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Septins in animal tissue architecture: more than just peanuts

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Abstract

 Septins are cytoskeletal GTP-binding proteins that were discovered in budding yeast and are conserved from algae and protists to mammals. Septins assemble into heteromeric complexes, which can polymerize into filaments and higher-order filament architectures, and perform functions in a wide range of biological processes, including cell division and motility and tissue morphogenesis. Although septin dysfunction in animals is linked to infertility, defective organogenesis, neurodegenerative diseases and cancer, the molecular mechanisms underlying septin function are not clear. Studies of septins *in vivo* in whole animals provide a powerful approach for gaining insights into the role of septins in animal pathophysiology and unraveling the molecular and cell biological basis of septin function.

Introduction

 Septins are conserved cytoskeletal GTP-binding proteins [1] with roles in diverse biological processes, from cell division and sperm integrity to host-pathogen interactions [2], and in human pathophysiology [3]. The embryonic lethality of septin- depleted mice and Drosophila [4-7] highlights their essential contribution to animal physiology, yet the molecular basis of septin function remains unclear.

 Septins assemble and function as heteromeric complexes [8] (Figure 1) which are thought to polymerize into filaments and higher-order filament assemblies. Studies using cultured cells provide unprecedented insights into septin biology, however understanding how septins contribute to animal physiology necessitates their complementary study *in vivo* in whole animals. This review focuses on *in vivo* studies of septin function in tissue architecture using the established invertebrate (C. elegans, Drosophila) and vertebrate (mouse, zebrafish, Xenopus) animal model systems. We review septin functions in dividing embryos and tissues and in nondividing tissues and discuss the molecular mechanisms underlying septin function.

Animal septins in dividing embryos and tissues

 The seminal article of Neufeld and Rubin was the first to report in Drosophila the localization of animal septins to the cytokinetic cleavage furrow and to intercellular bridges connecting daughter cells in dividing tissues [9]. Growing imaginal discs - the precursors of adult tissues- depleted of the Drosophila septin Peanut (Pnut, Figure 1) failed to proliferate, and contained multinucleate cells, consistent with a requirement of septins in cytokinesis [9]. The Drosophila septins Sep2 and Sep5 were later shown to have redundant roles in imaginal disc proliferation, with double *sep2 sep5* null mutants lacking imaginal discs similar to *pnut* mutants [10]. Similar proliferation defects linked to cytokinesis failure were observed in septin mutant ovarian follicle cells [9-11]. The roles of septins in dividing embryos and tissues have been studied in particular in Drosophila and C.elegans and are reviewed in the following sections for the respective model systems.

Drosophila syncytial blastoderm embryo

 In the Drosophila syncytial blastoderm, nuclei at the embryo periphery divide four times before membrane invagination separates them to form the primary epithelium of the embryo (cellularization). Coincident with each nuclear division cycle are transient membrane invaginations, called metaphase furrows (MFs), which are crucial for separating mitotic spindles. Septins localize to the cortical region above and in between interphase nuclei, as well as along MFs and enriching at their tips [12,13]. Septin, and the septin-interacting protein, Anillin, are lost from the interphase cortex in embryos depleted from the formin Diaphanous (Dia) [14]. Septin recruitment to the MFs is regulated by the Ran pathway through the binding of importin to Anillin, which blocks Anillin-Pnut interaction [15]. In the absence of Pnut, MFs are short-lived and ingress much less [15,16], suggesting that Pnut promotes furrow stability and ingression. Pnut recruitment to MFs was further shown to depend on dynamin, syndapin and Par3/Bazooka [16-18].

Drosophila embryo cellularization

 Septins localize to the tips of invaginating membranes (cleavage furrow tips) during cellularization, colocalizing with the constricting actomyosin ring [9,12,19-21]. Septin- depleted embryos succeed to cellularize, however membrane ingression is slower, the membrane fronts constrict irregularly, actomyosin accumulation is not timely and myosin levels are reduced. Additionally, actomyosin does not form rings but concentrates in bars and becomes progressively diffuse [7,21] (Figure 2A). The actin filament cross-linking and -bending capacity of septins was suggested to contribute to the optimal organization of actin filaments in the actomyosin ring [21], in line with the role of septins in controlling the timely transition from the slow to the fast phase of the constriction [19]. Septins localize not only to the cleavage furrow tips but also to tubular extensions emanating from those tips whose formation depends on dynamin and amphiphysin and impacts timely ingression [20], raising the possibility that septins contribute to local membrane remodeling. Septin recruitment to the cleavage furrow tips depends on Anillin which binds septins through its PH domain [22]. The stabilization of Anillin at the membrane is reciprocally dependent on septins [7,22].

Drosophila pupal epithelial tissues

 Septins are required for planar cytokinesis in pupal epithelial cells [23,24]. Although septins are dispensable for asymmetric furrowing [23], their depletion reduces the constriction rate of the contractile actomyosin ring [23,24], reduces adherens junction (AJ) recoil velocities upon ablation [24] and leads to cytokinesis failure and binucleation [23,24]. Myosin-II in the septin-depleted rings is unchanged whereas Anillin is significantly reduced [23]. The formation of new AJs between daughter cells

 requires the disengagement of E-cadherin (E-cad) complexes between mitotic and neighboring cells at the cleavage furrow, followed by *de novo* assembly of E-cad complexes at the daughter-daughter cell interface. Septin disruption prevents this process and leads to defective AJ remodeling. E-cad at the ingressing membrane of dividing cells is either not reduced [23,24], or reduced only on one side leading respectively to no new junction formation, or formation of a new junction only on one side which seems to break apart: the constricting ring seems to detach or disassemble in either case leading to membrane regression and binucleation [23,24] (Figure 2B). The work from these studies suggests a tension-based mechanism whereby septins in the contractile actomyosin ring are required for the ring to be able to exert sufficient pulling forces against the AJ-mediated adhesion with neighboring cells to allow for proper AJ remodeling [23,24].

C. elegans embryo

 Septins were shown to localize to the ingressing furrow and enrich in the cytokinetic ring of the dividing 1-cell C.elegans embryo (zygote) [25-27]. Although postembryonic divisions fail variably in septin mutants [25], septins are not required for embryonic cell divisions [25,26]. Cleavage furrow ingression in the zygote is asymmetric and reflects the structural asymmetry of the contractile ring with septins, Anillin and actomyosin coalescing on the side of the ring that ingresses the fastest [26]. This asymmetry requires septins [26]: in the septin-depleted embryo, the cleavage furrow ingression rate is unchanged [26,27], however furrowing becomes symmetric and cytokinesis becomes sensitive to inhibitors of contractility [26]. Septins were proposed to serve a mechanical function to make cytokinesis robust to mechanical challenges. The fact that septins in the C.elegans embryo are required for asymmetric furrowing but not for cytokinesis, whereas septins in Drosophila epithelia require septins for cytokinesis but not for asymmetric furrowing might reflect differences in cell-cell adhesion, which might provide a more sensitized context for septin function in the case of Drosophila epithelia.

 Septin recruitment to the cytokinetic ring of the zygote depends on Anillin [28]. Septins also enrich in the anterior cortex of the zygote [27,28] in a cortical PAR protein- dependent manner [27] but are dispensable for anterior-posterior polarity [27]. More recently, septins were also shown to be required for chiral cortical rotation [29,30], either by polarizing formin distribution or/and cross-linking different actomyosin bundle populations.

Animal septins in nondividing tissues

 The seminal work of Fares and colleagues in Drosophila was the first to report localizations of septins not related to cytokinesis [12]. Septins concentrated at the leading edge of the migrating epithelium during dorsal closure in the embryo and at the cortices of amnioserosa cells [12]. In other tissues, septins localized to the basolateral surfaces of ovarian follicle cells, to the plasma membrane of migrating border cells, as well as to neurons of the embryonic central nervous system, the latter also reported by Neufeld and Rubin [9]. The following sections review roles of septins in nondividing tissues, notably on collective cell rearrangements, ciliogenesis, and overall tissue architecture.

Collective cell rearrangements

 Work in C.elegans was the first to report septin roles in cellular and axonal migration [31]. Septins are expressed in the developing nervous system, with septin depletion leading to fewer ventral cord motor neurons and defective axon guidance. Septins were also present in distal tip cells, which are leaders for gonad arm extension. Septin disruption affected their morphology, increasing the number and length of membrane extensions, and impaired their migration and guidance [31].

 Septins were later shown to contribute to the convergent extension of mesenchyme cells in the Xenopus embryo. Using explanted gastrula tissues, Kim and colleagues reported that septin-depleted tissues showed a reduced elongation of cells along the convergence axis and an overall reduced convergent extension [32] (Figure 2C). The Planar Cell Polarity (PCP) proteins Fritz and Dishevelled (Xdd1) were shown to control septin recruitment, as the cortical and vertex localization of septins was lost upon their depletion [32,33]. Strikingly, septin-depleted tissues showed undulating plasma membranes with rapidly forming and resolving intercellular gaps (Figure 2C). This same phenotype was also observed in Fritz-depleted mucociliary epithelia where Fritz similarly controls cortical septin recruitment [34]. Shindo and Wallingford showed additionally that septin depletion disrupted actin enrichment and compartmentalization at vertices, abolished the planar polarization of phospho-myosin-II along the convergence axis and reduced the difference in recoil velocities between shrinking and extending junctions upon ablation [33]. These studies proposed that septins compartmentalize cortical actomyosin to direct the shrinkage junctions for proper convergent extension. Recent work showed that yet another PCP protein, Vangl2, was important for septin recruitment, but that septins were also required for its proper polarization [35]. Septin depletion also led to defective neural crest cell migration in Xenopus embryos [36].

 Recent work further showcased the requirement of septins for border cell migration in the Drosophila female germline [37]. Septins are enriched at membranes between border cells and nurse cells. Border cells first round up and then delaminate before migrating in between nurse cells toward the oocyte. However, upon septin depletion, delamination was impaired and of those clusters that detached, many failed to migrate normally. Whereas a single leader cell forms protrusions in wild type, septin-depleted clusters had ectopic protrusions and overall much higher shape variability (Figure 2D). Importantly, although septin and myosin-II signals correlate dynamically during border cell migration, active Rho was shown to independently recruit septins and myosin-II to border cell membranes [37]. Septins were similarly shown to be targeted to the cytokinetic ring of the dividing C.elegans zygote independently of myosin-II [28].

Ciliogenesis

 In Xenopus, septins are found at the bases of cilia, with septin loss leading to fewer and shorter cilia and defective Hedgehog signaling [32]. Further, in zebrafish, depletion of septins led to fewer and shorter cilia in pronephric epithelial cells and in Kupffer's vesicle, misorientation of basal bodies and cilia and defects in fluid flow and thus to abnormalities in left-right asymmetry, compromising left-right patterning of internal organs, the overall defects resembling human ciliopathies (Figure 2E) [38,39]. Ciliogenesis was also compromised in the photoreceptor outer segments [39] as well as in the neural tube with defective Shh signaling [38]. Septins localized at the base of cilia or along their axonemes [38,39].

Tissue morphogenesis and architecture

 Septins were first shown to be essential for epithelial tissue architecture in the Drosophila gastrulating embryo. After cellularization, septin localization persists at the bases of the formed cells in cytoplasmic connections between the latter and the underlying yolk (yolk plugs) [9]. Peanut-depleted embryos presented dramatic defects, including the opening of cell bases, ectopic folds, widespread disruption of cell integrity and delayed tissue extension [7].

 Septins were further shown to have roles in the Drosophila germline. Sep2 has a unique function in follicle cell encapsulation during oogenesis, with *sep2* mutant females, but not *sep5* mutant ones, being semisterile [10,40]. *sep2* null egg chambers have abnormal numbers of nurse cells and oocytes, resulting from fusion of multiple cysts into a single egg chamber [10,40]. *sep2* mutant males are sterile [40]. In proliferating germline cells, septins enrich at the cortex and cytokinetic furrows, and septins remain cortical throughout oogenesis, persisting at ring canals [40], which are arrested cleavage furrows bridging the cytoplasm of nurse cells and the oocyte. Septins similarly enrich at ring canals in the male germline [40,41]. Septins localize to the outer rim of ring canals and also form transiently double rings both in the male and female germline [40], possibly related to midbody remodeling that was recently shown to precede ring canal formation [42]. Despite septin enrichment at cytokinetic furrows and ring canals, septin null female germline clones do not show defects in cell number or ring canal formation and can develop into eggs, suggesting that septins are not essential for female germline cell divisions [7,40].

 Recent work further highlighted the importance of septins for germline extension, the maintenance of its syncytial architecture and production of oocytes in C.elegans [43]. 210 It is notable that septin mutant phenotypes included irregular compartment sizes, as well as irregular and vesiculated compartment and oocyte plasma membranes [43] pointing to defects in membrane integrity (Figure 2F). Septins localize to the oocyte plasma membrane and to the rachis lining, enriching in rachis bridges [25,43,44], which are cytoplasmic connections between the germ cell compartments and the common central cytoplasm (rachis) and were recently shown to contain a contractile actomyosin corset, a structure reminiscent of ring canals and yolk plugs.

 Septins were additionally shown to be essential for the structural and mechanical integrity of human and mouse sperm. Septins localize specifically to the sperm annulus, a cortical ring separating the midpiece and the principal piece of the tail (Figure 2G) [45-48]. *Sept4* null male mice are sterile, have defective sperm morphology with sharply bent or broken tails, impaired motility, and the annulus structure missing [45,46]. Point mutations in SEPT12 have been found in infertile human males leading to similar sperm phenotypes, which were also recapitulated in Sept12 mutant mouse models [47,48].

 A particularly revealing function of septins was discovered in the context of axon myelination. Myelin septins and Anillin form filaments associated with the innermost membrane layer of compact myelin, which organize longitudinally along myelinated axons in the CNS (Figure 2H) [49]. Remarkably, Sept8 mutation in mice, in which septins and Anillin are lost, causes myelin outfoldings and decelerated nerve conduction. The septin-Anillin scaffold was proposed to stabilize compact myelin as myelin membranes grow or new myelin segments intercalate between existing sheaths.

- A new contribution of septins to tissue integrity was discovered recently with the requirement of septins for adult Drosophila wing morphogenesis [50]. Dorsal and ventral wing surface adhesion during metamorphosis depends on laminin-associated microtubule-actin-septin cables that are essential for resisting hydrostatic pressure from the internal body cavity during head eversion (Figure 2I). Septin depletion leads to the separation of wing surfaces, resulting in blistered wings, showing their role in wing adhesion and preservation of organ shape. It is notable that microtubules and actin fail to form compact cables in the absence of septins [50]. Interestingly, in laminin mutant wings where actin and microtubules are uncoupled, Pnut localized to actin and not to microtubules in the cables [50].
- Finally, septin depletion leads to defective organogenesis. Sept7 knockout within the mouse inner ear led to reduced sensory epithelial cells and excessive apoptosis, leading to a hypoplastic inner ear Torii [51]. Sept7b depletion in zebrafish larvae causes irregular heart morphology with disorganized and loosely packed myofibrils, including faint and partly missing Z-discs, leading to cardiac dysfunction [52]. Interestingly, Sept7 localizes to the myotendinous junction which is the site of muscle force transmission to tendons.
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Molecular mechanisms of septin function

 Isolation of native septins from *Drosophila* [53,54] and mammalian tissues [55,56] has shown that septins form heteromeric complexes. Functional studies *in vivo* have further provided solid evidence that septins form and function as heteromeric complexes [7,12,21,23,25,37,40,43,48,49] and that septin complexes with distinct septin composition can have distinct functions [10,20,40,57], and have additionally suggested that some septins might perform functions independently of their presence in complexes [43]. For organisms with both hexamers and octamers (Figure 1), their relative functional relevance remains to be explored. Although native septins can polymerize into filaments *in vitro* [53-55], septin filaments have never been visualized in any animal model system in nondividing cells. What regulates septin polymerization *in vivo* is altogether unknown. Recent super-resolution imaging of isolated cortices from dividing sea urchin embryos visualized for the first time septin nanostructures at the cytokinetic ring that suggest a septin filament-like network organization [58].

 Figure 3 summarizes the network of interactions thought to control animal septin localization and function. The septin-Anillin interaction is the only direct interaction that has been consistently confirmed *in vivo* and shown to be crucial for septin recruitment to the membrane/cortex in most cases. Rho-GTP binding to Anillin was recently shown to be a prerequisite for septin binding in dividing cultured cells [59], but its relevance *in vivo* remains to be tested. Importantly, in cultured cells, human and Drosophila Anillin were reported to be nuclear during interphase, and localize to the cortex and cleavage furrow only during division [60,61]. However, Anillin localization *in vivo* is more complex, and can be cortical during interphase. The C.elegans Anillin has not been detected in the nucleus [28]. Thus, whether cortical septin localization reflects systematically the presence of Anillin (Figure 3) will be important to decipher. Whether septins bind membranes, actin, myosin-II, or formins directly *in vivo* remains to be shown.

Conclusion and future directions

 The similarities in the phenotypes of septin-depleted tissues in very diverse biological contexts might reflect that animal septins might perform much more similar functions than previously thought, notably with respect to structural and mechanical integrity both in dividing and nondividing tissues. A major challenge for future studies will be to dissect the specific contribution of septins to cell and tissue mechanics, as well as to establish the developmental signaling pathways that determine septin localization and function *in vivo*.

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Author contributions

 J.D. : Conceptualization, Investigation, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing, Visualization; L.L., M.M : Conceptualization, Investigation, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing, Visualization, Supervision, Project administration, Funding acquisition

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Figure legends

 Figure 1. Septin complex composition for different animal model systems. Septins are classified in four homology groups based on sequence similarity [62]. For a classification of septins across kingdoms see [1]. Septin complexes are palindromes, with each septin in two copies and in a specific position within the complex. Septins can form tetramers, hexamers or octamers depending on the organism (right-most column). Hexamers are composed of septins from the SEPT2, SEPT6, SEPT7 groups, while octamers contain additional septins from the SEPT3 group. Septin names and septin subunits in septin complexes use the same color code. Annotation of Xenopus

- and zebrafish septins is based on the latest versions of Xenbase and ZFIN databases (as of 20 January 2025) and [63].
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- **Figure 2.** Schematic overview of phenotypes in septin-depleted embryos and tissues. See main text for details.
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- **Figure 3.** Simplified schematic overview of the network of interactions thought to control animal septin localization and function, integrating *in vitro* and *in vivo* data from all model systems. For the sake of simplicity, not all interactions are shown. For example, Anillin interactions with Citron kinase [64,65] and the formin DIAPH3 [66,67]
- are not included.

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*** of special interest**

29. Zaatri A, Perry JA, Maddox AS: **Septins and a formin have distinct functions in anaphase chiral cortical rotation in the Caenorhabditis elegans zygote**. *Mol Biol Cell* 2021, **32**:1283-1292.

This study reports that septins are required for chiral rotation of the cortex in the C.elegans zygote. Whereas the formin CYK-1 controls the chirality of rotation, septins translate cytoskeletal chirality to whole-cell cortical rotation by controlling formin polarization and possibly cross-linking different actin bundle populations.

57. Stjepic V, Nakamura M, Hui J, Parkhurst SM: **Two Septin complexes mediate actin dynamics during cell wound repair**. *Cell Rep* 2024, **43**:114215.

This study uses laser injury of Drosophila syncytial blastoderm embryos as a model system for cell wound repair. Although all five Drosophila septins are required for efficient wound repair, this study reports the presence of two functionally distinct septin complexes, Sep1/Sep2/Pnut and Sep4/Sep5/Pnut, only the former of which is regulated by Anillin.

58. Garno C, Irons ZH, Gamache CM, McKim Q, Reyes G, Wu X, Shuster CB, Henson JH: **Building the cytokinetic contractile ring in an early embryo: Initiation as clusters of myosin II, anillin and septin, and visualization of a septin filament network**. *PLoS One* 2021, **16**:e0252845.

This study uses super-resolution imaging to report the first nanostructural organization of septins and Anillin in dividing animal embryos. Using isolated cortices of sea urchin embryos, this study supports the organization of septins in a filament-like meshwork in the assembling cytokinetic ring, with septins being centrally localized with respect to myosin-II minifilament head groups.

**** of outstanding interest**

37. Gabbert AM, Campanale JP, Mondo JA, Mitchell NP, Myers A, Streichan SJ, Miolane N, Montell DJ: **Septins regulate border cell surface geometry, shape, and motility downstream of Rho in Drosophila**. *Dev Cell* 2023, **58**:1399-1413 e1395.

This study shows that septins are required for proper delamination and migration of border cell clusters in the Drosophila egg chamber. Importantly, although septins and myosin-II colocalize dynamically during this process, Rho independently regulates myosin activity and septin localization.

43. Perry JA, Werner ME, Rivenbark L, Maddox AS: **Caenorhabditis elegans septins contribute to the development and structure of the oogenic germline**. *Cytoskeleton (Hoboken)* 2023, **80**:215-227.

This study reports that the two C.elegans septins UNC-59 and UNC-61 act together to control the development and architecture of the oogenic germline, but also provide evidence that each septin has distinct functions. Importantly, septin depletion leads to irregular and vesiculated germ cell compartment and occyte plasma membranes pointing to important roles in membrane integrity.

50. Sun T, Song Y, Teng D, Chen Y, Dai J, Ma M, Zhang W, Pastor-Pareja JC: **Atypical laminin spots and pull-generated microtubule-actin projections mediate Drosophila wing adhesion**. *Cell Rep* 2021, **36**:109667.

This study shows that septins are required for wing morphogenesis during Drosophila metamorphosis. Septins are needed to compact actin and microtubules into dorsoventral cables essential for resistance to hydrostatic pressure from the internal body cavity during head eversion.

59. Carim SC, Hickson GRX: **The Rho1 GTPase controls anillo-septin assembly to facilitate contractile ring closure during cytokinesis**. *iScience* 2023, **26**:106903.

This study uses Drosophila S2 cells and HeLa cells to show that Anillin-mediated septin recruitment to the cytokinetic ring requires not only the C-terminal PH domain of Anillin, but also binding to Rho1-GTP.

A Drosophila cellularisation

C Xenopus convergent extension

B Drosophila epithelial cell division

D Drosophila border cell migration

WT

altered migration

F C. elegans germline architecture

G Mouse sperm morphogenesis

WT Septin depleted

flow

intercellular gaps

E Cilium formation - left/right asymmetry

septin ring

septin-rich annulus bent tail

WT Septin depleted

altered flow

 \cdots

H Compact myelin formation

I Drosophila wing basal cell adhesion

directional migration

