1

Caspar determines primordial germ cell identity in *Drosophila melanogaster*

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Running Title. Caspar: A Novel Germ Cell Determinant.

Figures: 10

Suppl. Material: 4

Abstract

Repurposing of pleiotropic factors during execution of diverse cellular processes has emerged as a regulatory paradigm. Embryonic development in metazoans is controlled by maternal factors deposited in the egg during oogenesis. Here, we explore maternal role(s) of Caspar (Casp), the *Drosophila* orthologue of human Fas-associated factor-1 (FAF1) originally implicated in host-defense as a negative regulator of NF-κB signaling. Maternal loss of either Casp or it's protein partner, Transitional endoplasmic reticulum 94 (TER94) leads to partial embryonic lethality correlated with aberrant centrosome behavior, cytoskeletal abnormalities, and defective gastrulation. Although ubiquitously distributed, both proteins are enriched in the primordial germ cells (PGCs), and in keeping with the centrosome problems, mutant embryos display a significant reduction in the PGC count. Moreover, the total number of pole buds is directly proportional to the level of Casp. Consistently, it's 'loss' and 'gain' results in respective reduction and increase in the Oskar protein levels, the master determinant of PGC fate. To elucidate this regulatory loop, we analyzed several known components of mid-blastula transition and identify the translational repressor Smaug, a zygotic regulator of germ cell specification, as a potential critical target. We present a detailed structure-function analysis of Casp aimed at understanding its novel involvement during PGC development.

Keywords: Fas-associated factor 1, Germ plasm, Valosin Containing Protein, Maternal, Pole cell, Vasa, P97, MZT, ZGA.

 Introduction
67

As a model organism, *Drosophila melanogaster*, has been instrumental in establishing

and advancing several developmental paradigms underlying embryonic development. In recent

years, it has also emerged as a relatively simple yet tremendously useful model, to analyze the

underpinnings of the immune response (MEDZHITOV 2001; LEMAITRE AND HOFFMANN 2007).

Critically, despite the small size and modest cellular complexity, the insect immune system

shares many fundamental traits with the higher vertebrates, including the humoral and innate

arms and the dialogue between the two (HULTMARK 1993; ADAMS *et al.* 2000). Furthermore,

several factors that contribute to the proper functioning of the insect immune system are highly

conserved and perform analogous functions across evolution (HOFFMANN AND REICHHART 2002;

LEMAITRE AND HOFFMANN 2007).

Interestingly, almost all the protein components of the insect immune system are highly

pleiotropic and involve diverse activities during developmental progression. For example, the

Toll class of proteins belonging to a larger family of pattern recognition receptors are essential

while mounting robust immune response against the microorganismal invasion (BRENNAN AND

ANDERSON 2004; WANG AND LIGOXYGAKIS 2006). The same proteins are also deployed earlier

during embryonic patterning and morphogenesis (GOVIND 1999; HOFFMANN AND REICHHART

2002; VALANNE *et al.* 2011). Evidently, in several instances, different pathway components or

modules used during early development are repurposed to mediate immunity both in the insect

and the mammalian context (BELVIN AND ANDERSON 1996; GOVIND 1999; ROTH 2023).

The involvement of early embryonic morphogen, Dorsal, during humoral response in

flies is a canonical example of the context-specific and diverse functions of immune system

components (GOVIND 1999; ROTH 2023). Pathogenic invasion of insects induces both the

humoral and cellular immune response (BELVIN AND ANDERSON 1996; WILLIAMS 2007). The

humoral response consists of the production of antimicrobial peptides by the fat bodies, which

serve as a first line of defence (BELVIN AND ANDERSON 1996; IMLER AND HOFFMANN 2000). Two

Rel family member proteins, Dorsal and Dif, homologous to the mammalian NF-kappa B, induce

the expression of defense peptides (BELVIN AND ANDERSON 1996; GOVIND 1999; BUCHON *et al.*

2014). NF-kappa B is essential for differentiating lymphocytes, which engineer the acute-phase

response. Altogether, undertaking functional analysis of proteins, in a temporally distinct

developmental context, has proven to be highly informative and insightful. Notably, however,

thus far, such analysis has focused on only activator proteins. Here we have investigated the

embryonic function of Caspar (Casp), a protein involved in inhibiting the immune response (KIM

et al. 2006).

Casp is an intracellular negative regulator discovered in a genetic screen to identify

suppressors of antibacterial immunity (KIM *et al.* 2006). Flies mutant for *casp* were identified due

to their high rates of melanization, an innate immune response that leads to encapsulation of

pathogens in the gut and fat body. Interestingly, *casp* mutants isolated in this study were

resistant to Gram-negative bacterial infections due to elevated expression of the antimicrobial

peptide (AMP) diptericin; consequently, infected flies survived longer than their wild-type

counterparts. Strikingly, *casp* overexpression inhibited nuclear localization of Rel in response to

infection in the fat body. Excess levels of Casp result in the cytoplasmic retention of Rel in its

uncleaved, inactive form, presumably due to inhibition of the protease, Dredd (KIM *et al.* 2006).

Intriguingly, sequence analysis of Casp indicated a high degree of similarity to the

mammalian Fas-associated factor 1 (FAF1) protein (KIM *et al.* 2006; TENDULKAR *et al.* 2022)

(Fig.1A). FAF1 is evolutionarily conserved and was initially discovered as an interactor of Fas, a

pro-apoptotic member of the tumor necrosis factor receptor family (CHU *et al.* 1995). FAF1 also

interacts with the components of the death-inducing signaling complex (DISC) such as the Fas-

associated death domain (FADD) and Caspase-8 proteins (RYU *et al.* 2003). These interactions

are mediated by the death effector domains (DED) in FADD and Caspase-8 and the DED-

interacting domain (DEDID) in FAF1 (RYU *et al.* 2003). Both 'loss' and 'gain' of function

experiments indicated that FAF1 is crucial in promoting cell death via transduction of the

apoptotic signal (RYU AND KIM 2001; DE ZIO *et al.* 2008). FAF1, like its *Drosophila* ortholog, is a

negative regulator of NFκB signalling (MIN-YOUNG *et al.* 2004; PARK *et al.* 2007). FAF1's myriad

cellular functions can be attributed to its multiple protein-interaction domains that allow its

participation in ubiquitin-related processes such as protein degradation (SONG *et al.* 2005;

MENGES *et al.* 2009; ZHANG *et al.* 2011). Consistently, FAF1 harbors a Ubiquitin-associated

(UBA) domain, a UAS domain and a Ubiquitin-like regulatory X (UBX) domain (Fig. 1A).

Furthermore, the N-terminal UBA domain recruits polyubiquitinated proteins, leading to their

accumulation (SONG *et al.* 2009). The C-terminal UBX domain, on the other hand, interacts with

the molecular chaperone, valosin-containing protein (VCP/p97) bound to the Npl4-Ufd1

heterodimeric complex (SCHUBERTH AND BUCHBERGER 2008; KLOPPSTECK *et al.* 2012; EWENS *et*

al. 2014). FAF1 complexed with VCP-Npl4-Ufd1 and polyubiquitinated proteins is known to

assist endoplasmic reticulum-associated degradation (ERAD) (LEE *et al.* 2013). The UAS

domain, a domain of unknown function, is involved in interaction with long-chain fatty acids,

which is thought to promote the polymerization of FAF1 (KIM *et al.* 2013).

While Casp has a well-established role in the immune response, modENCODE RNAseq
and proteomics data suggest that *casp* is also highly expressed in the 0-3 hour old embryo
(BROWN *et al.* 2014; CASAS-VILA *et al.* 2017). Consistently, a snapshot of *casp* staining in a
high-throughput RNA *in-situ* experiment indicates ubiquitous expression of maternally deposited
casp in the *Drosophila* embryo (WEISZMANN *et al.* 2009). We thus wondered if Casp expression
in early embryos is functionally relevant for proper developmental progression. To explore the
possible developmental function of Casp, we first assessed if Casp function is needed for
viability. Analysis of a hypomorphic allele of *casp* demonstrated that Casp is indeed required
maternally for embryonic development. Consequently, roughly half of the embryos maternally
compromised in *casp*, fail to undergo gastrulation. Furthermore, such embryos display
developmental defects including aberrant cytoskeletal network starting from early blastoderm
stages. Interestingly, Casp is expressed strongly in primordial germ cells (PGCs). Consistent
with the enrichment, maternal reduction of *casp* significantly affects the total number of pole
cells. Here, we present an analysis of *casp* function during early embryonic development and
its role in the formation and/or specification of PGCs. We show that Casp activity regulates
Oskar levels and centrosome function, two critical determinants of PGC fate in *Drosophila*
embryo. Upon loss of *casp*, the total amount of Oskar and Smaug changed reciprocally to
influence the PGC count. Ubiquitin-based protein degradation is critically involved during early
embryonic events, including the maternal-zygotic transition. We present a model explaining the
involvement of Casp and its protein partner, TER94, during germ cell development, considering
their influence on the clearance of Smaug, a critical regulator of maternal to zygotic transition
(MZT).
155
156

Results

Casp^c04227 is a loss of function allele of casp.

To better understand embryonic function of Casp we decided to first characterize a *casp*
allele, *w^1118; pBac(PB)casp^c04227* (Bloomington stock number:11373) (Supplementary Fig. 1A;
labelled as S1A). This allele is induced by a piggyBac insertion in the 5' regulatory region of
CG8400/FBgn0034068/Casp locus which is situated at 2R, region 52D14-15 (THIBAULT *et al.*
2004). As summarized in Fig. 1, our data indicate that *casp^c04227* is a strong hypomorphic allele
and is referred to as a 'loss of function' allele (*casp^lof*) here onwards.

Fig. 1. *casp* is a maternal effect gene. (A) Comparison between human FAF1 and Casp shows conserved protein
domains, which are described in the text. (**B**) Embryos laid by homozygous *casp^lof* females show ~70% lethality,
irrespective of the paternal genotype (*w^1118* or *casp^lof*), suggesting a strictly maternal function of *casp* (**C**) The use of
a Deficiency in the *casp* locus validates the lethal phenotype associated with the mutation, which drops to ~40%. In

$casp^{lof}$ adults are only partially homozygous viable as ~70% embryos laid by the

homozygous mutant females failed to hatch into larvae (Fig. 1B). Moreover, the number of

embryos that failed to hatch did not change substantially when $casp^{lof}$ virgin females were

mated either with w^{1118} males or $casp^{lof}$ males. That the extent of viability was independent of

the paternal genotype established that $casp$ is a maternal effect gene and its activity is required

for viability (Fig. 1B). To rule out the possibility that the lethality was induced by non-specific

background mutations, we procured multiple deficiency (Df) lines spanning the 52D locus and

confirmed that $casp^{lof}/Df$ mothers also displayed significant embryonic lethality (40%) (Fig. 1C).

Lastly, as in the case of $casp^{lof}$ females, $casp^{lof}$ males are also semi-fertile which was assessed

by mating the mutant males with w^{1118} virgin females (Fig. 1B).

To better understand the function of Casp, we first decided to analyze how $casp$ RNA

and Casp protein are expressed during embryogenesis. Consistent with the maternal effect

lethality, modENCODE (MUERS 2011; CHEN et al. 2014) data suggests that $casp$ mRNA is

deposited maternally, being highly expressed in the 0-2 hours embryo, with a drop in expression

2-4 hours post fertilization (Fig. S1B)(BROWN et al. 2014). Publicly available In-Situ databases

such as FlyAtlas, Fly-FISH and BDGP (WEISZMANN et al. 2009) (TOMANCAK et al. 2002;

LECUYER et al. 2007) also confirmed maternal deposition of $casp$ mRNA, with ubiquitous

expression seen in stage 1-3 embryos (Fig. S1C). Fly-FISH data (LECUYER et al. 2007; WILK et

al. 2016) further suggests that expression in the pole cells persists while maternally deposited

somatic transcripts are selectively degraded from stage 4 onwards. We immunostained 0-3

hours old embryos derived from w^{1118} mothers with the anti-Casp antibody (TENDULKAR et al.

2022) and found that Casp protein was predominantly cytoplasmic, and as in the case of RNA,

exhibited a relatively ubiquitous distribution in the somatic compartment (Fig. 1D). Again,

consistent with the in-situ hybridization pattern, Casp-specific antibody staining appeared to be

enriched in the posteriorly localized primordial germ cells (PGCs) compared to the surrounding

soma (Fig. 1D, arrow). To establish the specificity of the anti-Casp antibodies in the embryonic

context, we stained the embryos laid by both the $casp^{lof}/ casp^{lof}$ and $casp^{lof}/Df$ mothers. As

expected, Casp protein was nearly absent in embryos of both these genotypes suggesting that

Casp protein is significantly reduced in the 0-3 hours old $casp^{lof}$ mutant embryos. Analysis of

the embryonic lysates using Western blotting, suggested that trace amounts of Casp protein

(estimated 5-10% of w^{1118}), were present in embryos laid by $casp^{lof}/casp^{lof}$ and $casp^{lof}/Df$

mothers, supporting the conclusion that $casp^{lof}$ is a strong hypomorphic allele and not a null

(Fig.1E). Interestingly, mature egg chambers of wild-type animals had Casp expression in

somatically derived follicle cells, but Casp protein could not be readily detected in the egg itself

(Fig. S1D). This observation suggested that, unlike the RNA, only trace amounts of Casp

protein may be maternally deposited. Thus, the protein detected in the young embryos is likely

generated post-fertilization, by the translation of maternally deposited *casp* mRNA.

Casp function is required for early embryonic development.

250    Larval cuticle patterns are an excellent readout for major patterning defects in

Drosophila (NUSSLEIN-VOLHARD AND WIESCHAUS 1980). To better understand the function of

Casp protein during embryonic development, we analyzed the cuticles of *casp* mutant embryos.

0-3 hours old embryos laid by $casp^{lof}/Df$ mothers were collected and aged for 22 hours to

prepare cuticles (see Material and Methods). The cuticular patterns were visualized under a

dark field microscope. While ~60% of larvae displayed cuticular patterns comparable to wild

type larvae, development in the remaining 40% embryos appeared to have stalled before they

could deposit cuticle. These data were consistent with the extent of maternal effect lethality.

Next, to define the stage of developmental arrest, we performed time-lapse live Bright-field

imaging (CAVEY AND LECUIT 2008). These data (Movies, Fig. S2A) confirmed that 40% of

embryos did not proceed to gastrulation and showed developmental arrest before germ band

extension (around stage 6; Fig. S2, panels C4, D4). Such embryos displayed irregular,

uncoordinated morphogenetic movements with blebbing of the plasma membrane possibly

inhibiting both cephalic furrow formation, and germband elongation (Fig. S2 panels C2-C3, D2-

D3).

Compromising casp activity leads to centrosomal abnormalities in early embryos. To

trace the defects during mid-embryogenesis including failure of gastrulation, we sought to

visualize $casp^{lof}$ embryos at blastoderm stage. We labelled the 0-3 hours old $casp^{lof}$ and control

embryos with the nuclear dye Hoechst and the cytoskeletal F-actin marker phalloidin (Fig. 2A,

B). $casp^{lof}$ embryos displayed significant structural abnormalities that are reflected in an irregular

actin network that lacks stereotypical organization, which is partially interrupted in several

places (Fig. 2B1, compared to Fig. 2A1). Similarly, unlike the age-matched control embryos,

regular nuclear spacing is disrupted, and nuclei are unevenly distributed across the embryo with

occasional instances of nuclear fusion and possibly mitotic asynchrony (Fig. 2B vs Fig. 2A).

Fig. 2. A Significant proportion of embryos (~45%) laid by *casp^lof/Df* mothers display nuclear division and cytoskeletal defects. (**A-B**) Confocal images of nuclear cycle 13/14 embryos (single sections) of the indicated genotypes stained with Hoechst, phalloidin, and gamma-tubulin. Both the regular arrangement and uniform density of nuclei are disrupted in the mutants, as indicated by a yellow asterisk. F-actin, marked with phalloidin, shows a regular, hexagonal compartmentalization in *w^1118* (panel A2), while disorganized F-actin (white arrows; panel B3) is observed in the mutant. Defective centrosomes marked with gamma-tubulin can also be observed in the *Casp* mutant (inset of B3, compare to inset A3), indicated by yellow arrows. The extent of defects is quantified in nuclear cycle(nc) 9/10 (**C**) and nc 12/13 (**D**). (**E-F**) Confocal images of sections of nc 13/14 embryos of the indicated genotypes stained with Hoechst, phalloidin, and gamma-tubulin. The nuclear, cytoskeletal, and centrosomal defects are rescued (panel E) when wild-type *casp* is expressed in the *casp^lof/Df* background (compare panels **G-H** to C-D). Overexpression of *casp* on its own (panel F) does not appear to affect nuclear or cytoskeletal architecture. The bar charts represent the percentage of defective centrosomes in nuclear cycle 9/10 and 12/13 embryos. N = 15.

The nuclear and cytoskeletal defects observed in *casp* embryos prompted us to analyze

the centrosomes in embryos deficient in *casp* function. Centrosomes function as the microtubule

organizing centers, and actomyosin-based cytoskeletal defects have been correlated with

aberrant centrosome activity. In wild-type nuclei, centrosome duplication occurs simultaneously

with the initiation of the nuclear division cycle. After completion of duplication, centrosomes

separate and migrate along the nuclear membrane to reach the opposite sides of the nucleus

(reviewed by (LATTAO *et al.* 2017; WU AND AKHMANOVA 2017; BLAKE-HEDGES AND MEGRAW

2019)). In the embryos maternally compromised for *casp*, several characteristic aspects of

centrosome behavior during mitotic divisions are altered (Compare Fig. 2B3 to Fig. 2A3). At

times, centrosomes appeared to divide even without a nucleus (or DNA), and many 'orphan'

centrosomes devoid of nuclear DNA were observed (Fig. 2B3, inset). By contrast, in some

instances, centrosomes were duplicated but remained in proximity indicating failed or

incomplete migration (see arrows in Figure 2B3, inset). Quantitation of the centrosomal

abnormalities in *casp^{lof}* embryos (Fig. 2C, D) further revealed that the behavior of the

centrosomes, especially their ability to separate and migrate to the opposite poles correctly

deteriorated progressively (Compare Fig. 2D to Fig. 2C), as nuclear division cycles advanced.

To confirm the specificity of the phenotypic consequences induced by the maternal loss

of *casp*, we overexpressed *UAS-casp^{wt}* transgene in *casp^{lof}/Df* embryos using *nos Gal4*, a

maternal Gal4 driver. Embryos derived from such mothers were stained using nuclear dye

Hoechst, phalloidin and anti-Gamma tubulin antibodies that mark the centrosomes. As shown in

Fig. 2E, maternal overexpression of *casp* substantially rescues centrosomal and cytoskeletal

abnormalities seen in *casp^{lof}* (compare panels E1-E3 to A1-A3). This rescue is quantitated in

Fig. 2 G, H (compare with Fig. 2C, D). The *casp^{lof}/Df; nos Gal4/UASp-casp^{wt}* showed a rescue

of lethality of 20-25% as compared to 40-45% for *casp^{lof}/Df*.

Taken together, these data showed that Casp plays an essential role in early embryonic

development in *Drosophila*, and loss of <u>*casp*</u> results in conspicuous nuclear and cytoskeletal

defects that correlate with incomplete gastrulation movements and developmental arrest, for

~45% of embryos. Moreover, such defects do not appear to be region-specific or localized

within an embryo arguing in support of ubiquitous function across the embryo for Casp protein.

Maternal Casp protein is enriched in pole cells and controls total pole cell count in blastoderm embryos.

As the early syncytial nuclear division cycles progress, a few nuclei and centrosomes associated with them invade posteriorly localized and anchored pole plasm ahead of the rest of the somatic nuclei (Raff and Glover 1989). The precocious entry of the centrosomes results in the release and microtubule-dependent transport of pole plasm, which is sequestered in newly cellularized PGCs (Raff and Glover 1989; Lerit *et al.* 2017). Thus, the PGCs or the germline stem cell precursors are set aside during early embryogenesis. Moreover, centrosome behavior and dynamics are crucial for proper cellularization and mitotic cell divisions of early germ cells (Lerit and Gavis 2011; Lerit *et al.* 2017). Centrosomes, the microtubule (MT)-organizing centers, ensure the faithful segregation of germ plasm, a reservoir of germ cell determinants, into PGCs. Taken together with the observation that Casp protein is readily detectable in early PGCs, we wondered if it could influence the total pole cell count. To examine this possibility, stage 5 embryos derived from *cs* and *casp^{lof}/ Df* mothers were immunostained for the pole cell marker Vasa and visualized under a confocal fluorescence microscope. Interestingly, while *cs* and *nos-Gal4* embryos had an average of ~30 pole cells (Fig 3, panels A1-B3, for quantitation see panel F) *casp^{lof}/ Df* showed a drastic reduction in total PGC count to ~10 (Fig. 3 panels C1-3, F). By contrast, stage 5 embryos derived from *nosGal4>UAS-casp* mothers, where *casp* was overexpressed (Fig. 3G), displayed considerably elevated total number of PGCs (Fig. 3, panels E1-E3, F). To confirm that the loss of *casp* is specifically responsible for the reduction in the total number of PGCs, we simultaneously overexpressed *casp* in the *casp^{lof}/Df* mothers in a germline-specific manner, which resulted in a significant rescue (~26 pole cells; Fig.3, panels D1-D3, F). Taken together, these data suggested that the total pole cell number in late syncytial /cellular blastoderm embryos specifically depends on *casp* function. Furthermore, increasing *casp* levels maternally, is sufficient to elevate the total pole cell number substantially.

430
Fig. 3. Casp influences total PGC count. (**A-E**): Shown are the Confocal images of the posterior terminii of
nuclear cycle 13/14 embryos of the following genotypes: *cs* (A1-A3), *nos gal4* (B1-B3), *casp^lof^/Df* (C1-C3),
casp^lof^/*Df*; *nos gal4>casp^wt^* (D1-D3) and *nos gal4> casp^wt^* (E1-E3). Embryos were immunostained with Vasa (1:50)
antibody. Hoechst marks the nuclei. (**F**) The total number of germ cells marked with Vasa were quantified and
plotted as bar graphs. N (embryos)= 30. Ordinary one-way ANOVA, (****) P <0.0001. (**G**) Casp protein levels
were assessed in 0-3 embryos via western blotting. Rabbit anti-Casp (1:10,000) and rabbit anti-HA (1:2000)
antibodies were used to probe the blot. Ponceau is used as a loading control. N = 3.
438

Casp interacts with TER94 in the early embryo.

Data presented in the previous section demonstrated that both the 'loss' and 'gain' of *casp*

activity exert reciprocal influence on total PGC numbers in early embryos. As very few germ

plasm components have been shown to display this trait (JONGENS *et al.* 1994), we decided to

explore the phenomenon further. We have previously reported that Casp protein physically

associates with both transitional endoplasmic reticulum ATPase (TER94; also called valosin-

containing protein, VCP or p97) and vesicle-associated membrane protein-associated protein B

(VAPB/VAP33A)(TENDULKAR *et al.* 2022). Furthermore, based on interaction studies and

biochemical analysis, we proposed that Casp may act as an adapter that either directly or

indirectly mediates the physical association between VAPB and TER94 (TENDULKAR *et al.*

2022). To arrive at this conclusion, we had primarily relied on S2 cell lysates as well as adult

and fly head total protein extracts. To specifically identify the major protein partners of Casp in

the early embryos, we performed similar immunoprecipitations using anti-Casp antiserum in

early (0-3 hour) embryonic lysates and interactors were identified via mass spectrometry (Fig.

S3A). Peptides from 122 proteins were recovered in the Casp IP but not the IgG IP and thus,

were considered significant interactors. The top 23 interactors are presented in Fig. S3A.

Interestingly, as in the case of brain and S2 cell lysates, TER94 and VAPB were the top hits,

with germ cell determinants also identified as interactors (Fig. S3C; Discussed in a subsequent

section). These observations suggested that a functional protein complex between Casp,

TER94 and VAPB likely exists in many different tissue/cellular contexts, including early

embryos.

Maternal requirement of TER94.

Mammalian VCP/p97 is an essential chaperone for proteostasis that modulates several

ubiquitin-associated processes (PETERS *et al.* 1990; DAI *et al.* 1998; MEYER *et al.* 2000; MEYER

2005; YE 2006; JENTSCH AND RUMPF 2007; MEYER *et al.* 2012). Its *Drosophila* counterpart

TER94 has been studied mostly in the context of neurodegeneration (GRICIUC *et al.* 2010;

CHANG *et al.* 2011; AZUMA *et al.* 2014; KUSHIMURA *et al.* 2018; TENDULKAR *et al.* 2022;

THULASIDHARAN *et al.* 2024). Loss of TER94 was shown to ameliorate polyQ-induced eye

degeneration. Moreover, the overexpression of TER94 promoted the apoptosis of neuronal cells

(HIGASHIYAMA *et al.* 2002).

TER94 is one of the significant interactors of Casp protein in the embryonic context as

suggested by the Casp interactome (Fig. S3A) and has been implicated in ER-associated

degradation (CHANG *et al.* 2011; TENDULKAR *et al.* 2022). Thus, we wondered if TER94 also has

a maternal function and whether embryos maternally compromised for *TER94* display similar

phenotypes as *casp*. To achieve this, we employed VALIUM 20/22 maternal RNAi lines (*UAS-*

TER94i). First, we used a *mat-α4tubulin:VP16-Gal4* (*Mat-αtubGal4*) driver to deplete *TER94*

activity in the late stages of oogenesis (Fig. 4).

Fig. 4. Maternal requirement of *TER94* during early embryogenesis. (**A**) Viability of embryos derived from *w^{1118}* and *Mat-αtubGAL4 > TER94i* (referred to as *TER94 RNAi* henceforth) mothers is represented as a bar graph. N = 3, ordinary one-way ANOVA, (***) $P < 0.001$. (**B**) Western blot analysis indicates the knockdown efficiency of TER94 in the 0-3 h embryo, estimated to be ~90%. TER94 levels remain unaffected in *casp^{lof}/Df* embryos. Tubulin was used as a loading control. N = 3. (**C, D**) Confocal images of sections of nuclear cycle 13/14 embryos of the indicated genotypes stained with Hoechst, phalloidin, and gamma-tubulin. Nuclei and F-actin are visualized with Hoechst and phalloidin respectively. Nuclear disruption (D, asterisks) and F-actin aggregates (D2, arrows) are observed in the mutant. Defective centrosomes (D3, arrows, inset) can be observed in the *TER94 RNAi* embryos. (**E, F**) The percentage of defective centrosomes in nuclear cycles 9/10 and 12/13 are represented as bar charts. n = 10.

We sought to observe the consequence of *TER94* knockdown both in the adult females

and early embryos derived from such females. In the females compromised for *TER94*, egg-

laying behavior remained largely unaffected. Interestingly, however, the viability of such

embryos was severely impaired, with >95% of embryos failing to hatch (Fig 4A).

A western blot of lysates derived from *Mat-GAL4>UAS-TER94i* mothers probed with

anti-TER94 antiserum indicated a robust knockdown of TER94 as compared to control (Fig. 4B).

Phenotypic analysis of embryos derived from *Mat-GAL4> TER94i* females revealed that >70%

of *Mat-GAL4/ TER94i* embryos failed to progress to the syncytial blastoderm stage, with even

fewer reaching Stage 5. The late-stage syncytial/ cellular blastoderm embryos were further

assessed for cell cycle defects. As in the case of *casp^{lof}/Df*, *Mat-GAL4>TER94i* embryos also

displayed defects ranging from irregular nuclear distribution to perturbed F-actin localization, as

assessed by HOECHST and phalloidin staining, respectively (Compare Fig. 4D1-D3 with Fig.

4C1-C3).

We also examined if maternal loss of *TER94* activity results in centrosome aberrations

like those observed in *casp^{lof}* embryos. Indeed, embryos deficient in *TER94* function showed

both the characteristic phenotypes observed in the *casp* embryos including a) inefficient

separation of duplicated centrosomes and b) multiple instances of 'orphan' centrosomes devoid

of nuclear DNA (Fig. 4E, F).

Taken together, these data demonstrated that embryos maternally compromised for

either Casp or TER94 functions share several phenotypes, suggesting that both the proteins

likely perform essential and likely related functions during syncytial nuclear cycles in *Drosophila*

embryos. Furthermore, the phenotypic consequences observed upon maternally compromising

casp and *TER94* overlap but are not identical, with TER94 embryos showing higher penetrance

in terms of phenotypes and embryonic lethality. Future experiments will be necessary to resolve

the functional distinction between the two.

TER94, a known component of pole plasm, is detectible in PGCs.

Maternal loss of TER94 function mimicked both the cytoskeletal and corresponding

centrosome aberrations observed upon similar loss of *casp* activity. Both centrosomes and

germ plasm, are essential for the proper specification and formation of PGCs in *Drosophila*

embryos (LERIT AND GAVIS 2011; LERIT *et al.* 2017). This prompted us to examine the Casp

interactome for the possible enrichment of germ plasm components and proteins that may

regulate centrosome dynamics and/or behavior. Fig. S3B lists Casp interactors that are

important constituents of the germplasm, including eIF4A, me31B, and TER94, known

constituents of the polar granules (THOMSON *et al.* 2008).

564   Among the different components of the germ plasm, Oskar serves as the master

determinant of the PGC fate (KIM-HA *et al.* 1991; SNEE AND MACDONALD 2004; VANZO *et al.*

2007; LEHMANN 2016). Supporting the conclusion, the loss and gain of function of *oskar* leads to

reciprocal phenotypes. Compromising *oskar* activity maternally, leads to reduction in total

number of PGCs whereas anterior ectopic expression of *oskar* using the *bicoid* mRNA

localization signal induces pole cell formation at the anterior (EPHRUSSI AND LEHMANN 1992).

The germ plasm is supplemented with mitochondria and polar granules, which consist of

ribonucleoprotein complexes. Downstream of *oskar*, *vasa* and *tudor* are two genes that are

essential for the assembly of pole plasm (BREITWIESER *et al.* 1996; ARKOV *et al.* 2006; JONES

AND MACDONALD 2007). Biochemical proteomic analysis of Vasa (VAS) and Tudor (TUD)

containing polar granule complexes identified eIF4A, me31B, and TER94. This indicated that

the germ plasm consists of the components of translational machinery and the endoplasmic

reticulum assembly (THOMSON *et al.* 2008).

577   TER94 is a component of pole plasm and is also physically associated with Casp.

Furthermore, proteomic analysis indicated that Casp could be part of a complex comprising

several germ plasm proteins including Tudor and Me31B. To confirm that, as in the case of

Casp, TER94 is also detected in PGCs. We used antibodies generated against Casp (Fig. S3D)

and TER94 (Fig. S3E) to label wild-type embryos. Embryos were also co-immunostained for

germ cell specific marker, Vasa. As can be seen, both Casp and TER94 proteins are found in

PGCs, colocalized with Vasa.

Casp and TER94 regulate embryonic germ cell formation.

586   As we were specifically interested in investigating possible similarities and distinctions

between the respective functions of TER94 and Casp during early embryonic germ cell

development, we decided to examine their possible functions during PGC formation (also

referred to as pole cell budding). This seemed especially pertinent as centrosome behavior and

dynamics are crucial for proper formation and cellularization of PGCs. Evidently, a germ plasm

component, Germ-cell-less (Gcl) was shown to be necessary for proper separation of daughter

centrosomes in the dividing pole buds (LERIT *et al.* 2017). Similarly, loss of centrosome

components such as Centrosomin results in partial loss of early embryonic PGCs. As maternal

loss of both *casp* and *TER94* results in aberrant centrosomes in the surrounding somatic nuclei

in early blastoderm embryos, we sought to investigate if posteriorly positioned centrosomes in

the vicinity of pole plasm also display similar problems. Indeed, maternally compromising *casp*

led to significant loss of pole buds and corresponding defective centrosome behavior (Fig.5).

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602 **Fig. 5. *casp and TER94* regulate pole bud formation. (A-C)** Confocal sections of the posterior termini of nuclear
603 cycle 9/10 embryos derived from *w^1118^* (A1-A3), *casp^lof^/Df* (B1-B3), and *TER94 RNAi* (C1-C3) mothers
604 immunostained with gamma-tubulin. γ-tubulin labels centrosomes of pole buds, identified based on Vasa staining.
605 Nuclei are stained with Hoechst. The inset(s) for B3 and C3 highlight the centrosomal defects (arrow) when
606 compared with A3. Defects were quantified and plotted as bar graphs in (**D**) and (**E**) respectively. n = 20.
607

Especially these pole buds display defective centrosome separation and/or orphan

centrosomes (Fig. 5B1-B2,D,E), as observed in the somatic nuclei. Intriguingly, while *casp^{lof}*

embryos show discernible loss of pole buds, *TER94i* embryos displayed an increased number

of round-shaped, 'bud-like' cells at the posterior of the stage 3 embryos (Fig 5 C1-C2). Typically,

such ectopically localized pole buds also showed inadequate separation of centrosomes and

could be identified as pole buds due to the enrichment of Vasa. However, Vasa distribution and

accumulation in *TER94i* buds was variable and non-uniform. Since TER94 is required for *Osk*

mRNA localization in the oocyte, the defects in pole cell budding including their ectopic

positioning could be a consequence of inappropriate segregation of *oskar.* Moreover, the early

nuclear division cycles and nuclear migration defects seen in are defective in *TER94i* embryos

could also contribute to PGC formation/ cellularization. Notably, although the pole bud count is

elevated in *TER94i* embryos, presumably, these pole buds don't survive through subsequent

nuclear cycles, and consequently, late blastoderm *TER94i* embryos almost completely lack

PGCs.

Casp activity is needed for the accumulation of Oskar protein at the embryonic

posterior pole.

Taken together, our data demonstrate that change in Casp levels leads to corresponding

alteration in the total PGC count. Moreover, PGC formation is affected by maternal loss of

Casp, although the precise nature of its involvement in this process remains to be determined.

As Oskar is the master determinant of germ cell fate, we sought to determine if Oskar levels

(KIM-HA *et al.* 1991; EPHRUSSI AND LEHMANN 1992) are correspondingly altered upon change in

Casp. To assess this possibility, we stained wild-type control embryos and embryos maternally

compromised for *casp* using anti-Oskar antibodies (Compare Fig 6B to 6A). Simultaneously, we

stained embryos derived from *nosGal4>UASp-casp* mothers (Fig 6C1-C3) that display

significantly elevated number of PGCs, presumably due to excess levels of Casp protein in the

germline.

Fig. 6. Casp regulates Oskar levels and modulates cell division
(A-C) Confocal microscopy images of stage 1/2 embryo laid by w^{1118}, $casp^{lof}/Df$, and *nos gal4> casp^{wt}* females and immunostained with Oskar antibodies. Replicate (1-3) are shown to highlight variable reduction in Oskar levels. In addition, as compared to controls (w^{1118}) embryos (A1-A3), spread of Oskar appears to be restricted in $casp^{lof}/Df$ (B1-B3) whereas it is expanded in *nos gal4> casp^{wt}* (C1-C3).
(D) Volume occupied by Oskar, per embryo is measured and plotted for all three genotypes (w^{1118}, $casp^{lof}/Df$, and *nos gal4> casp^{wt}*), n = 8. Ordinary one-way ANOVA, (**) *P* <0.01, (*) *P <0.05*.
(E) Number of pole buds (nc 9/10) and pole cells (nc 11/12, nc 12/13) in 0-3h old *nos gal4, casp^{lof}/Df and nos gal4> casp^{wt}* embryos at different nuclear cycles. Two-way ANOVA, (*) *P* <0.05, (****) *P* <0.0001. n = 10
(F) Graph showing the distribution of actively dividing pole cells as indicated by the presence of phospho-histone 3 (Ser10) antibody. Quantitative analysis was performed using nuclear cycle 12-14 in 0-3h old, *nos gal4*, *casp^{lof}/Df*, *nos gal4> casp^{WT}* and *casp^{lof}/Df;nos gal4> casp^{WT}* embryos.

Satisfyingly, the change in Oskar protein levels is consistent with the alteration in the Casp

levels in the maternal germline (Fig 6D). Embryos derived from *casp* mutant mothers show

considerably diminished levels of Oskar as compared to the control whereas overexpression of

Casp in the maternal germline results in elevation in the Oskar protein amount (Fig 6D).

652   Furthermore, in all instances, Oskar protein appears to be anchored to the posterior pole as the

653   wild-type control embryos and the only discernible change is observed in its levels.

655   ***Casp levels influence total number of phosphor-histone3 (pH3) positive pole buds and***

656   ***PGCs.***

657   Changes in Casp protein levels influence the accumulation of Oskar protein. Oskar is

necessary and sufficient to assemble pole plasm at the posterior pole which controls the total

number of pole buds in an embryo. To directly evaluate the influence of Casp on pole bud

formation, total number of pole buds and pole cells were quantitated upon maternal loss and

gain of Casp against the control embryos at the same stage (Fig. 6E). Consistent with the data

presented in the previous sections, total number of pole buds (nc 9 and 10) were reduced in

casp^{lof} embryos whereas the number was elevated in the presence of excess Casp (Fig 6E).

Similar quantitation was performed in older embryos in two stages (nc11-12 and NC12-13), and

a progressive increase was observed in the total number of PGCs upon the gain of Casp

function (Fig. 6E). By contrast, the total PGC count for *casp^{lof}/Df* embryos did not increase

appreciably at nc11-12 and nc12-13.

668   Primordial germ cell number is determined by limited mitotic cell divisions that each pole

bud undergoes in a stochastic and asynchronous manner. As these are mitotic divisions, the

dividing PGCs can be identified using antibodies against the miotic marker phosphoHistone3

(pH3). As the total number of pole buds and PGCs change per Casp levels, we wanted to

examine if this is also reflected in the total number of pH3-positive germ cells simultaneously

labeled with the anti-Vasa antibodies. We decided to focus on syncytial blastoderm embryos

between NC12-14. As anticipated, maternal overexpression of Casp led to a corresponding

increase. In control (*nos gal4*) embryos, roughly 20% PGCs display either 1 or >1 pH3 positive

PGCs whereas, 70% of *nos-gal4>Casp^{WT}* embryos show 1 or >1 pH3 positive PGCs (Fig. 6F).

Conversely, less than 10% of *casp^{lof}* embryos showed either 1 or >1 pH3 positive PGCs and

pole cells with 3 or >3 pH3 positive cells were completely absent in this background as opposed

to 25% present in the control embryos (Fig. 6F). Importantly, maternal expression of the rescue

construct in the *casp^{lof}* embryos ameliorated the loss of pH3 positive PGCs seen in just the

mutant (*casp^{lof}*) PGCs.

Does Casp function affect canonical MBT regulators?

Our analysis thus far has revealed two related yet distinct phenotypes associated with

maternal loss of *casp*. First, it can influence proper PGC formation and specification during

early embryonic development via its effect on the accumulation of germ cell determinant, Oskar.

Subsequently, it helps orchestrate cellular movements leading up to gastrulation during mid-

embryogenesis. While the first activity is likely germ cell autonomous, the second relates to its

role in the somatic cells/nuclei. Moreover, both the somatic and germline compartments of

casp^{lof} embryos share centrosomal as well as cytoskeletal aberrations. We thus wondered

whether the two activities are mechanistically connected, and if the possible connection relates

to the maternal-to-zygotic transition (MZT). One aspect of the MZT that has been highlighted in

recent years is the active degradation of maternal proteins (CAO *et al.* 2020). These proteins

comprise 2% of the maternal proteome and are degraded abruptly, at the end of the MZT. In

Drosophila, ubiquitin-proteasome-based degradation of three repressor proteins, namely Smaug

(Smaug), Trailer hitch (Tral), Maternal expression at 31B (Me31B), marks the MZT (CAO *et al.*

2020). We thus decided to probe, using antibodies generated against these proteins (Fig. 7) if

the degradation of any of these proteins is affected due to maternal loss of Casp/*casp* during

the initial hours of embryonic development (0-1, 1-2 & 2-3 hours). TER94 protein is unchanged

(Fig. D1, D2) as is the α-tubulin loading control (Fig. 7E1, E2). Furthermore, pattern of

degradation of Me31B and TRAL proteins in the *casp^{lof}* embryos is relatively unaffected, when

compared to the *w^{1118}* control samples.

Fig. 7. Reduction in Casp activity specifically affects Smaug degradation during the MZT. At the MZT, a few maternal proteins are actively degraded (CAO *et al.* 2020). Embryos from mothers with genotype w^{1118} **(A1-E1)** and *casp^{lof}/Df* **(A2-E2)** were collected using three time intervals (0-1, 1-2, 2-3 Hrs), and embryonic lysates were separated on SDS-PAGE gels. The Western blots were probed with antibodies against ME31B (A1-A2), Tral (B1-B2) and Smaug (C1-C2) to assess the extent of protein degradation, as part of the MZT. α-tubulin (E1-E2) was used as a loading control, while TER94 (D1-D2) was used as a negative control as it is a maternal protein that does not undergo degradation at MZT. **(G-J)** Quantitation of the intensity of change of protein band (normalized to 1), for Tral (G), Smaug (H), ME31B (I) and tubulin (J). Each data point is an average of over 5 western blots.

By contrast, Smaug (Fig, C1-C2) is an interesting exception. In control, 0–1hr old embryos, low

levels of Smaug protein were observed, which increased in the 1-2hr old embryo extract but

decreased the 2-3 hr time-window (Fig. 7C), data that agrees with previously published work

(CAO *et al.* 2020). However, in the *casp^{lof}/Df* embryos levels of Smaug protein are modestly

elevated from the start (0-1 and 1-2 hr old extract samples respectively; Fig. 7C2). Critically,

unlike control embryos, Smaug protein persists in 2-3hr old *casp^{lof}/Df* embryonic extracts (Fig

7C2, *). Altogether, these data argue that Smaug degradation is specifically adversely

influenced in the *casp^{lof}/Df* embryos at the end of the MZT.

Germ cell specifc Smaug levels are influenced by casp activity.

Since Smaug levels appear to be elevated in embryonic lysates in the MZT, we decided

to test if the Smaug levels are elevated specifically in *casp^{lof}/Df* pole cells. To this end, pre-

syncytial as well as early syncytial blastoderm embryos of both the genotypes (control and

casp^{lof}/Df) were stained with anti-Smaug and anti-Vasa antibodies. Aligned with the Western

blot data presented earlier, levels of Smaug protein are significantly elevated in pre-syncytial

embryos (Fig. 8, compare panel B3 with A3). Also, in *casp^{lof}/Df* embryos, Smaug protein seems

to accumulate in discernible large puncta which are barely visible at this stage in control

embryos (Fig. 8, B3 vs A3). At the syncytial blastoderm stage (Stage 4), however, the Smaug

positive puncta appear larger and more numerous in the few surviving PGCs from the *casp^{lof}/Df*

embryos (Fig. 8, D3) when compared to controls (C3).

Taken together, our data suggest that Smaug protein levels are appreciably elevated in

pole cells from *casp^{lof}/Df* embryos. The specific increase in Smaug levels may, in part, be due to

inappropriate accumulation and/or stabilization of Smaug. Smaug protein is necessary for

translational control of the posterior determinant *nanos*. Early reports indicated that unlocalized

nos RNA is translationally repressed by Smaug which binds to Smaug Response Elements

(SREs) within 3'UTR of *nos* RNA. In addition to *nos*, it also regulates *hsp83* translation. Smaug

participates in multiple, overlapping mechanisms including interaction with the components of

the translation machinery as well as deadenylation to regulate translation/localization of the

target RNAs (DAHANUKAR *et al.* 1999; ZAESSINGER *et al.* 2006).

Fig. 8. Decrease in Casp correlates with an increase in Smaug levels in the pole buds and PGCs. Confocal microscopy images of the posterior termini of stage 1-2, and 4 embryos derived from *nos gal4* and *casp^{lof}/Df* females. Embryos were immunostained with Vasa (green) and Smaug (red) antibodies. Hoechst marks the nuclei (A-D). Smaug expression was quantified across the two genotypes and plotted as bar graphs (E-G). N=5 embryos (Stage 2) and 10 embryos (Stage 4).

Intriguingly, recent data from Lipshitz lab has, in fact, shown that Smaug protein accumulates in germ granules (SIDDIQUI *et al.* 2023). Moreover, in addition to its canonical role in regulating *nos* translation, it can also repress *oskar* at the translational level (see Discussion).

868   As the embryonic PGC count depends upon Oskar levels, *Smaug* mutant embryos show an

869   increase in the total number of PGCs. These data fit nicely with our observations and are

870   entirely consistent with a model incorporating the downregulation of Smaug mediated by Casp.

872   ***Functional analysis of different protein domains within Casp.***

873   To decipher the specific functions of the individual protein domains of Casp during pole

cell formation and division we followed an experimental strategy involving rescue of the loss of

function phenotype. We compared the extent of rescue observed in the presence of individual

deletion constructs to the full length wild-type control. To this end, fly lines expressing domain

deletions of Casp under the *pUASp* promoter were generated (Fig. 9A). The *pUASp-casp$^{\Delta UBA}$*,

pUASp-casp$^{\Delta UBX}$ and *pUASp-casp$^{\Delta UAS}$* construct represent deletions of the UBA, UBX, and UAS

domains, respectively. Additionally, we also generated fly lines that express the *pUASp-*

casp$^{\Delta UAS \Delta UBX}$ which deletes both the N and C-terminal domains simultaneously. A full-length

coding sequence of Casp was also cloned, and this *pUASp-casp^{WT}* line was used as a positive

control carrying the 'rescue' construct. A western blot confirmed the expression of these

constructs in adult animals with different domain deletions (Δ), *UAS-casp$^{\Delta}$* driven by *nos-GAL4*

driver (Fig. 9B). To assess the domain-specific functions of Casp in isolation without the

confounding effects of endogenous Casp, the fly lines were balanced with a *casp^{lof}* allele on the

second chromosome. These balanced lines were crossed to a fly line with the maternal driver

nos-GAL4 on the third chromosome and an allele with a deficiency for *casp (Df)*. Embryos laid

by mothers of the genotype *casp^{lof}/Df; nos-GAL4/pUASp-casp$^{\Delta}$* were used to determine

maternal effects of the domain deletions (Fig. 9C).

Fig. 9. Structure-function analysis of Casp protein domains in regulating pole cell number. (A) Schematic representation of different domain deletion variants of Casp. As shown in the schematic, the WT Casp protein consists of different functional domains including UBA, UAS, UBX and the FFAT-like motif. **(B)** Western blot of the truncated Casp proteins, deficient in the domains indicated, probed with rabbit anti-casp (1:10,000) and rabbit anti-HA (1:2000) antibody. *nos gal4* served as a control. Ponceau staining was used as a loading control. Asterisk (*) denotes non-specific antibody binding. **(C)** The total number of germ cells from nc 13/14 embryos derived from mothers expressing different *casp* domain deletion constructs in the *casp^lof^/Df* background were marked with Vasa antibodies, quantified and plotted as a bar graph. n = 30, Ordinary one-way ANOVA, (****) $P < 0.0001$, (*) $P < 0.05$. **(D)** The total number of germ cells from nc 13/14, derived from mothers expressing casp domain deletion, in an otherwise *wild-type* background, were stained with anti-Vasa antibodies. Vasa positive cells (i.e. PGCs) were quantified and plotted as a bar graph. n = 30, Ordinary one-way ANOVA, (****) $P < 0.0001$.

Embryos were collected from females of different genotypes and stained using anti-Vasa antibodies. As can be seen by the comparison shown in the bar graph (Fig. 9C), in terms of the rescue of PGC numbers, deletion of the UBA domain does not affect the rescuing activity of the Casp protein, the UBX domain deletion can rescue, but is weaker than the UBA domain deletion, whereas deletion of the UAS domain is the least effective with regards to the rescue.

To extend these observations, we overexpressed individual Casp deletion mutants in an otherwise wild-type background and counted the total number of PGCs. Neither the maternal overexpression of $pUASp\text{-}casp^{wt}$ nor any of the $pUASp\text{-}casp^{\Delta}$ increased lethality in terms of decrease in hatching of embryos, in all cases the hatching was in the range 90-95%. Again, as seen before, overexpression of $casp^{wt}$ under these conditions led to a significant increase in the total number of PGCs in blastoderm embryos, with average PGC's at 40. The ability to enhance the PGC division is retained in the absence of the UBA domain as, in this particular background, the mean count of the total number of germ cells was similar to embryos that expressed full-length protein. By contrast, deletion of the UAS domain is unable to support the (increased) germ cell division, and the total PGC count dropped to the same level as *nos Gal4* embryos. Interestingly, deletion of UBX domain, yet again, displayed intermediate activity, with the *ΔUBX-ΔUBA* domain deletion also being unable to drive the increase in PGCs.

Proteomic analysis of the embryonic extracts suggested that in addition to TER94 protein, Casp is also associated with VAP (Fig. S4A; (TENDULKAR *et al.* 2022)). We thus sought to test if physical interaction between Casp and VAP is relevant for pole cell formation. To assess this possibility, we used a deletion variant of Casp, $Casp^{\Delta FFAT}$, which cannot interact with VAPB (TENDULKAR *et al.* 2022). Expression of $casp^{\Delta FFAT}$ under the control of maternal driver, in a $casp^{lof}$/Df mother showed hatching (~60%) frequencies at par with wild type (Fig. S4B), with expression levels equal to other *casp* constructs (Fig. S4C). Importantly, *nos-Gal4*-dependent maternal overexpression *of UAS-$casp^{\Delta FFAT}$* led to an increase in the total number of PGCs in syncytial blastoderm embryos, comparable to full-length *UAS-$casp^{wt}$* (average PGC ~23). Lastly, expression of $casp^{\Delta FFAT}$ could rescue the PGC loss upon maternal loss of *casp* (compare Fig. S4 F1-3 to Fig. 9C). These data suggested that interaction between Casp and VAP is either not essential or partially redundant for Casp function in the context of determining PGC. Altogether, the functional analysis of different protein domains within Casp underscores the importance of UAS and UBX domains, especially in embryonic contexts, including PGC development.

Fly husbandry and stocks*: Flies were raised on standard cornmeal agar at 25 °C unless

stated otherwise. *Casp^lof* (11373), *Casp Df* (23691), *nos Gal4* (4937), *Mat α4-tubulinGal4:VP16*

(7063) and *TER94 RNAi* (32869) lines were procured from the Bloomington *Drosophila* Stock

Centre, with numbers in brackets indicated Stock numbers.

Cloning of *casp* deletion constructs and generation of transgenics*: UASp-casp^Δ constructs

(*pUASp casp^ΔUBA, pUASp casp^ΔUAS, pUASp casp^ΔUBX, pUASp casp^ΔUASΔUBX*) were generated,

starting from a *pUASp-attB-Casp* construct (Tᴇɴᴅᴜʟᴋᴀʀ *et al.* 2022), with the design including

an N-terminal HA tag. The constructs were injected into a *w^1118; Attp2* embryo in the NCBS-

CAMP transgenic injection facility (https://www.ncbs.res.in/research-facilities/drosophila-

services), and stable lines were generated by balancing against a *w^1118; TM3Sb/TM6Tb* animal.

For cloning and amplification, a functional N-terminal HA tag was introduced with the 5'-

forward primers and a 3'-homology arm was introduced using the 3'-reverse primers. The

exception was the *pUASp Casp^ΔUAS* construct where two fragments, one upstream and one

downstream of the UAS domain were amplified separately with 22 nucleotide homologous

overhang between them to mediate homologous recombination. The upstream fragment

contained the HA sequence while the downstream fragment contained the 3'-homology arm.

The sequences of the primers used are as follows. *TGTTCCAGATTACGCTGGCGGC* was

used as the 5'-forward primer for the *pUASp casp^wt, pUASp casp^ΔUBX, pUASp casp^ΔUASΔUBX* and

the upstream fragment of the *pUASp casp^ΔUAS* constructs.

TGTTCCAGATTACGCTGGCGGCCCCCATCCTATCCTGGTGCC was used as the 5'-forward

primer for the *pUASp casp^ΔUBA* construct.

CGGATGATGAGATAAGTGGCTCCACGGAAACATGCGAAATGTTTGAGGAGCAG was used

as forward primer for amplifying downstream fragment of the *pUASp casp^ΔUAS* construct.

ACCATGGGTTTAGGTATAATGTTATCAAGCTCC was the reverse primer for *pUASp casp^wt*,

pUASp casp^ΔUBA, and downstream fragment of *pUASp casp^ΔUAS*.

TTAGGTATAATGTTATCAAGCTCCTCATTCGGACGGCTCCTGAGGTAG was the reverse

primer for *pUASp casp^ΔUBX*.

TTAGGTATAATGTTATCAAGCTCCTCACGTGGAGCCACTTATCTCATCATCCG was used as

the reverse primer for *pUASp casp^ΔUASΔUBX*. *CGTGGAGCCACTTATCTCATCATCCG* was the

reverse primer for upstream fragment of *pUASp casp^ΔUAS*. PCR products were further amplified

with a common 5'-primer

ATAGGCCACTAGTGGATCTGATGTACCCATACGATGTTCCAGATTACGCTGGCGGC and

their respective reverse primers to introduce the 5'-homology arm. Inserts were recombined into
pUASp AttB vector linearised at the BamH1 site, using a variation of the SLiCE cloning method
(ZHANG *et al.* 2012; ZHANG *et al.* 2014). In short, E.coli DH10B expressing the optimised λ-
prophage red recombinase system (PPY cells) was cultured in the presence of arabinose to
induce recombinase expression and subsequently used for preparing competent cells. DNA
fragments containing homologous overhangs were co-transformed into the competent bacteria
and resultant colonies were screened through PCR to identify proper recombinants and
subsequently confirmed through sequencing.The pUASp *casp^{ΔFFAT}* was PCR amplified from
pRM-HA:casp ^{ΔFFAT} (TENDULKAR *et al.* 2022), cloned into pUASp-AttB, sequenced for validation
and injected into a *w^{1118}; Attp2* animal.

Embryonic lethality*: 0-3 hr embryos were collected, transferred to a fresh sugar-agar plate,
and unhatched larvae were scored after 48 hours to determine viability.

Immunoprecipitation*: 0–3-hour embryos were lysed in Co-IP Lysis Buffer (20mM Tris pH 8.0,
137mM NaCl, 1% IGEPAL, 2mM EDTA, 1X PIC) using a Dounce homogenizer, and centrifuged
at 21,000 g for 30 minutes. 3 mg of total lysate was incubated with 5 µg of primary antibody (Rb
anti-Casp) and 5 µg of Normal Rabbit IgG overnight at 4 °C. Antigen-antibody complexes were
captured using 50 µL of BioRad SureBeads Protein A (1614013) at 4 °C for 4 hours. Beads
were washed six times with Co-IP Lysis Buffer and protein complexes eluted by boiling in 1X
Laemmli Sample Buffer. Eluted proteins were resolved on a 10% polyacrylamide gel followed by
western blotting or in-gel trypsin digestion, described in the following sections.

Western blot analysis*: Embryos collected at varied time points (0-3, 0-1, 1-2, 2-3 hours) were
lysed in RIPA buffer (50 mM Tris-Cl, 150 mM NaCl, 0.1% SDS, 0.01% Sodium azide, 0.5%
sodium deoxycholate, 1 mM EDTA, 1% Triton X-100, 1X PIC) with a pellet pestle (Kontes).
Lysates were cleared by centrifugation at 21,000 g at 4 °C for 30 minutes. Protein concentration
was estimated using a BCA assay (Pierce) and 30-40 µg of total protein was loaded onto the gel
after boiling in 1X Laemmli Sample Buffer. Proteins separated by 10% SDS-PAGE were
transferred onto a PVDF membrane (Immobilon-E, Merck) and blocked in 5% milk in Tris-Buffer
Saline (TBS) with 0.1% Tween 20 (TBS-T) for an hour. Blots were then incubated overnight with
primary antibody diluted in 5% milk in TBS-T, at 4 °C. Following three washes with TBS-T, blots
were incubated with secondary antibodies diluted in 5% milk in TBS-T, for 1 hour at room
temperature. Blots were washed thrice with TBS-T and visualized on a LAS4000 Fuji imaging
system after incubating with Immobilon Western Chemiluminescent HRP substrate (Merck). The
following antibodies were used: Rabbit anti-VAP, 1:10000 (TENDULKAR *et al.* 2022), Mouse anti-
α-Tubulin, 1:10000 (T6074, Sigma), Mouse anti-Ubiquitin, 1:1000 (P4D1, Santa Cruz

Biotechnology), Mouse anti-HA, 1:5000 (H3663 HA-7, Sigma-Aldrich), Rabbit anti-Casp,

1:10000 (TENDULKAR *et al.* 2022), 1:2000 (04-902 DW-2, Sigma-Aldrich) Goat anti-rabbit HRP

and Goat anti-mouse HRP secondary antibodies, each at 1:10000 (Jackson ImmunoResearch).

Rabbit anti-me31B, 1:1000, Rabbit anti-Smaug, 1:500, Rat anti-Tral, 1:1000 were a kind gift

from Elmar Whale (CAO *et al.* 2020).

In-gel Trypsin Digestion and LC-MS/MS Analysis*:* Before in-gel trypsin digestion of the Co-IP

eluate, the antibody was crosslinked to the SureBeads using DMP (Sigma) according to the

NEB crosslinking protocol to avoid elution of the antibody. After crosslinking 10µg Casp

antibody, Co-IP was performed as described above. In-gel trypsin digestion was carried out as

previously described (SHEVCHENKO et al. 2006). Briefly, Coomassie-stained bands on the gel

were excised and cut into 1 mm cubes. Gel pieces were transferred to a clean microcentrifuge

tube and destained with buffer containing 50% acetonitrile in 50 mM Ammonium bicarbonate.

Reduction and alkylation were carried out on the destained gel pieces by incubating with 10mM

dithiothreitol (DTT) followed by incubating with 20mM iodoacetamide. Gel pieces were saturated

with sequencing grade Trypsin (Promega) at a concentration of 10 ng/µL and incubated

overnight at 37 °C. Peptides were extracted by sequential addition of 100 µl of 0.4%

Trifluoroacetic acid (TFA) in 10% ACN, 100 µl of 0.4% TFA in 60% ACN and 100 µl of ACN.

The pooled extract was dried in a vacuum centrifuge and reconstituted with 50 µl of 0.1% TFA.

The peptides in TFA were purified using the StageTip protocol (RAPPSILBER et al. 2007). LC–

MS/MS analysis was performed on the Sciex TripleTOF6600 mass spectrometer interfaced with

an Eksigent nano-LC 425. Tryptic peptides (1 µg) were loaded onto an Eksigent C18 trap (5 µg

capacity) and subsequently eluted with a linear acetonitrile gradient on an Eksigent C18

analytical column (15 cm × 75-µm internal diameter). A typical LC run lasted 2 h post loading

onto the trap at a constant flow rate of 300 nL/min with solvent A consisting of water + 0.1%

formic acid and solvent B consisting of acetonitrile. The gradient schedule for the LC run was

5% (vol/vol) B for 10 min, a linear gradient of B from 0% to 80% (vol/vol) over 80 min, 80%

(vol/vol) B for 15 min and equilibration with 5% (vol/vol) B for 15 min. Data was acquired in an

information-dependent acquisition (IDA) mode over a mass range of 300–2,000 m/z. Each full

MS survey scan was followed by MS/MS of the 15 most intense peptides. Dynamic exclusion

was enabled for all experiments (repeat count 1; exclusion duration 6 s). Peptides were

identified and quantified using the SCIEX ProteinPilot software at a false discovery rate (FDR)

of 1%. A RefSeq *Drosophila* protein database (release 6) was used for peptide identification.

Proteins that were identified in two or more replicates were tabulated.

Fixation, immunostaining, and imaging of embryos: 0-3 hr embryos were collected in a
sieve and dechorionated in 4% sodium hypochlorite for 90 seconds. After thorough washes with
distilled water, embryos were fixed in a 1:1 heptane:4% PFA solution for 20 minutes. The PFA
layer was removed, and embryos in heptane were re-constituted with an equal volume of
methanol. Embryos were devitellinized by vigorous shaking in the 1:1 heptane:methanol
mixture. The heptane layer and the interphase containing non-devitellinized embryos were
carefully removed. Devitellinized embryos in the bottom methanol phase were washed twice
with methanol and stored at -20 °C till they were ready to be imunostained. For phalloidin and
Smaug staining, embryos fixed in heptane: 4% PFA were hand de-vitellinized, after which the
standard immunostaining procedure was followed. For immunostaining, embryos were
rehydrated by washing thrice with 0.3% PBS-TritonX 100 (PBS-T) for 15 minutes each.
Embryos were blocked in 2% BSA in 0.3% PBS-T for 1 hour at room temperature (RT).
Embryos were incubated at 4 °C overnight with primary antibodies diluted in 2% BSA in 0.3%
PBS-T at the appropriate dilutions. Following three 15-minute washes with 0.3% PBS-T,
embryos were incubated in the appropriate secondary antibodies for 1 hour at room
temperature. The following antibodies were used: Rabbit anti-Casp, 1:1000 (TENDULKAR *et al.*
2022); Rat anti-α-vasa; 1:50 (DSHB); Rabbit anti-VCP, 1:200 (#2648, Cell Signaling
Technology); Rabbit anti-Oskar, 1:1000 (generated by Mandy Jeske, Anne Ephrussi lab); Rabbit
anti-Smaug, 1:50; Mouse anti-γ-tubulin, 1:1000 (T6557, Sigma), Rabbit P-Histone H3 (S10)
1:300 (#9701, Cell Signalling); Alexa Fluor 568 Phalloidin, 1:1000 (Invitrogen) The following
secondary antibodies were used, goat anti-mouse Alexa488/ goat anti-rabbit Alexa568/ goat
anti-rat Alexa647/ goat anti-rabbit Alexa647/ goat anti-rabbit Alexa480, 1:1000 (DSHB).
Embryos were washed thrice with 0.3% PBS-T, and DAPI/Hoechst (1:500) was added in the
penultimate wash. Embryos were mounted in 70% glycerol and observed under a Leica sp8
confocal microscope with a 20X objective.
Live imaging of embryos: Embryos at the appropriate stage were washed and dechorionated
as described previously. A 2-well Nunc™ Lab-Tek™ II Chamber Slide™ System (ThermoFisher
Scientific) was affixed with a 3M Scotch double-sided tape, and dechorionated embryos with
intact vitelline membranes were mounted on the tape under a dissecting microscope.
Halocarbon oil 200 was used to cover the embryos to prevent dehydration during imaging.
Time-lapse imaging of embryos was performed on an inverted LSM confocal system (Zeiss
multiphoton 710) at 20X for ~8 hours. Embryo images were acquired at 5 min intervals.
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Quantification of western blots: Western blots were quantified using ImageJ. Each protein

was normalized to the tubulin loading control, and the highest signal for each was set to 1 and

all other tubulin band intensities were normalized against it. For MZT experiments, western blots

were used to determine protein degradation dynamics. 3-5 biological replicates, representing 3-

5 independent embryo collection were assayed. Band intensities were quantified using ImageJ

and normalized to α-tubulin as loading control. For each replicate intensities were normalized to

the first time point (0-1 hour). Significance thresholds are presented in the figures and figure

captions.

Quantification of the Smaug Immunostaining: All quantification of Smaug stained images

were done on ImageJ. ROIs were made for a single pole cell through the z-stacks, thereby only

analysing one pole cell at a time. For each embryo five such pole cells were measured. To

quantify intensity, mean intensity was measured for each ROI per stack and added to get the

final intensity. Each data point on the graph represents an average of all five cell intensities per

embryo. For Smaug punctae measurement, a combined ROI for each cell was taken and

duplicated. Each of the stack was then analysed using 3D objects counter, where thresholding

for all images was kept within the range of 80-90 with a minimum size filter kept at zero. The

number of objects counted was taken as the total number of Smaug punctae per cell. Five such

pole cells were analysed per embryo and the average was plotted as a single data point on the

graph. For quantification of poleplasm volume in the embryos, embryos were stained with

Oskar. An ROI (kept same for all images) encompassing the posterior part of the embryo was

drawn. Gaussian blur 3D (X sigma = 2, Y sigma = 2 and Z sigma = 2) was applied to each

image. The volume of pole plasm was analysed by using 3D objects counter after appropriate

thresholding.

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 Discussion

Proper development of biological systems in an organismal context involves complex

interactions between various individual pathways. The qualitative nature of the interaction(s)

between pathway components ultimately determines how different pathways intersect in a

context-specific manner. Curiously however, there are only a defined number of signaling

pathways/circuits that have been elucidated thus far. Consistently, the entire molecular

cassettes that constitute a given pathway or a select number of pathway components, are

reiteratively used in a variety of biological contexts even within a lifecycle of the same organism.

Moreover, while such repurposing is relatively frequent, the corresponding biological outcomes

are diverse in nature and insightful in ways more than one. Our data detailing the functional

involvement of Casp and TER94 in the PGCs is a case in point. Casp function was initially

characterized in the context of *Drosophila* immune response (KIM *et al.* 2006). However, the

original study did not investigate the developmental roles of Casp and its interactors. Here, we

report novel activities of *Drosophila melanogaster* immune components Casp and TER94 during

early embryonic development with a specific focus on germline.

Early embryonic patterning is a dynamic process in metazoans which is primarily

regulated by the deposition of maternal gene products including RNAs and proteins. Such

maternal determinants are localized in a spatially restricted manner (SCHIER 2007). On many

instances, the unique pattern of localization of specific factors underlies their activities during

embryo patterning. To execute their functions properly, patterning determinants heavily rely

upon the members of the housekeeping machinery that carefully calibrate the synthesis,

stability, transport, and degradation of diverse regulatory components. Here, we have explored

novel embryonic functions for the FAF1 ortholog, Casp in *Drosophila*. Initially, we uncovered

that maternal loss of *casp* activity results in partially penetrant embryonic lethality. The *casp*

allele was determined to be a strong loss of function, but not a null. The partial penetrance could

also be due to redundancy. Consistent with either possibility, quantitation of the individual

phenotypes yielded significant but variable penetrance.

In keeping with a semi-vital function, our data demonstrated its involvement during

cellular movements that lead to gastrulation, a likely cause underlying the lethality. Surprisingly,

Casp protein is enriched in the PGCs, which are specified at the posterior pole under the control

of the master germ cell determinant, Oskar. PGC formation and specification in a young

Drosophila embryo depends on the posteriorly anchored specialized cytoplasm (or pole plasm)

enriched in RNA and protein components essential to determine germ cell identity and behavior.

Two important traits distinguishing early pole cells from the surrounding somatic nuclei include

precocious budding and limited mitotic self-renewal. Consistent with its functional involvement in

both these processes, maternal loss of either Casp or its protein partner TER94 resulted in a

reduced number of buds and subsequent loss of PGCs. While qualitatively similar, the severity

of phenotypic consequence due to loss of Casp and TER94 regarding PGC loss, is not identical.

Interestingly, however, both proteins appear to influence centrosome behavior and dynamics

that are of paramount significance in forming pole cells in *Drosophila* embryos.

Thus far, Germ cell-less (Gcl) is the only protein shown to control PGC formation in a

similar manner (JONGENS *et al.* 1992). Importantly Gcl activity depends on its ability to influence

proper separation of centrosomes and elaboration of astral microtubules in dividing pole buds

(LERIT *et al.* 2017). Aberrant centrosome behavior in *gcl* mutant embryos adversely affects PGC

budding and equitable distribution of germ plasm among daughter cells. Intriguingly, these

phenotypic traits can be recapitulated by simply engineering defective centrosome separation

(LERIT *et al.* 2017). It is thus noteworthy that maternal loss of Casp and TER94 leads to similar

defects and future experiments will reveal mechanistic details underlying roles of these two

proteins in regulating centrosome dynamics in PGCs and their possible interaction with Gcl and

its protein partners. Of note, a germplasm interactome (THOMSON *et al.* 2008) included TER94

along with other important germ plasm proteins including Vasa, Tudor, and others.

TER94, an ER protein, is a major Casp interactor. Our data also indicate that in addition

to PGC formation, TER94 and Casp regulate early nuclear division cycles in syncytial

blastoderm embryos and subsequent cell divisions in the somatic compartment cell cycle

processes in the gastrulating embryos. (Casp and TER94 are distinct compared to Gcl in this

regard which has a strictly germ cell specific function). Taken together, these observations

suggest that Casp and TER94 contribute to critical early developmental functions leading to

mid-blastula transition which precedes gastrulation and germband extension. In the mammalian

context, the FAF1-VCP interaction is mediated by the UBX domain. Thus, it is unsurprising that

deletion of the protein domain crucial for association between Casp and TER94 resulted in a

somewhat diminished function as compared to a full-length version. Curiously however, deleting

UAS fragment, a protein domain of unknown function, implicated in self-association, resulted in

substantially compromised activity as compared to native protein. Future experiments will focus

on the specific molecular interactions this (and other) individual domain(s) are involved in. It will

be also important to determine how protein degradation especially engineered via ubiquitin

modification contributes to Casp stability and function.

Intriguingly our data also argue that regulation mediated by *casp* is likely critical for

maintenance of PGC fate via maintenance of Oskar levels. Importantly, several independent

observations suggest that this influence is likely zygotic. First, barely detectable amount of

Casp protein is deposited in the egg and bulk of the Casp protein is generated by translation

post-fertilization. Second, Casp protein controls overall levels of Smaug at the post-

transcriptional level including in the early embryonic PGCs. It was recently reported that Smaug

protein accumulates in the germ granules where it controls Oskar (and Bruno) translation

negatively by binding to Smaug response elements present in the untranslated regions within

the respective RNAs (SIDDIQUI *et al.* 2023). Consistently loss of function mutations in *Smaug*

result in a modestly elevated PGC count in stage 4-5 embryos whereas a reciprocal phenotype

is observed in *casp^{lof}* embryos. Taken together with the increase in Smaug levels in *casp^{lof}*

embryos, it would be reasonable to propose that PGC-specific phenotypes observed upon loss

of *casp* are, in part, mediated by excess accumulation of Smaug. Moreover, these authors also

suggest that Smaug dependent regulation of *oskar* RNA likely has a significant zygotic i.e.

embryonic component which aligns well with our data. Future experiments will be necessary to

elucidate the mechanism underlying regulation of Smaug levels by Casp. It will also be

interesting to examine if Smaug and Casp regulate centrosome behavior reciprocally to control

the final PGC count.

Degradation of maternally deposited RNAs and proteins constitutes an important

transition during embryonic development. Zygotic Genome Activation (ZGA) and turning over of

maternal determinants (Both RNAs and proteins) happen almost simultaneously. Together

these two events constitute MZT which is delayed in the germ cell compartment as opposed to

soma. Nonetheless, recent data have suggested that the two events possibly occur in a

coordinated manner possibly via shared components (COLONNETTA *et al.* 2023). Many of the

embryonic phenotypes that *casp^{lof}* embryos display (aberrant nuclear migration, cellularization

defects, defective gastrulation etc.), are shared by mutations in gene products either directly or

indirectly involved in one of these processes. It will be important to elucidate new interactors of

Casp as its function likely impacts protein degradation and/or stability of the target proteins.

Recent reports have indicated potential involvement of ZGA regulators such as Zelda and

CLAMP in germline/soma distinction. Critically this function of the components of ZGA depends

on proper anchoring, release and transmission of posteriorly anchored pole plasm that involves

centrosome function. Maternally compromising ZGA components resulted in inappropriate

release and transmission of pole plasm RNAs, a phenotype that is partially recapitulated in

casp^{lof} and *TER94i* embryos.

While our data have clearly established the involvement of Casp and TER94 during PGC

formation and specification, further studies will be necessary to elucidate their precise molecular

function(s) underlying this activity. Several observations are noteworthy in this regard and will

guide the course of future investigation. The first set of results points to the possible

participation of both Casp and TER94 during ubiquitin-dependent protein degradation.

A regulatory network incorporating Bru1, Cup, Oskar and Smaug are key to PGC

specification. The Skp Cullin and F-box (SCF) containing complex marks proteins such as

Smaug for degradation by functioning as an E3 ubiquitin ligase ((CAO *et al.* 2020; CAO *et al.*

2022); Fig. 10A). The ubiquitinated Smaug is then degraded by the proteasome. In the

mammalian context, the Casp/TER94 orthologs FAF1/VCP (in *green* font; Fig. 10A) have been

found to interact with the SCF complex. Our data supports a similar scenario in *Drosophila*.

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Figure 10. A model for Casp function in PGCs.
(**A**) <u>Smaug is marked for degradation by the SCF complex</u>. Specific pole plasm components including Cup, Oskar
and Smaug are actively degraded. *oskar* is regulated by Bru1 and Cup (*ref 1-3*; (NAKAMURA *et al.* 2004; KIM *et al.*
2015; BAYER *et al.* 2023)). Oskar (*ref 4-6*; (MAHOWALD 2001; HUYNH AND ST JOHNSTON 2004; LEHMANN 2016)) is
the master determinant of PGC fate, and hence the stability of the Oskar:Smaug complex (*ref 7*;(KUBIKOVA et al.
2023)) is a key to PGC determination and proper specification. Oskar also regulates posterior cell fate by regulating
nos translation which is modulated by Smaug (*ref 8-10;* (DAHANUKAR et al. 1999; ZAESSINGER et al. 2006; JESKE et
al. 2011)). The SCF complex is a multi-protein E3 ubiquitin ligase complex, and Smaug is one of its prominent
targets (*ref 11-12*; (CAO et al. 2020; CAO et al. 2022)). Smaug appears to repress the translation of *oskar* and *Bruno*
1 mRNA (*ref 13*; (SIDDIQUI *et al.* 2023)). In mammals (marked with green font), FAF1 modulates the SCF complex
(*ref 14*; (MORAIS-DE-SA *et al.* 2013)) with VCP/p97 assisting in the degradation of ubiquitinated Smaug (*ref 15-16;*
(LI et al. 2014; REIM et al. 2014)), suggesting potential conservation of the activities in the fly orthologs, Casp and
TER94.

(**B**) <u>Casp/TER94 interact with an overlapping set of proteins</u>. TER94 has earlier been demonstrated to be associated
with Oskar (RUDEN *et al.* 2000). Our data points to an association between *Drosophila* Casp and TER94 (this study
and *ref 17;* (TENDULKAR et al. 2022)) that participates in protein degradation. In a proteomic analysis of germ cell
components, TER94 was identified (this study and *ref 18*; (THOMSON *et al.* 2008)), along with other bona-fide germ
cell constituents including Cup, Tral, Bel, eIF4A, Tud and Vasa (*ref 18* and *19* (THOMSON *et al.* 2008; DEHAAN *et*
al. 2017)). Both, Casp and TER94 are thus enriched in the pole cells and interact with proteins that specify PGC
fate.
(**C**). <u>The SCF Complex, Gcl and Centrosome integrity</u>. The SCF complex is localized to the centrosome. Gcl
interacts with Cullin 3 to degrade Torso receptor to promote PGC fate (*ref 20*; (PAE *et al.* 2017)). The SCF complex
regulates the cell cycle (*ref 21-22*; (MARGOTTIN-GOGUET *et al.* 2003; ROGERS *et al.* 2009)) and is a known
regulator of centrosomal integrity (*ref 23-26*;(WOJCIK *et al.* 2000; MURPHY 2003; PHUONG THAO *et al.* 2006;
CUNHA-FERREIRA *et al.* 2009)), thereby influencing PGC specification (LERIT *et al.* 2017).
(**D**) <u>Casp and TER94 assist in the degradation of Smaug</u>. The SCF complex works as a ubiquitin E3 ligase to mark
Smaug for Degradation and PolyUb-Smaug is degraded by the action of Casp and TER94 during the late-MZT.
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It would be reasonable to propose that Casp recruits TER94 via Casp's UBX domain

(Fig. 10B). Independent proteomic studies ((THOMSON *et al.* 2008; DEHAAN *et al.* 2017;

TENDULKAR *et al.* 2022); Fig 10 B) suggest multiple overlaps between Casp/TER94 and germ-

cell specific protein complexes (Fig. 10B), again suggesting functional relationships between

Casp/TER94 and germ cell determinants. In addition, the SCF complex contributes to cell cycle

progression and integrity of centrosomes ((WOJCIK *et al.* 2000; MURPHY 2003; PHUONG THAO *et*

al. 2006); Fig 10C). Total PGC count in early embryos depends on centrosome function and

efficient mitotic divisions. So SCF complex based degradation may have multiple targets that

participate during germ cell formation and specification (Fig. 10C).

Casp likely functions as an adapter protein that works in conjunction with the SCF

complex ((CAO *et al.* 2020; CAO *et al.* 2022); Fig. 10D) and TER94 (Fig. 10D). The binary

complex between TER94 and Casp subsequently targets ubiquitinated proteins such as Smaug

which are present in a complexed form with other proteins. Homeostatic maintenance of Smaug

levels via Casp-mediated proteolytic degradation could explain many of our observations.

Consistently, increased Smaug levels, due to diminished Casp function leads to loss of PGCs

whereas, *smaug* mutant embryos show the opposite phenotype (SIDDIQUI *et al.* 2023).

Intriguingly, even though Smaug and Oskar are members of a complex, the reduction in Casp

activity results in the stabilization of Smaug. By contrast, Oskar levels are diminished resulting

in loss of PGCs. The mechanism underlying the substrate-dependent divergent activities is not

known at this point.

The similarity between the phenotypic consequences due to loss of ZGA components

and Casp/TER94 also needs a special mention. The only study implicating TER94 during early

embryogenesis (ZENG *et al.* 2014) suggested that TER94 can potentiate BMP signaling.

Interestingly, *decapentaplegic* (*dpp*), a BMP ligand which is one of the important targets of ZGA

regulators including *Zelda*, can also influence the specification of embryonic PGCs

(COLONNETTA *et al.* 2023). PGCs need BMP signals (Dpp) to maintain their identity.

Furthermore, the exposure to BMP signals needs careful calibration as excess BMP signaling in

the surrounding soma leads to PGC loss. Importantly, components of protein degradation

machinery including those involved in ubiquitination (Smurf, a Ubiquitin ligase) and sumoylation

(Ubc9) appear to be involved in fine-tuning the signaling (DESHPANDE *et al.* 2014). Thus, it will

be of interest to determine if the aberrant germ cell specification observed due to loss of *casp*

and the components of BMP signaling pathway is mechanistically connected. This seems

especially relevant in the light of their respective dependence on the components of the protein

degradation machinery. It will be of considerable interest to investigate whether and how,

zygotic activity of Smaug, one of important canonical MBT regulators, fits into this picture. In

sum, while the specific details await detailed examination, it is apparent that possible

recapitulation of maternal regulation in the zygotic context may be a recurrent theme rather than

an isolated anomaly.

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1345   **Competing interests**

1346   The authors declare no competing or financial interests.

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1360   **Contributions**

1361   SH and SD performed most of the experiments, with contributions from NW, JS, and AR. GR

1362   and GD conceptualized the project with input from SH and SD. SH, SD, GR, and GD analyzed

1363   and interpreted the data. GD, GR, SH, and SH wrote the manuscript. GR and GD supervised

1364   the project and acquired funding.

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1626

A

2R

16020k   16030k

CG8399   CG8401   SP2353

Casp

PBac{PB}casp[c04227]

<u>Source</u>: FlyBase (flybase.org)

B

BDGP

Developmental stage

0-2 hrs
2-4 hrs
4-6 hrs
6-8 hrs
8-10 hrs
10-12 hrs
12-14 hrs
14-16 hrs
16-18 hrs
18-20 hrs
20-22 hrs

0   20   40   60   80
Expression level (RPKM)

<u>Source</u>: Brown et. al. (2014), *Nature* 512: 393.

C

Stage 1-3

RNA, DNA

Stage 4

<u>Source</u>: Fly-FISH
Lecuyer et al. (2007), *Cell* 131:174;
Wilk et al. (2016) *Genes Dev* 30:594.

D   w[1118] **ovary**

DAPI
ORB
Caspar

Oocyte

Stage 10

Stage 6

Nurse cell nucleus

Stage 4

Follicle cells

50µm

Fig. S1. **(A)** Schematic of the the chromosomal location of the *casp* locus and the associated transposon insertion that generates the *casp[c04227]* allele. This allele is referred to as *casp[lof]* hereafter. **(B)** RNA expression data from the modENCODE database, plotted as a bar chart. **(C)** shows RNA-in situ hybridization of *Casp* in the embryo (Fly-FISH). Casp protein staining in the oocyte is depicted in **(D)**. DAPI marks the nuclei, orb marks the oocyte. Casp marks the follicle cells, but is not significantly enriched in the germline (egg, nurse cells).

Fig. S2. *Casp* **assists in progression to gastrulation.**
(A) Representative movies for the early development of the indicated genotypes are shown in D.
(B-D) Time-lapse images are presented for the wild-type and mutants in B1-D4. Out of 96 time points imaged, four are shown for each genotype. Images were acquired from a single, constant plane unique to each embryo across 5-minute intervals. The developmental trajectory for w^{1118} can be followed from the cellularization stage to the beginning of germ band retraction, for the time points indicated. Crucial developmental milestones are highlighted (B1-B4). *casp* mutants did not exhibit characteristic stages of morphogenesis at comparable time points (C1-C4, D1-D4), n = 10.

Fig. S3. TER94 and germline components are major interactors of Casp. (**A**) shows a list of the 24 proteins enriched after a Casp IP, followed by mass spectrometry, listed in the order of their peptide counts. The peptide counts are averaged from 4 biological replicates. A subset of interactors with known functions or expression in the germline are tabulated in (**B**) A schematic of the interaction of Casp with both TER94 and VAPB (Tendulkar et al., 2022). TER94 interacts with the Casp UBX domain, while VAPB with the FFAT motif (**C**) List of proteins that are associated with Casp and are previously identified as pole-cell components (**D-E**) Immunostaining of wild-type nuclear cycle 13/14 embryos with Casp (D2) and TER94-specific (E2) antibodies indicates expression in the primordial germ cells (C1-D4). Hoechst marks nuclei and Vasa marks the germ cells.

Fig S4. Casp:VAP interaction is not required for defining pole cell number. (**A**) Casp interacts with VAPB via its FFAT-like motif (**B**) represents embryonic lethality at 25° C plotted as a bar graph. The genotype of the mother is listed on the X-axis. N = 3. n = 200, ordinary one-way ANOVA, (****) P <0.0001. (**C**) Casp protein levels were assessed in 0-3h embryos via western blotting. Rabbit anti Casp (1:10,000) and rabbit anti HA (1:2000) antibodies were used to probe the blot. Mouse anti Tubulin (1:10,000)is used as a loading control. (**D-F**) Confocal microscopy images of the posterior of nuclear cycle 13/14 embryos from mated *nos gal4* (D1-D3), *nos gal4> casp^{ΔFFAT}* (E1-E3), and *casp^{lof}/Df; nos gal4> casp^{ΔFFAT}* (F1-F3) females immunostained with vasa antibody (1:50). Hoechst marks the nuclei. (**G**) The germ cells at the posterior marked by vasa quantified and plotted as bar graphs. n = 30-40. Ordinary one-way ANOVA, (****) P <0.0001