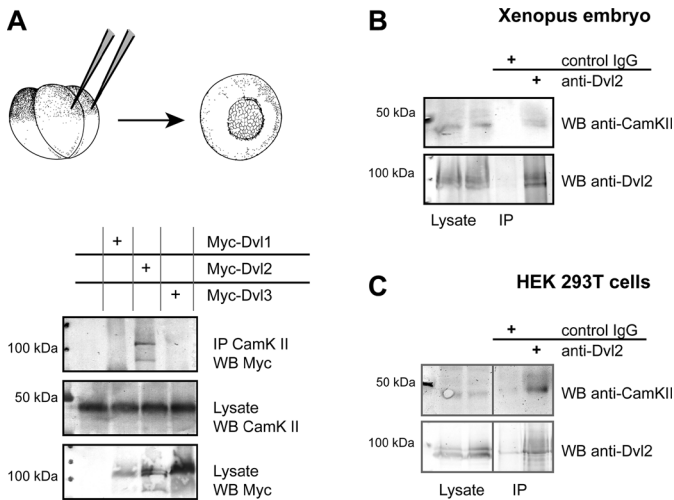


FIGURE 3: Endogenous CamKII interacts with Dvl2 in *Xenopus* embryos. (A) *Xenopus* embryos were injected as illustrated in the two dorsal blastomeres at the four-cell stage with RNA encoding Myc-Dvl1, Myc-Dvl2, or Myc-Dvl3. At early-gastrula stage (NF stage 10.5), endogenous CamKII was captured by immunoaffinity and the immunoprecipitates probed for the presence of the Myc-tagged Dvl isoforms (A). Endogenous CamKII coprecipitated with endogenous Dvl2 from *Xenopus* embryos (B) and from HEK 293T cells (C), confirming the physical interaction.

(Figure 4C). These results were in agreement with CamKII autophosphorylation at T286 (Figure 4, A and B) and confirmed that *Xenopus* Dvl1, Dvl2, and Dvl3 differentially regulate CamKII activation in vivo.

Next we asked whether the observed selective activation of CamKII by Dvl1 was also true for the activation of PKC and thus might indicate differential activity of Dvl isoforms in Wnt/Ca²⁺ signaling in general. PKC α is a Ca²⁺- and diacylglycerol (DAG)-dependent PKC isoform that translocates to the plasma membrane upon activation and DAG binding. Membrane translocation of PKC α is a commonly used readout for the activation of Wnt/Ca²⁺-mediated signaling (Sheldahl *et al.*, 1999). PKC α translocation can be induced in *Xenopus* animal cap tissue by overexpression of *Xenopus* Fzd7 (Winklbauer *et al.*, 2001; Seitz *et al.*, 2014). Here we also overexpressed Fzd7 in *Xenopus* embryos to stimulate PKC α -GFP recruitment to the plasma membrane in animal cap tissue (Figure 5, A and B). Coinjection of Dvl1 MO–reduced Fzd7 induced PKC α -GFP translocation to the cell membrane (Figure 5C), whereas coinjection of either Dvl2 MO or Dvl3 MO (Figure 5, D and E) had no effect on PKC α translocation. In the inverse experiment, we coinjected *pkc α -gfp* RNA with subeffective doses of *fzd7* RNA (Figure 5F) and *myc-dvl1*, *myc-dvl2*, or *myc-dvl3* RNA. Consistently, only coexpression of *myc-Dvl1* (Figure 5G), and that of neither *myc-Dvl2* (Figure 5H) nor *myc-Dvl3* (Figure 5I), promoted membrane translocation of PKC α -GFP.

These results indicated that PKC and CamKII are activated in a Dvl1-dependent manner. However, CamKII only selectively interacted with Dvl2, which, astonishingly, had no detectable influence on CamKII phosphorylation or PKC translocation in *Xenopus*.

For further functional analysis, we examined the expression of CamKII during embryogenesis. The antibody used for detection of endogenous *Xenopus* CamKII was not isoform specific, and therefore we analyzed the presence of transcripts encoding the four CamKII isoforms in different developmental stages of

Xenopus embryos. Of interest, *camkII δ* transcripts were the most abundant from early cleavage stages until organogenesis (Supplemental Figure S3). *camkII α* RNA was first detectable in neurula stages (stage 17) and was strongly up-regulated in organogenesis stages (stages 24 and 28). Similarly, *camkII β* transcripts were detected only in stage 24 and 28 embryos. Maternal *camkII γ* transcripts were present in eight-cell-stage and blastula-stage embryos; levels dropped below detection limit during gastrulation and increased again from stage 20 onward (Supplemental Figure S3). These results showed that *camkII δ* is the most abundant *camkII* transcript in early embryos and the only isoform transcribed throughout gastrulation. Consequently we used CamKII δ to study further the functional interaction with the three Dvl proteins in *Xenopus* gastrulation.

Noncanonical Wnt pathways, including the Wnt/Ca²⁺ pathway, are required for CE movements in *Xenopus* (Moon *et al.*, 1993; Tada and Smith, 2000; Wallingford *et al.*, 2001), and therefore we investigated the role and potential functional redundancy of Dvl1, Dvl2, and Dvl3 in CE movements.

In Keller open-face explants from Dvl1-morphant embryos, we observed CE defects manifesting predominantly as inhibition of explant elongation (Figure 6A). The Dvl1-morphant phenotype in Keller explants was rescued by overexpression of Dvl1, PKC α , or CamKII δ (Figure 6A). These rescues were consistent with an activating function of Dvl1 in the Wnt/Ca²⁺ pathway and activation of PKC α and CamKII, as shown in Figures 4 and 5. Knockdown of Dvl2 induced less severe elongation defects than Dvl1 MO, but a high percentage of Dvl2-depleted explants showed pronounced constriction defects (Figure 6B and our previous report, Bryja *et al.* 2008). The CE phenotype in Dvl2 morphants was rescued by coinjection of a morpholino-insensitive *myc-dvl2* RNA (Figure 6B). In contrast to Dvl1-depleted explants, overexpression of PKC α was not able to rescue elongation or constriction in explants from Dvl2-morphant embryos, whereas overexpression of CamKII δ in these explants resulted in an even stronger inhibition of CE movements (Figure 6B). Explants from Dvl3-morphant embryos showed a similar phenotype to Dvl2-depleted explants, namely moderate elongation but significant constriction defects (Figure 6C). The phenotype was also rescued by coinjection of morpholino-insensitive *myc-dvl3* RNA, which confirmed the specificity of the knockdown phenotype. Overexpression of PKC α in Dvl3-morphant embryos resulted in a mild but statistically not significant improvement of CE movements, and overexpression of CamKII δ had no effect in these explants. In contrast and consistent with the observed enhanced CamKII autophosphorylation in Dvl3-morphant embryos, the CE phenotype in Dvl3-depleted explants was rescued by overexpression of dnCamKII δ (Figure 6C).

Because Dvl1 activated CamKII whereas Dvl2 physically interacted and appeared to be functionally related to CamKII in *Xenopus* CE movements, we also investigated a potential functional redundancy between Dvl1 and Dvl2 with respect to Wnt/Ca²⁺ signaling. First we tested whether Dvl2 was able to rescue CE movements in Dvl1-morphant explants and vice versa. We observed that Dvl2 indeed rescued the Dvl1-knockdown phenotype in Keller explants. However, in the inverse experiment, Dvl1 was not sufficient to rescue Dvl2 depletion (Figure 6D). Simultaneous knockdown of both Dvl1 and Dvl2, not unexpectedly, resulted in a much more severe inhibition of explant elongation (Figure 6D). Of interest, in Dvl1/Dvl2 double-morphant embryos, coexpression of CamKII δ restored elongation but not constriction of the explants (Figure 6D), a phenotype highly reminiscent of the single Dvl2-knockdown phenotype

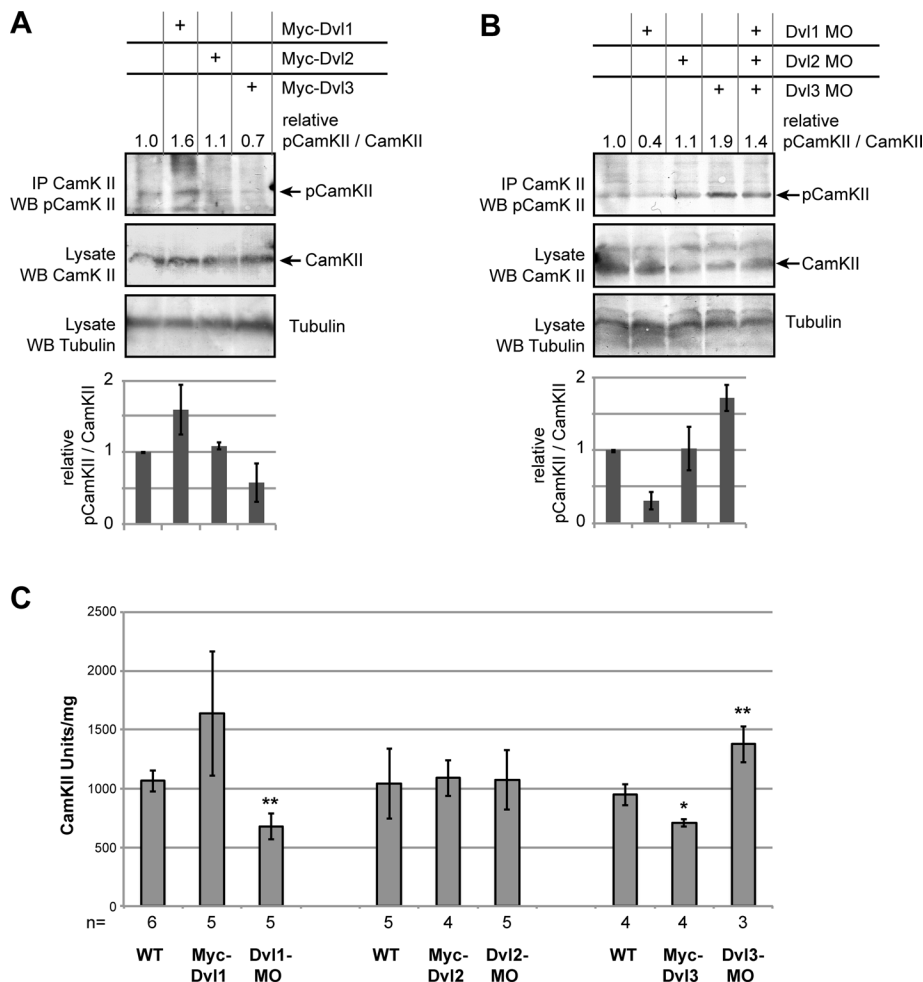


FIGURE 4: Dvl1 activates CamKII in *Xenopus* embryos. (A) Immunoblotting for active CamKII-pT286 showed that Myc-Dvl1, but not Myc-Dvl2, enhanced CamKII phosphorylation, whereas Myc-Dvl3 reduced pCamKII levels in the embryos. (B) Knockdown of individual Dvl isoforms using specific antisense morpholino oligonucleotides yielded the inverse result. Dvl1 morphants showed reduced and Dvl3 morphants showed increased pCamKII levels, whereas Dvl2 knockdown did not affect pCamKII. In triple Dvl-morphant embryos, increased pCamKII levels were again observed. Ratios of pCamKII/CamKII in A and B were determined densitometrically relative to uninjected controls. Values noted above the respective lanes represent measurements of the blots shown; bar graphs below show the average \pm SD from three independent experiments. (C) *Xenopus* embryos were injected as indicated, and CamKII kinase activity was measured. The graph represents the average activity from at least three independent experiments (average \pm SEM); injections and number of experiments (n) are given below the graph. Asterisks indicate statistically significant deviation of means from corresponding wild-type levels (* $p > 0.1$, ** $p > 0.05$, Wilcoxon rank-sum test).

(Figure 6D). Taken together, these results indicated that Dvl1 was not sufficient to functionally replace Dvl2, but Dvl2 could compensate Dvl1 loss of function. Moreover it appears that the ability of CamKII δ to rescue the Dvl1 MO phenotype depended on the presence of Dvl2.

DISCUSSION

Gastrulation in *Xenopus*, as in all vertebrate embryos, is the first morphogenetic process in embryonic development. The three germ layers are specified and positioned relative to each other predominantly by internalization and reorganization of the mesoderm in tightly controlled and coordinated mass cell movements in which β -catenin-independent Wnt pathways play crucial roles (Moon et al., 1993; Tada and Smith, 2000; Wallingford et al., 2001). After

specification of the germ layers and vegetal rotation, the mesoderm involutes, beginning at the dorsal blastopore lip (Keller, 2005). The internalized mesoderm is kept separated from the overlying ectoderm, a process mediated by frizzled signaling to PKC (Winklbauer et al., 2001), that is, Wnt/Ca²⁺ signaling. After involution, polarization and mediolateral intercalation behavior is initiated in the dorsal mesoderm, which results in CE, the elongation and mediolateral narrowing of the entire tissue. Cell polarity during CE movements is conferred and maintained by the Wnt/PCP pathway (Goto and Keller, 2002; Wallingford et al., 2002; Unterseher et al., 2004; Jenny and Mlodzik, 2006). In addition, Wnt/Ca²⁺ signaling is also required for CE movements in *Xenopus* (Choi and Han, 2002; Penzo-Mendèz et al., 2003; Seitz et al., 2014). Both signaling pathways play an important role in maintenance and remodeling of cell shape and cell polarity and in the regulation of cell movements. Dissecting the interplay of these signaling events in CE movements is challenging because both β -catenin-independent Wnt pathways are activated by dishevelled and β -arrestin (Sheldahl et al., 2003; Wang et al., 2006; Bryja et al., 2008; Seitz et al., 2014), and we proposed that Dvl-Arrb2 protein complexes act as signaling hubs (Seitz et al., 2014). Moreover, it has been suggested that Wnt signaling should be viewed as an interconnected network rather than as individual signaling cascades (Kestler and Kühl, 2008).

With the identification and characterization of an interaction between CamKII, Dvl2, and β -arrestin, we have demonstrated specific physical interactions within this signaling network. By contrast, dishevelled 1 is required for the activation of PKC and CamKII and functionally links the Wnt/Ca²⁺ pathway to other Dvl- and β -arrestin-dependent Wnt pathways. Arrb2 interacts with all three vertebrate Dvl proteins (Seitz et al., 2014), and both Arrb2 and dishevelled are essential in β -catenin-dependent and -independent

Wnt pathways (Bryja et al., 2007, 2008; Seitz et al., 2014). Therefore it could be hypothesized that Arrb2 and Dvl form central protein complexes in Wnt signaling that are modulated in a context-dependent manner, interact with additional proteins as demonstrated here for CamKII, and thereby trigger different cellular responses. Moreover, we observed differential interaction of Dvl1, Dvl2, and Dvl3 with the four CamKII isoforms, which implies that the expression of specific isoforms contributes to the degree of interaction and modulation between these proteins and between different branches of Wnt signaling.

In addition to the physical interaction, we have shown a functional interaction between CamKII δ and all three Dvl proteins, in particular with Dvl1 and Dvl2, in *Xenopus* gastrulation. Of interest, in gastrula-stage embryos, we detected only transcripts encoding

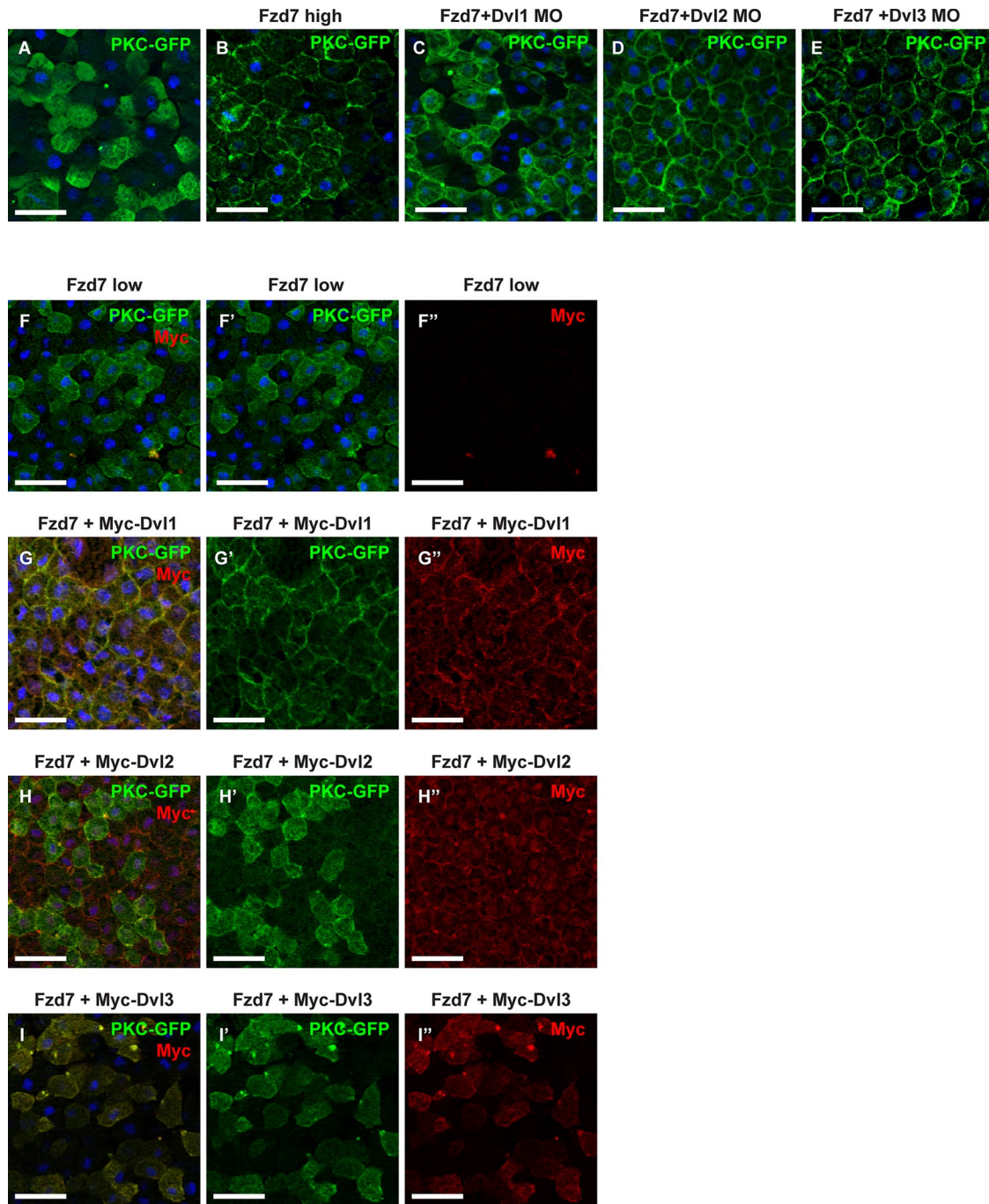


FIGURE 5: Dvl1 is required for activation and membrane translocation of PKC in *Xenopus* embryos. *Xenopus* embryos were injected with 500 pg of *pkcα-gfp* RNA and coinjected as indicated above the images. Animal caps were prepared at stage 10 and immunostained as indicated. Nuclei were stained with Hoechst 33258 (blue). Images show representative results of at least three independent experiments with a minimum of six Animal Caps per experiment. Scale bars, 50 μm. (A) PKCα-GFP predominantly localized to the cytoplasm in *Xenopus* animal caps. (B) Coinjection of 1 ng of *fz7* RNA induced translocation of PKCα-GFP to the plasma membrane, indicating activation of PKC. (C) Overexpression of Fz7 was less effective in inducing PKCα-GFP translocation in Dvl1-morphant embryos. Knockdown of Dvl2 (D) or Dvl3 (E) did not impair Fz7-induced PKCα-GFP translocation. Injection of subeffective amounts of *fz7* RNA (300 ng) did not alter PKCα-GFP localization (F, F') compared with animal cap cells expressing only PKCα-GFP (A). Coinjection of 200 pg of *myc-dvl1* RNA induced robust membrane translocation of PKCα-GFP (G, G'). The tissue was coimmunostained against the Myc epitope, showing that Myc-Dvl1 predominantly localized to the plasma membrane and colocalized with PKCα-GFP (G'). Coinjection of 200 pg of *myc-dvl2* RNA was not sufficient to induce translocation of PKCα-GFP to the plasma membrane (H, H'). Myc-Dvl2 was detected in the cytoplasm and at the plasma membrane (H'). Coinjection of 200 pg of *myc-dvl3* RNA also failed to induce membrane translocation of PKCα-GFP (I, I'). Myc-Dvl3 predominantly localized in the cytoplasm and partially formed large aggregates, which were also positive for PKCα-GFP (I'' and I).

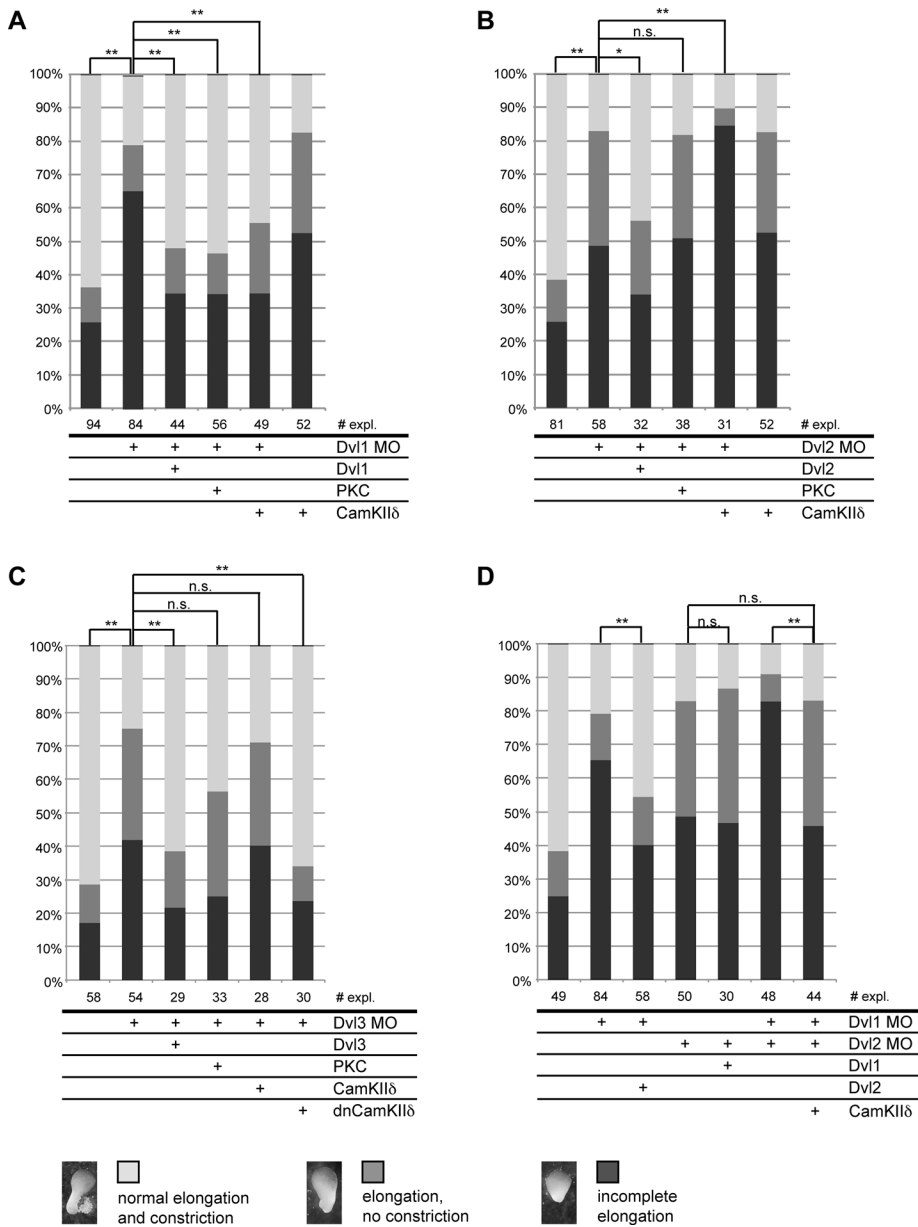


FIGURE 6: CamKII δ acts downstream of Dvl1 in *Xenopus* convergent extension movements. *Xenopus* embryos were injected at the four-cell stage in the marginal zone of both dorsal blastomeres as indicated. CE movements in the dorsal mesoderm were monitored by elongation and constriction of Keller open-face explants. The average percentage of explants showing full elongation and constriction (light gray), elongation but impaired constriction (medium gray), or incomplete elongation (dark gray) from at least three independent experiments is shown. Asterisks indicate statistically significant deviations (** $p > 0.99$, * $p > 0.95$, χ^2 test). (A) Dvl1 knockdown predominantly inhibited explant elongation. The Dvl1-knockdown phenotype was rescued by overexpression of Dvl1, PKC α , or CamKII δ ; overexpression of CamKII δ induced moderate elongation and constriction defects. (B) Dvl2 knockdown resulted in a weaker inhibition of elongation but a significant increase in constriction defects. The Dvl2-knockdown phenotype was not rescued by PKC α or CamKII δ but was rescued by coinjection of a morpholino-insensitive *myc-dvl2* RNA. (C) The Dvl3 knockdown phenotype was similar to the phenotype in Dvl2-depleted explants. Dvl3 MO knockdown was rescued by Dvl3 and partially but statistically not significantly by PKC. CamKII δ was not able to rescue Dvl3 depletion, but coinjection of an RNA encoding dnCamKII δ rescued CE movements. (D) Dvl2 overexpression rescued the Dvl1-morphant phenotype, but not vice versa. Explants from Dvl1/Dvl2 double-morphant embryos showed a more severe phenotype than the single knockdowns. Overexpression of CamKII δ significantly rescued explant elongation but not constriction, thus yielding an explant phenotype highly similar to explants from Dvl2 morphants.

CamKII δ . CamKII α and CamKII β were expressed only from neurula stages onward, which is consistent with a predominantly neural expression of these CamKII isoforms in rats (Erondu and Kennedy, 1985; Tobimatsu and Fujisawa, 1989). CamKII δ and CamKII γ are expressed ubiquitously in rat (Tobimatsu and Fujisawa, 1989); however, in *Xenopus* embryos, CamKII γ was down-regulated during gastrulation. Consistently, we observed only one band corresponding to the predicted molecular weight of *Xenopus* CamKII δ protein in lysates from gastrula-stage embryos. In coimmunoprecipitation, we detected interaction of CamKII from *Xenopus* embryos only with Dvl2, which correlated well with the strongest interaction between these two proteins in coimmunoprecipitation experiments with human cells. This strong physical interaction was also detected in and confirmed by coimmunoprecipitation of the endogenous proteins in HEK293T cells and in *Xenopus* embryos.

Despite this physical interaction, Dvl2 did not alter the levels of active autophosphorylated CamKII or CamKII kinase activity in these embryos. By contrast, Dvl1 was required upstream of PKC and CamKII and was sufficient to induce PKC translocation and increase CamKII autophosphorylation and kinase activity in *Xenopus* embryos. The up-regulation of *Xenopus* Dvl1 gene expression at gastrula stages shown by Tadjuidje *et al.* (2011) coincides with the Dvl1-mediated CamKII δ activation during gastrulation demonstrated here. Of interest, this functional relationship between Dvl1 and CamKII has also been reported in the formation of excitatory synapses in rat spinal neurons (Ciani *et al.*, 2011), indicating that Dvl1 might preferentially signal to the Wnt/Ca²⁺ pathway.

On the other hand, Dvl3 endogenously inhibited CamKII activity, which clearly demonstrated a distinct molecular function of Dvl3 as compared with Dvl1 and Dvl2 in *Xenopus* gastrulation.

Moreover, our findings indicate that regulation of CamKII signaling activity and physical interaction with CamKII are mediated by different Dvl proteins, thus uncoupling these two events. This does not exclude overlapping functions in CE movements or other developmental processes in general, as reported for Dvl2 and Dvl3 in CE movements (Tadjuidje *et al.*, 2011) and for Dvl1 and Dvl2 in neural crest migration (Gray *et al.*, 2009), since these morphogenetic processes are regulated by multiple interacting Wnt pathways. Consistent with the latter report, we also observed that Dvl2 was sufficient to rescue the CE

phenotype in Dvl1-depleted explants. However, Dvl1 did not rescue the Dvl2-morphant phenotype, and CamKII δ only partially rescued the double knockdown of Dvl1 and Dvl2. Of interest, these explants displayed a phenotype that is highly reminiscent of the single Dvl2 knockdown, suggesting that CamKII δ acted downstream of Dvl1 but depended on Dvl2 in CE movements.

The molecular mechanism by which a protein complex of Arrb2-Dvl2 and CamKII δ regulates CE movements remains elusive. CamKII has been shown to act in microtubule reorganization in cortical axons (Li *et al.*, 2014) and regulate the length and frequency of actin-containing filopodia in migrating cancer cells (Wang *et al.*, 2010). Dishevelled likewise modulates both microtubule stability and actin reorganization (Krylova *et al.*, 2000; Ciani and Salinas, 2007; Habas *et al.*, 2001, 2003). Microtubules are required in the initiation of CE movements in *Xenopus* but are dispensable in later phases, when cell migration depends on the actin cytoskeleton (Lane and Keller, 1997). Therefore it is conceivable that CamKII δ and Dvl2 or, more generally, the Wnt/Ca²⁺ and Wnt/PCP pathways act in concert to control cell shape, cell polarity, and cell migration during CE movements.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Plasmids and morpholinos

The following plasmids and morpholinos have been described previously: pcDNA-FLAG-*arrb2* (Bryja *et al.*, 2007), pCS2+ *fzd7* (Unterseher *et al.*, 2004), Dvl2 MO (Bryja *et al.*, 2008), and Dvl1 MO and Dvl3 MO (Gray *et al.*, 2009).

The expression plasmid pCS2+ *pkc α -gfp* was generously provided by Michael K \ddot{u} hl (University of Ulm, Ulm, Germany); pcDNA HA-g β 1 (*HA-gnb1*) and pcDNA HA-g γ 2 (*HA-gng2*) were provided by G. Schulte (Karolinska Institute, Stockholm, Sweden); and expression plasmids encoding human CamKII α , CamKII β , CamKII γ , and CamKII δ were a kind gift from Gary Davidson (Karlsruhe Institute of Technology, Karlsruhe, Germany). The open reading frames encoding *Xenopus laevis* CamKII δ , Dvl1, Dvl2, and Dvl3 were amplified by PCR and cloned into pCS2+ Myc (R. Rupp, Ludwig Maximilian University, Munich, Germany) and pCS2+ Flag; point mutations were introduced in Flag-CamKII δ by site-directed mutagenesis to generate dominant-negative CamKII δ K42M and constitutively active CamKII δ T286D.

Antibodies

Rabbit anti-GFP and rabbit anti-HA were obtained from Abcam (Cambridge, UK), rabbit anti-Myc, rabbit anti-Flag, rabbit anti-pCamKII (pT286), and rabbit anti-GFP from Cell Signaling Technology (Beverly MA), and rabbit anti-Dvl2 from Proteintech (Chicago, IL), and mouse anti-CamKII was purchased from BD Biosciences (Heidelberg, Germany). The anti-Tubulin β hybridoma developed by Michael Klymkowski and the anti-Myc hybridoma clone 9E10 developed by J. Michael Bishop were obtained from the Developmental Studies Hybridoma Bank, created by the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development of the National Institutes of Health and maintained at The University of Iowa, Department of Biology, Iowa City, IA. Secondary antibodies used were anti-mouse alkaline phosphatase and anti-rabbit alkaline phosphatase (Cell Signaling Technology), anti-mouse Cy3 (Jackson ImmunoResearch, West Grove PA), and anti-rabbit Alexa 488 and anti-mouse Alexa 647 (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA).

X. laevis embryos

X. laevis embryos were generated and cultured according to general protocols and staged according to the normal table of

Nieuwkoop and Faber (1975). All procedures were performed according to the German animal use and care law (Tierschutzgesetz) and approved by the German state administration Bavaria (Regierung von Mittelfranken).

Injection and analysis of *X. laevis* embryos and tissue explants

RNA for microinjection was prepared from the respective plasmids using the mMessage mMachine Kit (Ambion, Austin, TX). If not stated otherwise, injection amounts were 500 pg of *pkc α -gfp*, 50 pg of *myc-dvl1*, *myc-dvl2*, and *myc-dvl3*, and 1 ng (high) or 300 pg (low) of *fzd7* RNA for PKC-translocation assays in animal caps and 200 pg for *myc-dvl1*, *myc-dvl2*, *myc-dvl3*, *camkII δ* , and *pkc α -GFP* in embryos for preparation of Keller explants. Knockdown of Dvl isoforms was achieved by injection of 1.6 pmol of the respective antisense MO oligonucleotides: Dvl2 MO, Dvl1 MO, and Dvl3 MO.

Embryos were injected at the two-cell stage for animal cap explants or at the four-cell stage in both dorsal blastomeres for Keller explants and cultured until they reached stage 10 or 10.5, respectively.

Keller open-face explants were prepared and cultured as described in Unterseher *et al.* (2004). Explants were scored as "normal elongation and constriction" if they showed >75% elongation and constriction, as "elongated with impaired constriction" if explants showed >75% elongation but failed to constrict, and "impaired elongation" if explants showed <75% elongation when compared with fully elongated control explants. Immunofluorescence staining of animal cap explants was performed as described previously (Tauriello *et al.*, 2012). Photographs were taken on a Zeiss Apotome imaging system (Zeiss, Oberkochen, Germany) and on a Leica SP5 confocal scanning microscope (Leica, Wetzlar, Germany).

Cell culture and transfection

HEK 293T human embryonic kidney cells (Leibniz Institute Collections of Microorganisms and Cell Culture, DSMZ, Braunschweig, Germany) were cultured in DMEM supplemented with 10% fetal calf serum (Life Technologies) at 37°C in a humidified atmosphere of 10% CO₂. Plasmid transfections were performed using Nanofectin (GE Healthcare, Freiburg, Germany) according to the manufacturer's protocols.

Coimmunopurifications and quantitative mass spectrometry

Plasmids encoding Arrb2-Flag, Dvl2-GFP, and hemagglutinin (HA)-tagged G β and G γ were transiently transfected into HEK293T cells. Bait proteins were affinity isolated on anti-Flag beads (Sigma-Aldrich, Munich, Germany) or on anti-GFP beads prepared by coupling an anti-GFP antibody (Acris Antibodies, Herford, Germany) covalently to agarose beads (Direct IP Kit; Thermo Fisher Scientific, Bremen, Germany). Eluates were digested with trypsin and subsequently with Lys-C in solution. After addition of protein digests as quantitative standards, the samples were desalted on C-18 stage tips (Nest Group, Southborough, MA) and analyzed by nanoflow high-performance liquid chromatography–tandem mass spectrometry (2D-NanoLC; Eksigent, Dublin, CA; Orbitrap Velos MS, Thermo Fisher Scientific; Vasilj *et al.*, 2012). Protein identification was performed with Mascot V2.2 (Matrixscience, London, United Kingdom), and determination of peptide ion signals for label-free quantification was performed with Progenesis LCMS V2.6 (Nonlinear Dynamics, Newcastle on Tyne, United Kingdom); relative quantification was based on the most intense three signals (MI3; Silva *et al.*, 2006; Groessl *et al.*, 2012). Isoform specificity of peptides was obtained

from the proteomicsdb database (www.proteomicsdb.org; Wilhelm *et al.*, 2014).

Preparation of cell lysates, immunoprecipitation, and Western blotting

Cells were washed once with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) and lysed in NP-40 buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.4, 150 mM NaCl, 2 mM EDTA, 1% NP-40) supplemented with Complete Protease Inhibitor and PhosStop Phosphatase Inhibitor Cocktails (Roche, Mannheim, Germany) at 4°C. For embryo lysates, embryos were collected at the desired stage and lysed in the same lysis buffer. Lysates were cleared at 16,000 × *g* for 10 min. For coimmunoprecipitation, lysates were incubated for 4 h at 4°C with the appropriate antibody and protein G-magnetic beads (Life Technologies) or anti-Flag M2 magnetic beads (Sigma-Aldrich). Immunoprecipitates were collected, washed four times with lysis buffer, and eluted with SDS sample buffer. For Western blotting, proteins were visualized colorimetrically with NBT/BCIP.

CamKII kinase activity assays

CamKII kinase activity assays were carried out according to the procedure described by Kühl *et al.* (2000a) with the following modifications: embryos were injected as indicated and cultured until stage 10.5. Embryos were lysed in 10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 40 μM ethylene glycol tetraacetic acid, and 0.1% (vol/vol) β-mercaptoethanol supplemented with complete Protease Inhibitor and PhosStop Phosphatase Inhibitor cocktails (Roche, Mannheim, Germany) and cleared twice by centrifugation at 16,000 × *g* for 5 min. Protein concentrations were determined using a bicinchoninic acid assay (Applichem, Darmstadt, Germany) with bovine serum albumin as standard. The CamKII substrate Syntide-2 peptide PLARTLSVAGLPGKK (Hashimoto and Soderling, 1987) was custom synthesized and biotinylated at the N-terminus (PSL, Heidelberg, Germany). Per injection and batch, CamKII kinase activity was assayed as duplicates in 20-μl reactions (50 mM NH₄HCO₃/NH₄CH₃ COO, pH 7.5, 10 mM MgCl₂, 2 mM CaCl₂, 0.01 mM EDTA, 0.2 mM dithiothreitol, 100 μM ATP, 2.5 μM substrate peptide). Reactions were started by adding 2 μl cleared lysate, incubated for 2 min at 30°C, and stopped by adding 10 μl of 7.5 M guanidine HCl. The biotinylated substrate was captured on Streptavidin-coated magnetic beads (Life Technologies), washed twice with 2 M NaCl and twice with water and stored at -20°C until analysis. Immediately before analysis, beads were washed once more with water, the biotinylated peptide was released by incubation with 1 μl of 30% formic acid for ~1 min, and peptides were recovered for direct analysis with 20 μl of 45% acetonitrile and 2.85% formic acid in water. Samples were analyzed by static nano-electrospray with a Nanomate Triversa robotic ion source (Advion, Ithaca, NY) coupled to a Q-Exactive mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Mass spectra were acquired at a nominal resolution of 140,000 at 200 *m/z* in centroid data mode. Thirty spectra were averaged, and the ratio of the intensities of the peptide ion signals of the phosphorylated and nonphosphorylated peptide was determined. Enzyme activities were calculated and are given in units (= picomoles/minute) per milligram of protein.

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