Coordination of cell cycle and morphogenesis during organ formation

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Abstract

Organ formation requires precise regulation of cell cycle and morphogenetic events. Using the

Drosophila embryonic salivary gland (SG) as a model, we uncover the role of the SP1/KLF

transcription factor Huckebein (Hkb) in coordinating cell cycle regulation and morphogenesis.

The *hkb* mutant SG exhibits defects in invagination positioning and organ size due to abnormal

death of SG cells. Normal SG development involves distal-to-proximal progression of

endoreplication (endocycle), whereas *hkb* mutant SG cells undergo abnormal cell division,

leading to cell death. Hkb represses the expression of key cell cycle and pro-apoptotic genes in

the SG. Knockdown of *cyclin E* or *cyclin-dependent kinase 1,* or overexpression of *fizzy-related*

rescues most of the morphogenetic defects observed in the *hkb* mutant SG. These results indicate

that Hkb plays a critical role in controlling endoreplication by regulating the transcription of key

cell cycle effectors to ensure proper organ formation.

Introduction

The formation of tubular organs, such as the lungs and kidneys, begins with the folding of flat epithelial tissues into functional three-dimensional (3D) tubular structures. In humans, errors in tube formation can result in congenital defects such as spina bifida and lung hypoplasia (Wilde et al., 2014). Studies in both vertebrates and invertebrates have revealed key morphogenetic mechanisms underlying epithelial tube formation during development (Andrew and Ewald, 2010; Chung et al., 2014; Herriges and Morrisey, 2014; Girdler and Röper, 2014; Nikolopoulou et al., 2017; Spina and Cowin, 2021; Pradhan et al., 2023). While proper cell shape changes and cell rearrangement are critical, precise regulation of cell division and cell death is also essential for tissue morphogenesis (Huh et al., 2004; Mao et al., 2013; LeGoff and Lecuit, 2015; Godard and Heisenberg, 2019). Notably, the interplay between cell division and cell death provides a homeostatic control system necessary for proper organ formation. Perturbations at any stage of the cell cycle can have detrimental effects on cell viability, leading to cell death, and activation of apoptosis can trigger compensatory proliferation in surrounding cells (Ryoo et al., 2004). In addition to their role in establishing and maintaining the correct number of cells in tissues and organs, cell division and cell death generate biophysical forces through actomyosin reorganization that help shape the final tissue morphology. For example, during *Drosophila* tracheal invagination, mitotic cell rounding drives the internalization of the tracheal primordium (Kondo and Hayashi, 2013). During dorsal closure and leg folding in *Drosophila* (Toyama et al., 2008; Monier et al., 2015) and neural closure in mammals (Massa et al., 2009; Yamaguchi et al., 2011), apoptotic cells generate forces at both local and tissue scales that affect tissue remodeling. Therefore, to fully understand the mechanisms of organ formation, it is critical to know how the cell cycle, cell death, and morphogenesis are coordinated during epithelial tube formation.

The *Drosophila* embryonic salivary gland (SG) is a premier model for studying the mechanisms of tube formation from a flat epithelial sheet (Chung et al., 2014; Sidor and Röper, 2016). The *Drosophila* embryo contains two SGs, each consisting of 140-150 cells, which initially reside on the embryo surface and invaginate to form single-layered, elongated tubes (Fig. 1A). Once SG cells are specified, they do not divide or die. Cell death is actively inhibited during SG morphogenesis. The SG-upregulated transcription factors Fork head (Fkh), Senseless, and Sage inhibit apoptosis by downregulating proapoptotic genes, such as *head involution defective* (*hid*)

and *reaper* (*rpr*) (Myat and Andrew, 2000a; Chandrasekaran and Beckendorf, 2003; Fox et al., 2013). Instead of cell division, SG cells undergo endoreplication (endocycle), a variant of the cell cycle that involves DNA replication without subsequent cell division forming polyploid cells, upon invagination at stage 11 (Follette et al., 1998). SG cells that have completed one round of endoreplication arrest the cell cycle in G2 until the larval stage (Smith and Orr-Weaver, 1991; Chandrasekaran and Beckendorf, 2005). Endoreplication, which is more common in invertebrates and plants, was thought to be a rare cell cycle variation in mammals. However, recent studies have revealed endoreplication in various mammalian tissues, including humans, and endoreplication is emerging as a potential developmental timer (Gandarillas et al., 2018). Like the conventional cell cycle, endoreplication is regulated by key cell cycle genes such as cyclins and cyclin-dependent kinases (CDKs). In *Drosophila* embryogenesis, re-entry into S phase during endoreplication is regulated by the cyclin E-Cdk2 complex through the E2F proteins (Duronio et al., 1995; Follette et al., 1998). Because SG morphogenesis occurs in the absence of cell division and cell death, studies of SG morphogenesis have primarily focused on the mechanisms underlying cell shape changes, cell intercalation, and collective cell migration (Pirraglia et al., 2010; Xu et al., 2011; Röper, 2012; Ismat et al., 2013; Booth et al., 2014; Chung et al., 2014; Chung et al., 2017; Sanchez-Corrales et al., 2018; Sanchez-Corrales et al., 2021; Le and Chung, 2021; Vishwakarma et al., 2022). Little is known about the potential impact of regulating endoreplication and cell death during SG morphogenesis.

Invagination is the first step in SG morphogenesis that is critical for organ architecture, and studies in recent years have revealed key underlying molecular and cellular mechanisms (Chung et al., 2017; Sanchez-Corrales et al., 2018; Sidor et al., 2020; Sanchez-Corrales et al., 2021; Le and Chung, 2021; Vishwakarma et al., 2022). SG invagination occurs in a stereotypical manner, with two predominant cell behaviors occurring in distinct spatial domains within the placode relative to the invagination pit forming in the dorsal/posterior region: clustered apical constriction near the pit (Fig. 1A) and cell intercalation far from the pit. Two early-expressed SG-upregulated transcription factors, Fkh and Huckebein (Hkb), play critical roles in SG invagination. Fkh, a winged-helix transcription factor that regulates more than two-thirds of the known SG genes, is essential for SG invagination; SG cells fail to invaginate in *fkh* mutants in which apoptosis is inhibited (Myat and Andrew, 2000a; Maruyama et al., 2011). Hkb, an

SP1/KLF transcription factor, is crucial for invagination positioning; SG cells invaginate in the central region of the placode in *hkb* mutants (Myat and Andrew, 2000b). A recent study proposed that the early patterning of Fkh and Hkb and their downstream effectors ensures positionally fixed cell behaviors with respect to invagination position (Sanchez-Corrales et al., 2021). For example, a key downstream target of Fkh, Folded gastrulation (Fog), signals through its G protein-coupled receptor to activate Rho kinase and myosin to regulate apical constriction in the dorsal/posterior region of the SG placode (Chung et al., 2017; Vishwakarma et al., 2022). Despite the intriguing phenotype of *hkb* mutants, the mechanism of how Hkb regulates SG invagination positioning remains largely unknown. Only two potential downstream targets of Hkb involved in SG formation have been identified: *crumbs* (*crb*), encoding a key apical membrane protein, and *klarsicht* (*klar*), encoding a Nesprin family protein that mediates dynein-dependent organelle trafficking (Myat and Andrew, 2002). To fully understand the mechanism of how Hkb regulates invagination position, it is critical to reveal the precise cellular mechanisms underlying the centered invagination phenotype and identify Hkb downstream targets regulating the process.

In this study, we reveal the distal-to-proximal progression of endoreplication during SG morphogenesis and show that Hkb plays a critical role in this process. Loss of *hkb* results in abnormal cell division in the SG leading to cell death. Subsequently, abnormal cell death leads to malposition of the SG invagination and formation of a smaller organ. Using modENCODE Hkb ChIP-Seq targets and genetic interaction analyses, we show that Hkb represses the transcription of key cell cycle genes in the SG to control cell cycle progression and ensure cell survival and proper SG morphogenesis.

Materials and Methods

Fly stocks and genetics

The fly stocks used in this study are listed in Table S1. All the crosses were performed at 25°C,
except for Hkb expression using fkh-Gal4 and UAS-Hkb for the rescue experiment, which was
performed at 29°C for higher levels of transgene expression.

Generation of *hkb* mutant alleles

hkb mutant alleles were generated using CRISPR/Cas9. Using flyCRISPR Target Finder
(http://targetfinder.flycrispr.neuro.brown.edu/), we identified two gRNAs, one in the first exon of
the *hkb* transcript near the 5' end of the gene (gRNA3) and the other in the second zinc finger
domain (gRNA1). Both gRNAs exhibited maximum stringency, with zero predicted off-target
effects. The sense and antisense oligos for each gRNA sequence were annealed and cloned into
the pU6-BsaI-gRNA vector (a kind gift from Jean-Paul Vincent; (Baena-Lopez et al., 2013)) via
the BsaI restriction site. The constructs were confirmed by Sanger sequencing before injection.
The following sense and antisense oligonucleotides were used for creating null (gRNA3) and
hypomorphic (gRNA1) alleles (PAM sequences underlined and linkers in small characters).

gRNA1 sequence: 5'-ACGCGTCAGTTCCTCATTGC<u>GGG</u>-3'
sense oligo, 5'-tccACGCGTCAGTTCCTCATTGC-3'
antisense oligo, 5'-aaacGCAATGAGGAACTGACGCGT-3'

gRNA3 sequence: 5'-AAAGTCGCGAGTAGGTTTGC<u>GGG</u>-3'
sense oligo, 5'-tccAAAGTCGCGAGTAGGTTTGC-3'
antisense oligo, 5'-aaacGCAAACCTACTCGCGACTTT-3'

The pU6-gRNA1/3 constructs (500 ng/µl per gRNA) were sent to GenetiVision for injections.
GenetiVision performed injection into nos-Cas9 embryos. Individual G0 adults were crossed to
w; TM3, Sb/TM6B, Tb flies. Five offspring (F1) for each cross were independently crossed to w;
TM3, Sb/TM6B, Tb to generate independent stocks. The DNA fragment encompassing the
gRNA sites was PCR amplified using a single adult fly of each stock, and indels at the

corresponding gRNA site were confirmed by Sanger sequencing. The following primers were
used for both PCR and sequencing.

Hkb_FWD, 5'-AGATTGGGTTTGGTGAGTGC-3'
Hkb_REV, 5'-TCGCACATCCTCAGACAGAC-3'

The predicted protein sequences and details of indels for each allele were described in Sup. Fig.
S1.

Generation of Hkb-mCherry fusion protein lines
To create the functional Hkb-mCh fusion protein line, mCherry was inserted into six amino acids
upstream from the C-terminal end of the Hkb protein in frame with the Hkb protein using the
homology-directed repair of the CRISPR/Cas9 technique. The gRNA near the C-terminal end of
the protein was chosen (Hkb_C_gRNA3, 5'-CCCATGTACTCATACCTTTATGG-3') using the
flyCRISPR Target Finder (http://targetfinder.flycrispr.neuro.brown.edu/). Genomic DNA regions
that flank the gRNA locus were amplified using the WT genomic DNA for the left and right
homology arms (HAL (1066 bp) and HAR (1408 bp)). DNA fragments for the open reading
frame of the mCherry protein and the backbone plasmid were amplified using the pENTR R4-
mCherry-R3 plasmid (Addgene #32311) as a template. The donor DNA construct containing
both homology arms (pENTR-HAL-mCherry-HAR; 5853 bp) was created using the NEBuilder
HiFi DNA Assembly Master Mix (NEB #E2621). The following primers were used for
amplifying each DNA fragment.

mCh_FWD, 5'-CCATCTTCGTGCCCATGTACATGGTGAGCAAGGGCGAG-3'
mCh_REV, 5'-CTTGTACAGCTCGTCCATGC-3'
Backbone_FWD, 5'-CTATGCCGTCTCCATTCGATACAACTTTGTATAATAAAGTTGAAC-
3'
Backbone_REV, 5'-GTTGGCCAACTTTGTATAG-3'
HAL_FWD, 5'-TCTATACAAAGTTGGCCAACAGATCTCGCAGCACACAC-3'
HAL_REV, 5'-GTACATGGGCACGAAGATG-3'
HAR_FWD, 5'-GCATGGACGAGCTGTACAAGTCATACCTTTATGGCTACTGAG-3'

HAR_REV, 5'-ATCGAATGGAGACGGCATAG-3'

The same strategy was used to create the Hkb^mut^-mCh knock-in line. The mCh tag was inserted

into the N-terminal region of Hkb, using gRNA3, the same gRNA used to create null mutant

alleles. A stop codon was added to the C-terminal end of the mCh tag. Genomic DNA regions

that flank the gRNA locus were amplified using the WT genomic DNA for the left and right

homology arms (HAL (1130 bp) and HAR (1153 bp)). The following primers were used for

amplifying each DNA fragment.

mCh_FWD, 5'- CCCGCAAATGGTGAGCAAGGGC -3'

mCh_REV, 5'- GCGAGTAGGTCTACTTGTACAGCT-3'

Backbone_FWD, 5'-

AAATATTGAGATACAACTTTGTATAATAAAGTTGAACGAGAAACGTAAAA -3'

Backbone_REV, 5'- TGGCTGCAGTTGGCCAACTTTGTATAGAAAGTTGAAC -3'

HAL_FWD, 5'- GGCCAACTGCAGCCAGAATCGCG -3'

HAL_REV, 5'- CTCACCATTTGCGGGGGATG -3'

HAR_FWD, 5'- TACAAGTAGACCTACTCGCGACTTTCC-3'

HAR_REV, 5'-

TATACAAAGTTGTATCTCAATATTTGCATATATCGTCGAGGTCCAAAGA -3'

The pENTR-HAL-mCherry-HAR constructs (500 ng/µl per gRNA) were sent to GenetiVision

for injections. GenetiVision performed injection into nos-Cas9 embryos. Individual G0 adults

were crossed to w; TM3, Sb/TM6B, Tb flies. Five offspring (F1) from each of the surviving

crosses were independently crossed to w; TM3, Sb/TM6B, Tb to generate independent stocks.

Fluorescent signals for mCherry in Hkb^WT^-mCh and Hkb^mut^-mCh transgenic lines were confirmed

by immunostaining using the antibody against mCherry.

Immunostaining and imaging

Drosophila embryos were collected on grape juice agar plates at 25°C. Embryos were

dechorionated by incubating in 50% bleach for 3 minutes. For most samples, embryos were fixed

in formaldehyde-saturated heptane for 40 minutes and devitellinized using 80% ethanol.

Following this, the embryos were stained with primary and secondary antibodies in PBSTB (1X

PBS, 0.2% bovine serum albumin, and 0.1% Triton X-100). For phalloidin and sqh-GFP signals,

embryos were hand-devitellinized and stained with primary and secondary antibodies in PBTr

(1X PBS and 0.1% Triton X-100). The antibodies used in this study and their respective dilutions

are listed in Table S2. After staining, embryos were mounted in Aqua-Poly/Mount (Polysciences,

Inc.) and imaged with Leica SP8 confocal microscope using 63x, NA 1.4 and 40x, NA 1.3

objectives. For horseradish peroxidase (HRP) staining, the VECTASTAIN® ABC-HRP Kit,

Peroxidase (PK-4000; Vector Laboratories) was used with biotin-conjugated secondary

antibodies. Whole embryo HRP images were acquired with a Leica DM2500 microscope using a

20×, 0.8 NA objective.

Cell segmentation, apical area quantification, and scatter plots

SGs in early (pre-invagination; invagination depth, 0 µm) and late (during invagination;

invagination depth, 5-10 µm) stage 11 of embryos were used. Confocal images of the SG were

obtained from embryos immunostained for the Ecad (adherens junctions) and CrebA (SG cell

nuclei) and used for cell segmentation. A maximum intensity projection was generated using the

LasX program from three apical z-sections of confocal images of SG cells encompassing the

adherens junction. Using the maximum intensity projection, cells were segmented using Ecad

signals as a marker for each cell boundary using Imaris software (Andor). The apical area was

calculated using Imaris and individual cells were color-coded based on the size of their apical

areas. The frequency distribution of the apical area of the cells was analyzed using GraphPad

Prism with the data exported from Imaris. Since the output data from Imaris for the apical area

quantification is a sum of the area of both sides of the cell layer, we further divided the values by

2 to obtain the apical area of SG cells.

Scatter plots were generated using the X and Y coordinates for each SG cell, which were

determined with respect to the A/P and D/V axes of the tissue using Imaris. The cell at the center

of the SG placode was used as the origin point (X=0, Y=0).

Quantification of SG cell numbers

Confocal microscopy stacks for SGs with SG-specific nuclear markers (CrebA or Sage) were
used for early stage 11 (pre-invagination) and stage 15+ embryos. Three dimensional (3D)-
reconstructed images were generated using Imaris. The number of nuclei for each 3D-
reconstructed SG was counted using cell ID numbers.

Quantification of SG lumen length and apical area of individual SG cells at stage 15

SG lumen length at stage 15 was measured for the secretory portion of the gland based on CrebA
signals, which are exclusively expressed in the secretory cells at this stage. Confocal images
immunolabeled with markers for Ecad and CrebA for stage 15 SGs were used. 8-12 z-section
images of the SG were merged to obtain a maximum projection image clearly showing half of
the SG lumen and its apical surface. Segmentation of SG cells and quantification of apical areas
of individual cells were performed using Imaris as described for segmentation of SG cells at
stage 11.

For the lumen length quantification, maximum intensity projection images were imported into
the ImageJ software (Fiji). The length of the SG lumen was measured along the line following
the midpoint of the secretory portion of the tube.

Quantification of SG phenotypes at embryonic stages 12 and 15+

After performing HRP staining with CrebA, the SGs were manually categorized based on their
phenotypes. At stage 12, WT SGs turn and migrate towards the posterior of the embryo after
reaching the visceral mesoderm. SGs showing such normal behavior were categorized as
"normal", while those SGs that reached the visceral mesoderm and migrated slightly were
categorized as "turned but short", and those SGs that reached the visceral mesoderm but did not
migrate posteriorly were categorized as "not turned".

For stage 15+ embryos, SGs that were comparable in shape, size, and position to WT SGs were

categorized as "normal"; SGs that had a rounded/ball-like morphology were categorized as "very

short/rounded"; SGs that were slightly elongated but not as long as WT SGs and mislocalized

anteriorly were categorized as "intermediate, mislocalized"; SGs that were slightly elongated but

in the normal position were categorized as "intermediate, normal position". SGs that were as

long as WT but mislocalized anteriorly were categorized as "long, mislocalized".

Analysis of modENCODE Hkb ChIP-Seq targets

274   The dataset was downloaded from the ENCODE Portal (https://www.encodeproject.org/). Total

275   1268 ChIP-Seq targets were analyzed using Database for Annotation, Visualization and

276   Integrated Discovery (DAVID; Dennis et al., 2003).

EdU labeling

To visualize SG cells in the S phase of the cell cycle or undergoing endoreplication,

dechorionated embryos were incubated in n-octane (Thermo Scientific Chemicals: 325950010)

for 3 minutes to permeabilize the vitelline membrane. Embryos were then washed 5 times in 1x

PBS in a microcentrifuge tube before being pulsed with 100µM EdU (Thermofisher: C10637)

for 30 minutes. Following EdU labeling, embryos were washed 5 times for 5 minutes each in

PBSTB and incubated with azide-conjugated Alexa Fluor 488 for 30 minutes at room

temperature. Embryos were further stained with CrebA and Crumbs antibodies to mark SG cell

nuclei and apical cell boundaries, respectively.

Fluorescence in situ hybridization

Dechorionated *Drosophila* embryos were fixed in paraformaldehyde-heptane solution for 30

min, followed by devitellinization using methanol. Freshly fixed embryos were then labeled with

digoxigenin (DIG)-labeled antisense probes following the standard procedure described in Knirr

et al. (1999). After rehydration and post-fixation in 10% formaldehyde, embryos were pre-

hybridized for 1 hour at 55°C. mRNA probes were added to the embryos which were then

incubated for 16 hours at 55°C. DIG present on the synthesized mRNA probes was subsequently

labeled with anti-DIG primary antibody (Enzo; ENZ-ABS302-0001; 1:1,000) and biotin-

conjugated secondary antibody (Invitrogen; 1:500). To detect fluorescent signals, embryos were

incubated with AB solution (PK-6100, Vectastain Elite ABC kit) followed by the tyramide signal

amplification reaction (Cy3 fluorescent dye in amplification diluent; 1:50) (Perkin Elmer Life

Sciences, NEL753001kt). To mark the SG and the apical membrane, the embryos were

immunolabeled with antibodies for CrebA (SG nuclei) and Crb (apical membrane).

Primer sequences used for mRNA probe synthesis in this study are listed below.

Gene name	Primer sequence	Probe size
Cyclin A (*CycA*)	Forward: 5'-TAAACCACGAACCGCTGAAC-3' Reverse: 5'-CATGGTGCGCTCTTTCCTAC-3'	443 bp
Cyclin E (*CycE*)	Forward: 5'-TGGACTGGTTGATCGAGGTC-3' Reverse: 5'-TCAAAGCCAGAGAATTGCGG-3'	424 bp
E2f1	Forward: 5'-CAGTCCGCAAAAATGTGAAA-3' Reverse: 5'-TATCACACGCAACCACAACA-3'	500 bp
fizzy-related (*fzr*)	Forward: 5'-ACCCCACAGCAGCAATAGAT-3' Reverse: 5'-TTCGGGGGTATGAGTGTTTC-3'	417 bp
reaper (*rpr*)	Forward: 5'-CGAAAGAAAAGTGTGTGCGC-3' Reverse: 5'-GTTGTGGCTCTGTGTCCTTG-3'	483 bp
string (*stg*)	Forward: 5'-GCGACTGATGCTGTAGGTTG-3' Reverse: 5'-AGGGGTCTGATTTCGGGATC-3'	407 bp

Quantification of *in situ* hybridization signals

Stage 11 *hkb* mutant and WT SGs were used. A maximum intensity projection was generated using two z-sections of confocal images of SG cells. Z-sections were obtained from the same depth in all instances. Snapshots of these sections were imported into Fiji (NIH), and SG *mRNA* expression levels were measured by obtaining the mean gray value of the fluorescence intensity across the SG placode. SG placode-specific measurements were performed using SG-expressed CrebA signals. For each *mRNA* quantification, background subtraction was done using 10-15 cells in the epidermis in the lateral ectoderm region of parasegment 2 near the SG. Statistical analysis was performed using GraphPad Prism.

Results

Creation of the molecularly defined *hkb* mutant alleles and fluorescent knock-in lines

To fully characterize the role of Hkb during SG morphogenesis, we generated two null (*hkb^351^*,

*hkb^391^*) and two hypomorphic alleles (*hkb^121^*, *hkb^131^*) using CRISPR/Cas9 (Figure 1B; Details of

indels and expected protein sequences were described in Figure 1-figure supplement 1). All

alleles were embryonic lethal in homozygous embryos and transheterozygotes with a deficiency

line deleting the *hkb* locus, suggesting that all three zinc-finger (ZnF) domains are required for

embryonic development and survival. Immunostaining with CrebA, a nuclear marker for

secretory cells of the SG, and E-Cadherin (Ecad), an adherens junction marker, showed that

wild-type (WT) embryos exhibited SG invagination in the dorsal-posterior region of the placode

(Figure 1C). However, new *hkb* alleles exhibited a broad, central SG invagination phenotype

(Figure 1D, E), similar to previous studies with an EMS allele *hkb^2^* and a P-element excision

allele *hkb^A321R1^* (Weigel et al., 1990; Gaul and Weigel, 1990; Myat and Andrew, 2002; De laco et

al., 2005; Sanchez-Corrales et al., 2021). *hkb^121^* also exhibited the centered invagination

phenotype, albeit with only 50% penetrance (Figure 1D; N=20), indicating that all three ZnF

domains are required for the positioning of the SG invagination.

We also generated two mCherry-tagged transgenic lines, Hkb^WT^-mCh (a functional fusion

protein line) and Hkb^mut^-mCh (a mutant knock-in line) using CRISPR-mediated homology-

directed repair (Figure 1B). The Hkb^WT^-mCh line exhibited nuclear mCh signals in several

tissues known to express Hkb, including the anterior and posterior termini of the early embryo,

SGs, and a subset of neuroblasts (Figure 1F, F' and Figure 1-figure supplement 2). In the SG,

strong Hkb^WT^-mCh signals were detected at stages 10 and 11, with higher levels in the posterior

region of the placode at stage 10 (Figure 1-figure supplement 2C-F''), consistent with a previous

study (Sanchez-Corrales et al., 2021). Weak Hkb^WT^-mCh signals were present at stages 12 and

13 and not detected thereafter (Figure 1-figure supplement 2G-J''), consistent with the transient

expression of *hkb* transcripts in the SG (Myat and Andrew, 2002). Unlike the nuclear Hkb^WT^-

mCh signals, Hkb^mut^-mCh signals were distributed throughout the cell (Figure 1G, G' and Figure

1-figure supplement 2). In homozygous Hkb^mut^-mCh and heterozygous Hkb^mut^-mCh/+ embryos,

mCh signals persisted throughout the SG cell until stage 16, likely due to the loss of the Hkb protein degradation elements/signals (Figure 1-figure supplement 2J-J'', T-T'').

To investigate the effect of *hkb* loss on SG cell behavior during invagination at stage 11, we analyzed the distribution of SG cells undergoing apical constriction in WT and *hkb* mutants using cell segmentation analysis (Figure 1H-K'and Figure 1-figure supplement 3). Before invagination, WT SG cells with small apical areas clustered in the dorsal-posterior region of the placode, whereas *hkb* mutants exhibited a scattered distribution (Figure 1-figure supplement 3D-F'). As invagination progressed, more cells with small apical areas were observed near the invagination pit in WT, whereas these cells were distributed around the wide central pit in *hkb* mutant SGs (Figure 1H-J'). This is consistent with a previous study using hkb^2 (Sanchez-Corrales et al., 2021), although we observed that only about 30% of the hkb^2 embryos showed the central SG invagination phenotype (N=11). The frequency distribution of cells based on their apical areas showed a significantly lower percentage of SG cells with smaller apical areas in *hkb* mutants compared to WT (Figure 1K, K' and Figure 1-figure supplement 3G, G'), indicating a defect in apical constriction.

Using CrebA signals, we analyzed SG morphology in late-stage WT and homozygous *hkb* mutant embryos, as well as *hkb* transheterozygous embryos over a deficiency line deleting the *hkb* locus. At stage 12, while the WT SGs turned and migrated toward the posterior of the embryo upon reaching the visceral mesoderm, SGs in *hkb* mutant embryos migrated only slightly posteriorly (Figure 1L-N and Figure 1-figure supplement 4A-E). Consistent with the role of Hkb in endoderm specification (Brönner et al., 1994), *hkb* mutant embryos showed defects in gut morphology, as well as defects in head development and occasional defects in germ band retraction (Figure 1L'-N' and Figure 1-figure supplement 4B'-E'), making it difficult to determine their correct stage after stage 14. Stage 15+ embryos in *hkb* mutants formed small SGs compared to stage 15 WT embryos (Figure 1L'-N' and Figure 1-figure supplement 4A-E'), as in a previous study (Myat and Andrew, 2000b). We observed a range of SG lengths. More than 40% of stage 15+ *hkb* null embryos and transheterozygotes of null over a deficiency (hkb^{351}, hkb^{391}, and hkb^{351}/Df) exhibited very short and ball-like SGs (Figure 1N', O' and Figure 1-figure supplement 4). In contrast, the majority of *hkb* hypomorphic mutants and transheterozygotes of hypomorphs over a deficiency (hkb^{121}, hkb^{131}, and hkb^{121}/Df) and other *hkb* mutants (hkb^{4321R1},

hkb², and *hkb^{A321R1}/Df*) had intermediate SG tube lengths (Figure 1M', O' and Figure 1-figure

supplement 4), suggesting that these alleles have a residual function of *hkb*. Homozygous

Hkb^{mut}-mCh embryos exhibited the same range of phenotypes as *hkb* null mutants, confirming

that the mCh insertion disrupts Hkb function (Figure 1-figure supplement 2).

In all *hkb* mutant lines, one or both SGs frequently mislocalized anteriorly, toward the head

center region (Figure 1M', N' and Figure 1-figure supplement 4C'-H'). Using the salivary duct

marker Dead Ringer (Dri; (Gregory et al., 1996)) and Ecad, we found that the mispositioning of

the SG may be due in part to the defects of the duct, likely resulting from a combination of

reduced cell number, aberrant apical domain size, and defective cell intercalation of duct cells

(Figure 1-figure supplement 5A-K'). We also found a transient Hkb expression in the SG duct at

early stage 11 (Figure 1-figure supplement 5L-M'), suggesting a possible role of Hkb during SG

duct morphogenesis.

Together, we have generated molecularly defined null and hypomorphic alleles of *hkb* and

fluorescently tagged knock-in transgenic lines. Since the two null and two hypomorphic alleles

behaved similarly, we used *hkb^{351}* and *hkb^{121}* for further analyses.

Hkb is required for SG cell survival to ensure proper organ size

To determine the cellular mechanisms underlying the small SG phenotype in *hkb* mutant

embryos, we measured the SG lumen length and counted SG cells using Ecad and CrebA signals,

respectively. Compared to WT, *hkb* null mutants and transheterozygous *hkb* null over a

deficiency showed a significantly shorter SG lumen length, and *hkb* hypomorphic embryos

showed a milder effect (Figure 2A-D, G). Surprisingly, *hkb* null mutants also showed fewer SG

cells compared to WT, with a moderate reduction at stage 11 and a significant reduction at stage

15 (stage 15+ for *hkb* mutants) (Figure 2G', G''). The effect was milder in hypomorphic

embryos (Figure 2G', G''), indicating a correlation between the SG lumen length and the number

of cells.

To test whether *hkb* mutant SG cells undergo apoptosis, we labeled WT, *hkb* mutant, and Hkb^{WT}-

mCh and Hkb^{mut}-mCh embryos with an antibody against *Drosophila* cleaved death caspase-1

(DCP-1; (Sarkissian et al., 2014)). WT and Hkb^{WT}-mCh SG cells showed no DCP-1 signals

(Figure 2H, N), except for a single cell at the anterior boundary of the SG placode in some stage

11 embryos (Arrowhead in Figure 2H). In contrast, SGs in *hkb* mutants and Hkb^{mut}-mCh

embryos displayed significant DCP-1 signals at stages 11 and 12 (Figure 2I-K, O, P and Figure

2-figure supplement 1A-C'). DAPI staining revealed condensed and fragmented nuclei in some

SG cells in *hkb* mutants (Figure 2Q, Q'), a hallmark of pyknosis (Zamzami and Kroemer, 1999).

At stages 13 and 14, several fragmented cells positive for DCP-1 and mCh, and negative for

CrebA, were found near the SG in Hkb^{mut}-mCh embryos (Figure 2R-R''; Figure 2-figure

supplement 1D-E''). Similar DCP-1-positive cells were found near the SG in *hkb* null mutants,

fewer in *hkb* hypomorphs, and rarely in WT embryos (Figure 2-figure supplement 1F-H'). These

cells, lacking CrebA signals but exhibiting nuclear fragmentation and condensation, are likely

late-stage apoptotic SG cells. Dying cells were also observed in other parts of the Hkb^{mut}-mCh

embryos near mCh-expressing regions compared to Hkb^{WT}-mCh embryos (Figure 2-figure

supplement 1I-K''), as well as some *hkb* mutant SG duct cells (Figure 1-figure supplement 5E,

E'), which may be the cause of the decreased duct cell numbers. This suggests a role for Hkb in

cell survival in multiple cell types.

We next performed a rescue experiment. Consistent with a previous study (Myat and Andrew,

2002), overexpression of Hkb in SG secretory cells using the *fkh-Gal4* driver (Henderson and

Andrew, 2000) in the otherwise WT background had no overt effects on SG formation, except

for an expanded SG lumen at late stages. Overexpression of Hkb in the SG in *hkb* mutants almost

completely rescued the short SG phenotype of *hkb* mutants, resulting in elongated SGs that

resembled WT SGs (Figure 2F; Figure 2-figure supplement 2C, K), with a reduced number of

DCP-1-positive SG cells (Figure 2L, P), and restored lumen length and SG cell number to WT

levels (Figure 2E, G''). Additionally, blocking apoptosis in the *hkb* mutant SG by overexpressing

the baculoviral protein p35, a caspase inhibitor of apoptosis, reduced the number of DCP-1-

positive cells (Figure 2M, P) and rescued the shortened SG phenotype, with restored SG cell

number (Figure 2G''; Figure 2-figure supplement 2F, K). These data suggest that the small SG

size in *hkb* mutants is primarily caused by apoptosis of SG cells.

Hkb is required for apical domain elongation

A previous study showed that *hkb* regulates apical domain elongation by regulating the key
apical protein Crb and the endocytic pathway regulator Klar (Myat and Andrew, 2002).
Although our data showed that the reduced number of SG cells is the main reason for the small
gland size in *hkb* mutants, defects in apical domain elongation may also contribute to this
phenotype. Measuring the apical area of individual SG cells in stage 15 embryos revealed that
hkb mutant SG cells have smaller apical domain sizes than WT (Figure 2-figure supplement 3A-
E). Immunostaining with Rab11, a recycling endosome marker, revealed that while WT SGs
showed Rab11 signals near the apical domain, *hkb* mutant SGs displayed basally mislocalized
Rab11 signals (Figure 2-figure supplement 3F-G'). These data suggest that impaired apical
trafficking and defective apical membrane elongation also contribute to the small gland
phenotype in *hkb* mutants.

Aberrant cell death causes centered SG invagination in *hkb* mutants

Next, we tested invagination positioning. SG-specific expression of Hkb corrected the centered
invagination defect in *hkb* mutants (Figure 3A-C), indicating a tissue-autonomous role of Hkb in
SG invagination positioning. Interestingly, blocking apoptosis in the SG also rescued the
centered invagination phenotype in *hkb* mutants (Figure 3D). In these embryos, cells with small
apical areas were mainly distributed in the dorsal/posterior quadrant of the SG placode (Figure
3E-F'), as in WT (Figure 1H, H'). SG-specific Hkb overexpression partially rescued the apical
constriction defects, and although not statistically significant, blocking apoptosis also slightly
decreased the number of SG cells with small apical areas in *hkb* mutants (Figure 3G, G'). Since
apoptotic cells undergo apical constriction before being eliminated from the epithelial sheet
(Toyama et al., 2008; Slattum et al., 2009; Marinari et al., 2012), we hypothesized that some SG
cells with small apical areas in *hkb* mutants are apoptotic. In support of this, we observed DCP-
1-positive cells with reduced apical areas in *hkb* mutant SGs at stage 11 (Figure 3H). Among the
SG cells of lower 30% of apical areas, more than 40% were DCP-1-positive (N=29/72 cells in 5

SGs from different embryos). We did not detect a significant spatial bias in the distribution of

DCP-1-positive cells among the four quadrants of the SG placode in *hkb* null mutants, although

slightly more DCP-1-positive cells were observed in the posterior region in hypomorphs and

transheterozygotes of null over deficiency (Figure 3I-J). When we analyzed the SG placode in

three domains (inner, outer, and mid), we found that most DCP-1-positive cells were in the mid

domain, especially in the null and transheterozygous conditions (Figure 3J'). This suggests a

correlation between the distribution of dying cells in the mid domain and the widened central

invagination pit observed in *hkb* mutants.

During apoptosis, the cytoskeleton actively participates in the morphological changes of dying

cells. Apoptotic cells also exert a transient pulling force on the apical surface, generating the

apicobasal force and increasing tissue tension (Monier et al., 2015). Therefore, we analyzed

filamentous actin (F-actin) and myosin using phalloidin and sqh-GFP, a functional tagged

version of the myosin regulatory light chain (Royou et al., 2004), respectively, in WT and *hkb*

mutant SGs. Compared to WT, we often observed an aberrant accumulation of F-actin and

myosin signals along multiple junctions within the SG placode in *hkb* mutants (Figure 3K-O). In

addition, there was placode-wide disruption of myosin, including the misshapen supracellular

myosin cable that maintains SG tissue integrity (Figure 3L). Apical junctions with increased

myosin or F-actin levels often coincided with DCP-1-positive cells (Figure 3M, N-O). Increased

F-actin expression was also seen at the apical-lateral membrane of DCP-1 positive cells (Fig.

3O), suggesting a potential pulling force along the apicobasal axis by apoptotic cells.

Hkb is required for the proper cell cycle status of the SG cells

To further test the impact of *hkb* loss in cytoskeletal organization, we analyzed microtubules,

which play a crucial role in forming and maintaining the actomyosin network during tissue

invagination (Booth et al., 2014; Ko et al., 2019; Le and Chung, 2021). Interestingly,

immunostaining with an antibody against tyrosinated α-tubulin (Tyr-tub), which labels dynamic,

short-lived microtubules (Westermann and Weber, 2003) revealed that, in contrast to the strong

Tyr-tub signals observed at the apices of WT SG cells (Figure 4A, A'; (Booth et al., 2014; Le

and Chung, 2021)), some SG cells in *hkb* mutants lacked apical Tyr-tub signals (Fig. 4B, B').

These cells had large, rounded morphology and mislocalized nuclei near the apical surface

(Figure 4C, D), indicating cell division. Staining with an antibody against phosphorylated

histone H3 (PH3), a marker of mitotic chromatin modification (Gurley et al., 1978), revealed

strong PH3 signals in *hkb* mutant SG cells (Figure 4E-H, M), indicating that these cells are

actively dividing. Co-staining with Tyr-tub and PH3 revealed that mitotic spindles were

consistently aligned parallel to the epithelial sheet (Figure 4K, K'; N=35 cells in metaphase and

anaphase in 16 SGs).

Mitotic cell rounding and cytokinesis employ processes that reorganize the cytoskeleton,

generating forces that locally affect cell rearrangement and tissue morphogenesis (Champion et

al., 2017; Pinheiro and Bellaïche, 2018). We observed an increase in F-actin along the apical

junctions in PH3-positive SG cells (Figure 4L). Increased F-actin signals were also often

detected along the apical-lateral membrane in PH3-positive cells and along the entire membrane

of cells in prophase (Figure 4L; red arrowheads in inset). While no biased distribution of

dividing cells was observed across the SG placode in *hkb* mutants, dividing cells were more

frequently localized in the mid domain compared to the inner or outer domain of the SG (Figure

4N, O). SG-specific expression of Hkb in *hkb* mutants reduced the number of PH3-positive cells

significantly (Figure 4I, M), suggesting a role for Hkb in inhibiting the mitotic entry of SG cells.

Given that apoptosis can induce compensatory cell proliferation in neighboring cells to maintain

tissue homeostasis (Haynie and Bryant, 1977; Kondo et al., 2006; Crucianelli et al., 2022), we

investigated whether the abnormal cell division in *hkb* mutants was a result of apoptosis. The

number of PH3-positive cells in p35-overexpressing SGs in *hkb* mutants was comparable to that

in *hkb* mutants alone (Figure 4J, M), suggesting that the abnormal cell division in *hkb* mutants

may not be compensatory cell proliferation induced by apoptosis. However, we cannot rule out

the possibility that compensatory cell proliferation by a few remaining dying cells still

contributes to some of the abnormally dividing cells in *hkb* mutants.

Hkb regulates endoreplication progression during SG morphogenesis

The observation of cell division in SG cells was unexpected because SG cells do not divide but rather undergo endoreplication. To further test the cell cycle status in SG cells, we used the Fly-FUCCI system, which allows the identification of different cell cycle phases based on the fluorescent signals of cytoplasmic cyclin B (CycB) and nuclear E2F transcription factor 1 (E2f1) tagged degrons ((Zielke et al., 2014); Figure 5A), as well as 5-Ethynyl-2'-deoxyuridine (EdU) labeling to specifically mark S phase or endocycling cells. Prior to invagination at early stage 11, all WT SG cells exhibited strong nuclear signals for E2f1 and cytoplasmic signals for CycB (Figure 5B-B'') and no EdU signals (Figure 5D), indicating G2 phase. During late stage 11 and stage 12, distal SG cells that had completed invagination showed reduced E2f1 signals and very low levels of CycB (Figure 5F-F''), with high EdU signals (Figure 5H and Figure 5-figure supplement 1A), consistent with a previous finding using BrdU staining (Chandrasekaran and Beckendorf, 2005). By stage 13, nuclear E2f1 signals were almost completely lost in all SG cells, accompanied by low levels of CycB (Figure 5J-J'') and high EdU signals (Figure 5L). These data indicate a distal-to-proximal transition to S phase. At late stage 13, distal SG cells began to show weak E2f1 (arrowheads in Figure 5J') and EdU signals (arrowheads in Figure 5L), and by stage 14, most SG cells had regained E2f1 signals (Figure 5N-N'') and lost EdU signals (Figure 5P) except for a few proximal cells (arrowheads in Figure 5 N', P), indicating a distal-to-proximal transition to G2 phase. During stages 15 and 16, almost all SG cells had accumulated E2f1 signals along with increased CycB expression (Figure 5R-R'') and lost EdU signals (Figure 5T). Interestingly, in some late stage SGs, a few distal cells lacked E2f1 signals and showed variable intensity of EdU signals (arrowheads in Figure 5R-R'', T; arrowheads in Figure 5-figure supplement 1E), indicating re-entry into S phase and the onset of a potential second wave of endoreplication. Taken together, our data suggest a distal-to-proximal wave of endoreplication progression during normal SG morphogenesis.

In *hkb* mutant SGs, the distal-to-proximal progression of endoreplication was disrupted. It is of note that EdU signals in *hkb* mutants were generally low in the entire embryo and absent in many tissues compared to WT, suggesting endoreplication defects in multiple tissues upon *hkb* loss (Figure 5-figure supplement 1A-I). Similar to WT, most cells in early stage 11 *hkb* mutant SGs exhibited strong nuclear signals for E2f1 and cytoplasmic CycB signals, with little to no EdU signal (Figure 5C-C'', E), except in dividing cells where CycB signals were distributed

throughout the entire cell (arrowheads in Figure 5C''), which is consistent with the distribution

of CycB during mitosis (Jackman et al., 1995). However, starting at late stage 11 and throughout

all stages, almost all SG cells in *hkb* mutants showed nuclear E2f1 signals of varying intensity

(Figure 5G-G'', K-K'', O-O''). Consistent with this, a few randomly distributed SG cells in *hkb*

mutants showed variable EdU signals, with no clear pattern as seen in WT SGs (Figure 5E, I, M,

Q), suggesting that cells either do not enter S phase or enter a weak S phase. Taken together,

Hkb plays a critical role in distal-to-proximal endoreplication progression during SG

morphogenesis.

Regulation of key cell cycle genes by Hkb is critical for cell survival and SG morphogenesis

To understand the mechanisms of endoreplication regulation during SG morphogenesis, we

focused on the direct transcriptional targets of Hkb identified by the modENCODE Project using

chromatin immunoprecipitation followed by sequencing (ChIP–seq) on the whole embryo

(Consortium et al., 2010). Gene Ontology enrichment analysis revealed several key biological

processes associated with the defects observed in *hkb* mutants (Figure 6A). Notably, gene

clusters related to the cell cycle were identified, including central players like *Cyclin A* (*CycA*),

Cyclin D (*CycD*), *Cyclin E* (*CycE*), *E2f1*, *aurora A* (*aurA*), and *aurora B* (*aurB*). Additionally,

several apoptosis-related genes were identified, including *hid*, *rpr*, and *Death related ICE-like*

caspase (*Drice*). The full list of Hkb target genes, GO clusters, and the list of genes in each

cluster were included in Table S3. Fluorescence in situ hybridization revealed a significant

increase in the mRNA levels of *rpr*, *E2f1*, and *CycE* in *hkb* mutant SGs compared to WT at

stages 11 and 12 (Figure 6B-J, and Figure 6-figure supplement 1A-H'), suggesting

transcriptional repression of these genes by Hkb. *CycA* mRNA levels were increased in some

stage 11 SG cells in *hkb* mutants, whereas all WT SG cells of the same stage showed a

background level of *CycA* mRNA signals (Figure 6-figure supplement 1I-J').

Although not a target of Hkb based on the Chip-seq data, we also tested to see if *hkb* acts as an

indirect transcriptional inhibitor of *string* (*stg*), which encodes Cdc25 family protein phosphatase

that dephosphorylates and activates Cdk1, triggering entry into mitosis in a post-blastoderm

Drosophila embryo (Edgar and O'Farrell, 1989; Gautier et al., 1991; Edgar et al. 1994).

Consistent with a previous study (Edgar et al. 1994), *stg* mRNA levels were downregulated in

the WT SG once invagination began, and this remained true for the *hkb* mutant SG (Figure 6-

figure supplement 1K-M), suggesting that the abnormal cell cycle regulation in *hkb* mutants is

not due to upregulation of *stg* mRNA levels.

Disruption in cell cycle regulation can lead to apoptosis due to errors in DNA replication or

failure of DNA integrity checkpoints (Pucci et al., 2000). Immunostaining with a marker of DNA

double-strand breaks (γ-H2Av; (Lake et al., 2013)) showed increased levels in *hkb* mutant SGs

compared to WT, indicating increased DNA damage (Figure 6-figure supplement 2A-B'). To test

whether apoptosis in *hkb* mutant SG cells was triggered by the dysregulation of cell cycle genes,

we analyzed double mutants for *hkb* and each of the key Hkb target cyclins and their interacting

Cdk genes (*Cdk1* and *Cdk2*). Embryos single mutant for *CycA*, *CycD*, *CycE*, and *Cdk1* showed

relatively normal morphology except for a few PH3-positive SG cells in *CycD* and *CycE*

mutants, likely due to disrupted cell cycle and abnormal entry into mitosis (Figure 6-figure

supplement 3A-F). Embryos double mutant for *hkb* and *CycE* or *Cdk1* rescued the *hkb* mutant

phenotypes, but double mutants for *hkb* and *CycA* did not show significant rescue (Figure 6-

figure supplement 3I-M, P, Q). *Cdk2* mutant embryos showed severe morphological defects with

significantly fewer cells overall, making it difficult to assess differences in the *hkb* mutant

background (Figure 6-figure supplement 3G, H). We confirmed the rescue effect by SG-specific

knockdown experiments targeting *CycE* and *Cdk1* in *hkb* mutant SGs. As in the double mutant

analysis, knockdown of *CycE* resulted in a reduction of both dividing and dying cells (Figure 6K,

N, Q, OR, restored the invagination position and led to a partial rescue of the short SG

phenotypes (Figure 6K, N; Figure 6-figure supplement 4L-N, X)*.* Similar rescue effects were

observed with *Cdk1* knockdown (Figure 6L, O, Q, R and Figure 6-figure supplement 4O-R, X).

To further test Hkb's role in cell cycle regulation, we tested Fizzy-related (Fzr), a cell cycle

switch that functions with the anaphase-promoting complex (APC) to degrade mitotic cyclins

during M and G1 phases and trigger exit from the M phase (Sigrist and Lehner, 1997). Fzr also

regulates the transition from the normal cell cycle to the endocycle by degrading mitotic cyclins

during G2 phase (Sigrist and Lehner, 1997; Zielke et al., 2011). *fzr* was not a ChiP-Seq target of

Hkb, and the *fzr* mRNA levels in the SG were fairly high in both WT and *hkb* mutant embryos.

We hypothesized that further overexpression of Fzr in *hkb* mutant SGs could suppress cell

division and cell death and rescue the defective tube length phenotype. In support of our

hypothesis, overexpression of Fzr in *hkb* mutant SGs resulted in a reduction of both dividing and

dying cells, partially rescuing the overall *hkb* mutant phenotypes (Figure 6M, P, Q, R and Figure

6-figure supplement 4). When both Fzr and p35 were overexpressed in the *hkb* mutant

background to inhibit both mitotic cyclins and cell death, we observed an enhanced rescue effect

(Figure 6-figure supplement 4). Overall, these data suggest that the loss of *hkb* leads to the

derepression of cyclin/Cdk activities, which disrupts endoreplication and causes SG cells to enter

mitosis abnormally (Figure 7). Consequently, cell death occurs in SG cells, leading to disrupted

SG morphology.

Discussion

In this study, we have uncovered a previously uncharacterized role for Hkb in coordinating cell cycle regulation and morphogenesis during development. Through a comprehensive analysis of mutant phenotypes, modENCODE ChIP-Seq targets of Hkb, and genetic interaction analyses, we have revealed the role of Hkb in regulating endoreplication to enable proper development of the SG.

Hkb regulates the cell cycle through transcriptional and possibly post-translational mechanisms

During *Drosophila* embryonic development, many tissues arrest the cell cycle in the G2 phase after the initial cell divisions (Hartenstein and Campos-Ortega, 1985; Edgar and O'Farrell, 1989). Subsequently, several tissues, including the SG, switch to the endocycle. This switch is correlated with the development of three-dimensional organs, suggesting a metabolic need to inhibit active cell proliferation to allow for such a transition during development. Using the Fly-FUCCI system and EdU labeling, we observed progressive endoreplication from distal to proximal regions during normal SG morphogenesis (Figure 5). Our data are consistent with a previous study showing that distal cells enter S phase first during SG invagination (Chandrasekaran and Beckendorf, 2005). Notably, our observation that some distal SG cells in WT re-enter S phase during late SG morphogenesis suggests a potential second wave of endoreplication toward the end of embryogenesis that has not been described. In *hkb* mutant SGs, progressive endoreplication is lost.

We propose that endoreplication in SG cells is regulated, at least in part, by Hkb-mediated transcriptional repression of *E2f1* and *CycE* (Figure 6 and Figure 6-figure supplement 1). E2f1 is usually destroyed as cells transit into S phase through degradation by the S-phase activated E3 ubiquitin ligase Cullin 4. Whenever E2f1 expression persists in S phase, as is seen with ectopic expression or overexpression of E2f1, cell cycle arrest is disrupted and the rate of cell cycle progression is increased, leading to a significantly higher number of cells in the mitotic phase (Neufeld et al., 1998; Shibutani et al., 2008), as we observed in the *hkb* mutant SG. The changes

in the cell cycle control mechanism caused by persistent E2f1 expression during the S phase

ultimately lead to widespread apoptosis in affected tissues (Shibutani et al., 2008). During

normal SG development, E2f1 and CycE (which is also a transcriptional target of E2f1; Ohtani et

al., 1995; Duronio and O'farrell, 1995; Royzman et al., 1997; Duronio et al., 1998) may together

control the transition to S phase to begin endoreplication. We propose that Hkb promotes SG cell

progression through the S phase, at least in part, through its repression of *E2f1* and *CycE*

expression. In support of this, knockdown of *CycE* partially rescued the *hkb* mutant phenotypes

(Figure 6).

Notably, *stg* transcript levels remain low in *hkb* mutant SGs, suggesting that the abnormal

mitotic entry of *hkb* mutant SG cells is not due to *stg* upregulation. We propose that Hkb

prevents entry into mitosis, at least in part, by downregulating *CycA* expression. CycA acts in the

Drosophila G2/M phases of the cell cycle, where it regulates aspects of the DNA replication

mechanism and entry into mitosis by binding to Cdk1(Pagano et al., 1992; Knoblich et al., 1994;

Yam et al., 2002; Gong and Ferrell Jr, 2010; Bendris et al., 2011; Salle et al., 2012). Loss of *hkb*

may prevent inhibition of CycA-Cdk1 activity in the SG. In support of this idea, knockdown of

Cdk1, or overexpression of *Fzr,* an inhibitor of mitotic cyclins, partially rescued the *hkb* mutant

phenotypes (Figure 6). Depletion of the zygotic *CycA* pool did not rescue the *hkb* mutant

phenotypes, either because of the contribution of the maternal *CycA* pool or because of the

presence of CycB and CycB3, two other cyclins that bind to Cdk1 to regulate mitotic entry.

Hkb may regulate the cell cycle not only through transcriptional control of cell cycle genes but

also by influencing ubiquitination, a key mechanism of cell cycle regulation. ChIP-Seq analysis

revealed that Hkb targets several key components involved in ubiquitination, including *cullin 1*

and *archipelago* (*ago*) (Figure 6A; Table S3). Ago is known to regulate CycE levels in

Drosophila (Moberg et al., 2001). Remarkably, ZnF transcription factors can interact with both

nucleic acids and proteins and are important regulators of protein degradation through

ubiquitination (Gibson et al., 1988; Iuchi, 2005). Further studies will provide a deeper

understanding of the comprehensive mechanisms by which Hkb regulates the cell cycle.

Progressive endoreplication during organ formation

Endoreplication in the *Drosophila* embryonic SG, coupled with invagination, allows cells to

increase the number of gene copies to provide sufficient proteins for morphogenesis. The

regulatory mechanism behind the progressive distal-to-proximal endoreplication in the SG

remains unclear. In agreement with Sanchez-Corrales et al., 2021, we observed higher levels of

Hkb in the posterior region of the placode at stage 10, which became more uniformly distributed

throughout all SG cells by stage 11 (Figure 1-figure supplement 5). The initial difference in Hkb

levels within the SG placode may lead to the differential repression of cell cycle genes,

contributing to the progression of endoreplication. Alternatively, SG invagination in the

dorsal/posterior region could potentially trigger the sequential onset of endoreplication, as

suggested by a previous study (Chandrasekaran and Beckendorf, 2005). We observed a

disruption in the progressive entry of the SG cells into endoreplication when Hkb function is lost.

The degree of disruption varied between samples, with some embryos showing no SG cells in S

phase, while others had a small number of SG cells at random positions along the proximal-distal

axis with weaker EdU signals compared to WT SGs of similar stages, suggesting that they may

be entering a weak S phase (Figure 5). Further investigation of the relationship between

endoreplication regulation and SG invagination will provide a better understanding of how cell

cycle and morphogenesis coordinate during organ formation. It will also be interesting to test a

role for Hkb in cell cycle (endocycle) regulation in other *Drosophila* tissues, and to test a

similarly conserved role for the mammalian SP/KLF transcription factors.

Hkb's roles in cytoskeletal reorganization and intracellular trafficking

In line with previous studies on the cellular forces exerted by dividing (Kondo and Hayashi,

2013; Pinheiro and Bellaïche, 2018) and apoptotic (Monier et al., 2015; Toyama et al., 2008)

cells on neighboring cells, the abnormal cell division and excessive cell death observed in *hkb*

mutant SGs are associated with a tissue-wide disruption of actomyosin and cell geometry (Figure

3). Our data show that the centralized invagination phenotype results primarily from excessive

cell death (Figure 2 and Figure 3). However, dividing cells, particularly those near the SG

boundary, may contribute to this phenotype by undergoing cell surface area expansion during

cell division, increasing the number of cells with larger apical areas along the SG boundary

(Figure 4).

Based on Hkb ChIP-Seq targets, we propose that Hkb also plays an active role in regulating

cytoskeletal organization through transcriptional regulation of key cytoskeletal regulators. Hkb

targets include key Rho signaling components and their regulators, such as the small GTPases

Rho1 and Rac1, and several RhoGEFs, including RhoGEF2, a key activator of Rho signaling

during epithelial morphogenesis (Barrett et al., 1997) (Figure 6A; Table S3). We also propose a

critical role for Hkb in regulating intracellular trafficking. Supporting previous research on

Hkb's role in regulating Klar, an important regulator of intracellular trafficking (Myat and

Andrew, 2002), our data show that Rab11 is mislocalized basally in *hkb* mutant SGs (Figure 2-

figure supplement 2). Multiple endocytic components, including *βCOP*, *AP-1-2β*, *AP-2α*, and

Nuf, as well as several Rab GTPases, including *Rab4*, *Rab10*, *Rab27*, and *Rab30*, were also

identified as Hkb ChIP-Seq targets (Figure 6A; Table S3), providing further evidence for the

involvement of Hkb in intracellular trafficking. The initial difference in Hkb levels in the SG

placode may lead to differential expression of these genes, which could contribute to normal

invagination positioning.

In conclusion, we have uncovered a role for the Hkb transcription factor in regulating

endoreplication and preventing abnormal cell cycle progression during epithelial tube formation.

Our findings provide valuable insights into a critical mechanism for coordinating cell cycle

regulation and morphogenesis during organ formation.

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Figure 1. Generation of new *hkb* alleles and fluorescent knock-in lines reveals its function

and tissue-specific localization during SG morphogenesis. (A) Top cartoon diagram: Anterior

region of stage 11 and 15 *Drosophila* embryos. SGs shown in yellow. Brown area, clustered

apical constriction of SG cells during invagination. Black, invagination pit. Arrowheads, salivary

duct. Bottom cartoon diagram: Lateral view of SG at stages 11 and 15. Orange circles, SG cell

nuclei. Gray, SG lumen. (B) Top cartoon diagram: *hkb* transcript displayed with coding exon in

green and gRNAs used for *hkb* alleles and mCh knock-in lines. Bottom: Hkb protein structures

produced in each allele and knock-in lines. In *hkb^{121}*, two amino acids (N237 and E238) are

substituted with K237 (asterisk). In *hkb^{351}* and *hkb^{391}*, a short N-terminal region of the Hkb

protein (green) is followed by random amino acid sequences (blue) due to a frameshift. *hkb*

mRNA with the premature stop codon in *hkb^351^* might be degraded by nonsense-mediated

mRNA decay. ZnF, zinc finger domain. (C-E) 3D reconstruction of the confocal images of

invaginating SGs immunolabeled with Ecad and CrebA. Asterisks, invagination pit. (F-G')

Confocal images of stage 11 SGs immunostained for mCh (green), CrebA (magenta), and Ecad

(cyan). (H-J) Heat maps showing apical area distribution in invaginating SGs. White lines, SG

boundary determined by SG-specific CrebA signals. Yellow asterisks, invagination pits. (H'-J')

Scatter plots showing the relative position of cells in the SG placode. X and Y axes represent the

distance along the A/P and D/V axes, respectively, from the center of the placode. Cells in the

bottom 30% of the apical area (magenta) and all cells (green) are plotted (N = 5 SGs from

different embryos (WT, 572 cells; *hkb^121^*, 505 cells; *hkb^351^*, 498 cells)). (K, K') Quantification of

the apical area distribution in the SG cells of H-J. Mann-Whitney U test (percentage of cells) and

Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (cumulative percentage of cells). **, $p<0.01$; ***, $p<0.001$; ****,

$p<0.0001$. (L-N') Embryos immunostained for CrebA, with magnified views (insets) showing

SGs outlined by white dashed lines. Cyan arrowheads, late-stage SGs. Asterisks, defective gut

morphology. (O, O') Quantification of the phenotypic distribution of SGs. n, number of

embryos. Statistical significance determined using two-way ANOVA ($p<0.05$).

Fig 2.

Figure 2. Hkb is required to prevent apoptosis in SG cells to ensure proper organ size. (A-F) Stage 15+ SGs immunolabeled for Ecad (magenta) and CrebA (green). (G) Quantification of the stage 15+ SG lumen length. N=9 (WT), 12 (hkb^{351}), 11 (hkb^{121}), and 8 (hkb^{351}/Df). One-way ANOVA. ****, $p<0.0001$. (G'-G'') Quantification of the number of SG secretory cells at stage 11 (G'; N=7 for all genotypes) and stage 15 (G''; N=8 for all genotypes except hkb^{121} (N=7)). One-way ANOVA. **, $p<0.01$; ***, $p<0.001$; ****, $p<0.0001$. (H-M) Pre-invaginating SGs immunolabeled for DCP-1 (green), CrebA (magenta), and Ecad (cyan). Insets, magnified views. (N, O) Hkb^WT-mCh and Hkb^mut-mCh SGs immunostained for mCh (magenta) and DCP-1 (green). White lines, SG boundary determined by SG-specific CrebA signals. (P) Quantification of the DCP-1 positive SG cells. N=8 for all genotypes. One-way ANOVA. ***, $p<0.001$; ****, $p<0.0001$. (Q, Q') Stage 11 hkb null mutant SG stained for DAPI (blue) and DCP-1 (green). Insets, higher magnification of the red-boxed region. Red arrowheads, fragmented nuclei. Cyan arrowheads, pyknotic nuclei. Yellow lines, SG boundary determined by SG-specific CrebA signals. (R-R'') SG of a stage 13 Hkb^mut-mCh embryo immunostained for mCh (cyan), CrebA (magenta), and DCP-1 (green). Arrowheads, mCh- and DCP-1-positive cells near the SG.

Fig 3.

Figure 3. Aberrant cell death results in centered invagination in the *hkb* mutant SG. (A-D)
Sstage 11 SGs immunolabeled with DCP-1 (green), CrebA (magenta), and Ecad (cyan). (E-F)
Heat maps depicting apical area distribution in invaginating SGs. (E'-F') Scatter plots showing
the relative position of cells in the SG placode. X and Y axes represent the distance along the
A/P and D/V axes, respectively, from the center of the placode. Cells in the bottom 30% of the
apical area (magenta) and all cells (green) are plotted (N=5 SGs from 5 different embryos). (G)
hkb mutant SG immunostained for DCP-1 (green), Ecad (magenta), and CrebA (cyan). Insets,

magnified view of the yellow boxed regions. Z-section along the dotted line displayed below.

(H) Scatter plots showing the relative position of total SG cells (green) and DCP-1-positive cells (magenta) in stage 11 SGs. (I, I') Quantification of the number of DCP-1-positive SG cells in different regions of the placode. (J, K) Stage 11 SGs immunostained for GFP (for *sqh-GFP*). Cyan arrowheads, supracellular myosin cable. Red arrowheads, short cables inside the SG placode. Yellow asterisk, invagination pit. (L-L'') Stage 11 SGs immunostained for GFP (for *sqh-GFP*; green) and DCP-1 (magenta). (M-N'') Stage 11 SGs stained for F-actin (green) and DCP-1 (magenta). Insets in L-N, z-sections along red dotted lines. Dotted cyan lines, apical boundary of cells. Red arrowheads/arrows indicate increased myosin (L) and F-actin (N) signals in the apical and lateral regions of the DCP-1-positive cell, respectively. (L', L'', N', N'') Magnified views of yellow boxed regions in L and N. Yellow arrowheads, increased myosin/F-actin signals at the apical-junctional region of DCP-1-positive cells. White lines, SG boundary determined by SG-specific CrebA signals.

Figure 4. SG cells undergo abnormal cell division in _hkb_ mutants. (A-B') Stage 11 SGs

immunolabeled with Tyr-Tub (green) and Ecad (magenta). Asterisks, cells without Tyr-Tub

signals. (C, D) 3D reconstructions of confocal images of pre-invaginating SGs immunolabeled

with Ecad (green) and CrebA (magenta). Z-sections along yellow dotted lines shown below.

Arrowheads, apically localizing nuclei in _hkb_ mutant SG. (E-J) Stage 11 SGs immunolabeled

with PH3 (green) and Ecad (magenta). (K, K') Stage 11 SGs immunolabeled with Tyr-Tub

(green) and PH3 (magenta). Higher magnification of yellow boxed region shown in K'. (L-L'')

Stage 11 SGs immunolabeled with PH3 (magenta) and phalloidin (green). Inset; lateral section

(XZ; red line). Higher magnification of yellow boxed region shown in L' and L''. (M)

Quantification of the number of PH3-positive SG cells. N=11 for all genotypes except _fkh>_Hkb;

hkb³⁵¹(N=9). One-way ANOVA. **, $p<0.01$; ***, $p<0.001$; ****, $p<0.0001$. (N) Scatter plots

803   showing the position of total SG cells (green) and PH3-positive cells (magenta) in the SG

804   placode. X and Y axes represent the distance along the A/P and D/V axes, respectively, from the

805   center of the placode (N=5 SGs from 5 different embryos). (O) Quantification of the number of

806   PH-positive SG cells in different regions of the placode. White and yellow lines, SG boundary

807   determined by SG-specific CrebA signals.

Figure 5. The distal-to-proximal progression of the endoreplication is disrupted in the *hkb*

mutant SG. (A) Schematic of the Fly-FUCCI system. (B-C'', F-G'', J-K'', N-O'', R-S'') SGs

immunolabeled with GFP (for E2f1-GFP; green) and CycB (for CycB-RFP; magenta) at

different stages. Red arrowheads in C'', CycB signals distributed throughout the dividing cells.

Asterisk in F', absence of E2F1 signals in distal cells of stage 12 SG. Red arrowheads in J', weak

E2f1 signals in the proximal SG cells. Red arrowheads in N' and R', little to no E2f1 signal in

proximal (N') and distal (R') SG cells. (D-E, H-I, L-M, P-Q, T-U) EdU-labeled SGs at different

developmental stages. Blue arrowhead in E, EdU-positive single SG cell. Asterisks in H, absence

of EdU signals in proximal cells of late stage 11 SG. Blue arrowheads in L, P and T, weak EdU

signals in distal (L, T) and proximal (P) SG cells. Yellow dotted lines, SG boundary determined

by SG-specific CrebA signals. Due to the proximity of the two SGs in *hkb* mutants, one or two

821   SGs are shown depending on the orientation of the embryo. dis. denotes distal; prox. denotes

822   proximal.

Fig 6.

A

Figure. 6. Hkb regulates key cell cycle and cell death genes transcriptionally. (A) GO
enrichment analysis of ModENCODE Hkb ChIP-Seq data. (B-G'') Fluorescence *in situ*
hybridization images of stage 11 embryos showing mRNA levels of *rpr* (B-C'), *E2f1* (D-E'), and
CycE (F-G'). Yellow boxed regions shown at a higher magnification in insets. (H-J)
Quantification of the signal intensity of the mRNA levels shown in B'-G'. N=5 (WT) and 9 SGs
(*hkb³⁵¹*) (H); 6 SGs for both genotypes (I, J). Student's t-test with Welch's correction. **, *p*<0.01;

, *p*<0.001; *, *p*<0.0001. (K-P) *Cdk1* and *CycE* knockdowns and Fzr overexpression in

hkb mutant SGs immunostained for Ecad (magenta) and PH3 (green) (K-M) and Ecad (magenta),

DCP-1 (green), and CrebA (cyan) (N-P). Asterisks, invagination pit. (Q, R) Quantification of the

number of PH3-positive (Q) and DCP-1-positive (R) SG cells. N=6 (Q) and 8 (R) SGs from

different embryos for all genotypes. One-way ANOVA. **, *p*<0.01; ***, *p*<0.001; ****,

p<0.0001. Yellow lines and yellow dotted lines, SG boundary determined by SG-specific CrebA

signals.

Fig 7.

Figure 7. A model of endoreplication regulation by Hkb during SG morphogenesis. (A)

Cartoon diagram showing the cell cycle status and progression of endoreplication during SG

morphogenesis. Cells with green nuclei represent cells with E2f1 signals (G phase). Cells with

white nuclei represent cells with EdU signals (S phase). (B) Summary of the role of Hkb in cell

cycle regulation in the SG. Hkb helps to inhibit cell division and cell death and promotes

endoreplication progression through transcriptional inhibition of key cell cycle and pro-apoptotic

genes. Cell death in *hkb* mutant SG may also be caused by DNA damage-induced cell death.

Yellow bars represent cell cycle checkpoints.

Table S1. Fly strains used

Fly strain	Sources and References	RRID
Oregon R (wild type)		
fkh-Gal4	Henderson and Andrew, 2000	BDSC_78060
hkb^{121}	This study	
hkb^{131}	This study	
hkb^{351}	This study	
hkb^{391}	This study	
Hkb^{WT}-mCh	This study	
Hkb^{mut}-mCh	This study	
hkb^2	Weigel et al., 1990	
hkb^{A321R1}	Gaul and Weigel, 1991	
UAS-p35		BDSC_5072
UAS-Hkb	Myat and Andrew, 2002	
CycE^{AR95}		BDSC_6637
CycD^1		BDSC_55125
CycA^{C8LR1}		BDSC_6627
Cdk1^{B47}		BDSC_6643
TRiP.GL00511 (UAS-CycE RNAi)		BDSC_36092
TRiP.HMS01531 (UAS-Cdk1 RNAi)		BDSC_36117

UAS-Fzr		BDSC_91688
Ubi-GFP.E2f1, Ubi-mRFP1.CycB		BDSC_55098

857   **Table S2. Antibodies Used**

Antibody	Source	RRID	Dilution
α-Ecad (rat)	DSHB (DCAD2)	AB_528120	1:50
α-CrebA (rat)	Andrew lab (John Hopkins University); re-made in this study		1:3,000
α-CrebA (rabbit)	Andrew lab (John Hopkins University)	AB_10805295	1:5,000
α-CrebA (guinea pig)	This study		1:5,000
α-GFP (mouse)	Invitrogen (A11120)	AB_221568	1:500
α-GFP (chicken)	Invitrogen (A10262)	AB_2534023	1:1,000
α-RFP (rabbit)	Invitrogen (R10367)	AB_10563941	1: 2,000
α-β-galactosidase (rabbit)	Invitrogen (A11132)	AB_221539	1:500
α-β-galactosidase (mouse)	Invitrogen (MA5-15222)	AB_10980770	1:500
α-mCherry (rat)	Invitrogen (M11217)	AB_2536611	1:1,000
α-mCherry (rabbit)	Invitrogen (PA534974)	AB_2552323	1:1,000
α-DCP-1 (rabbit)	Cell signaling technology (9578)	AB_2721060	1:200
α-phosphohistone 3 (rabbit)	Invitrogen (PA517869)	AB_10984484	1:1,000
α-tyrosinated α-tubulin (rat)	Invitrogen (MA1-80017)	AB_2210201	1:1,000
α-H2AvD (mouse)	DSHB (UNC93-5.2.1)	AB_2618077	1: 1,000

α-Sage (guinea pig)	Andrew lab (Johns Hopkins University)		1: 100
α-CyclinB (mouse)	DSHB (F2F4)	AB_528189	1: 5
α-Crb (mouse)	DSHB (Cq4)	AB_528181	1:10
α-Rab11 (rabbit)	Andrew lab (John Hopkins University)		1:500
α-mCherry (rat)	Invitrogen (M11217)	AB_2536611	1:1,000
α-mCherry (rabbit)	Invitrogen (PA534974)	AB_2552323	1:1,000
α-α-Spectrin (mouse)	DSHB (3A9)	AB_528473	1:2
α-Dead Ringer (chicken)	Andrew lab (Johns Hopkins University)		1:1000
Phalloidin Alexa 488	Invitrogen (A12379)		1:250
Alexa Fluor 488/568/647-coupled secondary antibodies	Invitrogen		1:500

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Figure 1-figure supplement 1.

A
hkb-RA transcript (1567bp)
ORF in blue
ZnF domains highlighted (ZnF1, ZnF2, ZnF3)
gRNAs in bold and underlined (gRNA No.3 near the beginning of the ORF; gRNA No.1 in the 2nd ZnF domain)

GCTCAGTTCGAGTCGAGATCTCGCAGCACACACACAGCTCCGCACAACCAAATCAAGTCCAAAATCATAATCACA
AGTGTTCCATCCAAGTGATTTAGTGTCGCGAGAGAGCAATTTAGACCTTCCATTAAAACTACTGCAAAATGTCGA
CGATTAACCTGCATCC**CCCGCAAACCTACTCGCGACTTT**TCCGACCCTGGGATACTCAGCGCCAGGCGGCGAC
CTCGGCGGCACCCAGGACAGTGAAGCAGGAGCCGGAGGCGATTACCATCAAGACGGAGCTGGCCAGCAGCAG
TTTCGGCCACGACTGCGACGGAGACTTCTCCTCCGCATCCTCCTCTGCGTCAAGCAGCAGCAACAGCAGCAAGT
CCTGCTACGAGGAGGCCCTGAACCACAGCAGCTACACCCGCACTTCCACCCCGCTGCTGGACGCCGCCCCGC
ACCCCGTCTTTTCACACCCGCAGTCGTCGCCGTTGGACACGCACGCCGCCGCCACCGCATCCTTGGCTCCGCC
AAACCAGCACGCTCCATTCCTGTCGGCCGCCAGCGATCTCTACTACGCTGCCGCCGCCGCAGCAGCCGCTGCT
GCCTCCACGCCCACTGCCGTCCCGGGCTTCGGCATGGACCCGTTCACTATGGGCCTGATGGAGCAAGAGTACG
CCCGCGTGATGGCCGAGGACGCACAGTTAAAGGCGCTCAACAGCCGCAAGCAGCGGCCGAAGAAG<mark>TTCAAGT
GCCCCAACTGCGACGTGGCCTTCTCCAACAACGGCCAGCTGAAGGGCCACATCCGCATCCAC</mark>ACCGGCGAACG
CCCA<mark>TTTAAGTGCGACGTGAACACATGCGGCAAGACCTTCA**CCCGCAATGAGGAACTGACGCGT**CACAAGCGA
ATCCAC</mark>ACCGGACTGCGGCCG<mark>TATCCTTGCAGTGCCTGCGGAAAGAAGTTTGGCCGACGCGACCACTTAAAGA
AGCACATGAAGACGCAC</mark>ATGCCGCAGGAGCGCCAGCTGGGCCCGTCCATCTTCGTGCCCATGTACTCATACCT
TTATGGCTACTGAGAGGGAAATCCTGGCGAGCTTTCCCCTTGCCACGCGACCCTGCATTCCAGCGATCTGTAAA
GCGCTTGCACGCTTTAAACAAGCATTACCGAACCGAATCCAACGAAACGAAACTTAACGCCAGCAAAAACTGCCT
AGCCAATCGTGGACAGAACTACCTCAGCCGTACCTGGCGCAATGTGGCGCACTCACCAAACCCAATCTTTGGAC
CTCGACGATATATGCAAATATTGAGATATTTATTTTTTAACGCGTATTTACACTTCCAGCTACGTGACTGGTTATGA
TATTCGGCACATGTGTAAATAATCCCTAAGTGATCCTTCCTCATATGCTAAGCGATTAAGAAATTTAAGAGATGCC
CGGATTTACGTCTAAGTTATACTAAAGCTGATACTTTAACAGTTTTATAAGCTGATCGTGGTTACCAGATACATAC
GATTTATACACAAAATTATACGATCATGGTTATATCTGAGAGTTGAATTATACGATTTATGTTTACAACACAAAATA
CACAAGAAAAACCG

B
hkb³⁵¹ and *hkb³⁹¹* (gRNA No.3 sequence underlined in the WT sequence)

```
WT        ATGTCGACGATTAACCTGCATCCCCCGCAAACC            TACTCGCGACTTTTCCGACCCTGGGATA
hkb³⁵¹    ATGTCGACGATTAACCTGCATCCCCCGCAAACC            T--CTCGCGACTTTTCCGACCCTGGGATA
hkb³⁹¹    ATGTCGACGATTAA--------------------------------TCCCTGGGATACTCGCGACTTTTCCGACCCTGGGATA
```

hkb¹²¹ and *hkb¹³¹* (gRNA No.1 sequence underlined in the WT sequence)

```
WT        ATGCGGCAAG     ACCTTCACCCGCAATGAGGAACTGACGCGTCACAAGCGAATC
hkb¹²¹    ATGCGGCAAG     ACCTTCACCCGCA------AGGAACTGACGCGTCACAAGCGAATC
hkb¹³¹    ATGCGGCAAGGTCT---------------------------------GGAACTGACGCGTCACAAGCGAATC
```

C
WT Hkb protein sequence (297aa; 3 ZnF domains)

MSTINLHPPQTYSRLFRPWDTQRQAATSAAPRTVKQEPEAITIKTELASSSFGHDCDGDFSSASSSASSSSNSSKSCY
EEALNHSSYTRTSTPLLDAAPHPVFSHPQSSPLDTHAAATASLAPPNQHAPFLSAASDLYYAAAAAAAAAASTPTAVP
GFGMDPFTMGLMEQEYARVMAEDAQLKALNSRKQRPKK**FKCPNCDVAFSNNGQLKGHIRIH**TGERP**FKCDVNTCG
KTFTRNEELTRHKRIH**TGLRP**YPCSACGKKFGRRDHLKKHMKTH**MPQERQLGPSIFVPMYSYLYGY

Mutant protein sequence in *hkb*^121 (296 aa; substitution of N237 & E238 to K237 in the 2nd ZnF domain)

MSTINLHPPQTYSRLFRPWDTQRQAATSAAPRTVKQEPEAITIKTELASSSFGHDCDGDFSSASSSASSSSNSSKSCY
EEALNHSSYTRTSTPLLDAAPHPVFSHPQSSPLDTHAAATASLAPPNQHAPFLSAASDLYYAAAAAAAAAASTPTAVP
GFGMDPFTMGLMEQEYARVMAEDAQLKALNSRKQRPKK**FKCPNCDVAFSNNGQLKGHIRIH**TGERP**FKCDVNTCG
KTFTR**K**ELTRHKRIH**TGLRP**YPCSACGKKFGRRDHLKKHMKTH**MPQERQLGPSIFVPMYSYLYGY

Truncated protein sequence in *hkb*^131 (235 aa; 1 ZnF domain)

MSTINLHPPQTYSRLFRPWDTQRQAATSAAPRTVKQEPEAITIKTELASSSFGHDCDGDFSSASSSASSSSNSSKSCY
EEALNHSSYTRTSTPLLDAAPHPVFSHPQSSPLDTHAAATASLAPPNQHAPFLSAASDLYYAAAAAAAAAASTPTAVP
GFGMDPFTMGLMEQEYARVMAEDAQLKALNSRKQRPKK**FKCPNCDVAFSNNGQLKGHIRIH**TGERPFKCDVNTCG
KVWN

Truncated protein sequence in *hkb*^351 (33 aa; no ZnF domains)

MSTINLHPPQTSRDFSDPGILSARRRPRRHPGQ

Mutant protein sequence in *hkb*^391 (219 aa; No ZnF domains; only the first 5 aa is the same as WT (underlined))

<u>MSTIN</u>PWDTATFPTLGYSAPGGDLGGTQDSEAGAGGDYHQDGAGQQQFRPRLRRRLLLRILLCVKQQQQQQVLLR
GGPEPQQLHPFHPAAGRRPAPRLFTPAVVAVGHARRRHRILGSAKPARSIPVGRQRSLLRCRRRSSRCCLHAHCR
PGLRHGPVHYGPDGARVRPRDGRGRTVKGAQQPQAAAEEVQVPQLRRGLLQQRPAEGPHPHPHRRTPI

Figure 1-figure supplement 1. Indels of the CRISPR/Cas9 *hkb* alleles and predicted protein sequences for each allele. (A) The nucleotide sequence of the *hkb-RA* transcript. The open reading frame (ORF) is marked in blue. Three ZnF domains are highlighted in green (ZnF1), yellow (ZnF2), and magenta (ZnF3), respectively. Two gRNA sequences used to create *hkb* alleles are indicated in bold and underlined. (B) CRISPR/Cas9-induced indels in *hkb* mutants. Nucleotides deleted and inserted in each mutant are indicated by dashed lines and red letters, respectively. (C) Sequences of the WT Hkb protein and predicted proteins in each *hkb* mutant.

Figure 1-figure supplement 2

Figure 1-figure supplement 2. Hkb^wt-mCh and Hkb^mut-mCh signals during embryonic development. (A-T'') Hkb^wt-mCh (A-I'') and Hkb^mut-mCh (J-T'') expression patterns in embryos at different stages. Yellow boxed regions in A'-T' are shown in higher magnification in A''-T''. SGs are outlined by red dotted lines in M''-T''. (A-A'') At stage 5, Hkb^wt-mCh signals localize to the nuclei of the cells at the anterior and posterior poles of the embryo. (B-B'') At stage 7, Hkb^wt-mCh signals are seen in the nuclei of the anterior region and in the posterior midgut of the embryo. (C-D'') At stage 10, strong nuclear Hkb^wt-mCh signals are seen along the CNS and in the posterior region of the SG of the embryo. mCherry signals localize to the nuclei of the cells. (C-C'') Lateral view. (D-D'') Dorsal view. (E-F'') At stage 11, strong nuclear Hkb^wt-mCh signals are seen in all SG cells. (G-G'') At stage 12, Hkb^wt-mCh signals are significantly reduced in SG nuclei, while mCh signals are consistently high in CNS cells. (H-H'') At stage 13, very low levels of Hkb^wt-mCh signals are seen in SG nuclei. (I-I'') At stage 14, Hkb^wt-mCh signals of SG nuclei are reduced to almost undetectable levels. (J-T'') Hkb^mut-Ch signals are seen throughout the cell. (J-J'') mCh signals in Hkb^mut-mCh/+ heterozygous embryo at stage 16. mCh signals persist in the SG. (M-T'') mCh signals in Hkb^mut-mCh homozygous embryos. mCh signals persist in the SG throughout embryogenesis and are seen throughout the cell.

Figure 1-figure supplement 3. Quantification of apical areas in the pre-invaginating SG of WT and *hkb* mutant embryos. (A-C) Three-dimensional reconstruction of confocal images of pre-invaginating SGs immunolabeled with Ecad and CrebA. (D-F) Heat maps of apical area distribution in pre-invaginating SGs. (D'-F') Scatter plots showing the relative position of total SG cells (green) and cells with small apical areas (magenta). The X and Y axes represent the distance along the A/P and D/V axes, respectively, from the center of the placode. Cells in the bottom 30% of the apical area (magenta) and all cells (green) are plotted. N=7 SGs (WT, 932 cells; *hkb*^{121}, 727 cells; *hkb*^{351}, 864 cells) (G, G') Quantification of apical area distribution in SG cells before invagination. Mann-Whitney U test (percentage of cells) and Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (cumulative percentage of cells). **, *p*<0.01; ****, *p*<0.0001.

Figure 1-figure supplement 4. SG phenotypes in different *hkb* alleles. (A-H') Stage 12 (A-E; lateral) and stage 15+ (A'-H'; ventral) embryos immunostained for CrebA. The insets show a magnified view of the region in the white rectangles, with the SG outlined by white dashed lines. Cyan arrowheads, SGs in stage 15+ embryos. Asterisks, defective gut morphology. (I, I') Quantification of the SG phenotypic distribution at stage 12 (I) and stage 15 (I'). The number of embryos used is indicated below each genotype. Statistical significance was calculated by two-way ANOVA. *p*<0.05.

Figure 1-figure supplement 5. *hkb* mutants show short salivary duct phenotypes with reduced cell numbers and cell intercalation defects. (A-D') 3D reconstruction of the confocal images of stage 15+ SGs immunolabeled with Ecad (green) and CrebA (magenta). Arrows, common duct. Arrowheads, individual duct. (E-E') Confocal images of stage 11 SGs immunolabeled with α-spectrin (cyan; lateral membrane), CrebA (magenta), and DCP-1 (green).

Yellow dotted lines, SG duct cells. Yellow arrowhead, DCP-1-positive duct cell. (F-G'') 3D reconstruction of the confocal images of stage 15+ SGs immunolabeled with Dri (green), CrebA (magenta), and Ecad (cyan). (H) Quantification of ductal cell number. N=7. Statistical significance was calculated by Student's t-test. **, $p<0.01$. (I) Quantification of DCP-1-positive duct cells. N=6 (WT); 5 (hkb^{351}). Statistical significance was calculated by Student's t-test. *, $p<0.05$. (J-K') Confocal images of SGs immunolabeled with Ecad (magenta) and Dri (green). Z-sections along the yellow dashed lines in H and I are shown as insets. Yellow boxed regions in H' and I' are shown at higher magnification, with the boundary of each salivary duct cell marked with yellow lines. (L-M') Confocal images of SGs immunolabeled with mCh (green), CrebA (magenta), and Ecad (Cyan). Yellow line, duct cells.

Figure 2-figure supplement 1. DCP-1 signals in late stage SGs and other regions of *hkb* mutant embryos. (A-C') Confocal images of SGs in stage 12 WT and *hkb* mutant embryos immunostained for α-Spec (green) and DCP-1 (magenta). Yellow dotted lines, SG boundary. Arrowheads in B' and C', DCP-1 signals in the cells within the SG placode. (D-E'') Confocal images of SGs in stage 14 and 15 Hkb^mut-mCh embryos stained for mCh and Ecad (cyan), CrebA (magenta), and DCP-1 (green). Arrows in J'', DCP-1-positive cells near the SG at stage 14. (F-H') Confocal images of SGs in stage 13 WT and *hkb* mutants immunostained for α-Spec (green) and DCP-1 (magenta). Yellow dotted lines, SG boundary. Arrows in G', DCP-1 signals near the SG placode. (I-K'') Confocal images of stage 11 embryos immunostained for Ecad and mCh (cyan), CrebA (magenta), and DCP-1 (green). Hkb^mut-mCh embryos show increased DCP-1 signals in other regions of the embryo compared to Hkb^WT-mCh embryos, with a greater increase in the head region (red arrowheads) and posterior region (cyan arrowheads in I'').

Figure 2-figure supplement 2.

Figure 2-figure supplement 2. Overexpression of Hkb or p35 rescues *hkb* mutant SG phenotypes. (A-I) Embryos stained for CrebA. WT (A), *hkb* mutant (B, C), overexpression of Hkb (C-E) or p35 (F-I) in the SG using the *fkh-Gal4* driver in the *hkb* mutant background results in a range of the phenotypes consisting mostly of fully elongated SGs as in WT (C, F), some SGs of intermediate length (D, G), and a few SGs with a very short/rounded phenotype as in *hkb* null mutants (H). Some embryos also show severe morphological defects (E, I). (J-K) Quantification of embryonic (J) and SG (K) morphology. N=25 (WT), 30 (*hkb*³⁵¹), 29 (*fkh>Hkb*; *hkb*³⁵¹), 92 (*fkh>p35*; *hkb*³⁵¹).

Figure 2-figure supplement 3.

Figure 2-figure supplement 3. *hkb* mutant SGs have a smaller apical domain size with Rab11 mislocalized to the basolateral domain. (A-D) Confocal images of SGs in stage 15 embryos immunostained for Ecad. Apical domains in the yellow boxed regions are shown at higher magnification. (E) Quantification of the apical area of individual SG cells. (F, G) Confocal images of SGs in stage 15 embryos immunostained for Rab11. Magenta boxed regions are shown at higher magnification. Yellow dotted lines, basal boundary of the SG. Red arrowheads, small punctate Rab11 signals often observed in the basolateral region of SG cells in *hkb* mutants.

Figure 5-figure supplement 1.

Figure 5-figure supplement 1. EdU signals during mid to late embryogenesis in WT and
hkb **mutant embryos.** (A-I) Confocal images of WT (A-E) and *hkb* mutant (F-I) embryos pulsed
and labeled for EdU (green) and immunolabeled for CrebA (magenta). Insets, higher
magnification images for the regions highlighted with the yellow boxes. Arrowheads, cells with
EdU signals.

Figure 6-figure supplement 1. Expression levels of key cell cycle and cell death genes. (A-L') Confocal images of embryos from fluorescence *in situ* hybridization experiment showing mRNA levels of *rpr* at stage 12-13 (A-D'), *E2f1* at stage 12 (E-F'), *CycE* at stage 12 (G-H'), *CycA* at stage 11 (I-J'), and *stg* at stage 11 of embryogenesis (K-L'). (A-D') At stage 12, compared to the ubiquitously low level of *rpr* in WT SGs, a few SG cells maintain high levels of *rpr* (yellow arrowheads). At stage 13, *rpr* transcript levels are very low in the SG of both genotypes. (E-F') In WT SGs, *E2F1* mRNA shows basal levels comparable to neighboring cells. In *hkb* mutant SGs, *E2F1* transcript levels are slightly higher than in neighboring cells. (G-H') In WT SGs, *CycE* levels are not significantly higher than the neighboring cells at stage 12, and in *hkb* mutant SGs, *CycE* mRNA levels are slightly elevated and comparable to neighboring cells. (I-J') In WT SGs, *CycA* shows placode-wide underexpression. In *hkb* mutants, *CycA* mRNA levels are significantly elevated in some SG cells (red arrowheads). (K-L') Compared to most ventral epidermal tissues, *stg* is downregulated in both WT and *hkb* mutant SGs at stage 11. (M) Quantification of *stg* levels in WT and *hkb* mutant SGs. N=5 (WT), 6 (*hkb^{351}*). Statistical analysis was performed using Student's t-test with Welch's correction. Red boxes indicate the

SG regions at higher magnification shown as insets in A'-L'. Yellow dotted lines indicate the SG boundary.

Figure 6-figure supplement 2.

Figure 6-figure supplement 2. γ-H2Av signals are increased in *hkb* mutant SGs at stage 11.
(A-B') Confocal images of SGs in WT (A-A') and *hkb* mutant (B-B') embryos immunostained
for CrebA (magenta) and γ-H2Av (green). *hkb* mutant SGs show an increase in γ-H2Av signals
in the entire placode compared to WT. Yellow lines, SG boundary.

Figure 6-figure supplement 3. Genetic inhibition of the function of key cell cycle genes is sufficient to suppress cell death and cell division in *hkb* mutants. (A-G) SGs in stage 11 embryos of WT and mutants for *hkb* and several key cell cycle genes, immunostained for Ecad (magenta) and PH3 (green). Single mutants for *CycA*, *CycD*, *CycE*, and *Cdk1* have relatively normal SG morphology, with few SG cells expressing PH3 (green) in *CycD* and *CycE* mutants. *Cdk2* mutant embryos have severe morphological defects, including significantly fewer SG cells. (H-I') SGs in stage 11 embryos double mutant for *Cdk2* and *hkb* (H) and *CycA* and *hkb* (I-I'). *Cdk2 hkb* double mutant embryos show severe morphological defects similar to *Cdk2* single mutant embryos, with significantly reduced SG cell numbers. *CycA hkb* double mutants show the same range of phenotypes as *hkb* mutants, including the centralized invagination phenotype and small SG at later embryonic stages. (J-O) Confocal images of SGs at stage 11 embryos double mutant for *CycE* and *hkb* (J, L), *Cdk1* and *hkb* (K, M), or overexpression of p35 and Fzr in the *hkb* mutant SG using the fkh-Gal4 driver (N, O). (J, K, N) Embryos immunostained for PH3 (green), Ecad (J, K; magenta) or Crb (N; magenta). (L, M, O) Embryos are immunostained for

CrebA (magenta), DCP-1 (green), and Ecad (L, M; cyan) or Crumbs (O; cyan). (P-Q) Quantification of the number of PH3-positive (P) and DCP-1-positive SG cells (Q) at stage 11. (P) N= 12 SGs for all genotypes except for *fkh>p35, Fzr; hkb*^{351} (7 SGs). (Q) N=8 SGs (for all genotypes except for *fkh>p35, Fzr; hkb*^{351} (6 SGs). Statistical significance was calculated using a one-way ANOVA test with multiple comparisons. ****, $p<0.0001$.

Figure 6-figure supplement 4. Inhibition of cell division or cell death partially rescues the SG phenotypes of *hkb* mutants. (A-Z) Embryos stained for CrebA. Overexpression of Hkb (D-F) or p35 (G-J) as well as knockdown of *CycE* (K-N), *Cdk1* (O-R), overexpression of Fzr (S-V), or overexpression of both Fzr and p35 (W-Z) in *hkb* mutant SGs using the *fkh-Gal4* driver results in a range of rescue effects, including fully elongated SGs as in WT (A, D, G, K, O, S, W), SGs of intermediate length (B, E, H, L, P, T, X), SGs with a very short/rounded phenotype as in *hkb* null mutants (C, I, M, Q, U, Y). Some embryos also show severe morphological defects (F, J, N, R, V, Z). (AB) Quantification of SG morphology. Embryos with normal morphology (AB) as shown in A-C, D-E, G-I, K-M, O-Q, S-U, and W-Y were used for quantification. Note that the quantification for WT, *hkb³⁵¹*, *fkh>Hkb; hkb³⁵¹*, and *fkh>p35; hkb³⁵¹* is the same as shown in Figure 2-figure supplement 2. N=25 (WT), 30 (*hkb³⁵¹*), 29 (*fkh>Hkb; hkb³⁵¹*), 92 (*fkh>p35; hkb³⁵¹*), 68 (*fkh>Cdk1RNAi; hkb³⁵¹*), 35 (*fkh>CycERNAi; hkb³⁵¹*), and 60 (*fkh>Fzr; hkb³⁵¹*), and 86 (*fkh>p35, Fzr; hkb³⁵¹*) embryos. Statistical significance was calculated by two-way ANOVA.