1 Title: *apterous A* specifies dorsal wing patterns and sexual traits in butterflies

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Abstract: Butterflies have evolved different color patterns on their dorsal and ventral wing 8 9 surfaces to serve different signaling functions, yet the developmental mechanisms controlling surface-specific patterning are still unknown. Here, we mutate both copies of the transcription 10 factor apterous in Bicyclus anynana butterflies using CRISPR/Cas9 and show that apterous A, 11 expressed dorsally, functions both as a repressor and modifier of ventral wing color patterns, as 12 well as a promoter of dorsal sexual ornaments in males. We propose that the surface-specific 13 diversification of wing patterns in butterflies proceeded via the co-option of apterous A into 14 various gene regulatory networks involved in the differentiation of discrete wing traits. Further, 15 interactions between apterous and sex-specific factors such as doublesex may have contributed 16 17 to the origin of sexually dimorphic surface-specific patterns. Finally, we discuss the evolution of eyespot number diversity in the family Nymphalidae within the context of developmental 18 constraints due to apterous regulation. 19

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24 Significance statement:

25	Butterflies have evolved different wing patterns on their dorsal and ventral wing surfaces that
26	serve different signaling functions. We identify the transcription factor, apterous A, as a key
27	regulator of this surface-specific differentiation in butterflies. We also show a role for <i>apterous A</i>
28	in restricting the developmental origin of a novel trait, eyespots, to just the ventral wing surface.
29	Dorsal-ventral differentiation of tissues is not just restricted to butterfly wings but occurs in
30	many other organs and organisms from arthropods to humans. Thus, we believe that our work
31	will be of interest to a diverse group of biologists and layman alike interested in the role of
32	development in shaping biodiversity.
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47 Main Text:

Butterflies are a group of organisms well known for their diverse and colorful wing patterns. Due 48 to the dual role these patterns play in survival and mate selection, many butterflies have evolved 49 50 a signal partitioning strategy where color patterns appearing on the hidden dorsal surfaces generally function in sexual signaling, whereas patterns on the exposed ventral surfaces most 51 commonly serve to ward off predators (1, 2) (Fig 1A). While the molecular and developmental 52 basis of individual pattern element differentiation, such as eyespots or transverse bands, has been 53 previously studied (3, 4), the molecular basis of dorsal and ventral surface-specific color pattern 54 development remains unknown. Elucidating this process will help us understand the mechanism 55 of diversification and specialization of wing patterns within the butterfly lineage. 56

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Figure 1: Dorsal-Ventral surface-specific variation in butterflies A) Dorsal (left) and ventral 60 (right) surfaces of Morpho menelaus and Panacea regina illustrating striking variation in color 61 and patterns between surfaces. B) Dorsal (left) and ventral (right) surfaces of a male and female 62 Bicyclus anynana. The regions boxed in red are expanded in C. C) Magnified view of the 63 androconial organs present only in males. Top: Forewing ventral androconia with a characteristic 64 teardrop shape surrounded by silver scales. The scales on the corresponding dorsal forewing 65 66 surface are completely brown. Bottom: Hindwing dorsal androconia, also surrounded by silver scales, along with two patches of hair-pencils. These traits are absent from the ventral hindwing. 67 68

We hypothesized that the transcription factor *apterous* (*ap*), a gene expressed on the dorsal wing 69 surfaces of flies (5), might be implicated in differentiating dorsal from ventral wing patterns in 70 butterflies. In insects, however, this gene is often present in two copies, apA and apB, that don't 71 necessarily share the same expression patterns, and flies are unusual for having lost one of these 72 copies. In the beetle *Tribolium castaneum*, *apA* is expressed on the dorsal surface whereas *apB* is 73 expressed on both surfaces (6). In the butterfly Junonia coenia, apA is expressed on the dorsal 74 surface of larval wings (7) but, the expression of apB and the role of either apA or apB in wing 75 development and patterning is not known for this or any butterfly species. 76 77

Results 78

apA and apB are both expressed on dorsal surfaces of developing wings 79

To investigate *ap* expression in butterflies, we cloned both *ap* homologs from the African 80 squinting bush brown *Bicyclus anynana* (Fig 1B, C), and used *in situ* hybridization to localize 81 apA and apB mRNA in developing larval and pupal wing discs. Both homologs of ap were 82 localized to the dorsal surfaces of the wings (Fig 2D, S1B). In the last larval instar wing discs, 83 apA was expressed uniformly on the wing surface but absent in future dorsal eyespot centers of 84 hindwings (Fig 2A) and forewings (Fig 2B). In larval wing discs of the *B. anynana* "Spotty" 85 mutant, which develops two additional dorsal eyespots, *apA* was absent in the additional centers 86 (Fig 2B). Furthermore, pupal wing expression of both *apA* and *apB* was up-regulated in dorsal 87 male-specific cells that give rise to long and thin modified scales, the hair-pencils, used for 88 dispersing pheromones during courtship (Fig 2C, S1C). This pattern of expression was not seen 89 in developing female pupal wings, which lack hair-pencils (Fig 2C, S1C). Control sense probes 90

91	for both <i>apA</i> and <i>apB</i> (Fig S1) did not show any surface-specific or hair-pencil specific staining
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117 *apA* regulates dorsal surface-specific wing patterning

118 To functionally test the role of *ap*, we used the CRISPR/Cas9 system to disrupt the

homeodomain and LIM domain of apA (Fig 3A) and the LIM domain of apB (Fig S2A) (Table

120 S2). A range of mosaic phenotypes were observed in both types of *apA* mutant individuals (Fig

121 3). A few of these lacked wings, whose absence was visible upon pupation (Fig S3: mutant from

batch#9, individual #1(M9-1)), and some adults had mosaic patches of ventral-like scales

appearing on the dorsal surface (Fig 3B:M9-2). In other mutants, the sex pheromone producing

124 organ, the androconial organ, of the ventral forewing appeared on the dorsal surface in males

125 with its associated silver scales (Fig 3B:M9-27). Males also had modified hair-pencils associated

with the dorsal androconial organ of the hindwing, with loss of characteristic ultrastructure and

127 coloration, and absence of surrounding silver scales (Fig 3B:M9-12 (bottom)). Extreme mutant

128 individuals showed improper wing hinge formation, entire wing dorsal to ventral transformation

129 (Fig 3B: M9-3), the appearance of the ventral white band on the dorsal surface (Fig 3B:M9-12

130 (top)), and in one case, all seven eyespots on the dorsal hindwing (Fig 3B:M9-12 (bottom)), a

surface that normally exhibits, on average, zero to one eyespot in males and one to two eyespots

in females. *apA* clones also led to an enlarged outer perimeter to the gold ring in dorsal hindwing

and forewing eyespots (Fig 3B:M235-11). CRISPR/Cas9 disruption effects on the target

sequence were verified in a few individuals, which showed the presence of deletions in the

135 targeted regions (Fig 3A).



137 Figure 3: CRISPR/Cas9 mosaic wing pattern phenotypes of *apA* knockouts A) Top: Regions of the apA gene in B. anynana targeted using the CRISPR/Cas9 system. Bottom: Sequences of 138 the homeodomain and LIM domain regions of mutant individuals compared with the wildtype 139 sequence in bold. Blue is the region targeted and the PAM sequence is in red. Deletions are 140 indicated with '-'. B) The range of CRISPR/Cas9 apA mutant phenotypes observed in B. 141 142 anynana. The left column shows the wildtype (WT) dorsal and ventral surfaces for male forewings and hindwings. M9-12 (top): The dorsal forewing of a mutant male highlighting some 143 of the ventral-like phenotypes and defects. The boxed regions are expanded to show the 144 145 appearance of ventral-like white band and silver scales. M9-3: Dorsal forewing surface of a mutant female resembling the ventral surface. M9-27: Mutant with the ventral teardrop shape 146 forewing androconial organ appearing on the dorsal surface (red arrow). WT dorsal forewing 147 androconia is shown for comparison. M9-12 (bottom): A mutant dorsal hindwing with the 148 appearance of all seven eyespots (red arrows), normally only seen on the ventral surface. The 149 boxed regions are expanded to show the loss of silver scales associated with the dorsal hindwing 150 androconia and improper development of hair-pencils. WT hair-pencil is shown for comparison. 151 M9-2: Mosaic phenotype (left) on the dorsal surface with ventral-like light colored scales. 152 Clones are indicated with a dashed white line. Corresponding region of the other wing of the 153 same individual (right) shows no mosaicism. M235-11: A dorsal hindwing of a mutant with the 154 width of the gold ring resembling that of ventral eyespots. Control animals, injected with only 155 156 Cas9, all looked like wildtype (not shown). 157

No striking transformations of dorsal to ventral identity were observed in *apB* mutants. Some of
the *apB* knockout phenotypes included wing hinge defect, a missing hindwing in one case (Fig
S5: B-M9-22) and disturbed margin development (Fig S2: B-M9-17), sometimes associated with
wing pattern disturbances (Fig S2: B-M9-15). Sequencing showed the presence of mutations in
the targeted region (Fig S2A).

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Knockdown of *apA* in a variety of insects from different lineages indicates that *apA* is necessary 164 for wing growth and development and its function in this process seems to be highly conserved 165 166 (5, 6, 8). However, our experiments, in agreement with others, also indicate a varying degree of co-option of this transcription factor into late wing development processes such as wing 167 patterning and exoskeletalization. In T. castaneum, RNAi knockdown of apA and apB 168 individually shows almost no phenotypic effects while their simultaneous knockdown leads to 169 more dramatic phenotypes such as elytral exoskeletalization defects, depending on the 170 developmental stage. Therefore, both *apA* and *apB* in beetles are important for early and late 171 wing developmental processes (6). In B. anynana, knockout of both apA and apB causes defects 172 in early wing development but only *apA* appears to have been co-opted to control dorsal surface-173 specific wing patterning. 174

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176 *apA* functions both as an activator and repressor of wing traits

Interestingly, our work shows that *apA* has multiple different, often antagonistic functions in
surface- and sex-specific development between the fore- and hindwings. For example, *apA* acts
as a repressor of male androconial organs and silver scale development on dorsal forewings,
while it promotes hair-pencil and silver scale development on the dorsal hindwings of males (Fig

181 4A). These effects point to the likely interaction between *apA* and other factors such as sexspecific (doublesex) or wing-specific (Ultrabithorax) factors that together can specify sex- and 182 surface-specific pattern development. We previously showed that *Ultrabithorax (Ubx)* is 183 expressed in the hindwings but not forewings of *B. anynana* (9). In addition, the presence of a 184 gene from the sex determination pathway, doublesex (dsx), in the future and roconial regions of 185 male wings of B. anynana was also verified by in situ hybridization and semi-quantitative PCR 186 (10). These data support a likely combinatorial function reminiscent of the interactions between 187 the hox gene Scr and dsx in the determination of the male-specific sex combs in the legs of D. 188 *melanogaster* (11). The presence or absence of *Ubx*, type of *dsx* splice variant and *apA* may be 189 sufficient to give each sex and wing surface a unique identity, though more work needs to be 190 done to test this hypothesis. Given that proteins of the LIM-homeodomain subfamily, to which 191 192 ap belongs, are unique in their ability to bind other proteins via their LIM domain (12), their involvement in such a large range of developmental processes, as repressors and activators, is 193 194 likely.



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196 Figure 4: The role of *apterous* in surface-specific wing patterning in *B. anynana* and

evolution of serial homologs in butterflies. A) A schematic of the different functions of *apA* on
the dorsal surface of *B. anynana. apA* acts as a repressor of ventral traits such as the white
transversal band, forewing androconia, hindwing eyespots, and the outer perimeter of the gold
ring, and acts as an activator of hindwing hair-pencils and silver scales. B) Different modes of
serial homolog evolution involving the co-option of a (fin) gene network to a novel body
location (13), repression of the ancestrally repeated (wing) network in a subset of body segments
(modified from (14)), repression followed by de-repression of the (limb) network in certain body

- segments (15), and de-repression of a never expressed (eyespot) network at a novel body
- 205 location. C) Argyrophenga antipodium (left) and Cassionympha cassius (right) males with dorsal
- 206 eyespots lacking ventral counterparts. Dorsal is to the left for each species.

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210 Discussion and Conclusion

Mutations in *apA* point to this gene functioning as a dorsal surface selector in *B. anynana* 211 butterflies. Selector genes comprise a small set of developmental genes that are critical for 212 specifying cell, tissue, segment, or organ identities in organisms (16). The wing selector hox gene 213 Ubx allows hindwings to have a different identity from forewings. For example, the restricted 214 expression of *Ubx* in hindwings of most insects examined so far, is required for membranous 215 wing formation in beetles and bugs (17), haltere formation in flies (18) and hindwing specific 216 color patterns in butterflies (19). When *Ubx* is mutated, in all the examples described above, 217 218 hindwings acquire the identity of forewings, and when *Ubx* is over-expressed in forewings, these acquire a more hindwing-like identity (9). In B. anynana, apA functions in a similar manner 219 along the dorsal-ventral axis of each wing – mutations in this gene make dorsal wing surfaces 220 acquire a ventral identity. This type of homeotic mutation was also observed in a limited way, in 221 bristles along the margin of the wings of *D. melanogaster*, where *ap* mutant clones developed 222 bristles with a ventral identity (20). B. anynana, however, appears to have made inordinate use of 223 apA for surface-specific color patterning and sexual trait development across the entire wing. 224 225

Further, this work highlights the possible role of apA in restricting the origin and early evolution of serial homologs such as eyespots in nymphalid butterflies to the ventral surface of the wings only. Broad comparative work across 400 genera of butterflies indicated that eyespots originated around 90 MYA within Nymphalidae on the ventral hindwing surface, and appeared ~40MY later on the dorsal surfaces (21–23). The appearance of additional eyespots on the dorsal surface of hindwings in *apA* mutants, and the absence of *apA* mRNA at the precise position where a few dorsal eyespots develop in both fore- and hindwings at the stage of eyespot center differentiation, implicates *apA* as a repressor of eyespot development in *B. anynana*. The additional gaps in *apA*expression observed in Spotty mutants further suggests that genetic mechanisms of eyespot
number evolution on the dorsal surface proceeded via local repression of *apA*. We propose, thus,
that the original ventral restriction of eyespots was due to the ancestral presence of *apA* on dorsal
wing surfaces, and that eyespots' later appearance on these surfaces was due to local *apA*repression.

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The ancestral presence of a repressor (*apA*) of a gene regulatory network in a specific body 240 241 location, followed by repression of the repressor, seems to represent a novel mode of serial homolog diversification (Fig 4B). This mode of serial homolog diversification is similar but also 242 distinct from the mechanism previously proposed to lead to the re-appearance of abdominal 243 appendages in lepidopteran larvae - via local repression of the limb repressor hox protein, 244 Abdominal-A (Abd-A) (15, 24). In contrast to eyespots, when arthropod appendages first 245 originated they were likely present in every segment of the body (25). Limbs were later repressed 246 in abdominal segments, and finally they were de-repressed in some of these segments in some 247 insect lineages (15). So, while the last steps of abdominal appendage and eyespot number 248 diversification are similar (de-repression of a repressed limb/eyespot network), the early stages 249 are different. 250

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The comparative work across nymphalid butterflies also showed that the origin of dorsal eyespots was dependent on the presence of corresponding ventral eyespots in ancestral lineages (23). This implies that the extant diversity of eyespot patterns is biased/limited due to developmental constraints, probably imposed by *apA*. Interestingly, while ~99% of the species in our database display such constraints i.e dorsal eyespots always having ventral counterparts, a
few butterflies display dorsal eyespots that lack ventral counterparts (Fig 4C). The molecular
basis for these rare patterns remains to be explored.

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In summary, we uncover a key transcription factor, *apA*, that due to its restricted expression on 260 dorsal wing surfaces allowed *B. anynana* butterflies to develop and evolve their strikingly 261 different dorsal and ventral wing patterns under natural and sexual selection. The interaction of 262 apA with other sex- and wing-specific factors may explain the surface-specific pattern diversity 263 we see across this as well as other butterfly species, but future comparative work is needed to 264 further test these hypotheses. Additionally, our work has identified a new system to examine how 265 developmental constraints, via *apA* repression of eyespot development, have shaped eyespot 266 number biodiversity. 267

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343 Materials and Methods

344 <u>Animals</u>

Bicyclus anynana butterflies were reared in a temperature controlled room at 27°C with a 12:12
hour light:dark cycle and 65% humidity. The larvae were fed on corn plants while the adults
were fed on banana.

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349 <u>Cloning and probe synthesis</u>

- apA sequence was obtained from [26] and *apB* and *dsx* sequences were identified from the *B*.
- *anynana* genome [27]. The sequences were amplified with primers specified in Table S1,
- 352 sequenced and then cloned into a PGEM-T Easy vector (Promega). Sense and anti-sense
- digoxigenin-labelled (DIG) riboprobes were synthesized in vitro using T7 and SP6 polymerases
- (Roche), purified by ethanol precipitation and resuspended in 1:1 volume of DEPC treated
- 355 water:formamide.
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357 <u>In-situ hybridization</u>

The protocol was modified slightly from [28]. Briefly, larval or pupal wings were dissected from 358 the last instar caterpillars or around 24-28 hrs after pupation respectively in PBS and transferred 359 to glass well plates containing PBST (PBS+0.1% Tween20) at room temperature. The PBST was 360 then immediately removed and the tissues fixed in 5% formaldehyde for 45 (larval) or 60 min 361 (pupal) on ice, followed by 5 washes with cold PBST. The tissues were then incubated with 362 25µg/ml proteinase K in cold PBST for 4 (larval) or 5 minutes (pupal), washed twice with 363 2mg/ml glycine in cold PBST, followed by 5 washes with cold PBST. For larval wings, 364 peripodial membrane was then removed on ice, post-fixed for 20 minutes with 5% formaldehyde 365 and washed with PBST. The wings were gradually transferred to a prehybridization buffer (5X 366 Saline sodium citrate pH 4.5, 50% formamide, 0.1% Tween20 and 100µg/ml denatured salmon 367 sperm DNA), washed in the prehyb buffer and incubated at 60-65°C for 1 hour, followed by 368 incubation in hybridization buffer (prehybridization buffer with 1g/L glycine and 70 to 140 369 370 ng/ml riboprobe) for 24 hours. The wings were then washed 6 to 10 times in prehybridization

371	buffer at 60-65°C. They were then gradually transferred back to PBST at room temperature,
372	washed 5 times in PBST and blocked overnight at 4°C (PBST+1% BSA). The DIG-labelled
373	probes were then detected by incubating the tissues with 1:3000 Anti-DIG Alkaline Phosphatase
374	(Roche) in block buffer for two hours, washed 10 times with block buffer, incubated in alkaline
375	phosphatase buffer (100mM Tris pH 9.5, 100mM NaCl, 5mM MgCl ₂ , 0.1% Tween) and finally
376	stained with NBT/BCIP (Promega) solution at room temperature till colour developed. The
377	reaction was stopped by washing in 2mM EDTA in PBST and again with PBST. The samples
378	were either mounted on slides with ImmunoHistoMount medium (Abcam) or post-fixed with 5%
379	formaldehyde before wax embedding and sectioning (Advanced Molecular Pathology Lab,
380	IMCB, Singapore).
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382	Preparation of Cas9 mRNA and guide RNA
383	pT3TS-nCas9n was a gift from Wenbiao Chen (Addgene plasmid #46757). The plasmid was
384	linearized with XbaI digestion and purified using a GeneJET PCR Purification Kit (Thermo
385	Scientific). Cas9 mRNA was obtained by in vitro transcription using the mMESSAGE
386	mMACHINE T3 kit (Ambion), tailed using the Poly(A) Tailing Kit (Ambion) and purified by
387	lithium chloride precipitation. The guide RNA templates were prepared using a PCR based
388	method according to [29]. The candidate targets were manually designed by searching for a
389	GGN ₁₈ NGG sequence on the sense or anti-sense strand of apA and apB , preferably targeting the
390	LIM and homeobox domains of the transcription factor (Table S1). They were blasted against the
391	B. anynana genome on LepBase.org to check for off-target effects. The template DNA sequence
392	was used to perform an <i>in vitro</i> transcription using T7 RNA polymerase (Roche) at 37°C
393	overnight, purified by ethanol precipitation and re-suspended in DEPC treated water.

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395 <u>Microinjections</u>

396	Eggs were collected	on corn leaves	within one to tw	wo hours of egg	laying and wer	e arranged on
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- thin strips of double-sided tape on a petri dish. Cas9 mRNA and guide RNAs were mixed along
- with green food dye (Table S2) and injected into the eggs with a Borosil glass capillary (World
- 399 Precision Instruments, 1B100F-3) using a Picospritzer II (Parker Hannifin). A piece of wet
- 400 cotton was placed in the petri dish and the eggs were allowed to develop in an incubator at 27°C
- and high (~80%) humidity. Hatched caterpillars were placed on young corn plants using a brush.
- 402 Adults that emerged were scored for their phenotypes (Table S2).
- 403

404 <u>Sequencing and genotyping mutants</u>

405 Genomic DNA was extracted from leg tissues of mutant individuals using the E.Z.N.A Tissue

406 DNA Kit (Omega Bio-tek). The region surrounding the target sequence was amplified by PCR,

407 purified by ethanol precipitation, and used to check for presence of mutations using the T7

408 endonuclease I (T7EI) assay. Sequences from individuals with disruptions at the targeted regions

409 were cloned into a PGEM-T Easy vector (Promega) and sequenced.

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Supplementary Materials



Figure S1: *ap* mRNA localization in developing wing discs of *Bicyclus anynana* A) *apA* mRNA localization (middle) in wildtype 5th larval instar wing discs with control (right). There is an absence of *apA* expression in future dorsal eyespot centers (arrowhead). Corresponding adult wing is shown (left). B) Cross-sectional view of a developing wing disc showing dorsal-specific *apB* expression (left). No staining is seen with control probes for *apB* (middle) and *apA* (right). Scale bar is 20μ m C) Male (left) and female (right) hindwing discs (28 hours after pupation) showing *apB* mRNA up-regulation in the hair-pencil regions only in males. D) Controls for *apB* (left) and *apA* (right) expression in male wings show no staining in the corresponding regions.



Figure S2: **CRISPR/Cas9 mosaic wing pattern phenotypes of** *apB* **knockout** A) Top: Region of the *apB* gene in *B. anynana* targeted using the CRISPR/Cas9 system Bottom: Sequences of the LIM domain region of mutant individuals compared with the wildtype sequence in bold. Blue is the region targeted and the PAM sequence is in red. Deletions are indicated with '-'. B) CRISPR/Cas9 *apB* mosaic phenotypes of *B. anynana*. B-M9-17: The forewings of a mutant individual showing differences in shape and marginal defects of the right wing as compared to the left. The boxed area is expanded to the right. B-M9-15: Mutant with wing pattern changes that do not correspond to mosaic ventral patterns, but appear to indicate disruptions to wing margin development. Boxed area expanded to the right.



Figure S3: A catalog of all CRISPR/Cas9 mosaic wing pattern phenotypes of *apA* homeodomain knockout

Figure S4: A catalog of all CRISPR/Cas9 mosaic wing pattern phenotypes of *apA* LIM domain knockout

Figure S5: A catalog of all CRISPR/Cas9 mosaic wing pattern phenotypes of *apB* LIM domain knockout

Table S1: List of primers and guide RNA sequences used in this study

Gene	Primer Name	Primer Sequence
Apterous A	AM 31	Forward 5' CGGGAGGCCTGTCTTCTGGC 3'
(ApA)	AM 32	Reverse 5' CGTCGGAGCTGGTGATGAGGG 3'
Apterous B	AM 136	Forward 5' CGAACAGTTGAATGCGTATTG 3'
(<i>A</i> pB)	AM 137	Reverse 5' GGCCACTTTTCTCTTTCTTGG 3'
<i>ApA</i> Homeodomain CRISPR Guide	AM 158	5'GAAATTAATACGACTCACTATAGGAGCTGGTGATGCTT GAAGCGTTTTAGAGCTAGAAATAGC 3'
ApA LIM domain CRISPR guide	AM 235	5'GAAATTAATACGACTCACTATAGGAGAAACAGTGCACA TGAAACACGTTTTAGAGCTAGAAATAGC3'
ApB LIM domain CRISPR guide	AM 145	5'GAAATTAATACGACTCACTATAGGTGATGCGAGCCCGC GACAGTTTTAGAGCTAGAAATAGC3'
ApA	AM 194	Forward 5' CATTTTTGCGACACGAGACGTC 3'
Homeodomain Genotyping	AM 167	Reverse 5' CTAACTGTCTCGACTATATG 3'
ApA LIM	AM 257	Forward 5' GTACAGTAATTAGTTCATCAAAC 3'
domain CRISPR Genotyping	AM 258	Reverse 5' CTTTTCAGTTGTGTGCATTTTAAG 3'
ApB LIM	AM 385	Forward 5' CACTAGATTAGCCTAAGGTC 3'
domain CRISPR Genotyping	AM 386	Reverse 5' CTGTTTTGTAGGAGAAATATGG 3'

Guide	Guide RNA Conc (ng/ul)	Cas9 mRNA Conc (ng/ul)	Eggs injected	Eggs hatched	Hatch ratio	Total adults	Mutant phenotypes
ApA	360	600	631	55	8.7%	9	3 (33%)
Homeodomain	450	900	882	89	10%	35	9 (25.7%)*
<i>ApA</i> LIM Domain	400	900	266	n.a	n.a	17	6 (35.2%)
<i>ApB</i> LIM Domain	400	900	228	75	32.89%	45	6 (13.3%)

Table S2: CRISPR/Cas9 injection concentrations and mutation frequencies

* 4 of the 9 mutant individuals were pupae with wings missing from one side as shown in SFigure 3

Table S3: CRISPR/Cas9 and control injection concentrations and hatch ratios

Guide	Guide RNA Conc (ng/ul)	Cas9 mRNA Conc (ng/ul)	Eggs injected	Eggs hatched	Hatch ratio
Control	-	900	103	53	51.4%
<i>ApA</i> Homeodomain	400	900	113	75	66.3%
<i>ApA</i> LIM Domain	400	900	108	51	47.2%
<i>ApB</i> LIM Domain	400	900	104	53	50.9%