The functional evolution of collembolan Ubx on the regulation of abdominal appendage formation

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Abstract

Folsomia candida is a tiny soil-living arthropod belonging to the Collembola, which represents one of the basal hexapods and serves as an outgroup lineage to Insecta. It possesses three abdominal appendages: the ventral tube located in the first abdominal segment (A1), the retinaculum in A3 and the furca in A4, which are morphologically distinctive to the thorax limbs. Collembolan Ubx and AbdA are responsible for specifying their abdominal appendages; however, they are unable to repress the expression of the appendage marker gene *Dll*. To date, the genes involved in appendage formation during collembolan embryogenesis and the mechanisms by which Ubx and AbdA regulate *Dll* transcription and subsequently regulate appendage development remain unknown. In this study, we analysed the developmental transcriptomes of *F. candida* and identified 36 candidate genes that may be involved in appendage formation, including *Ubx* (*FcUbx*). Furthermore, via electrophoretic mobility shift assays and dual luciferase assays, we found that the binding and repression capacity of FcUbx on *Drosophila Dll* resembles those of the longest isoform of *Drosophila* Ubx (DmUbx_Ib), while the regulatory mechanism of the C-terminus of FcUbx on *Dll* repression is similar to that of crustacean *Artemia franciscana* Ubx (AfUbx), demonstrating that the function of collembolan Ubx is intermediate between that of Insecta and Crustacea. Overall, our study provides novel insights into appendage formation and reconstruction of the functional evolutionary trajectory of Ubx on abdominal appendages from crustaceans to insects.

Introduction

Extant arthropods are traditionally classified into four major groups: chelicerates, myriapods, crustaceans, and hexapods (including proturans, collembolans, diplurans, and insects) (Budd & Telford, 2009; Giribet et al., 2001; Hughes & Kaufman, 2002b). Throughout their evolution, arthropods gradually lose abdominal appendages, particularly insects, which entirely lose these appendages in their adult stages (Jockusch & Smith, 2015; Matsuda, 2017). The establishment of a body plan is regulated by a cascade of orchestrated transcription factors during embryogenesis, including maternal effect genes, pair-rule genes, gap genes and Hox genes (Peel et al., 2005). Hox genes encode transcription factors characterized by a helix-turn-helix DNA-binding homeodomain and play pivotal roles in the identification and appendage formation of each segment along the body axis of arthropods (Angelini & Kaufman, 2005a, 2005b; Budd & Telford, 2009; Hughes & Kaufman, 2002a). Typically, Hox genes are organized in a cluster on the chromosome and exhibit both spatial and temporal collinearity in their expression patterns (Durston et al., 2011). Within the group of pancrustaceans (including crustaceans and hexapods), *Dll* (*Distal-less*) serves as a marker gene for the appendage primordium (Abzhanov & Kaufman, 2000; Cohen et al., 1991; Jockusch et al., 2004; Panganiban et al., 1997) and acts as a downstream target of Ubx (*Ultrabithorax*) (Buffry et al., 2023; Cohen, 1990; Galant & Carroll, 2002; Gebelein et al., 2002; Palopoli & Patel, 1998). In *Drosophila melanogaster*, the Ubx gene generates six isoforms (*Ib*, *Ia*, *IIb*, *IIa*, *IVb*, *IVa*) via alternative splicing events, with variation in the architecture of the linker region between the YPWM motif and homeodomain (HD domain) (Geyer et al., 2015; Passner et al., 1999; Reed et al., 2010). Specifically, the *Ib* isoform (DmUbx_Ib) has the longest linker region, and the *IVa* isoform (DmUbx_IVa) does not contain the linker. Functional assays demonstrated that the longest linker is needed for the suppression of *Dll* expression (Gebelein et al., 2002); in addition, the repressive domain(s) located at its C-terminus (Galant & Carroll, 2002; Gebelein et al., 2002; Hughes & Kaufman, 2002b; Ronshaugen et al., 2002). These structures facilitate

its ability to bind to the enhancer of *Dll* (Dll304) and consequently suppress the

expression of the *Dll* gene (Cohen et al., 1993; Gebelein et al., 2002). In contrast, in

crustaceans such as *Artemia franciscana*, Ubx (AfUbx) loses its capacity to repress *Dll*

expression (Ronshaugen et al., 2002). This functional shift can be attributed to the

presence of phosphorylation sites within the C-terminus of AfUbx, which impede its

ability to suppress limb development (Galant & Carroll, 2002; Ronshaugen et al., 2002).

To date, the evolutionary processes and the molecular mechanism that give rise to the

loss of abdominal appendages in adult hexapods remain elusive.

Collembola (springtails) is a group of basal hexapods, with phylogenetic positions

bridging by aquatic crustaceans and terrestrial insects (Gao et al., 2008; Luan et al.,

2005; Timmermans et al., 2008). Collembolans bear three distinct types of abdominal

appendages: the ventral tube in abdominal segment 1 (A1), the retinaculum in A3, and

the furca in A4 (Tully & Potapov, 2015). A previous study demonstrated that the

collembolan Ubx specifies A1 and AbdA determines A4, and they both regulate the

morphological formation of A2 and A3 (Konopova & Akam, 2014). Intriguingly,

collembolan Ubx, AbdA and *Dll* are concurrently expressed in the collembolan

abdomen during the embryonic stage, indicating that collembolan Ubx and AbdA

cannot repress *Dll* expression in abdominal segments (Palopoli & Patel, 1998).

However, the molecular mechanisms of how collembolan Ubx and AbdA interact with

Dll and thus regulate appendage formation are unclear.

To address this question, we conducted an in-depth analysis of the developmental

transcriptomes of Collembola, *F. candida* (Denmark strain), covering embryos and

juveniles to adults. Through this analysis, we identified the genes potentially involved

in appendage formation during embryogenesis, with *Ubx* being a notable inclusion.

Furthermore, we investigated the transcriptional regulatory functions of Ubx, and our

findings revealed that the binding capacity and repression activity of *F. candida* Ubx

(FcUbx) on *D. melanogaster Dll* are analogous to those in *D. melanogaster* Ubx

(DmUbx_Ib) (Galant & Carroll, 2002; Gebelein et al., 2002; Ronshaugen et al., 2002).

The regulatory mode and site(s) in the C-terminus of FcUbx resemble those of Ubx in

the crustacean *A. franciscana* (AfUbx) (Galant & Carroll, 2002; Ronshaugen et al.,

2002). Based on these data, we depicted a molecular functional evolutionary model of

Ubx from crustaceans to basal hexapods to insects in the broad scope of panarthropods

and proposed that the collembolan Ubx might exert its repression function in distinct

abdominal segments in a context-specific manner.

Results

Development and time-course transcriptomes of *F. candida*

The embryos of *F. candida* (Denmark strain) took approximately 10 days to reach the

juvenile stage when incubated at 21 °C (Fountain & Hopkin, 2005). Referring to the

observation of the embryonic developmental stages in *F. candida* (Shanghai strain)

(Gao et al., 2006), the samples selected for sequencing are illustrated in Figure 1A. The

embryos in the 0-0.5 day (E_0.5d) predominantly ranged from the 4-cell stage to the

blastula stage. By 1.5 days, most embryos had progressed in the gastrula stage. In 2.5

days of development, the prophase of the tissue differentiation stage commenced,

characterized by the segmentation and formation of appendage primordia. At 3.5 days,

the appendages began to grow. During the period of 4.5 to 6.5 days, the mid-tissue

development stage progressed, accompanied by the growth and maturation of

appendages. From 7.5 to 8.5 days, in the anaphase of tissue differentiation, the

appendages were fully formed, and the animals were preparing for hatching. Finally, at

9.5 days, the animals were actively moving within the chorion (eggshell), and some

individuals had already hatched. Typically, it took these juveniles one month to reach

sexual maturity as adults (Figure 1A, 1C).

The analysis of developmental transcriptomes recaptured the expression of a total of

25,803 genes throughout the developmental process (Figure 1B, Supplementary Data

1). Transcriptomic analyses elucidated that the relationships of all the developmental

samples were consistent with the observation of development (Figure 1A, 1D, 1E, 1F).

In general, all the post-hatching samples (juveniles and adults) clustered together,

demonstrating that the hatching event acted as a critical developmental transitional

event (Figure 1D, 1E, 1F). The embryonic samples were grouped separately: in the

early stages E_0.5d and E_1.5d, no appendages were observed, and these two stages

were grouped; the embryonic stages E_2.5d and E_3.5d, particularly marked by the

segmentation and formation of appendage primordia, were clustered; and the period

spanning from E_4.5d to E_9.5d, deemed the development of appendages, formed a

distinct group. Specifically, E_4.5d to E_5.5d represent the mid-phase of appendage

formation, and E_6.5d to E_9.5d were identified as the maturation of appendage

formation (Figure 1D, 1E, 1F).

Mining of genes related to appendage development in Collembola

As a group of basal hexapods, Collembola bears three pairs of thoracic legs and

appendages in the abdomen (Figure 1C). These abdominal appendages, however,

exhibit distinct morphological characteristics from each other (Figure 1C). To identify

genes associated with the establishment of appendages, we conducted a Short Time-

series Expression Miner analysis (STEM analysis) (Ernst & Bar-Joseph, 2006) to

extract relevant genes from the developmental transcriptomes. Based on the embryonic

observation (Figure 1A) and transcriptomic analyses (Figure 1D, 1E, 1F), we selected

four stages for our analysis: E_1.5d, corresponding to the blastula stage without any

appendage structure; E_3.5d, representing the early stage of appendage development,

marked by the emergence of the appendage primordia; E_5.5d, indicating mid-

appendage development; and E_7.5d, the late stage of appendage development.

The number of expressed genes (RPKM > 0) in these four stages was 15,131, 18,693,

19,114 and 20,841 genes, respectively (Figure 2A, Supplementary Data 1, 2). The

STEM analysis categorized these genes into 50 profiles, among which 12 clusters were

significantly statistically enriched (permutation test, $p < 0.001$). Per the morphological

observations (Figure 1A), the emergence of appendages is characterized by gradual

development, with the transition of gene expression levels from low to high (Figure 2B). Consequently, Cluster 42, which reflected this trend, was selected for further investigation (Figure 2C). Cluster 42 contained a total of 865 genes and 2,318 transcripts, of which 1,229 were annotated by Blast2GO (Supplementary Data 3). These genes were annotated as 10 biological processes of GO terms (Figure 2D) and involved in 32 KEGG pathways (Supplementary Data 3). In particular, 66 transcripts were associated with the developmental process (Figure 2D, Supplementary Data 3), of which 36 transcripts were annotated (Supplementary Data 3). These genes constitute a set of conventional hierarchical developmental genes, including the body patterning gene *Notch* (Kurata et al., 2000; O'Day, 2006); segmentation genes such as *Exd, Hth, and Engrailed* (Fujioka et al., 2012; Kobayashi et al., 2003; Peel et al., 2005); and the crucial body plan "selector genes" (Weatherbee & Carroll, 1999), such as the Hox genes *Ubx*, *Antp*, and *Scr*. Interestingly, this cluster also comprised genes relevant to muscle and actin function, *e.g.*, *MYO1E* (an unconventional myosin-like protein) related to myosin (McIntosh & Ostap, 2016), *Lhx1* (LIM homeobox protein) associated with fibroblasts (Costello et al., 2015), and *FBN2* (fibrillin-2-like protein) linked to fibrosis (Mead et al., 2022). In summary, STEM analysis identified Cluster 42, encompassing genes involved in the establishment of appendages. Moreover, the simultaneous expression pattern of the candidate genes strongly implies their potential contribution to developmental processes associated with appendages.

Ubx showed dominance at the appendage maturation stage in *F. candida*

Hox genes encode transcription factors of a helix-turn-helix homeodomain, regulating pattern formation and playing a fundamental role in the developmental control of metazoans (Ruddle et al., 1994). In general, Hox clusters are characterized by two criteria (Akam et al., 1994; Cook et al., 2001; Pace et al., 2016; Pearson et al., 2005): first, they are serially positioned in a cluster on the chromosome, determining the anterior-posterior axis of the body plan in a spatial collinearity manner; second, their

expression exhibits temporal collinearity, in which the genes at the 3'/anterior end of

the cluster transcriptionally activate first, followed by a progressive initiation of genes

towards the 5'/posterior end of the cluster (Monteiro & Ferrier, 2006).

According to previously reported genome assemblies (Faddeeva-Vakhrusheva et al.,

2017; Luan et al., 2023), the architecture of the Hox cluster in *F. candida* exhibits

genomic rearrangement, with *Scr*, *Antp* and *Ubx* inserted into the anterior region of the

complex. This organization showed that the Hox genes lack spatial collinearity (Figure

3A) (Faddeeva-Vakhrusheva et al., 2017).

A previous study indicated that temporal collinearity of the Hox gene is not found in *D.*

melanogaster (Gaunt, 2015). To investigate the presence of temporal collinearity in *F.*

candida, we first retrieved the expression profile data of *D. melanogaster* from FlyBase

(http://flybase.org) and then compared the expression profiles between these two

species. Our expression analysis of Hox genes in *D. melanogaster* revealed a lack of

temporal collinearity (Figure 3B), in agreement with the previous study (Gaunt, 2015).

Similarly, the Hox genes in *F. candida* did not display temporal collinearity (Figure 3D).

For instance, the *pb* gene was transcribed at E_3.5d, occurring later than the initiation

of expression of its posterior genes *Dfd* and *Scr*, and the most posterior gene *AbdB* was

highly expressed at the early stage of E_4.5d. In *D. melanogaster*, *AbdA* exhibited

abundance throughout embryogenesis; notably, in *F. candida*, the rearranged genes *Scr*,

Antp, and *Ubx* demonstrated dominance, with *Ubx* specifically displaying the highest

expression levels at the appendage maturation stage E_7.5d. This observation suggests

a robust expression signal, implying a pivotal role for Ubx in the developmental process.

The sequence evolution of arthropod Ubx

The regulation of appendage formation and proximal-distal axis (PD axis) patterning

has been widely known in arthropods, with key genes such as *Ubx*, *AbdA*, *Exd*, *Hth*,

and *Dll* playing crucial roles (Angelini & Kaufman, 2005b). In *D. melanogaster*, Ubx

generates six isoforms (*Ib*, *Ia*, *IIb*, *IIa*, *IVb*, *IVa*) through alternative splicing, and the

isoforms exhibit variations due to the presence of an optional linker region positioned between the YPWM motif and homeodomain (HD domain) (Geyer et al., 2015; Reed et al., 2010). It has been validated by functional experiments that both the longest linker region and C-terminus of *Drosophila* Ubx (DmUbx_Ib) (Figure 4A) are responsible for *Dll* repression activity (Gebelein et al., 2002; Gebelein et al., 2004; Ronshaugen et al., 2002). However, the mechanisms by which these genes regulate appendage development in basal hexapods remain unknown. To address this question, we cloned and validated the genes *Ubx*, *AbdA*, *Exd*, *Hth*, and *Dll* from *F. candida* (Denmark strain and Shanghai strain). Importantly, we obtained two complete isoforms of *Ubx* from *F. candida*, which are produced by alternative splicing and vary at the linker region (FcUbx, isoform 1, with a linker, FcU1; isoform 2, without a linker, FcU2) (Figure 4, Supplementary Data 4). Moreover, to obtain more sequences from basal hexapods, we cloned *Ubx* from the proturan *Sinentomon erythranum* (SeUbx) and dipluran *Campodea augens* (CaUbx). To discern the evolutionary trajectory of sequence features, we performed alignment of Ubx sequences from diverse representatives of panarthropods, including Insecta, Diplura, Collembola, Protura, Crustacea, Myriapoda, Chelicerate, and Onychophora (Figure 4, Supplementary Data 4).

As illustrated in the multiple sequence alignment of Ubx across panarthropods (Figure 4, Supplementary Data 4), *D. melanogaster* (DmUbx_Ib) exhibits the longest linker region, consisting of more than 40 amino acids. Nevertheless, the Ubx from proturan (SeUbx), collembolan (FcUbx1, OcUbx), and chelicerate (AlUbx) species displays markedly shorter linker regions, typically composed of only 3-5 amino acids. In certain species, this linker region may be entirely absent. Remarkably, the sequences of the C-terminus display evolutionary patterns. Crustaceans, known for possessing abdominal appendages, their Ubx (AfUbx, DmUbx) consistently maintain potential Ser/Thr (S/T) phosphorylation sites (Ronshaugen et al., 2002) (Figure 4). In contrast, the insects, characterized by the loss of abdominal appendages in adult stages, feature a QAQA domain and poly-Ala stretches instead of phosphorylation sites (Galant & Carroll, 2002;

Ronshaugen et al., 2002) in their Ubx (DmUbx_Ib, DmUbx_IVa, DdUbx, MdUbx,

AmUbx and TcUbx) (Figure 4). Interestingly, in the three groups of basal hexapods,

proturans maintain short, cylindrical appendages on the first three abdominal segments

(Headrick & Gordh, 2009), diplurans possess a pair of cerci at the last abdominal

segments (Headrick & Gordh, 2009), and their Ubx (proturan SeUbx and dipluran

CaUbx) display QAQA domains, poly-Ala stretches and S/T sites. Meanwhile, in

Collembola, which bears three types of abdominal appendages (Figure 1C), the

collembolan Ubx (FcUbx and OcUbx) shows the QAQA domains and a putative

phosphorylated site Ser (S) (in FcUbx) but lacks poly-Ala stretches (Figure 4). These

sequence variations in the linker and C-terminus regions indicate that these functional

domains might play a substantial role in the evolution and regulation of arthropod

abdominal appendage formation.

232   Collembolan Ubx can bind to Hox/Exd/Hth DNA binding motifs

In pancrustaceans, Ubx suppresses appendage formation via the repression of the

downstream target gene Distall-less (*Dll*), the marker gene of the appendage

primordium (Cohen, 1990; Galant & Carroll, 2002; Gebelein et al., 2002; Palopoli &

Patel, 1998; Ronshaugen et al., 2002). Generally, Ubx implements this regulation

through two key aspects: DNA binding and transcriptional repression (Galant & Carroll,

2002; Grenier & Carroll, 2000; Palopoli & Patel, 1998). In Collembola, Ubx and AbdA

are concurrent with *Dll* in the abdomen (abdominal segments 1, 3 and 4), indicating

that Ubx and AbdA are unable to suppress *Dll* expression (Konopova & Akam, 2014;

Palopoli & Patel, 1998). However, the mechanism by which the collembolan Ubx

interacts with *Dll* remains unclear.

To decipher this underpinning mechanism, we initially conducted the electrical mobile

shift assays (EMSAs) to examine the binding capacity of collembolan Ubx to the *Dll*

regulatory element of *D. melanogaster* (DMXR, the repression element on Dll304)

(Gebelein et al., 2004) (Figure 5A). The proteins of two isoforms of collembolan Ubx

(FcUbx1, FcUbx2) can readily bind to DMXR, demonstrating that FcUbxs exhibit

binding capability and that their linker region does not affect this binding ability (Figure

5B). Furthermore, the polycomb dimer Exd/Hth stimulates Ubx binding to DNA and

forms Ubx/Exd/Hth trimeric protein complexes (Figure 5B), indicating that the

regulatory complex of collembolan Ubx/Exd/Hth on DNA binding is the same as that

of the *Drosophila* complex (Mann et al., 2009).

To investigate whether the collembolan Ubx/Exd/Hth could bind to its DNA, we

scrutinized approximately 4000 bp of the intergenic genomic region upstream from the

first exon of collembolan *Dll* (Supplementary Data 6) to inspect the Hox/Exd/Hth

binding sites. Our screening identified a DNA consensus containing the Hox (5'-TATA-

3') (Berger et al., 2008; Ekker et al., 1991; Noyes et al., 2008) and Exd (5'-TGAT-3')

(Ryoo et al., 1999; Slattery et al., 2011) binding motifs, and we referred to this element

as the Putative FcDll Element (PFE) (Figure 5A, Supplementary Data 6). The EMSAs

show that FcUbx1 and FcUbx2 cooperatively bind with Exd and Hth on this DNA

element (Figure 5C), providing additional evidence that collembolan Ubx is proficient

in binding DNA defined as the Hox/Exd binding motif. Nonetheless, owing to the

absence of practical genetics tools in collembolans, the validation of whether this DNA

element serves as the regulatory region of *Dll* in collembolans remains unattainable.

We conclude that the collembolan regulatory trimeric complex Ubx/Exd/Hth can

effectively bind to the Hox/Exd/Hth DNA binding motifs, and the lack of *Dll* repression

of collembolan Ubx does not appear to be related to any deficiencies in DNA binding

capacity. This implies that the mechanisms underlying the absence of repression may

stem from other aspects of the regulation progress.

The C-terminus of FcUbx contains both repression and regulatory domains

Next, to evaluate the transcriptional activity of Collembolan Ubx on *Dll*, we carried out

dual luciferase assays in *Drosophila* S2 cells. This involved assessing the repression

capacity of various proteins (Figure 6A, Supplementary Data 5), including the complete,

truncated, and chimeric forms of both collembolan and *Drosophila* Ubx proteins on the

expression of the firefly luciferase reporter gene under the regulation of the DMXR

element (Figure 5A, 6A, Supplementary Data 7).

Although previous research reported that collembolan Ubx cannot repress *Dll* (Palopoli

& Patel, 1998), surprisingly, our results revealed that the two isoforms of collembolan

Ubx (FcU1 and FcU2) were capable of inhibiting the expression of the firefly luciferase

reporter gene (Figure 6B). This repression capability is reminiscent of *Drosophila* Ubx

(DmUbx_Ib); thus, the linker region is not required for the repression function of

collembolan Ubx. In contrast, the longest linker is indispensable for the repression

function of *Drosophila* Ubx, as the non-linker isoform of *Drosophila* Ubx (DmUbx_IVa)

and the chimeric protein Dm/Fc_L (Linker of *Drosophila* Ubx is replaced by a short

linker GQSYL from *F. candida*) significantly lost its repression capability (Figure 6B).

Gebelein et al. revealed that the truncated form of the *Drosophila* Ubx C-terminus is

partially able to repress *Dll* (Gebelein et al., 2002). In contrast, our repression assay

showed that the truncation of FcU1 and FcU2, which lack a C-terminus (FcU1△C and

FcU2△C), significantly decreased their repression ability (Figure 6B), indicating that

the C-terminus may contain a potential transcriptional inhibitory domain (Figure 4).

Unexpectedly, the chimeric protein Dm/Fc_C (C-terminus of *Drosophila* Ubx is

replaced by a short C-terminus AKADCKSVY from *F. candida*) exhibited a substantial

loss of repression capacity when compared to DmUbx_Ib, suggesting that the C-

terminus of collembolan Ubx (AKADCKSVY) probably contains potential regulatory

or modification site(s) that are capable of regulating the repression function of

DmUbx_Ib (Figure 4, 6B).

Collectively, our results indicate that the linker of FcUbx is unnecessary for the

repression function, while the C-terminus may exhibit both a repression domain

(QAQA domain) and a functional regulatory site (S) (Figure 4). These findings provide

functional evidence on the mechanisms of Ubx-mediated gene repression.

Putative phosphorylation of Collembolan Ubx

Indeed, genes with similar expression patterns usually participate in the same biological process; thus, the mining of coexpressed genes can help to predict the unknown functions or biological processes in which a candidate gene may be involved (Ala et al., 2008; Bar-Joseph, 2004; Bhar et al., 2013; van Dam et al., 2018). To further infer the potential function or regulation of collembolan Ubx, we performed Spearman correlation ($r > 0.95$, $p < 0.01$) analysis throughout embryogenesis (E_0.5d to E_9.5d) and identified a total of 113 genes with 287 transcripts coexpressed with *Ubx*, including the Hox gene *AbdA*. Blast2GO annotation revealed that these genes are involved in diverse biological processes, encompassing DNA template-dependent transcriptional regulation, animal organ morphogenesis, morphogenesis of the epithelium, and pattern specification processes, indicating that these genes widely participate in morphogenesis and organogenesis during collembolan embryogenesis (Supplementary Data 8).

Intriguingly, phosphorylation kinase receptors (*ROR2*, tyrosine kinase transmembrane receptor Ror2) and phosphatases (*Ptp69D*, tyrosine phosphatase 69D; *Ptp99A*, tyrosine phosphatase 99A), which participate in the biological process of protein dephosphorylation, were identified (Supplementary Data 8). Based on the sequence comparison of Ubx and the results of the dual fluorescence reporter experiment described above, FcUbx contains a putative regulatory phosphorylated site (S) in the C-terminus, and we posit that collembolan Ubx may be directly or indirectly subject to the regulation of protein phosphorylation and dephosphorylation during embryogenesis.

Discussion

Genes involved in the development of collembolan appendages

Collembola, as a basal hexapod group, exhibits morphological traits that intermediate between crustaceans and insects (Gao et al., 2008; Luan et al., 2005; Misof et al., 2014). Exploring the evolutionary and developmental mechanisms underlying these phenotypes could provide valuable insights into the terrestrialization of hexapods (van

Straalen, 2021). In this study, we employed two distinct data mining approaches to

comprehensively identify genes involved in collembolan appendage development.

The first approach, the "transcriptome-wide screening strategy," involves selecting

specific appendage formation stages to identify genes that follow the corresponding

developmental pattern. In addition to extensively studied genes implicated in

morphogenesis, such as *Scr*, *Antp*, *Ubx*, *Notch*, *En*, *Exd*, and *Hth* (Table 1), our analysis

recognized the genes *ROR1* and *ROR2* (Table 1), which are associated with limb

formation in mice (Schwabe et al., 2004; Takeuchi et al., 2000). In particular, our

screening identified a LIM gene (Table 1) known for its role in shaping distal structures

during the development of thoracic legs in *D. melanogaster*. Mutations or deletions in

this gene have been associated with structural abnormalities (Costello et al., 2015; Tsuji

et al., 2000).

The second approach, the "candidate-gene focusing strategy", is initiated by focusing

on the pivotal *Ubx* gene and extracting coexpressed genes during embryogenesis. This

analysis not only uncovered the canonical *AbdA* genes (Averof & Patel, 1997; Casares

et al., 1996; Konopova & Akam, 2014) but also identified a series of genes related to

appendage formation (Supplementary Data 8). *DAAM2* (dishevelled-associated

activator of morphogenesis 2) functions as a factor binding and regulating actin, playing

a role in organogenesis, axonal growth, and muscle tissue formation in *D. melanogaster*.

Deletion of DAAM2 results in abnormalities in actin filament structures (S. Barkó et

al., 2010; Prokop et al., 2011). *Lhx1* is essential for establishing the proximal-distal axis

(PD axis) of limbs and specifically regulates the formation of the coxa and femur in

Drosophila (Szilvia Barkó et al., 2010).

These two synergistic approaches have elucidated a set of genes that have not

undergone extensive investigation in arthropods except for *D. melanogaster*. Our

analysis introduces new perspectives and broadens the scope of research directions.

However, it is crucial to note that the transcriptomes we examined were derived from

whole animals, and the identified genes might also be involved in various biological

processes, such as organogenesis and neurogenesis. Further research studies are

necessary to verify the accurate functionalities of these genes during collembolan

appendage development.

The evolution of functional domains in arthropod Ubx

Throughout its evolution, arthropod Ubx progressively acquired the capacity to inhibit

Dll expression in the abdomen of insect adults, consequently resulting in the loss of

abdominal appendages (Jockusch & Smith, 2015). In this study, by integrating

functional assays in collembolan Ubx, we reconstructed the evolutionary trajectory of

functional domains in Ubx (Table 2): (1) The ancestral Ubx in Panarthropoda

(onychophorans and arthropods) exhibited a consistent DNA binding capability (Galant

& Carroll, 2002; Gebelein et al., 2004; Ronshaugen et al., 2002). However, their

effectiveness in inhibiting the downstream target *Dll* varied among species (Table 2)

(Galant & Carroll, 2002; Gebelein et al., 2002; Grenier & Carroll, 2000; Ronshaugen

et al., 2002). (2) In Crustacea, the crustacean Ubx (AfUbx) is unable to inhibit *Dll*, and

previous research has proposed that potential regulatory phosphorylation sites may be

located in the C-terminus of AfUbx (Galant & Carroll, 2002; Ronshaugen et al., 2002).

(3) In Hexapoda, *Drosophila* Ubx (DmUbx_Ib) robustly represses *Dll* expression, with

particular emphasis on the linker region and the C-terminus (including both the QAQA

domain and the poly-Ala stretch), which play pivotal roles in this regulatory process

(Galant & Carroll, 2002; Gebelein et al., 2002; Ronshaugen et al., 2002). (4)

Remarkably, collembolan Ubx demonstrated the ability to inhibit *Drosophila Dll*

expression, mirroring the capability observed in DmUbx_Ib (Figure 6). Nonetheless,

(5) unlike *Drosophila* Ubx, the linker region of collembolan Ubx was not deemed

essential for this repression (Figure 6). Rather, (6) it appeared that the functional

repression domain and potential regulatory phosphorylation sites may be in the C-

terminus of collembolan Ubx (Figure 4, 6).

On the basis of these results, we summarize and propose a functional mechanism of

how the collembolan Ubx suppresses *Dll* transcription that appears to be intermediate

between that of crustaceans and insects (Table 2). Moreover, given the evidence of

characters (QAQA domain, poly Ala stretch and S/T site) in the C-terminus of dipluran

and proturan Ubx (Figure 4), we speculate that the ancestral hexapod Ubx could bind

and repress the expression of *Dll*. However, the scarcity of Ubx sequences in basal

hexapods limits our understanding. Currently, only two complete collembolan Ubx

sequences are publicly available from NCBI, exhibiting inconsistencies in sequence

features (Figure 4). With the advancement of genomic sequencing techniques, we

anticipate that more Ubx sequences could be extracted from the genomes of basal

hexapods. This, in turn, would facilitate the consolidation of sequence features in

hexapods and enlighten the exploration of the evolutionary trajectory of functional

domains in arthropod Ubx.

The regulatory mechanism of collembolan Ubx on collembolan *Dll*

It is essential to highlight that the preceding discourse on the functional evolution of

Ubx primarily relies on the mechanism through which arthropod Ubx suppresses

Drosophila Dll, and the *bona fide* mechanism of how arthropod Ubx (*trans-factor*)

interacts with its respective regulatory element of *Dll* (*cis-element*) remains

underexplored. Previous research revealed that collembolan Ubx and *Dll* are

concurrently expressed in the abdominal segments (A1, 3, 4) (Palopoli & Patel, 1998),

while *Dll* and appendages are absent in the A2 segment, although the knockout of *Ubx*

and *AbdA* did not result in appendages in the A2 segment (Konopova & Akam, 2014).

In combination with our functional assays and transcriptomic analyses, we propose a

model elucidating the regulation of collembolan Ubx in the abdominal segments: the

intrinsic functionality of collembolan Ubx exhibits binding and repression of *Dll*

expression uniformly across all segments (Figures 5, 6). Nevertheless, within each of

the abdominal segments, collembolan Ubx implements its repression function in a

context-specific manner (see the depicted model). In abdominal segments 1 and 3 (A1

and A3), Ubx is likely subject to protein phosphorylation, potentially in conjunction

with ROR1 or ROR2 (Table 1, Supplementary Data 2, 8). This phosphorylation event

leads to the attenuation of its repression capacity on *Dll*, facilitating the development

of the ventral tube and retinaculum. We postulate that the distinctive morphology of

these abdominal appendages could be influenced by different cofactors, contributing to

morphological malformation, such as Lhx1 (Supplementary Data 8) and FBN2 (Table

1). Conversely, in abdominal segment 2 (A2), it presumably undergoes

dephosphorylation by phosphatases Ptp69D or Ptp99A (Supplementary Data 8). This

dephosphorylation allows Ubx to exert its "native" repression function on *Dll*, thus

resulting in the absence of appendages in A2.

Despite the current paucity of available genetic tools in collembolans, the validation of

our model demands prospective experiments and functional genomics. Specifically, the

application of state-of-the-art technologies such as CRISPR/CAS (Akinci et al., 2021)

to manipulate the Putative FcDll Element and ascertain its role as a transcriptional

regulatory element in collembolans. Furthermore, the incorporation of spatial

transcriptomics (Marx, 2021) and spatial ATAC-seq (Deng et al., 2022) to

comprehensively map the intricate context of transcription factors and the regulatory

landscape in each segment. These methodologies will empower us to investigate how

Ubx works precisely, provide compelling evidence for holistic reconstruction of its

functional evolution, and ultimately shed light on how arthropods lost their abdominal

appendages during evolution.

Materials and Methods

Sample collection and transcriptome sequencing

First, *F. candida* (Denmark strain) was synchronized for three generations: some adult

individuals (F_0 generation) were transferred to a new Petri dish (10 cm), a container

with a layer of a mixture of plaster of Paris and activated charcoal at a ratio of 9:1 by

weight (Krogh, 2009). After 24 hours of oviposition, the eggs (F_1 generation) were

subsequently transferred to a new Petri dish for one month of culture to reach sexual

maturity. The procedure was repeated twice to obtain synchronized adults of the F_3

generation. Approximately 300 adults of the F_3 generation were then transferred to three

new Petri dishes for 24 hours of oviposition, and all eggs were transferred to a new

culture dish. Next, all eggs laid by the F_3 generation were collected and transferred to

new culture dishes (5 cm) every 24 hours, except on the last day, when eggs were

collected at 12 hours after the adults had been transferred.

After 51 days of collection and culture, we obtained 51 samples ranging from day 0.5

to day 50.5. Fifteen developmental samples, including eggs (from days 0.5 to 9.5),

juveniles (days 12.5, 19.5 and 28.5), and adults (days 31.5 and 45.5), were chosen for

transcriptome sequencing. RNA was prepared and extracted separately from 15 samples

by using a miRNeasy mini kit (QIAGEN, Germany) according to the manufacturer's

instructions. The transcriptomes were sequenced on the BGISEQ-500 platform by BGI

(Yuzuki, 2015) (Shenzhen, China). All of the raw reads had been published (Liang et

al., 2019).

Transcriptome analysis and gene annotation

The reads mapping and differential gene expression analysis were described in a

previous study (Liang et al., 2019). Gene annotations were accomplished by running

BLAST2GO (Conesa et al., 2005) against the UniProt database (UniProt release

2018_02) (Bairoch et al., 2005). The expression profile was obtained from the data

matrix representing the expression abundance (RPKM, reads per kilobase of transcript

per million fragments mapped) from 15 transcriptomes. The distribution of gene

expression was visualized as Ridgeline Plots in 'ggplot2' (Wickham, 2016).

Additionally, to examine the relationships among the developmental stages, we

exploited principal component analysis, Pearson correlation analysis, and hierarchical

clustering analysis on all the genes and visualized them by 'pheatmap' (Kolde, 2012)

in RStudio (2023.3.0.386) (RStudio, 2020).

Mining of genes involved in appendage formation

The embryonic samples from day 1.5 (E_1.5d, blastula, no appendages), day 3.5
(E_3.5d, early stage of appendage formation), day 5.5 (E_5.5d, mid-stage of appendage
formation) and day 7.5 (E_7.5d, mature stage of appendage formation) were chosen for
mining genes were involved in appendage formation. Short Time-series Expression
Miner (STEM) (Ernst & Bar-Joseph, 2006; Ernst et al., 2005) software was used to
classify all the clusters according to the abundance of gene expression. Genes in the
clusters that were supposed to correlate with appendage formation were sorted out and
then annotated by Blast2GO software (Conesa et al., 2005).

Expression profiling of Hox genes in *D. melanogaster* and *F. candida*

The gene expression profile of *D. melanogaster* was downloaded from flybase
(http://ftp.flybase.org/releases/current/precomputed_files/genes/gene_rpkm_matrix_fb
_2023_05.tsv.gz) (Brown et al., 2014). The expression values of Hox genes were subset
from expression profiles of *D. melanogaster* and *F. candida*. Notably, the *Ubx* in *F.
candida* was fragmented into five transcripts (XLOC_011518, XLOC_011661,
XLOC_011777, XLOC_011778 and XLOC_011779) (Supplementary Data 1). To
calculate the expression of *Ubx*, we computed and accumulated the RPKM of those
transcripts. The normalization of gene expression was applied in two approaches.
Normalized RPKM, the original RPKM was normalized by comparing the minimum
and maximum of each gene throughout the embryonic stages to elucidate the expression
pattern and the lowest and highest expression stage of a gene. Z-score, the original
RPKM was normalized by the z-scale in R (RStudio, 2020), which can reflect the
expression pattern of all the selected genes.

Mining of genes correlated with *Ubx* from transcriptomes

To predict the putative function or the underlying regulation of Ubx, based on the gene expression profile, we used the Spearman correlation algorithm (Spearman correlation coefficient r > 0.9, $p < 0.01$) to mine genes coexpressed with *Ubx* during embryogenesis. The coexpressed genes were extracted and then annotated by Blast2GO of gene ontology terms (GO terms) and KEGG pathway annotation (Conesa et al., 2005; Kanehisa & Goto, 2000).

Acquisition of *Ubx*, *Exd* and *Hth* sequences

The complete sequences of two isoforms of *Ubx* in *F. candida* (Collembola) and the partial sequences from *Sinentomon erythranum* (Protura) and *Campodea augens* (Diplora) were cloned by degenerate PCR from the homeodomain, further obtained by 5' RACE and 3' RACE. Specifically, two isoforms of FcUbx were validated by using exon-intron and exon-exon junction PCR with overlapping primers spanning the linker region. *Exd* and *Hth* were identified via BLAST (Altschul et al., 1990; McGinnis & Madden, 2004) from transcriptomes and further validated by PCR cloning. All sequences were submitted to NCBI (OR593736, OR593737, OR593738, OR593739, OR604006, OR604007). The sequences of Panarthropod Ubx were aligned by MAFFT (Rozewicki et al., 2019), and the gaps were removed manually. The multiple sequence alignment was visualized in Jalview (Waterhouse et al., 2009).

Protein expression and purification

The N-terminus truncated collembolan proteins (Supplementary Data 4), FcU1, FcU2, Exd and Hth used for protein expression were constructed in the pGEX-4t-1 plasmid and transformed into *E. coli* competent cells (BL21 strain). Protein expression was first started from 500 mL of Luria–Bertani (LB) medium (pH = 7) cultured at 37 °C at 220 rpm. Until it reached the exponential growth phase (OD600 = 0.8~1.0), isopropyl β-D-

1-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG) was added (0.1 mM) to 2 L of LB medium. The whole

culture was then subjected to low-temperature induction of protein expression at 16 °C

and 220 rpm for 12 hours. All the GST-tagged proteins were purified in native

conditions according to the manufacturer's instructions (Sangon Biotech, Shanghai,

China). All proteins were quantitated by comparing them to a set of bovine serum

albumin (BSA) concentration gradients: 750, 500, 250, 125, 100, 75, 50, 25, and 0 ng/µl

by Coomassie blue staining and further confirmed by anti-GST western blotting.

Electrophoretic mobility shift assays (EMSAs)

The repression regulatory element of *Dll* (Dll304) in *D. melanogaster*, the DMXR

element (Gebelein et al., 2002; Gebelein et al., 2004) and a putative regulatory element

of *Dll* in *F. candida* (Putative FcDll Element, PFE) were utilized as a DNA probe for

EMSAs separately. Each probe was first synthesized as two separate primers (forward

and reverse), which were tagged with Cy5 at the 5' end. The primers were diluted to a

concentration of 1 µM. Subsequently, 50 µl of each primer was mixed and incubated at

95 °C and then cooled to room temperature. The primers were annealed, resulting in

the formation of double-stranded DNA probes. 20 ng of DNA probe was used in each

EMSA, and the amount of protein used in each EMSA was 10 pmol of GST, 0.2, 1, and

1.5 pmol of FcU1, 0.4, 2, and 3 pmol of FcU2 and 1 pmol of Exd and Hth. The

procedures for electrophoretic mobility shift assays (EMSAs) were adjusted and

visualized according to the protocol (He et al., 2016). The 20 µl EMSA solution: 5×

EMSA buffer: Tris (0.1 M), glycerol (25%), and BSA (0.2 mg/ml). 2.5 M MgCl$_2$, 1 M

DTT, double-distilled water, poly(dI-dC), protein, and Cy5-labelled DNA probe. The

reaction was incubated for 25 minutes at 25 °C. The 12% non-denaturing

polyacrylamide gel contained double-distilled water, 5× TBE buffer, 50% glycerol,

polyacrylamide (the monomer: dimer ratio was 80:1), 10% ammonium persulfate, and

tetramethyl ethylenediamine (TEMED). Electrophoresis was carried out on ice, with

the blank gel pre-electrophoresed at 120 V for 1 hour. Subsequently, 20 µl of the

reaction mixture was loaded into each vial of the gel, and the samples were run at 150

V for 1-1.5 hours. For reaction visualization, the entire gel with the glass container was

scanned directly with the A Starion FLA-900 phosphorimager (Fujifilm, Japan).

***Drosophila* S2 cell transfection and dual luciferase reporter assays**

The complete sequences of *D. melanogaster* Ubx (DmUbx_Ib, DmUbx_IVa) and

collembolan Ubx (FcU1, FcU2), the truncated collembolan Ubx (FcU1/△C, FcU2/△C)

and chimeric Ubx of *Drosophila* and collembolan (Dm/Fc_L, Dm/Fc_C) were cloned

into the pAC5.1 expression vector (Supplementary Data 4). To test for repression on

DMXR, this regulatory sequence was constructed into a pGL3-promoter vector

(Promega), which contains the SV40 enhancer and firefly luciferase. Transfection

experiments were carried out using the Qiagen Effectene reagent (Qiagen, Germany).

Initially, *Drosophila S2* cells were cultured in Schneider's *Drosophila* medium (Sigma–

Aldrich, USA) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (HyClone, USA). After 24

hours, the cells were aliquoted into 48-well plates at 150 μl per well. After 12 hours, 50

μl of ENA-enhancer mixture, 1.2 μl of enhancer, 0.075 μg of pGL3-promoter vector,

0.075 μg of pAC5.1 vector, and 0.2 μl of the Renilla fluorescent vector (pRL) were

added to the mixture, followed by an 8-minute incubation. Then, 4 μl of Effectene and

200 μl of cell culture medium were added, and the transfected cells were cultured for

48 h in a 27 °C incubator. Each protein vector was set with technical triplicates.

The Dual luciferase reporter assay kit (Promega, USA) was used to measure the reporter

gene expression, and the luciferase activities were detected by a Modulus[TM] Microplate

Luminometer (Turner BioSystems, USA). The repression activity of each protein is

represented by the average ratio of Firefly:Renilla luciferase activity. To estimate the

relative repression of the proteins on the DMXR, we compared the repression activity

of each sample with that of DmUbx_Ib. For pairwise comparisons, we performed

Student's t-test in R (RStudio, 2020).

Figure 1 Analysis of developmental transcriptomes of _F. candida._

A. Schematic of samples for developmental transcriptome sequencing and the

observation of embryonic development. Whole-animal collections were made from

embryos (blue), juveniles (grey blue) and adults (grey). The bars indicate that different

developmental samples were collected. 0d (d, days after oviposition): 4-cell stage; 0.5d:

blastula stage; 1.5d: gastrula stage; 2.5d: prophase of tissue differentiation stage; 3.5-

6.5d: metaphase of tissue differentiation stage; 7.5-8.5d: anaphase of tissue

differentiation stage; 9.5d: prehatching stage. An: antenna; AnS: antenna segment; Cllr:

clypeolabrum; DO: dorsal organ; Fc: furca; IcS: intercalary segment; MdS: mandibular

segment; Vt: ventral tube. **B**. Distribution of gene expression of 25,038 genes from 15

developmental transcriptomes. RPKM, reads per kilobase per million, normalizes the

raw count by transcript length and sequencing depth. **C**. Scanning electron microscopy

(SEM) of the whole animal of adult _F. candida_. Vt: ventral tube, Fc: furca. **D**. Principal

component analysis of the developmental transcriptomes. The dashed ellipses indicate

the stages of appendage development. **E**. Simplified hierarchical clustering of all

developmental transcriptomes. The stages of appendage development are shown on the

right. **F**. Heatmap of the Pearson correlation coefficient of all the samples; the dashed

rectangles indicate the relationship of samples.

Figure 2 Identification of genes involved in appendage formation.

A. Venn diagram illustrating the number and percentage of expressed genes of each intersection among the four appendage formation stages. **B.** A screenshot of different gene expression profiles identified by short time-series expression miner (STEM) analysis. The number of each profile is shown at the upper left in the square. The coloured profiles indicated that genes were clustered significantly (permutation test, *p* < 0.001). **C.** The STEM normalized expression of Cluster 42. Values higher than 50 were excluded. **D.** Annotated GO terms of Cluster 42.

Figure 3 Comparison of the Hox cluster between *D. melanogaster* and *F. candida.*

A. Genomic architecture of the Hox cluster in *D. melanogaster* (Refined from Pearson, et al. 2005) and *F. candida* (Refined from Faddeeva-Vakhrusheva, et al. 2017). The distances between genes were not scaled in proportion to the original genomic distance. Dashed lines indicate that the Hox genes are rearranged. **B, C, D, E.** Expression profiles of Hox genes in *D. melanogaster* **(B, C)** and *F. candida* **(D, E)**. Normalized RPKM, the RPKM were normalized by the minimum and maximum expression value of each gene throughout embryonic stages. Z score, the RPKM values were normalized by z-scale.

Figure 4 Sequence comparison of the linker and C-terminus of the panarthropod Ubx

Partial multiple sequence alignment of Ubx across Panarthropoda, encompassing Insecta, Diplora, Collembola, Protura, Crustacea, Myriapoda, Chelicerata and Onychophora. Insecta: *Drosophila melanogaster* (DmUbx_Ib, DmUbx_IVa), *Bactrocera dorsalis* (BdUbx), *Musca domestica* (MdUbx), *Apis mellifera* (AmUbx), *Tribolium castaneum* (TcUbx); Diplora: *Campodea augens* (CaUbx); Collembola: *Folsomia candida* (FcUbx1, FcUbx2), *Orchesella cincta* (OcUbx); Protura: *Sinentomon erythranum* (SeUbx); Crustacea: *Artemia franciscana* (AfUbx), *Daphnia magna* (DmUbx); Myriapoda: *Strigamia maritima* (SmUbx), *Glomeris marginata* (GmUbx), *Ethmostigmus rubripes* (ErUbx); Chelicerata: *Archegozetes longisetosus* (AlUbx); Onychophora: *Acanthokara kaputensis* (AkUbx). The functional domains are indicated. YPWM, YPWM motif; UbdA, UbdA motif. Features of sequences are highlighted in colours. The QAQA domain and poly-Ala stretch are marked in pink, and putative phosphorylated sites S/T (Ser/Thr) are marked in blue. Linkers are marked in grey.

Figure 5 Collembolan Ubx and its cofactors could bind to the DNA elements that contain Hox/Exd/Hth binding motifs.

A. DNA probes used for EMSAs. DMXR, the transcription regulatory element of *D. melanogaster Dll* (Gebelein et al., 2002; Gebelein et al., 2004); Putative FcDll Element (PFE), a screened DNA region of *F. candida*, containing the Hox and Exd binding motifs. The binding sites of Hox/Exd/Hth are shown in colours. **B, C.** Assemblies of collembolan Ubx/Exd/Hth on DMXR and Putative FcDll Element (PFE), respectively. G, GST; U1, FcU1; U2, FcU2; E, Exd; H, Hth. Simplified complexes are indicated on the right.

Figure 6 Collembolan Ubx could repress *Dll* transcription while its C-terminus contains regulatory domain(s).

A. Constructs of proteins used for transcription repression assays, including complete sequences, chimaeras, and truncations of *D. melanogaster* (yellow shade) and *F. candida* (grey shade) Ubx. Dm/Fc_L, the linker of DmUbx_Ib was replaced by the linker (GQSYL) of FcU; Dm/Fc_C, the C-terminus of DmUbx_Ib was replaced by the C-terminus (AKADCKSVY) of FcU; FcU1△C and FcU2△C, the C-terminus (QAQA AKADCKSVY) of FcUbx were deleted. **B.** The relative transcriptional repressive activity of Ubx. The number on the Y-axis indicates transcriptional repression activity relative to DmUbx_Ib. Significant P values of selected pairwise comparisons are shown (Student's t-test).

662   **Table 1** Genes classified in morphogenesis from Cluster 42.

Gene_ID	Gene_symbol	Molecular function
XLOC_013891	FBN2	embryonic limb morphogenesis
XLOC_001350	Exd	somatic muscle development
XLOC_002645	Actin	muscle contraction
XLOC_017923	BMI1	segment specification
XLOC_019142	GATA-3	anatomical structure morphogenesis
XLOC_016846	Wnt16	Wnt signaling pathway
XLOC_022735	En	trunk segmentation
XLOC_011518	Ubx	specification of segmental identity
XLOC_011519	Antp	specification of segmental identity
XLOC_015540	ROR1	inner ear development
XLOC_005027	FOX	anatomical structure morphogenesis
XLOC_013406	MYO1E	microtubule-based movement
XLOC_016945	Notch	anterior/posterior pattern specification
XLOC_011524	Scr	specification of segmental identity
XLOC_009469	Ski	embryonic limb morphogenesis
XLOC_019633	Hth	segmentation
XLOC_007689	LARGE2	muscle cell cellular homeostasis
XLOC_016637	Lhx1	anatomical structure morphogenesis

Table 2 Functional evolution of Ubx.

| | DNA binding | Functional dissection of Ubx on *Dll* repression | | | |
| | | Repression capacity of complete protein | Indispensability of linker | C-terminus | |
				Repression domain	phosphorylation site
AkUbx	+	-	-	ND	+
AfUbx	ND	-	-	-	+
FcUbx	+	+	-	+	+
DmUbx	+	+	+	+	-

Note: Schematic summary of the functional domains in Ubx of panarthropods. +: strong phenotype; -: no phenotype; ND: no data.

The proposed model for the regulation of collembolan Ubx on *Dll* expression

A schematic morphology of adult *F. candida*. The abdominal segments are shown as A1 to A6. VT, ventral tube; Ten, Retinulum; Fc, Furca. The functional regulatory model of Ubx: In A2, Ubx exerts its repression function on *Dll* expression, therefore suppressing appendage formation. Conversely, in A1 and 3, Ubx is phosphorylated, resulting in the derepression of *Dll* and facilitating the formation of appendages. See the text in the discussion for a detailed explanation.

Supplementary Data

1.   The gene expression dynamics of *F. candida*

2.   Short Time-series Expression Miner analysis

3.   The GO annotation and KEGG pathways of Cluster 42

4.   Multiple sequence alignment of Ubx

5.   Truncated proteins of Ubx/Exd/Hth

6.   Genomic sequence of *F. candida Dll*

7.   Dual luciferase assays of collembolan and *Drosophila* proteins

8.   Genes coexpressed with *FcUbx*

Competing Interests

The authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

Authors' contributions

YL and Y-XL conceived the project. YL performed all the experiments and data

analyses and drafted the manuscript. The authors read and approved the manuscript.

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