

1 **Title:** Embryological insights into the evolution of genome regulation using haploid and diploid whiteflies, *Bemisia*  
2 *tabaci*

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29 **ABSTRACT**

30 The whitefly, *Bemisia tabaci*, is a hemipteran with a haplodiploid sex determination system, which provides a  
31 natural experiment for examining genome function in haploid and diploid embryos. Yet the embryogenesis of *B.*  
32 *tabaci* remains understudied. Our previous work has established a possible role of *DNA methyltransferase 1*  
33 (*Dnmt1*) in genome stability. In this study we used maternal RNA interference (RNAi) and immunohistochemistry to  
34 study the complex dynamics between DNMT1 and ploidy during embryogenesis. We found that both haploid and  
35 diploid *B. tabaci* have a similar developmental timeline to other holometabolous insects. We also found that, like  
36 other obligatory haploid insects, ploidy does not affect developmental timing, suggesting that maternal factors play a  
37 greater role than ploidy in developmental timing. For embryos with reduced expression of *Dnmt1*, we found that the  
38 loss of DNMT1 disrupts blastoderm development and affects nuclei morphology in both haploid and diploid  
39 embryos. Our results suggest that DNMT1 is required for blastoderm development.

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## 57 1. Introduction

58 The whitefly, *Bemisia tabaci*, is a globally-important pest, causing billions of US dollars in damage to  
59 crops each year (Stansly and Naranjo, 2010, Inoue-Nagata et al., 2016, Czosnek et al., 2017). As such, considerable  
60 work has been directed towards their ecological impacts and possible pest-management strategies (Shelby et al.,  
61 2020). *Bemisia tabaci* is difficult to manage using traditional chemical means such as neonicotinoid pesticides  
62 (Horowitz et al., 2020). This leads to a critical need to ascertain the basic biological functions in this insect that will,  
63 in turn, facilitate effective management strategies. Deciphering developmental and molecular mechanisms  
64 underlying the life history of *B. tabaci* can be useful in this regard and allow researchers to optimize applications of  
65 modern molecular technologies for use in pest management (Shelby et al., 2020; Suhag et al., 2020). Indeed, the  
66 importance of *B. tabaci* as a pest has led to an increase in the number of available technologies that make whitefly  
67 molecular studies more tractable such as a sequenced genomes (Chen et al., 2016; Xie et al., 2017; Chen et al., 2019;  
68 Hussain et al., 2019), a characterized methylome (Cunningham et al., 2024), RNA sequencing data sets (Shen et al.,  
69 2023; Cunningham et al., 2024; ), transcriptomic and proteomic data sets (Yang et al., 2013), protocols for CRISPR  
70 (Heu et al., 2020) and RNA interference (RNAi; Dai et al., 2017; Gong et al., 2022; Jain et al., 2022; Shelby et al.,  
71 2023), life history summaries (Byrne et al., 1991; Aregbesola et al., 2020), and imaging methods (Luan et al., 2018;  
72 Bondy and Hunter, 2019; Shelby et al., 2023). The unique biology of this whitefly also lends itself to asking  
73 fundamental questions in novel yet widely-applicable ways. For example, *B. tabaci*, as a member of the order  
74 Hemiptera, is assumed to undergo embryo development with in a similar time frame and using the same embryo  
75 patterning scheme. However, *B. tabaci* uses a haplodiploid sex determination system, which is almost exclusively  
76 studied in Holometabola and is known to affect developmental patterning and morphogenesis (Netschitailo et al.,  
77 2022). However, due to a lack of embryological studies, it is unknown to what extent hemimetabolous embryo  
78 development is evolutionarily conserved in *B. tabaci* or how their sex determination system affects their patterns of  
79 development.

80 Nucleocytoplasmic (N/C) ratio, or the amount of cytoplasm relative to the DNA content, influences timing  
81 of the early embryonic events such as cellularization and changes in the cell cycle length that result in zygotic  
82 genome activation (Schier, 2007). In haplodiploid systems unfertilized eggs become haploid males (n) and fertilized  
83 eggs become diploid females (2n). Thus, one question is how is developmental timing is regulated in the same  
84 species with differences in ploidy? In *Drosophila* embryos where development is artificially activated and ploidy

85 can be manipulated, haploid embryo development is slower and the maternal-to-zygotic transition (MZT) associated  
86 with cellularization takes longer to occur (Edgar et al., 1986; Erickson and Quintero, 2007; Shermoen, McClelland,  
87 and O'Farrell, 2010). However, in Hymenoptera such as *Nasonia*, where a haplodiploid sex determination system is  
88 typical and normal, ploidy does not affect when embryonic events such as cellularization and zygotic genome  
89 activation occur, suggesting that maternal factors determining the timing of these events (Arsala and Lynch, 2017).  
90 It is uncertain to what extent ploidy or maternal factors regulate *B. tabaci* early embryo development.

91 Previous work by our laboratory suggests that one fruitful avenue for investigating factors related to both  
92 insect embryogenesis and genome regulation is *DNA methyltransferase I (Dnmt1)* function. *Dnmt1* is characterized  
93 as a maintenance methyltransferase based on its affinity for hemi-methylated DNA (Goll and Bestor, 2005).  
94 However, functional manipulation suggests DNA methylation is not the essential mechanism through which  
95 DNMT1 is acting in insects (Schulz et al., 2018; Amukamara et al., 2020; Ivasyk et al., 2023; Shelby et al., 2023). A  
96 methylation-independent role is not improbable. It has been hypothesized in mammal systems that *Dnmt1* plays a  
97 role in DNA repair and chromosome stability during the cell cycle in addition to its canonical role as a  
98 methyltransferase (Brown & Robertson, 2007). While there is mounting evidence that *Dnmt1* has a conserved role in  
99 these processes (Mortusewicz et al., 2005; Loughery et al., 2011; Uysal et al., 2015; Madakashira et al., 2024), the  
100 methylation-dependent and methylation-independent functions cannot be separated because DNA methylation is  
101 necessary for mammalian gene expression (Li & Zhang, 2014). Insects, therefore, offer a unique window into  
102 possible non-canonical functions of DNMT1 in a taxa that does not rely heavily on DNA methylation.

103 Although the importance of DNA methylation in insects is unclear (Bewick et al. 2017, Duncan et al.,  
104 2022), DNMT1, the enzyme associated with maintaining DNA methylation, is vital for proper gametogenesis and  
105 embryogenesis (Zwier et al., 2011; Kay et al., 2018; Schulz et al., 2018; Bewick et al., 2019; Amukamara et al.,  
106 2020; Ventós-Alfonso, 2020; Washington et al., 2021; Arsala et al., 2022; Ivasyk et al., 2023 Shelby et al., 2023).  
107 Due to a lack of studies that look beyond the superficial loss of reproductive capabilities, the mechanisms behind  
108 DNMT1's seemingly methylation-independent function in insect embryogenesis is unknown. In *B. tabaci*,  
109 knockdown of *Dnmt1* results in the production of fewer eggs as well as fewer eggs successfully hatching (Shelby et  
110 al., 2023). Though there was evidence that these eggs were abnormal prior to oviposition (Shelby et al., 2023), it is  
111 unclear whether the eggs failed to develop because they lacked maternal factors, and embryonic development could  
112 never occur in the first place, or if embryonic development began to occur but was prohibited from successfully

113 progressing. It is also unclear what the role of ploidy was in this knockdown phenotype because all embryos in  
114 Shelby et al. (2023) were haploid.

115 The aim of our study was to investigate mechanisms that affect genome function during embryogenesis in  
116 *B. tabaci*. We approached this by looking at the complex relationship between ploidy and *Dnmt1* in the context of  
117 early insect embryonic development. First, we chronicled embryonic development in order to get a detailed *B. tabaci*  
118 developmental timeline. Then we performed maternal RNAi followed by mating experiments to produce either  
119 “haploid-only” or “haploid or diploid” embryos. Finally, we used immunohistochemistry to compare differences in  
120 early embryonic development, including differences in nuclei size, in the context of *Dnmt1*-knockdown.

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## 122 **2. Materials and Methods**

### 123 *2.1. Animal husbandry*

124 All individuals used in the experiments were taken from laboratory reared MEAM1 *B. tabaci* colonies. The  
125 colonies were started from wild caught populations collected from cotton fields in Tift County, Georgia, USA in  
126 2018 (McKenzie et al., 2020). In the laboratory, we reared the colonies on collard plants (*Brassica oleracea*). We  
127 kept both *B. tabaci* and collards in an incubator at 27°C with a 14:10 hour light: dark photoperiod and constant  
128 temperature and photoperiod throughout experiments. We removed newly-eclosed females from nymph colonies  
129 within 24 hours of eclosion to verify female age and mating status. For experiments requiring untreated females (i.e.  
130 females not fed dsRNA), we placed unmated females 3-5 days post adult eclosion either on plants in a female-only  
131 colony (to create “haploid-only” embryos) or on plants with males (to create “haploid or diploid” embryos). Diploid  
132 embryos are the product of sexual reproduction from mating. However, not every offspring produced after mating  
133 will be diploid. In our colony, approximately 38.9% of all offspring produced from mated females developed into  
134 diploid females. Therefore, embryos from mated females are classified as “haploid or diploid.” For females  
135 designated for treatment, the newly eclosed females were put in female-only colonies where they remained until  
136 receiving dsRNA treatment.

137

### 138 *2.2. Maternal RNA interference (RNAi)*

139 We used the same double stranded interfering RNA and knockdown protocol as that in Shelby et al. 2023.  
140 Briefly, we made DNA templates of *Dnmt1* and *eGFP* using PCR amplification with gene-specific primers and 500

141 ng/ $\mu$ l RNA (Table 1). We synthesized sense and antisense RNA in a single reaction using the Ambion MEGAscript  
142 RNAi kit (ThermoFischer Sci, Waltham, MA, USA) following the manufacturer's instructions. Following extraction  
143 and ethanol precipitation, we aliquoted the double-stranded RNA (dsRNA) and stored it at  $-80^{\circ}\text{C}$  until use.

144 For both "haploid-only" and "haploid or diploid" groups, we used virgin females 3-5 days post adult  
145 eclosion. We then treated females with a dsRNA solution using an artificial feeding mechanism previously described  
146 in Shelby et al. (2023). The dsRNA feeding solution contained green food coloring (McCormick & Company,  
147 Baltimore, MD, USA). The food coloring allowed us to confirm if a female had fed on the solution. If the females  
148 did feed on the solution, their abdomens would appear green when observed under a microscope. Only females we  
149 confirmed had imbibed the dsRNA solution were used for experiments.

150 Following feeding, we placed the "haploid-only" producing females on 15 cm tall collard plants. Each plant  
151 harbored 50-100 treated females. We checked plants for eggs every six hours. If eggs were present, we removed  
152 females from the plant and placed them on a new plant. We placed "haploid or diploid" producing females on 15cm  
153 tall collard plants with untreated males 3-5 days post adult eclosion. Each plant harbored 50-100 treated females  
154 along with an equal number of untreated males. We checked plants for eggs every six hours. If eggs were present,  
155 we removed females and males were removed from the current plant and placed them on a new plant.

156

### 157 **Table 1.**

158 Primer sequences used for dsRNA synthesis.

Gene	Sense Primer	Anti-sense Primer
<i>Dnmt1</i>	TCAATGATCATGATGAAAGGCCGCA	TGTCAGTGCTGACATTCCACACGGA
<i>eGFP</i>	CGAATTCAGTAGTATTTACTTG	GCGGGAATTCGATTTGACC

159

### 160 *2.3. Immunohistochemistry and image acquisition*

161 Following oviposition, we collected collard leaves with eggs. We either immediately removed the eggs  
162 from the leaves or kept them on the leaves until they were the appropriate age. In the case of eggs kept on leaves, we  
163 wrapped the leaves in damp paper towel and placed them in a petri dish back in the incubator to prevent desiccation.  
164 For our embryonic development overview study, we used eggs at approximately 6, 12, 18, 24, 48, 72, and 84 hours  
165 post oviposition (PO). For ploidy and knockdown studies, we used eggs at approximately 6, 12, 18, and 24 hours  
166 PO. Eggs were kept separate from adults.

167 We removed eggs from the leaves using a probe mounted with a minute pin. After removal from the leaves,  
168 we dechorionated eggs by soaking them in 5% sodium hypochlorite for 15 minutes. Following the removal of the  
169 chorion, we washed embryos in PBS and incubated in 32% paraformaldehyde overnight at 2°C. To visualize nucleic  
170 acids, we used 1 µL 0.5 µg/mL, DAPI in PBS (ThermoFisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). We mounted the  
171 stained embryos with Mowiol 4-88 mounting medium (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA).

172 We imaged the embryos with a Zeiss LSM 880 Confocal Microscope (Zeiss) at the University of Georgia  
173 Biomedical Microscope Core. Z-stack maximum projection images were taken. Only global image adjustment  
174 features (such as brightness and contrast) were used. All confocal images were falsely colored.

175

#### 176 2.4. Embryo staging

177 Embryogenesis in *B. tabaci* has not been previously characterized. Therefore, we established a staging  
178 system to morphologically and chronologically identify key developmental stages from the initial syncytial cleavage  
179 to completion of the embryo body plan. We divided early embryogenesis into five main stages based morphological  
180 hallmarks described in other hemipterans. These stages were: cleavage, blastoderm, gastrulation, segmentation, and  
181 growth and later development. The timing of each stage is presented as a range based on how many hours PO the  
182 stage is observed. To be consistent with previous experiments (Shelby et al., 2023), we developed this  
183 developmental timeline using eggs from untreated virgin females, which produce “haploid-only” embryos.  
184 Anterior-posterior polarity of the egg is easily identified due to the large bacteriocyte located at the posterior portion  
185 of the egg. Bacteriocyte position is established during oogenesis in the mature oocytes (Shelby et al., 2023).

186

#### 187 2.5. Image analysis

188 We successfully processed and analyzed a total of N = 149 embryos, which included N = 100 embryos  
189 from wildtype females, N = 14 embryos from “haploid-only” *dseGFP*-fed females, N = 10 embryos from “haploid-  
190 only” *dsDnmt1*-fed females, N = 15 embryos from “haploid or diploid” *dseGFP*-fed females, and N = 10 embryos  
191 from “haploid or diploid” *dsDnmt1*-fed mated females.

192 For nuclei measurements, we used the ImageJ measuring software (Version 1.54i by FIJI). For embryos  
193 with less than 30 nuclei, we measured all nuclei. For embryos with more than 30 nuclei, we measured 30 randomly-  
194 selected nuclei.

195

## 196 2.6. Statistical analyses

197 We used a one-way ANOVA to compare the variation in the size of embryo nuclei. For data analyses, we used  
198 Base R in RStudio (RStudio Team, 2023). We used the ggplot package for data visualization (Wickman, 2016).

199

## 200 3. Results

### 201 3.1. Overview of *B. tabaci* embryonic development

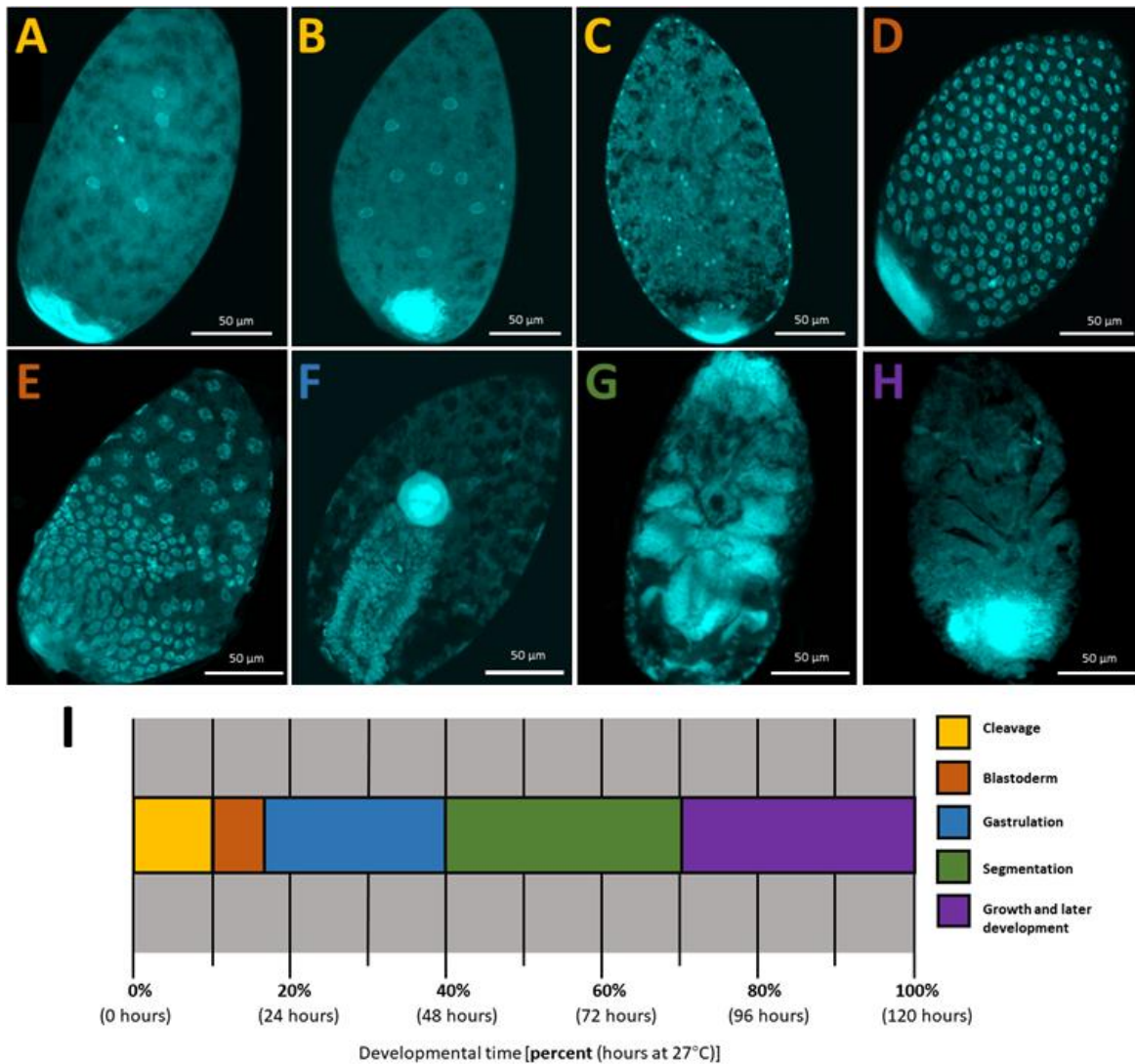
202 Like other hemipterans, *B. tabaci* embryos develop as a syncytium during the cleavage stage from 0-12  
203 hours post-oviposition (PO). Syncytial cleavage begins initially at the center of the egg around (Fig. 1A) and  
204 expands outward towards the periphery (Fig. 1B). During this time the nuclei divide synchronously, and the size of  
205 the nuclei vary as they rapidly progress through the cell cycle (as seen in Fig. 1A-C). After reaching the periphery,  
206 the nuclei are regularly-spaced and are approximately the same size, suggesting that they are undifferentiated (Fig.  
207 1D).

208 During the blastoderm stage (12-18 hours PO) membranes begin to form around the nuclei. Concurrently,  
209 two cell populations begin to segregate: blastoderm cells and extraembryonic cells. The blastoderm cells concentrate  
210 towards the posterior region near the bacteriocyte, forming the germ rudiment (Fig. 1E).

211 Gastrulation takes place from 18 hours PO to 48 hours PO. This stage begins with the condensation of the  
212 germ rudiment and invagination towards the center (Fig. 1F). The bacteriocyte also moves towards the center. As a  
213 result of this movement, the embryo extends with the cephalic region at the posterior region of the egg.

214 Segmentation occurs approximately 48-84 hours PO. Cephalic and thoracic appendages are visible first  
215 (Fig. 1G), followed by abdominal segments housing the bacteriocyte. For most of segmentation, the embryo is  
216 immersed in yolk. Subsequent stages of growth and development occur until approximately 120 hours PO when the  
217 embryo hatches as a nymph. These stages include elongation of appendages and the dorsal closure of the embryo  
218 (Fig. H). During this stage, visualization with fluorescent nuclear staining is disturbed, likely due to secretion of the  
219 cuticle.





220

221 **Fig. 1.** Illustration of key developmental stages during *B. tabaci* embryogenesis by DAPI nuclear staining: (A-C) Cleavage, (D-E)  
222 Blastoderm, (F) Gastrulation, (G) Segmentation, and (H) Growth and later development. (I) A developmental timeline illustrating  
223 the onset and duration of stages examined in this study (color of letter denoting embryo image corresponds with the stage color on  
224 the timeline).

225

### 226 3.2. Effects of ploidy on developmental timing in embryos from wildtype females

227 To account for how the timing of developmental stages may be affected by ploidy, we compared  
228 development between “haploid-only” and “haploid or diploid” embryos. Of the 50 “haploid or diploid” embryos  
229 examined from wildtype mated females (N = 10 for each timepoint), developmental timing was consistent with that  
230 of “haploid-only” embryos (Table 2). Even if some of the eggs were haploid, there were no obvious outliers

231 suggesting differences between “haploid-only” or “haploid and diploid” embryos. In the “haploid and diploid”  
232 embryos, syncytial cleavage was observed at six hours PO. Similarly, cellularization and blastoderm formation  
233 occurred by 18 hours PO. Gastrulation had occurred in all embryos by 24 hours PO. Based on our observations, we  
234 concluded that ploidy did not have an effect on the timing of embryonic development in embryos from wildtype  
235 females.

236

237 **Table 2.**

238 Development of “haploid or diploid” embryos from mated wildtype females

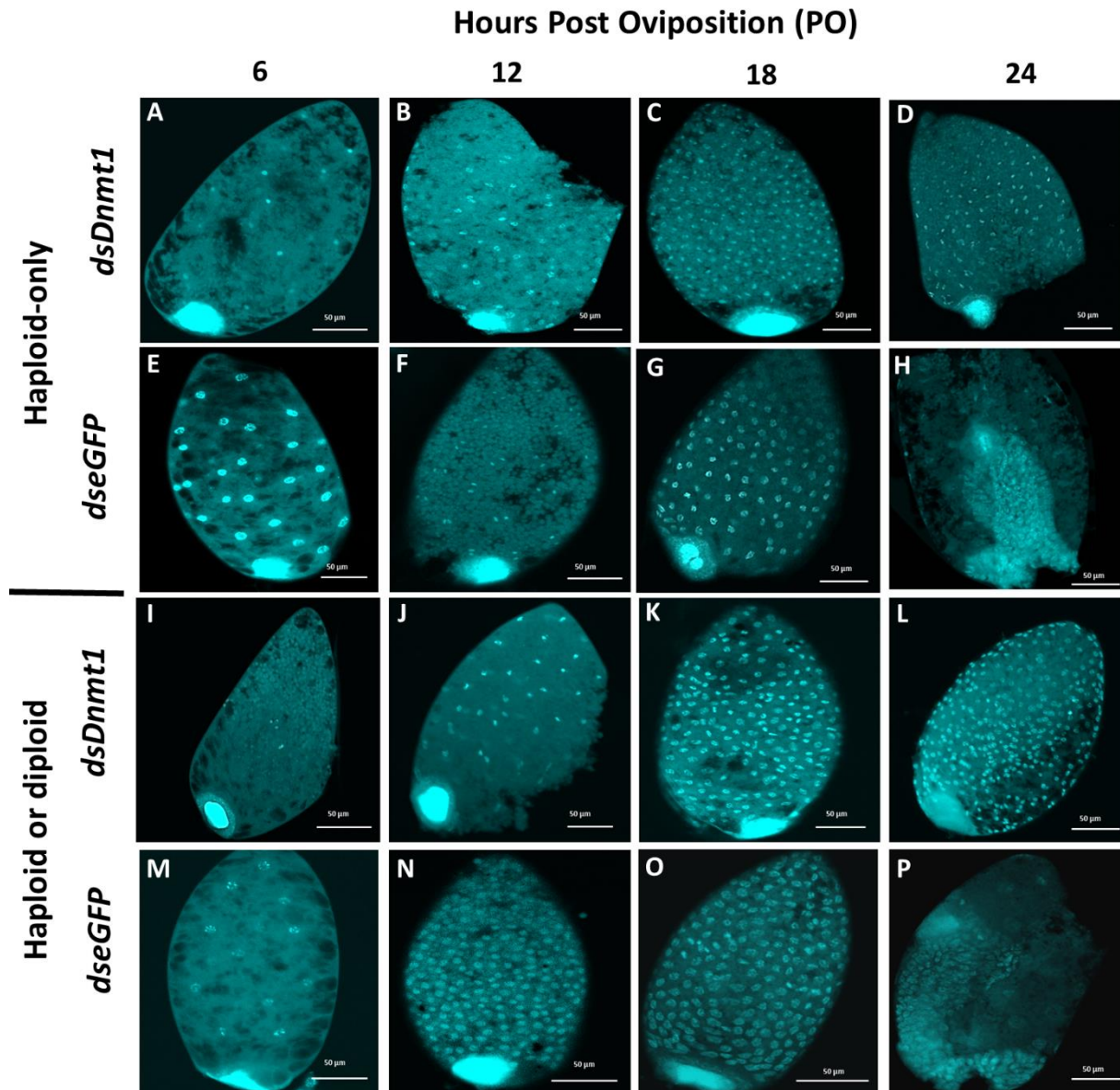
Hours PO	Phenotype	Stage	n
6	Center-located nuclei	Cleavage	10
12	Nuclei throughout	Cleavage	9
18	Germ rudiment formation	Blastoderm	8
24	Bacteriocyte moves inward	Gastrulation	10
48	Invagination completed	Gastrulation	10

239

240 *3.3. Effects of Dnmt1 on early embryonic development*

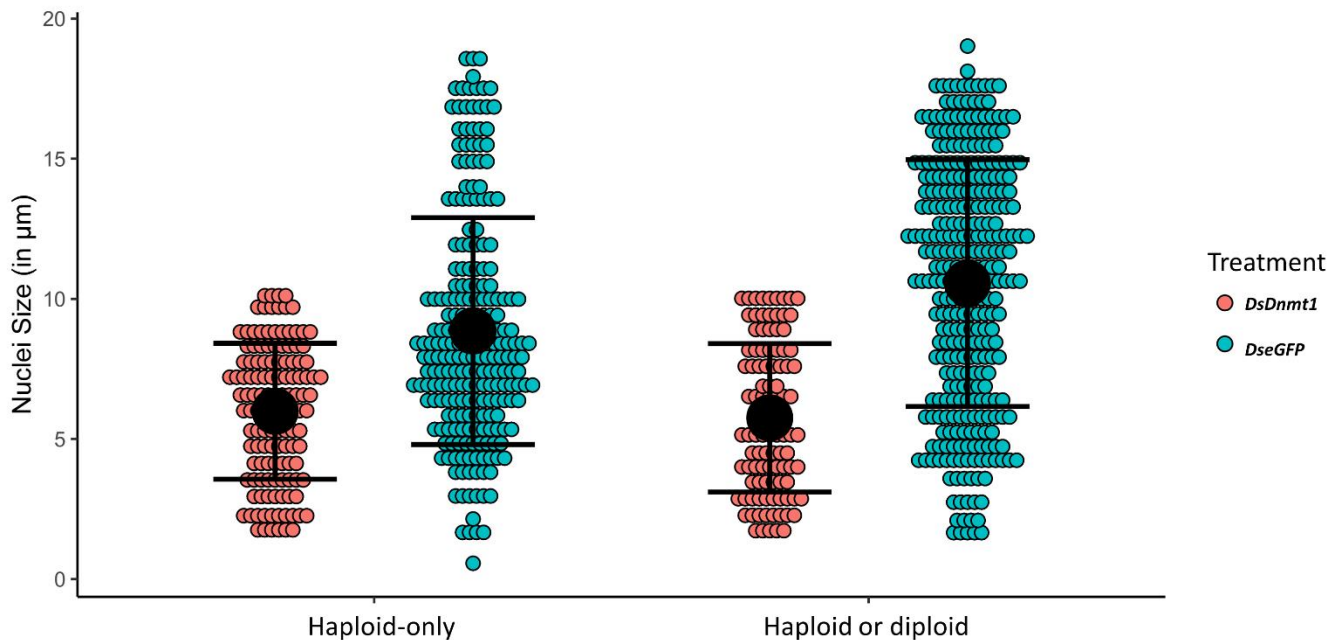
241 To investigate the role of *Dnmt1* during embryogenesis, we examined embryo development following  
242 manipulation of *Dnmt1* expression by RNAi. Maternal RNAi knockdown of *Dnmt1* produced lethal phenotypes in  
243 70% of embryos. These embryos did not develop beyond the blastoderm stage (18 hours PO) and failed to form a  
244 germ rudiment (Fig. 2). The remaining 30% of embryos did not have a knockdown phenotype; this is consistent with  
245 egg viability measurements previously reported in Shelby et al. (2023). At 24 hours PO, both “haploid-only” and  
246 “haploid or diploid” embryos from *dsDnmt1*-fed females had the same knockdown phenotype (Fig. 2D & L). In

247 contrast, “haploid-only” and “haploid or diploid” embryos from the control *dseGFP*-fed females exhibited a  
248 phenotype indistinguishable from embryos produced by wildtype female and proceeded to undergo gastrulation at  
249 24 hours PO (Fig. 2H& P). These results suggest that *Dnmt1* may be required for cell differentiation and germ  
250 rudiment formation.



251  
252 **Fig. 2.** Knockdown of *Dnmt1* via maternal RNAi results in inability to complete cellularization and form a germ  
253 rudiment at 24 hours post oviposition (PO). Images were taken at 6, 12, 18, and 24 hours PO of (A-D) *dsDnmt1* “haploid-only” embryos, (E-H)  
254 *dseGFP* “haploid-only” embryos, (I-L) *dsDnmt1* “haploid and diploid” embryos, and (M-P) *dseGFP* “haploid and diploid”  
255 embryos.

256 Both ploidy and *Dnmt1* knockdown affected nuclei size during pre-blastoderm development (Fig. 3).  
257 Initially, ploidy had an effect on nuclei size with “haploid or diploid” embryos from *dseGFP*-fed females being  
258 significantly larger than “haploid-only” embryos from *dseGFP*-fed females ( $F = 6.0401$ ,  $p = 0.0142$ ). The “haploid  
259 or diploid” embryos from *dseGFP*-fed females had an average nucleus diameter of  $10.57 \mu\text{m}$  ( $\pm 0.22 \mu\text{m}$ ) while  
260 “haploid-only” embryos from *dseGFP*-fed females had an average nucleus diameter of  $8.84 \mu\text{m}$  ( $\pm 0.25 \mu\text{m}$ ).  
261 Knockdown of *Dnmt1* also significantly reduced nuclei size ( $F = 162.384$ ,  $p < 0.001$ .) Loss of *Dnmt1* resulted in  
262 consistently smaller nuclei in both *dsDnmt1* embryo groups ( $5.98 \mu\text{m} \pm 0.335 \mu\text{m}$  for “haploid-only” embryos and  
263  $5.75 \mu\text{m} \pm 0.374 \mu\text{m}$  for “haploid or diploid” embryos). Additionally, there was a significant interaction between  
264 ploidy and knockdown of *Dnmt1* ( $F = 10.436$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ) with the amplitude of the change in size larger control  
265 haploid nuclei due to their larger size in control embryos.



266  
267 **Fig. 3.** Loss of *Dnmt1* resulted in a smaller nuclei size in both “haploid-only” and “haploid or diploid” embryos. The values are  
268 represented as mean  $\pm$  SE (black circle and bars, respectively) and as individual values (colored circles).  
269  
270

## 271 4. Discussion

### 272 4.1. Comparison to embryogenesis in other insects

273 In this study, we catalogued embryonic development in *B. tabaci*, an emerging model organism for which  
274 there are no detailed embryological studies. Based on our descriptions of the timing and morphogenesis during *B.*  
275 *tabaci* embryogenesis, our results indicate that their development is comparable to other insect systems such as  
276 *Oncopeltus fasciatus* (Liu & Kaufman, 2004; Panfilio et al., 2006), *Rhodnius prolixus* (Berni et al., 2014), *Gryllus*  
277 *bimaculatus* (Donoughe & Extavour, 2016), *Murgantia histrionica* (Hernandez, Pick, & Reding, 2020), *Nilaparvata*  
278 *lugens* (Fan et al., 2020). This suggests the pattern of development may be conserved amongst hemipterans and  
279 perhaps hemimetabolous insects in general. Our study also showed that despite having different nuclei sizes (and  
280 presumably, different amounts of DNA), haploid and diploid embryos experienced the same developmental timing,  
281 suggesting that ploidy does not control timing in early development alone. This result aligns with what is observed  
282 in the hymenopteran *Nasonia*, another obligate haplodiploid system but one that is holometabolous (Arsala &  
283 Lynch, 2017). Given their vastly different taxonomic positions, this suggests that haplodiploid insects may rely more  
284 heavily on factors other than DNA amount, such as maternal factors, to regulate early development and activate the  
285 zygotic genome at the appropriate time to maintain genome function and stability. However, given that maternal  
286 factors are not well characterized in this group of insects, it is unclear which major processes (cellularization, cell-  
287 cycle pausing, etc.) are being affected in order to coordinate development between haploid and diploid embryos.  
288 Overall, embryonic development of *B. tabaci* shares characteristics with other hemimetabolous insects and with  
289 other obligate haplodiploid systems.

290

### 291 4.2. Comparison to other *Dnmt1* knockdown phenotypes

292 Knockdown of *Dnmt1* prevented *B. tabaci* embryos from completing cellularization and forming a germ  
293 rudiment. Cleavage could also have been affected as loss of *Dnmt1* resulted in smaller nuclei. In other insect taxa,  
294 loss of *Dnmt1* has resulted in similar embryo failure during the blastoderm phase or prior to gastrulation (Schulz et  
295 al., 2018; Ventós-Alfonso et al., 2020; Arsala et al., 2022). This suggests that *Dnmt1* plays an evolutionarily  
296 conserved role specifically in early embryogenesis in insects. Indeed, expression of *Dnmt1* peaks during early  
297 embryogenesis prior to gastrulation and decreases as development progresses (Arsala et al., 2022). Also, given that  
298 loss of *Dnmt1* affected both haploid and diploid embryos prior to the blastoderm phase, it is likely that DNMT1 may



299 be regulating development similar to a maternal factor. The timing and phenotype of the developmental failure could  
300 indicate that these embryos are not capable of completing either the transition from maternal to zygotic transcription  
301 or the mid-blastula transition, a stage in development characterized by changes in the cell cycle and loss of  
302 synchronous cell divisions (Vastenhouw et al., 2019).

303

#### 304 4.3. *Dnmt1* functional considerations

305         Though *Dnmt1*'s mechanism remains elusive, insight into *when* loss of *Dnmt1* affects development hints at  
306 what may be going wrong. The blastoderm phase in most insects is defined by cellularization, zygotic genome  
307 activation, and germ rudiment formation. Indeed, these processes are not mutually exclusive as *Drosophila* embryos  
308 require zygotic transcripts for cellularization to occur (Edgar et al., 1986) and germ rudiment formation involves  
309 differentiation of cell populations in the egg (Johannsen & Butt, 1941). These processes all involve changes in cell  
310 cycle regulation. For example, during the cleavage stage, the cell cycle lacks gap phases and rapidly oscillates  
311 between DNA synthesis and mitotic divisions (Farrell & O'Farrell, 2014). This occurs because the supply of  
312 maternal factors loaded during oogenesis guides the process efficiently without the use of cell cycle checkpoints or  
313 much input from the zygotic genome (Reviewed in Brantley & Talia, 2021). The addition of gap phases to the cell  
314 cycle coincides with the activation of the zygotic genome and the establishment of cell fate specification domains  
315 (Reviewed in Brantley & Talia, 2021). Loss of *Dnmt1* results in downregulation of *Cdc20*, an inducer of mitosis, but  
316 not *Cdc25*, which functions during the G2/M checkpoint, suggesting that *Dnmt1* may not be associated with gap  
317 phases function, and therefore may not be necessary after the maternal to zygotic transition (Shelby et al., 2023).  
318 Indeed, our *Dnmt1* knockdown embryos phenocopy embryos that have lost components involved in maternal to  
319 zygotic transition and proper cell cycle progression. For example, loss of function of maternal-to-zygotic transition  
320 regulators *Zelda* and *Smaug* also result in failure to cellularize and prevents gastrulation (Arsala & Lynch, 2017).  
321 Also, loss of *Piwi* results in mitotic defects that result in abnormal nuclear morphology (Mani et al., 2014) and  
322 chromosome condensation and defects during S-phase progression (Schwager et al., 2015). Based on how loss of  
323 *Dnmt1* function results in embryo failure during the blastoderm phase and the associated phenotypes, it is likely that  
324 plays a role in cell cycle regulation during the maternal to zygotic transition.

325         Disparate lines of evidence also suggest that DNMT1 helps regulate the cell cycle during embryogenesis in  
326 a methylation-independent manner. Studies in mammals have suggested that DNMT1 is involved in related

327 processes such as cell cycle checkpoint recognition and DNA repair (Brown & Robertson, 2007). However, those  
328 roles could not be confirmed based on mammalian reliance on a methylated genome, and any resulting phenotype  
329 could be attributed to loss of methylation. Loss of *Dnmt1* resulted in loss of reproduction and affected genes related  
330 to cell cycle checkpoints even under conditions where not enough mitotic divisions have occurred to reduce DNA  
331 methylation (Shelby et al., 2023), suggesting that DNMT1 can interact with DNA without affecting methylation. In  
332 our current study, we observed that the syncytial nuclei of knockdown embryos were all small as opposed to being  
333 varying sizes based on where they were in the cell cycle at the time of fixation. If nuclei size is suggestive of the cell  
334 cycle phase, then our data suggest that the embryos failed at the same point in the cell cycle. However, due to this  
335 nuclear phenotype not being reported in other knockdown studies, it is unclear if this phenotype is a result of loss of  
336 *Dnmt1* or a random occurrence. Nevertheless, *Dnmt1*'s role in cell cycle activities and genome stability needs to be  
337 resolved.

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#### 339 4.4. Conclusions and perspectives

340 In this study, we established a developmental staging system for embryogenesis in *B. tabaci* in order to  
341 facilitate comparative and developmental studies. We show that development in *B. tabaci* progresses similarly to  
342 that of other hemipterans. We also show that, like other haplodiploid systems, ploidy does not affect developmental  
343 timing in *B. tabaci*. Functional assays revealed that *Dnmt1* plays a role in early embryogenesis, suggesting that it  
344 may be a maternal regulator of development. In addition, embryos produced from *dsDnmt1*-treated females failed to  
345 form a blastoderm and germ rudiment. Because these knockdown embryos had consistent nuclear phenotypes, we  
346 suggest that *Dnmt1* may be playing a role in cell cycle checkpoints. However, future studies will need to further  
347 study how *Dnmt1* interacts with DNA during the cell cycle in order to understand its mode of action.

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361 **CRediT authorship contribution statement**

362 **Emily A. Shelby:** Writing – original draft, Conceptualization, Methodology, Formal analysis, Data Curation,  
363 Investigation, Visualization. **Elizabeth C. McKinney:** Writing – review & editing, Methodology, Validation,  
364 Investigation. **Alvin M. Simmons:** Writing – review & editing, Funding acquisition. **Allen J. Moore:** Writing –  
365 review & editing, Methodology, Conceptualization, Funding acquisition. **Patricia J. Moore:** Writing- review &  
366 editing, Methodology, Supervision, Project administration, Investigation, Conceptualization, Funding acquisition.

367

368 **Declaration of competing interest**

369 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

370

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