Conservation of symmetry breaking at the level of chromatin accessibility
between fly species with unrelated anterior determinants

Authors

Ezra E. Amiri[1] <emsy@uchicago.edu> (ORCiD 0000-0002-6241-6656)

Ayse Tenger-Trolander[1] <atengertrolander@uchicago.edu> (ORCiD 0000-0001-8319-0273)

Muzi Li[1] <muzi1@uchicago.edu> (ORCiD 0000-0001-8194-5214)

Alexander Thomas Julian[2] < ajulian@hawk.iit.edu> (ORCiD 0000-0001-6268-5007)

Koray Kasan[1] <kkasan@uchicago.edu> (ORCiD 0000-0001-8098-0376)

Sheri A. Sanders[3] <Sheri.A.Sanders.57@nd.edu> (ORCiD 0000-0003-29692541)

Shelby Blythe[4,5*] <shelby.blythe@northwestern.edu> (ORCiD 0000-0003-4986-2579)

Urs Schmidt-Ott[1*] <uschmid@uchicago.edu> (ORCiD 0000-0002-1351-9472)

* Authors for correspondence

Author affiliations

1. The University of Chicago, Department of Organismal Biology and Anatomy, 1027 East 57th
Street, Chicago, Illinois 60637, USA

2. Illinois Institute of Technology, Department of Biology, 3105 South Dearborn Street,
Chicago, Illinois 60616, USA

3. Notre Dame University, 252 Galvin Life Science Center/Freimann Life Science Center,
Notre Dame, Indiana 46556, USA

4. Northwestern University, Department of Molecular Biosciences, 2205 Tech Drive, Evanston,
Illinois 60208, USA

5. Northwestern University and The University of Chicago, National Institute for Theory and
Mathematics in Biology, 875 North Michigan Avenue, Suite 3500, Chicago, Illinois 60611,
USA

Author Contributions

EA: Conceptualization, Methodology, Data curation, Investigation, Formal analysis,
Visualization, Writing – original draft, and Writing – review and editing. ATT: Methodology,
Formal analysis, Visualization, Writing – review and editing. ML: Data curation and
Investigation. AJ: Formal analysis and Methodology. KK: Formal analysis and Visualization.
SS: Project administration, Resources, Writing – review and editing. SB: Conceptualization,
Resources, Funding acquisition, Project administration, Supervision, Writing – original draft,
Writing – review and editing. USO: Conceptualization, Resources, Funding acquisition, Project
administration, Supervision, Writing – original draft, Writing – review and editing.

Abstract

Establishing the anterior-posterior body axis is a fundamental process during embryogenesis, and
the fruit fly, *Drosophila melanogaster*, provides one of the best-known case studies of this
process. In Drosophila, localized mRNA of *bicoid* serves as anterior determinant (AD). Bicoid
engages in a concentration-dependent competition with nucleosomes and initiates symmetry-
breaking along the AP axis by promoting chromatin accessibility at the loci of transcription
factor (TF) genes that are expressed in the anterior of the embryo. However, ADs of other fly
species are unrelated and structurally distinct, and little is known about how they function. We
addressed this question in the moth fly, *Clogmia albipunctata*, in which a maternally expressed
transcript isoform of the pair-rule segmentation gene *odd-paired* is localized in the anterior egg
and has been co-opted as AD. We provide a *de novo* assembly and annotation of the Clogmia
genome and describe how knockdown of *zelda* and maternal *odd-paired* transcript affect
chromatin accessibility and expression of TF-encoding loci. The results of these experiments
suggest direct roles of Cal-Zld in opening and closing chromatin during nuclear cleavage cycles
and show that Clogmia's maternal *odd-paired* activity promotes chromatin accessibility and
anterior expression during the early phase of zygotic genome activation at Clogmia's
homeobrain and *sloppy-paired* loci. We conclude that unrelated dipteran ADs initiate anterior-
posterior axis-specification at the level of enhancer accessibility and that *homeobrain* and
sloppy-paired homologs may serve a more widely conserved role in the initiation of anterior
pattern formation given their early anterior expression and function in head development in other
insects.

Introduction

Early embryos face the challenge of breaking symmetry and establishing spatially restricted
domains of gene expression that define the body plan. Dipteran insects (flies, midges,
mosquitoes) can achieve this through concentration gradients of transcription factors, referred to
as morphogens, because their early embryos develop as a syncytium in which protein products
from maternally localized mRNAs can diffuse (1, 2). Dipteran embryos undergo multiple rounds
of synchronous nuclear division cycles (**NC**) before the blastoderm, a monolayer of nuclei
between the cell membrane of the egg and the yolk, cellularizes and enters gastrulation to form
the segmented germband. Because of its anatomical simplicity and experimental accessibility,
the syncytial and cellular blastoderm of Drosophila has been widely used as a model for axis
specification, pattern formation, and gene regulation and is among the best-known
developmental transcription factor (**TF**) / gene networks in animals (3-10). Many aspects of
embryogenesis and pattern formation are conserved between distantly related dipterans and
provide a unifying framework for comparative studies (10-13). However, the maternally
provided anterior determinants that establish anterior-specific zygotic gene expression and the
embryo's overall head-to-tail polarity differ widely between species across the dipteran clade
(14, 15). This finding raises the question of which other aspects of Drosophila's classic model of
axial pattern formation (16) have diverged within the dipteran clade.

While the anterior determinant (**AD**) in Drosophila and many other higher flies (Cyclorrhapha) is
encoded by a homeobox gene, *bicoid* (17-21), diverse zinc finger genes take on this role in lower
dipterans, including *pangolin* (*Tcf* ortholog) in anopheline mosquitoes and crane flies, *cucoid* in
culicine mosquitoes, *panish* in certain harlequin flies (Chironomini), and *odd-paired* (*Zic*

ortholog) in moth flies (Psychodidae) (14, 15). All these species deposit a maternally expressed
transcript isoform of the respective AD gene in the anterior tip of the egg that, once translated,
specifies anterior cell fates. Without the AD, embryos develop a bicaudal phenotype without
head (double abdomen). The AD-encoded proteins (for simplicity we also refer to them as AD)
differ widely in their structure and DNA-binding domains. Bicoid (Bcd) binds DNA via its
homeodomain, Pangolin (Pan) through HMG and C-clamp domains, Panish through a C-clamp
domain, and Opa and Cucoid through distinct C2H2 zinc finger domains (22-27). This molecular
diversity prompted us to ask whether targets and mechanisms of action of dipteran ADs differ
between species or whether they are conserved due to downstream network constraints.

Bcd binds to enhancers that promote the transcription of early segmentation genes, such as
hunchback (28, 29), *Krüppel* (30), *knirps* (31), *giant* (32-34), *orthodenticle* (35), or *even-skipped*
(36-39). This Bcd activity is complemented by the maternal TF gradients of Hunchback (Hb)
(33, 40-42), which peaks in the anterior embryo and Caudal (Cad) (31, 43), which is repressed in
the anterior embryo (44). Additionally, ubiquitous TFs, such as the pioneer factor Zelda (Zld)
(45, 46), establish or promote chromatin accessibility at many sites that are targeted by Bcd (47-
55). During early blastoderm stages, chromatin accessibility measured by ATAC-seq (assay for
transposase-accessible chromatin with sequencing) is largely homogeneous across the embryo;
however, a small cohort of early segmentation gene enhancers exhibits anteriorly restricted
accessibility in response to high concentrations of Bcd (e.g., enhancers of "head gap genes",
knirps, and *giant*, and *even-skipped* that drive expression in anterior domains) (56-60). Bcd
engages in a concentration-dependent competition with nucleosomes to 'open' these otherwise
inaccessible regulatory regions, effectively breaking symmetry along the AP axis at the level of
chromatin accessibility (61), well before the bulk of zygotic genome activation and pattern
formation occurs (62). While Bcd exerts a concentration-dependent function in gene regulation
through its impact on chromatin states (56), it is not known whether this mechanism of action
can be generalized for other dipteran ADs.

We have addressed this question by examining how the AD of *Clogmia albipunctata* affects
chromatin accessibility and gene expression during the early phase of zygotic genome activation.
Clogmia lacks *bicoid* and uses a maternal transcript isoform of *odd-paired* (*Cal-opa*) as anterior
determinant (15). Knockdown of the maternal *Cal-opa* transcript by isoform-specific RNA
interference (RNAi) results in the double abdomen phenotype, and posterior mis-expression of
Cal-opa by mRNA injection causes a bicephalic (double head) phenotype. An alternative zygotic
transcript isoform of *Cal-opa* appears during blastoderm cellularization at NC14 and exerts a
conserved function in the late segmentation gene network but has no role in establishing head-to-
tail polarity of the embryo (15, 63). However, prior to activation of zygotic *Cal-opa* expression,
ectopic posterior *odd-paired* activity, whether from the maternal or the zygotic isoform or from
Drosophila *odd-paired*, results in double heads in Clogmia (15). Early Cal-Opa activity is
therefore both necessary and sufficient for establishing head-to-tail polarity of the Clogmia
embryo. The symmetric double abdomen phenotype of Clogmia embryos with reduced maternal
Cal-opa transcript is very similar to the phenotype of Drosophila embryos lacking the maternal
transcripts of *bicoid* and *hunchback* (64). We note here that in Drosophila, maternal *hunchback*
provides residual polarity to *bicoid*-deficient embryos (65). This is not the case in Clogmia, in
which a gradient of Hb protein appears later than in Drosophila but still before transcription
initiation of several other "gap genes", including homologs of *Krüppel*, *giant*, *knirps*, and *tailless*
(66, 67).

In Drosophila, zygotic Opa pioneers chromatin accessibility in late NC14 embryos to advance
the progression of segmentation and dorso-vental patterning (58, 68). We therefore asked
whether the maternal *Cal-opa* gradient of Clogmia breaks axial symmetry and initiates anterior
pattern formation during zygotic genome activation by driving chromatin accessibility at the loci
of select target genes. Like Drosophila, Clogmia forms a syncytial blastoderm at NC9 and
cellularizes the blastoderm at NC14 shortly before entering gastrulation, although Clogmia's
nuclear cycles last longer: NC10 ~2 times longer, NC11-13 ~3 times longer, and NC14 ~1.6
times longer (69). Here, we have used a *de novo* assembled and annotated genome sequence of
Clogmia albipunctata to characterize chromatin accessibility in single wild-type embryos at
NC11, NC12, NC13, and early and late NC14, using ATAC-seq. We then established a protocol
for studying chromatin accessibility and gene expression changes in single blastoderm embryos
that were subjected to RNA interference (RNAi), using Clogmia's ortholog of the pioneer factor
gene *zelda* (*Cal-zld*) as target and confirmed that it has a pronounced impact on chromatin
accessibility and gene expression. Finally, we examined how knockdown of maternal *odd-paired*
transcript (*Cal-opa*) affects chromatin accessibility and gene expression during early stages of
zygotic genome activation. Our results reveal groups of genes with similar dynamic changes in
chromatin accessibility, point to direct roles of Cal-Zld in opening and closing chromatin, and
support the hypothesis that the conserved feature of anterior determination between Clogmia and
Drosophila is symmetry breaking at the level of chromatin accessibility, while key target genes
may differ between these species.

Results

***De novo* assembly and annotation of the genome of *Clogmia albipunctata* reveals multiple**
lineage-specific duplications of early segmentation gene homologs

We generated a high quality *de novo* genome assembly of *Clogmia albipunctata* with 6
chromosome-size scaffolds (**Figure 1, Table 1, S1 Appendix**), consistent with the known
chromosome number in this species (70, 71). The total length of the chromosome-size scaffolds
is 304.3 Mb, close to genome size estimates based on flow cytometry data (316.6 Mb) (72). An
additional 268 small scaffolds (< 1 MB) contained mostly repetitive sequences. We annotated
this new reference genome using RNA-seq transcripts from embryonic, larval, pupal, and adult
stages (**S1 Table**), protein sequences, and *ab initio* gene prediction software, and identified
15,047 protein coding genes. The annotated genome recovered 88%-94% of Complete
Benchmarking Universal Single Copy Orthologs (BUSCO) (**Table 2**), in line with recently
published dipteran genomes (73-75). While synteny between the chromosomes within the
Cyclorrhapha clade can be highly conserved (time of divergence ~145 million years ago) (74),
synteny between the chromosomes of *D. melanogaster* and *C. albipunctata* (divergence time
~250 million years ago) was essentially lost.

Next, we interrogated the genome for the presence of predicted early segmentation genes. As
expected, no *bicoid* ortholog was found but we recovered two putative Hox class 3 genes to
which *bicoid* belongs (76), including the previously reported homolog of *zerknüllt* (*Cal-zen*) (77)
on scaffold 7 and a more diverged potential *Cal-zen* paralog in position 3 of the Hox gene
complex on scaffold 3 (evm.TU.scaffold_3.2943.1.65be5b92). Our annotation also included
homologs of *Drosophila melanogaster*'s early segmentation genes, including gap genes (*tailless*,
huckebein, *orthodenticle/ocelliless*, *empty spiracles*, *buttonhead*, *hunchback*, *Krüppel*, *giant*,

knirps), pair-rule genes (*even-skipped*, *fushi tarazu*, *odd-skipped*, *runt*, *sloppy-paired*, *paired*,
hairy, odd-paired), and other important regulators (*caudal*, *Dichaete*) (7, 9). Some of these genes
have more than one copy in the Clogmia genome, including 2 copies of *hunchback* (*Cal-hb1*,
Cal-hb2), *knirps/knirps-like* (*Cal-kni/knrl1*, *Cal-kni/knrl2*), *orthodenticle* (*Cal-otd1*, *Cal-otd2*),
even-skipped (*Cal-eve1*, *Cal-eve2*), *tailless* (*Cal-tll1*, *Cal-tll2*) and *caudal* (*Cal-cad 1*, *Cal-cad2*),
3 copies of *sloppy-paired1/2/fd19B* (*Cal-slp1*, *Cal-slp2*, *Cal-slp3*), and 4 copies of *empty*
spiracles (*Cal-ems1, Cal-ems2, Cal-ems3, Cal-ems4*) (**Figure 1, S2 Table**). Such gene
duplications are a potential source of redundancies in Clogmia's segmentation gene network (see
below).
180
Distinct patterns of dynamic changes of ATAC-seq peaks during nuclear cycles 11 through 14 suggest coordinated regulation of associated genes

To identify accessible chromatin before and during the main wave of zygotic genome activation,
we performed single embryo ATAC-seq at NC11, NC12, NC13, NC14 (before cellularization),
and Late NC14 approximately 20 minutes before gastrulation. The embryos were staged *in vivo*
using developmental time after egg activation at 25ºC and morphological criteria as previously
described (69) and validated under our laboratory conditions. At least three replicates were
performed for NC11 though NC14, and two replicates were performed for Late NC14. We
pooled the ATAC-seq data from all stages to create a master peak list of 32157 open chromatin
regions (peaks), using MACS2 (78). We also computed the number of peaks for each
developmental stage excluding stage-specific peaks that were not recovered as significant in the
master peak list. In this analysis, we found that the overall number of peaks increases with each
nuclear cycle, suggesting that the chromatin landscape is continuously changing (**Table 3**). Since
promoter accessibility does not necessarily indicate gene expression (79), we divided the
accessible chromatin regions into transcription start site (TSS) proximal regions (<500 bp of
TSS) and TSS distal regions (>500 bp) to facilitate the distinction of open promoters and other
open cis-regulatory elements. ATAC-seq peaks that only mapped to intergenic or intronic
sequence were treated as candidate enhancers or silencers (henceforth collectively referred to as
enhancers). The relative proportion of candidate enhancers increased by about 10% from NC11
(46.8%) to NC14 (58%) and then decreased from NC14 to Late NC14 (52.7%) (**S1 Figure**).
These observations suggest similar dynamic changes in chromatin accessibility during zygotic
genome activation in Clogmia and Drosophila (80, 81).

To identify peaks with dynamic patterns of chromatin accessibility, we compared the degree of
accessibility of each peak between successive timepoints (**Figure 2A-D**) using DESeq2 (82).
This analysis identified a total of 6930 dynamically regulated peaks (adjusted p-value ≤ 0.05 and
|log$_2$ Fold Change| ≥ 1; 21.6% of all 32157 peaks) and enabled us to quantitatively determine the
behavior of each peak between consecutive developmental stages and to group them according to
their accessibility changes over time (**S2 Figure**). The majority (5403 / 6930 dynamic peaks;
78%) fell into 8 groups (**Figure 2E**). Many of the dynamic peaks closed (14.6%; Groups 5,13) or
opened (~20.4%; Groups 8,12) gradually over time. The remaining dynamic peak groups
exhibited more complex dynamics between NC11 and Late NC14, commonly with an inflection
at NC13 (e.g., Groups 3,1,15,14; see also **S2 Figure**). These observations suggest that
remodeling of chromatin accessibility between NC11 and Late NC14 at individual peaks often
follows patterns that are shared by many peaks and may reflect co-regulation of the associated
genes.

Cal-zld is required for promoting and closing chromatin at the blastoderm stage in Clogmia

Previous studies in Drosophila have shown that temporal changes in chromatin accessibility are
regulated by the interplay of transcription factors that can interact with nucleosome-bound DNA
(pioneer factors) and transcription factors that have limited or no ability to initiate chromatin
accessibility but affect the accessibility of open chromatin (83, 84). The earliest changes in
chromatin accessibility are primarily driven by the pioneer factor Zld (46, 80, 85-87). As zygotic
genome activation accelerates, additional pioneer factors, such as GAF (88), CLAMP (89, 90),
and Opa (58, 68) are required for maintaining, modulating, or gaining chromatin accessibility. In
Clogmia, a motif enrichment analysis of peaks with the MEME software package (91, 92)
revealed an enrichment of a Zelda-binding motif (5'-CAGGTA), GA-rich motifs recognized by
GAF and CLAMP (88, 93-95), in addition to $(CA)_n$ motifs recognized by Combgap (Cg) (96),
and others (**S3 Figure**). Opa-binding motifs were not recovered in this analysis. These results are
comparable to findings in Drosophila (58, 62, 68) and suggest that key pioneer factors acting
during zygotic genome activation are likely conserved between Drosophila and Clogmia.

Homologs of *zelda* have been identified in many insects and some crustaceans (97), and several
transcriptomic studies suggest that Zld's function as pioneer transcription factor during zygotic
genome activation is conserved across insects (98-102). However, Zld's pioneer activity is stage-
specific in *Drosophila* (103), and these comparative studies did not directly test for Zld-
dependent effects on chromatin accessibility. We identified Clogmia *zld* (*Cal-zld*) (**S4 Figure**)
and confirmed high levels of *Cal-zld* expression at preblastoderm and blastoderm stages (**S5
Figure**). Loss of Zld in *Drosophila* results in a failure to activate a large cohort of early zygotic
genes, including those associated with the process of cellularization (46). To examine phenotypic
effects of *Cal-zld* depletion, batches of ~30 embryos were injected with *Cal-zld* dsRNA (double-
stranded RNA) within the first hour of development (NC2/3). A subset of embryos from each
batch (3 replicates) were monitored *in vivo* and allowed to develop until the end of NC14
(roughly 7-7.5 hours after injection). Many of the embryos in each batch failed to develop a
blastoderm while some developed normally, presumably because of insufficient *Cal-zld*
knockdown. A third class of embryos reached NC14 but failed to cellularize and developed
aberrantly (**S1 Movie**). This phenotype is comparable to the phenotype of *in vivo* imaged *zld*
mutant Drosophila embryos (**S2 Movie**) (86) and suggests that the role of Zld for the regulation
of early zygotic genes is conserved in *Clogmia.* We also quantified knockdown efficiencies of
Cal-zld transcript in individual embryos by RT-qPCR (**S3 Table**). In one quarter of the *Cal-zld*
RNAi embryos (5/20), *Cal-zld* mRNA levels were reduced by ~30-90%.

To assess *Cal-zld*'s role in shaping chromatin accessibility and zygotic genome activation, we
adapted our ATAC-seq protocol to isolate RNA from single-embryo ATAC-seq library
preparations of Late NC14 *Cal-zld* RNAi embryos (8 replicates). In parallel, we processed stage-
matched untreated embryos that were allowed to develop under water in the dish used for egg
activation (wild-type controls; 5 replicates), and embryos that were prepared for injection under
oil but not injected (alignment controls; 5 replicates). The isolated RNA was used to generate
RNA-seq libraries to measure the efficiency of the *Cal-zld* knockdown as well as transcriptional
effects of the knockdown in individual embryos. To identify individual injected embryos with
strong *Cal-zld* knockdowns, we quantified *Cal-zld* expression levels using the RNA-seq data and
chose embryos with knockdown efficiencies greater than 75% (n= 4, **S6 Figure** and see
Materials and Methods). We then compared gene expression and ATAC-seq peaks of these *Cal-*

zld RNAi embryos to those of the alignment control group using DESeq2. Loss of *Cal-zld*
affected 2230 genes of which 865 (38.8%) were downregulated and 1365 (61.2%) were
upregulated. We then compared genes differentially expressed in *Cal-zld* RNAi embryos to
genes we found to be expressed maternally, zygotically, or both (**Figure 3A, S7A Figure** and
Materials and Methods). 691 genes were classified as zygotically expressed of which 209
(30.2%) were downregulated in *Cal-zld* RNAi embryos and 63 (9.1%) were upregulated
(corresponding to 24.2% of all 865 downregulated and 4.6% of all 1365 upregulated genes,
respectively). 6658 genes were classified as expressed maternally and zygotically of which 593
(8.9%) were downregulated and 1232 (18.5%) were upregulated. Finally, of the 227 genes
classified as maternally expressed, only 5 (2.2%) were found to be downregulated and 14 (6.2%)
upregulated in *Cal-zld* RNAi embryos. Since the strictly zygotic genes were ~3 times more often
downregulated than upregulated (209 versus 63), our results suggest that *Cal-zld* plays an
important role in activating zygotic genes (**Figure 3A),** consistent with the role of Zld during
zygotic genome activation in Drosophila embryos (46, 85). Changes in the levels of maternal
transcripts in response to *Cal-zld* RNAi could reflect indirect posttranscriptional roles of *Cal-zld*
in their regulation.

At the level of chromatin accessibility, *Cal-zld* depletion affected 4102 of all 32157 peaks
(12.8%). 2399 of them lost accessibility (58.4%) and 1703 gained accessibility (41.5%). The
majority (67%) of the peaks mapped to intergenic or intronic sequences (**Figure 3B)**. Depletion
of *Cal-zld* mRNA affected both dynamic peaks and non-dynamic peaks (**S7B Figure**). Dynamic
peaks were affected by Cal-zld knockdown in different ways (**Figure 3C**). Peaks in groups that
progressively gained accessibility in wild-type embryos (Groups 8, 12, 15 and 14) were more
likely to be *Cal-zld* dependent and to close in Cal-zld RNAi background (**Figure 3C, *left*** and
S8A Figure). This observation is consistent with an important role of Cal-Zld in opening new
chromatin regions during zygotic genome activation. Additionally, our data suggest that Cal-Zld
also plays an important role in closing chromatin regions during zygotic genome activation (**S8B
Figure**). For example, peaks in dynamic groups whose accessibility decreased in wild-type with
each nuclear cycle or that closed after NC13 (Groups 5 and 1) were more likely to require Cal-
Zld to close (**Figure 3C, *right*** and **S8B Figure**).

To better distinguish direct from indirect Cal-Zld targets, we performed a Zld motif search for all
Cal-zld sensitive peaks, using Zld motifs derived from our MEME analysis in Clogmia (5-
CAGGTA; cf. **S3 Figure)** and experimental data in *Drosophila melanogaster* (Fly Factor
Survey) (99). Overall, 2857 of the 4102 *Cal-zld* sensitive peaks contained at least one Zld motif.
Zld motifs were mostly found in the peaks that were reduced following *Cal-zld* knockdown
(1952 peaks) but also in peaks that increased following *Cal-zld* knockdown (905 peaks). In peaks
that lost accessibility following *Cal-zld* knockdown, Zld motifs were *centrally* enriched within
50 bp of the peak summit (**Figure 3D** and **S9 Figure**). This was not the case for peaks that
gained accessibility following *Cal-zld* knockdown. The location of Cal-Zld binding within peaks
may therefore differ depending on the recruitment of repressors or activators. Taken together,
our findings suggest that Cal-Zld plays a central role in both opening and closing chromatin
accessibility in pre-gastrulation embryos.

Chromatin accessibility and gene expression at NC12 and NC13 following knockdown of
maternal *Cal-opa*

Having established that *Cal-zld* regulates chromatin accessibility in Clogmia embryos, we asked whether maternal *Cal-opa* affects chromatin accessibility during early stages of axial pattern formation. Since *Cal-opa* exerts its symmetry-breaking function in axis specification prior to the onset of zygotic *Cal-opa* expression during blastoderm cellularization at mid NC14 (15), we were able to examine the function of *Cal-opa* without confounding effects of zygotic *Cal-opa* activity.

To assess the impact of maternal Cal-Opa activity on chromatin accessibility, we performed ATAC-seq and RNA-seq on single *Cal-opa* RNAi embryos at NC12 (6 replicates) and NC13 (8 replicates). In parallel, we processed stage-matched untreated controls that were allowed to develop under water in the dish used for egg activation (wild-type controls; 2 replicates for NC12 and 3 replicates for NC13), as well as controls that were prepared for injection under oil but not injected (alignment controls; 4 replicates for each developmental stage), and embryos that were injected with dsRNA of the extraneous gene *DsRed* (injection controls; 3 replicates for each stage). To identify RNAi embryos with maximally reduced *Cal-opa* mRNA levels, we used the RNA-seq data to measure *Cal-opa* expression and selected embryos with knockdown efficiencies greater than 75% (**S10 Figure** and see *Materials and Methods*). We identified 4 embryos at NC12 and 5 embryos at NC13 that were then compared to controls using DESeq2. First, we compared the *Cal-opa* RNAi embryos to the alignment controls. This choice was made to reduce noise in the data that could mask relevant targets. Below we report these results before turning to the comparison of the *Cal-opa* RNAi embryos to the respective injection controls.

At NC12, very few changes in chromatin accessibility were observed in response to *Cal-opa* RNAi. Out of the 86 differentially accessible regions, 79 (91.9%) lost accessibility and 7 (8.1%) gained accessibility (**Figure 4A**). At NC13, depletion of *Cal-opa* had a more pronounced effect on chromatin accessibility, with 250/292 (85.6%) peaks losing accessibility and 42/292 (14.4%) gaining accessibility (**Figure 4B**). Most of the differentially accessible regions mapped to putative enhancer regions (**S11 Figure**). We also performed a motif enrichment analysis using the MEME suite on all peaks as well as the peaks that either lost or gained accessibility in *Cal-opa* RNAi embryos at either NC12 or NC13 (**Figure 4C**). In regions that lost accessibility in *Cal-opa* RNAi embryos, the most enriched motifs were GAF/CLAMP and Opa binding motifs. In addition, we recovered motifs with no associated transcription factor. Regions that gained accessibility were enriched in DNA binding motifs of GAF/CLAMP, Abdominal-B (Abd-B), Twist (Twi), and two motifs with no associated transcription factor.

Next, we determined the number of *Cal-opa* sensitive peaks that contained putative Cal-Opa binding sites, including Opa motifs derived from our MEME analysis and a MEME analysis of ATAC-seq data from Drosophila (58). At NC12, 63 of the 79 peaks losing accessibility and none of the 7 peaks gaining accessibility in response to reduced *Cal-opa* activity contained at least one Opa motif (**S2 Appendix**). At NC13, 112 of the 250 peaks losing accessibility and 6 of the 42 peaks gaining accessibility in response to reduced *Cal-opa* activity contained at least one Opa motif (**S3 Appendix**). These results support the hypothesis that Opa directly promotes chromatin accessibility during the early phase of zygotic genome activation.

Maternal Cal-Opa drives chromatin accessibility and expression at *homeobrain* and *sloppy-paired* loci in complementary anterior domains

The early zygotic segmentation gene network of dipterans is dominated by TF-encoding genes, such as the gap genes and pair-rule genes (7, 9, 67, 104-108). Since Bcd breaks axial symmetry by targeting these genes in a concentration-dependent manner, we focused our search of Cal-Opa targets on TF genes that are expressed during blastoderm formation. Using the RNA-seq data from the embryos that were used to identify regions of differential chromatin accessibility, we identified 84 differentially expressed genes at NC12, including 11 transcription factor genes, all of which were downregulated upon *Cal-opa* knockdown (**Figure 5A** and **S2 Appendix**). At NC13, we identified 1047 differentially expressed genes, including 116 putative transcription factor genes of which 67 were downregulated and 49 were upregulated in *Cal-opa* RNAi embryos (**Figure 5B** and **S3 Appendix**). We then asked which of the differentially expressed transcription factor genes are located near open chromatin regions (ATAC-seq peaks) with an Opa motif. This analysis was restricted to peaks within a 40 kb region centered on each gene body of interest and further narrowed the list of potential key target genes of Cal-Opa to 10 genes at NC12 and 72 genes at NC13 (**S2 Appendix and S3 Appendix**). At NC12, 4 of the 10 candidate genes were associated with at least one Cal-Opa dependent ATAC-seq peak, including *Cal-opa,* and homologs of *homeobrain* (*Cal-hbn*) and *sloppy-paired* (*Cal-slp1*, *Cal-slp2*) (**Figure 6, S4 Table,** and **S12 Figure**). At NC13, we thereby identified *Cal-opa, Cal-slp1*, *Cal-slp2* and *Cal-hbn* in addition to Clogmia orthologs of *Dichaete* (*Cal-D*), *Krüppel* (*Cal-Kr*), and an unidentified C2H2 zinc finger gene among the 72 candidates (**Figure 7, S4 Table, S12 Figure and S13 Figure**).

We tested the robustness of these results by repeating the analysis using the injection control group as reference. At NC12, we recovered *Cal-opa*, *Cal-hbn, Cal-slp1,* and *Cal-slp2* as candidate targets, but only three of them (*Cal-opa*, *Cal-hbn, Cal-slp1*) were associated with Cal-Opa dependent ATAC-seq peaks with Cal-Opa binding sites. In the case of *Cal-slp2*, the reduction of these peaks was insignificant (**S4 Table** and **S2 Appendix**). At NC13, we recovered *Cal-hbn, Cal-slp1 and Cal-slp2* (**S4 Table** and **S3 Appendix**). *Cal-opa*, *Cal-Kr*, *Cal-D* and the unidentified C2H2 zinc finger gene were not recovered in this analysis at NC13 because they did not meet the threshold for statistical significance (settings identical for NC12 and NC13). We therefore focused on Clogmia's *homeobrain* and *sloppy-paired* homologs.

Cal-hbn and *Cal-slp1* expression was strictly zygotic and detected during and after NC11 when both genes were expressed in non-overlapping anterior domains (**Figure 8A, B**). Maternal *Cal-slp2* transcript was previously found to be distributed in a shallow anterior-to-posterior gradient and may contribute to the embryo's head-to-tail polarity in subtle ways (15). Zygotic *Cal-slp2* expression during and after NC11 was detected in an anterior stripe (**Figure 8C**). A third *sloppy-paired* homolog that we identified in the Clogmia genome (evm.TU.scaffold_5.987; **S14 Figure and S15 Figure**) was expressed at low levels at NC12 and NC13 and robustly at NC14. The expression of this gene was reduced in *Cal-opa* RNAi embryos but associated ATAC-seq peaks did not contain Opa-binding motifs. Taken together, our findings suggest that *Cal-hbn*, and *Cal-slp1* and *Cal-slp2* are direct early targets of Clogmia's AD and that Cal-Opa serves as their transcriptional activator.

Discussion

Roles of Zld and Opa in shaping chromatin accessibility and gene expression in Clogmia.

Dipteran embryos are morphologically similar (13, 109), but their mechanisms of axis specification (14, 15), primordial germ cell specification (15, 110), extraembryonic tissue specification (111-113), morphogenesis (112, 114, 115), and sex determination (116-119) are not conserved across the dipteran clade. This clade is therefore an attractive model taxon to study how molecular mechanisms of embryogenesis evolve. The segmentation process of flies is particularly suitable for studying the evolution of developmental TF gene networks because it unfolds before the completion of cellularization of the multinucleated embryo when gene expression can be readily visualized and perturbed in non-traditional model organisms. In this study, we have established the resources for dissecting the developmental gene network of early Clogmia embryos by providing an annotated chromosome-level genome sequence for our inbred laboratory strain and by describing chromatin accessibility of precisely staged consecutive blastoderm stages. We have used these resources to examine how *zelda* and maternal *odd-paired* activities shape chromatin accessibility and gene expression in Clogmia.

We find that, as in Drosophila, zygotic genome activation in Clogmia is accompanied by large-scale changes in chromatin accessibility. We demonstrate that Cal-Zld is necessary for activating an early wave of zygotic genes and that reduced *Cal-zld* expression results in widespread losses of chromatin accessibility, consistent with a conserved role for Zld to pioneer chromatin accessibility within the context of zygotic genome activation. However, we also observe differences compared with Drosophila in the early patterns of establishment and maintenance of accessible states, notably losses in accessibility during the cleavage divisions. Further, we show that a subset of these regions depends on Zld to lose accessibility during cleavage stages. Clogmia's anterior determinant, Cal-Opa, likewise has the ability to influence chromatin accessibility states, and loss of Cal-Opa also results in reduced chromatin accessibility, albeit at a smaller cohort of regions compared with Cal-Zld. These Opa-dependent regions include zygotic loci whose functions we further hypothesize are necessary for mediating anterior specification downstream of Opa. Collectively, these results are consistent with a model where anterior determination in Drosophila and Clogmia, while driven by unrelated transcription factors, share a common feature of symmetry breaking at the level of cis-regulatory sequence accessibility driven by the anterior determinant. Mechanistically, this could occur through either a pioneering activity which requires binding of nucleosome occupied DNA or through competition with nucleosomes to bind DNA. Bcd does not pioneer chromatin as observed with Zld and instead outcompetes nucleosomes above a concentration threshold (61, 84). In contrast, a vertebrate homolog of Opa, Zic3, was found to bind nucleosomal DNA *in vivo*, suggesting that Cal-Opa may pioneer chromatin directly (120).

However, unlike in Drosophila, where only gains in accessibility are observed during the cleavage divisions (62), in Clogmia we observe a substantial cohort of regions that lose accessibility over the final cleavage divisions. These regions likely represent sites that gain accessibility prior to NC11 and thereafter lose accessibility. In Drosophila, losses in chromatin accessibility are only observed following the lengthening of the cell cycle at NC14, which coincides with the start of lineage restriction and cell fate specification (58). These programmatic losses in accessibility are presumed to be driven by the activity of repressive factors, either operating globally in all cells of the embryo, or conditionally as part of developmental programs for cell fate specification. The period during which a region is accessible is also presumed to be the period in which the region is functional and positively contributing to gene regulation. It is surprising to observe in Clogmia losses in accessibility during the syncytial cleavage divisions since this is thought to precede large scale zygotic genome activation and cell fate specification.

These regions could potentially control important regulatory events prior to large scale zygotic
genome activation.

In Drosophila, Zld almost exclusively drives gains in chromatin accessibility (56, 58, 87, 121)
through direct binding to DNA motifs independent of nucleosome association, consistent with its
role as a pioneer factor (85). In contrast, we noticed that in Clogmia a subset of the regions that
lose accessibility during the syncytial cleavage divisions do so in a Zld-dependent manner. Based
on the prevalence of Zld motifs within this class of regions (53%), these effects are often likely
direct. At present, we cannot distinguish between a mechanism where Cal-Zld functions directly
as a context-specific repressor or indirectly by permitting the binding of an independent
repressive factor. Further work, including confirming the direct targets of Cal-Zld, and
identification of cooperating repressors, will be needed to answer this question. It is worth
pointing out that the accessibility dynamics that we observe in Clogmia may reflect the
consequences of development with longer cell cycle timing. In Clogmia, NC11 through NC13
take ~3x longer than in Drosophila, where NC11 only lasts ~10 minutes, NC12 ~12 minutes, and
NC13 ~21 minutes (69), and the much shorter cell cycle times of Drosophila present significant
limitations to stable establishment and maintenance of chromatin states (62). Assuming that
kinetic rates for nuclear import, DNA replication, and DNA binding of transcription factors is
similar between Clogmia and Drosophila, the significantly longer syncytial interphase times in
Clogmia could alleviate the impact of cell cycle dependent constraints on transcriptional
regulation. Indeed, experimental lengthening of the Drosophila syncytial interphase can result in
premature transcriptional activation (122).

Functional comparison of the ADs in Clogmia and Drosophila

We find that homologs of *homeobrain* and *sloppy-paired* are targets of Cal-Opa to initiate
anterior pattern formation. These genes may play key roles in initiating anterior pattern
formation not just in Clogmia but also in other insects. In Drosophila, *homeobrain* is required for
labrum and brain development (123-125) and associated with enhancers that open in a Bcd-
dependent manner (56), and in the beetle *Tribolium castaneum*, *homeobrain* was found to play
an important zygotic role in establishing the embryo's anterior-posterior polarity (126). The
sloppy-paired gene, a member of the *forkhead* domain gene family (127), is best known for its
role as pair-rule segmentation gene (9, 128), but it is first expressed in a head domain of the
syncytial Drosophila embryo, like its closest paralogs, *sloppy-paired 2* and *fd19B* (129-132).
Partially redundant functions of sloppy-paired paralogs, which are common across insects (**S14
Figure and S15 Figure**), could have obscured a fundamental role of *sloppy-paired* activity in
head development.

An important limitation of our study is that we cannot rule out that maternal Cal-Opa targets
additional genes via constitutively accessible cis-regulatory DNA. Testing this possibility will
require new genetic tools or reagents to assess where maternal Cal-Opa binds to genomic DNA
in vivo. In the meantime, we provide here a preliminary discussion of how targets of Cal-Opa
and Bcd compare. Bcd contributes to the activation of many early segmentation genes but its role
in the posterior embryo is much more subtle than in the anterior embryo, where all expression
domains directly or indirectly critically depend on Bcd. Target enhancers of Bcd have been
classified based on how their accessibility depends on Bcd and Zld (56). The accessibility of
enhancers targeted by Bcd that drive expression in the posterior region of the embryo is
independent of Bcd (e.g., *Krüppel* CD1, *knirps* posterior, *giant* posterior). However, multiple
enhancers that open in a Bcd-dependent manner were found to be associated with genes that are

expressed in the anterior region of the embryo (e.g., *orthodenticle*, *empty spiracles*, *buttonhead*, *giant*, *knirps*, *hunchback*, *sloppy-paired 1*, *fd19B*, *even-skipped*, *paired*, *cap'n'collar*, *huckebein, homeobrain*), and many of them correspond to enhancers that are known to drive expression of a reporter gene in the anterior embryo (e.g., *giant* anterior (-6), *knirps* anterior, *orthodenticle*, *buttonhead, even-skipped* stripe 1/5, *hunchback* P2, *hunchback* shadow enhancers, *eve-skipped* stripe 2, an early *paired* enhancer, *giant* anterior (-10), *cap'n'collar*, *huckebein;* reviewed in (56).

In Clogmia, the expression of both *hunchback* orthologs (*Cal-hb1*, *Cal-hb2*) was reduced in *Cal-opa* RNAi embryos along with associated ATAC-seq peaks but these regions did not include Opa motifs (**S16A Figure** and **S16B Figure**). Likewise, the expression of one of Clogmia's two orthologs of *orthodenticle* (*Cal-otd1*) was reduced at NC13 in *Cal-opa* RNAi embryos but was not associated with Opa-motif containing *Cal-opa* sensitive peaks (**S16C Figure**). The second ortholog (*Cal-otd2*) was not expressed at NC12 and NC13. In the case of Clogmia *buttonhead* (*Cal-btd*), we identified a *Cal-opa* sensitive peak with an Opa motif but the observed reduction of *Cal-btd* expression was not significant (**S16D Figure**). *Cal-btd* expression could be under the control of AD-dependent and AD independent enhancers, as previously reported for *orthodenticle* in Drosophila (133). Clogmia orthologs of *giant* (*Cal-gt*), *knirps* (*Cal-kni/knrl1, Cal-kni/knrl2*), and *empty spiracles* (*Cal-ems1-4*) were not expressed at NC12 or NC13 and no significant changes in chromatin accessibility were detected at these loci at NC12 or NC13 following knockdown of *Cal-opa*. The ortholog of *huckebein* (*Cal-hkb*) was not expressed at NC12 or NC13, either; however, its locus contained one Opa motif positive ATAC-seq peak that lost accessibility following *Cal-opa* knockdown at NC13. The expression of Clogmia's *cap'n'collar* (*Cal-cnc*) and *paired* (*Cal-prd*) was unaffected by *Cal-opa* RNAi, and the ATAC-seq peaks at their loci were largely *Cal-opa* insensitive. Only one small intronic peak within the Cal-*cnc* locus displayed reduced accessibility in *Cal-opa* RNAi embryos at NC13. The loci of *even-skipped* orthologs (*Cal-eve1, Cal-eve2*) contain ATAC-seq peaks with Opa motifs that were insensitive to *Cal-opa* RNAi. We note that the expression of *Cal-eve2* was elevated in *Cal-opa* RNAi embryos at NC13. Taken together, these observations point to significant differences in the key targets of Cal-Opa in Clogmia and Bcd in Drosophila and raise the question of how the downstream segmentation gene networks of these species converge.

Materials and Methods

Clogmia culture and embryo collection

The Clogmia culture was maintained in 100mm x15mm Petri Dishes (Fisher Scientific FB0875712) on moist, compressed cotton (Jorvet SKU: J0197) sprinkled with parsley leaf powder (Starwest Botanicals SKU: 209895-5). For embryo collections, ~2-day old females were transferred to round 250 mL glass bottles with a ~1 inch bottom layer of moistened and compressed cotton and mated at room temperature for 2-3 days. Female ovaries were dissected with a pair of fine forceps (Dumont 5) and eggs released into water for egg activation and embryogenesis. For staged egg collections, embryos were released into flat bottom glass 100mm x15mm Petri Dishes (Corning CM: 101425255) containing 15ml of water. Care was taken to disperse the eggs on the bottom of the dish as crowding can delay development. Petri Dishes were covered with a lid and moved to an incubator set at 25° C until the desired stage. Egg harvesting post activation was on average 47 minutes for NC2/3, 261 minutes for NC11, 292

minutes for NC12, 332 minutes for NC13, 401 minutes for NC14, and 465 minutes for Late NC14.

Embryo fixation

Clogmia Embryos were dechorionated using a 10% dilution of commercial bleach (8.25% sodium hypochloride) for 90 seconds. Dechorionated embryos were fixed in a 50 mL falcon tube, using 20 mL of boiling salt/detergent-solution (100 µL 10% triton-X; 500 µL 28% NaCl; up to 20 mL of water). The mixture was gently swirled for 10 seconds. To stop the heat fixation, 30 mL of deionized water was added. Embryos were transferred to 1.5 mL reaction vials and devitellinized in a 1:1 mixture of n-heptane and methanol by vigorous shaking. This step was followed by 3 washes with cold methanol (stored at -80C). Embryos were inspected under a stereomicroscope and manual devitellinizations were performed as needed using sharp tungsten needles in a 3% agar plate covered with methanol. Devitellinized embryos were stored in 100% methanol at −20°C.

Microinjections of embryos and *Cal-opa* RNAi efficiency

Clogmia albipunctata embryo injection was done as previously described (15). We note here that RNAi efficiency in Clogmia embryos varies (15). This variability could be due to technical variables (e.g., injection needle, amount injected) or biological variables (e.g., differences in the RNAi response between individual embryos, or the general health or genetic background of the embryos or their mothers) or a combination of such effects. Therefore, we took care to control the age of the females and selected all experimental embryos from females with healthy looking ovaries and eggs. To assess maternal *Cal-opa* RNAi efficiency, we injected embryos in the first hour of development with dsRNA of the isoform-specific first exon of the maternal *Cal-opa* isoform. In three independently conducted experiments we reproduced the double abdomen phenotype, confirming that our knockdown reagent was satisfactory. We also quantified knockdown efficiencies of *Cal-opa* transcript in individual embryos by RT-qPCR and performed FC calculations of *Cal-opa* mRNA levels with the average level in alignment controls as reference (**S5 Table**). This analysis suggests that *Cal-opa* RNAi can nearly abolish the *Cal-opa* transcript.

dsRNA synthesis

A PCR template was made using primers specific for the target gene with T7 overhangs and either cDNA, gDNA or a plasmid depending on the target sequence. The PCR product was run on a gel and purified using the Zymo Gel DNA Recovery Kit (D4007/D4008) following the manufactures instructions. The PCR template was used as the input for the transcription reaction producing dsRNA. dsRNA synthesis and purification were done using the Invitrogen MEGAscript RNAi Kit (AM1626) following the manufacturer's instructions. Purified dsRNA was eluted in injection buffer (0.1 mM NaH_2PO_4 Ph 6.8; 5 mM KCl).

Forward and reverse primer sequences for dsRNA (lengths of dsRNAs in brackets; gene specific sequence of primers underlined):

Cal-opa, maternal transcript (201 bp):
5'-CAGAGATGCATAATACGACTCACTATAGGGAGA<u>AAACAATTGTGAAGTGCGACA</u>
5'-
CAGAGATGCATAATACGACTCACTATAGGGAGA<u>CAAATTTCCAAACGATGACAGA</u>

Cal-zld (a combination of two dsRNAs were used 579 bp and 668 bp):
5'-TAATACGACTCACTATAGGGAGA<u>AGTCCCGCAATTGATACAGC</u>
5'-TAATACGACTCACTATAGGGAGA<u>AGGATGTTGGTGGACACTCC</u>
5'-TAATACGACTCACTATAGGGAGA<u>CGGAATGGTGTGTGAAACAG</u>
5'-TAATACGACTCACTATAGGGAGA<u>TTCGAGGGGTTATTGTCCTG</u>

dsRed (273 bp):
5'-CAGAGATGCATAATACGACTCACTATAG<u>ATGCAGAAGAAGACTATGG</u>
5'- CAGAGATGCATAATACGACTCACTATAG<u>CTACAGGAACAGGTGGTG</u>

RT-qPCR

RT-qPCR reactions were performed using the Luna® Universal One-Step RT-qPCR Kit (New
England Biolabs Ipswich, MA).

Forward and reverse primer sequences for targets (lengths of amplicon in brackets):
Cal-opa, maternal transcript (112 bp):
5'- TTGCGCTTCATTCTGTCATCG
5'- CACTGAGGGCTGATTCTCGG
587
588 *Cal-zld* (138 bp):
589 5'-AAAGATGAACCACCGTGCGA
590 5'-CATTGATGGCAGTGGACCCT
591
592 *Cal-rpl35* (119 bp):
593 5'- CTGTCCAAAATCCGAGTCGT
594 5'- AGGTCGAGGGGCTTGTATTT
595

Fluorescent HCR *in situ* hybridizations

Gene specific probes and amplifier-fluorophore sets were designed and synthesized by
Molecular Instruments Inc (Los Angeles, CA). The amplifier-fluorophore set used was B1-647
for *Cal-slp1*, B2-546 for *Cal-hbn*, and B3-488 for *Cal-slp2*. Buffers (probe hybridization, probe
wash and amplification buffers) throughout the protocol were purchased from Molecular
Instruments Inc. The HCR *in situ* hybridizations were performed as described (134, 135).
Briefly, fixed embryos were rehydrated and washed 3 times in PBS-Tween20 (1x PBS, 0.1%
Tween-20). Embryos were permeabilized for 30 minutes at room temperature (100 ml
Permeabilization buffer: 100 µL 100% Triton X-100, 50 µL Igepal CA-630, 50 mg Sodium
Deoxycholate (Sigma D6750-25G), 50 mg Saponin (Sigma 47036-50G-F), 200 mg BSA
Fraction V (Sigma A5611-5G). Following embryos were pre-hybridized in probe hybridization
buffer for 30 minutes in a 37º C water bath. Once pre-hybridization was complete, fresh
hybridization solution containing gene specific probes were added and the embryos were left to

incubate overnight in a 37º C water bath. On the second day the hybridization solution was
removed, and the embryos were washed 4 times with pre-warmed probe wash buffer followed by
two washes in 5x SSCT (5x SSC, 0.1% Tween-20). An amplifier hairpin solution was prepared
following the manufacturer's instructions. Embryos were incubated with pre-warmed
amplification buffer for 30 minutes at room temperature before adding amplifier hairpin solution.
Embryos were left to incubate overnight at room temperature in the dark. The following day the
embryos were washed 5 times in 5x SSCT at room temperature. The embryos were then counter
stained with DAPI and mounted in Aqua-Polymount for imaging. Confocal imaging was
performed on the Zeiss LSM 900.

Image Acquisition and Processing

Confocal imaging was performed on the Zeiss LSM 900 using a Plan-Apochromat 20x/0.8 M27
objective. Pixel-density of 1024 x 1024. Excitation/Emission wavelengths (in nanometers) were:
493/517 for Alexa Flour 488, 653/668 for Alexa Flour 647, 401/422 for DAPI, and 548/561 for
Alexa Flour 546. For each image a Z-stack of images was captured from the embryo's surface to
approximately midway through the embryo. Then a max projection was created from this Z-stack
using FIJI/Image J. Brightness was increased in Photoshop. No further adjustments to the images
were made.

ATAC-seq library preparation

Single embryo ATAC-seq library preparations were done essential as described previously in
Drosophila melanogaster (58, 62). Embryos developed in an incubator at 25ºC until the desired
nuclear cycle. Nuclear cycle was confirmed by time after egg activation and the morphology was
checked under water using a transmission light microscope (Zeiss Stemi 2000-C). Once at the
desired nuclear cycle individual embryos were placed in the lid of a 1.5 ml low-retention
Eppendorf tube and homogenized in 10 µl of cold lysis buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.4; 10 mM
NaCl; 3 mM MgCl2; 1% Igepal CA-630) (136), using a fire-sealed microcapillary tube
(Drummond Microcap 25). Once homogenized, 40 µl of lysis buffer was added to the lid, and the
body of the tube was carefully closed over the lid. Samples were place on ice until all embryos
were processed. The nuclei were pelleted by centrifugation at 800 RCF at 4ºC for 10 minutes.
Supernatant removal was observed under a dissection scope to ensure that the nuclei pellet was
not dislodged. The nuclear pellet was resuspended in 7.5 µl of Tagmentation buffer (Illumina
Tagment DNA TDE1 Enzyme and Buffer Kit) and placed on ice until all samples were
resuspended. Then 2.5 µl of Tn5 Transposase was added and mixed by pipetting up and down.
Tagmentation and amplification of ATAC-seq libraries were performed as described previously
(Buenrostro et al., 2015). The tagmentation reaction was performed at 37ºC and 800 RPM for 30
minutes using an Eppendorf Thermomixer. Immediately after this step, the reactions were
purified using the Qiagen Minelute kit following the manufacturer's instructions. Purified
tagmented DNA was eluted in 10 µl of buffer EB. Library amplification was performed as
described previously (Buenrostro et al., 2015). Typically, 12-14 total PCR were performed.
Amplified libraries were purified using 1.8x Ampure SpRI beads following the manufacturer's
instructions. Purified ATAC-seq libraries were eluted in 15 ul. The ATAC-seq library profile
was evaluated using Agilent high sensitivity bio-analyzer. Concentrations were estimated using a
Qubit fluorometer. Libraries from the same experiment were pooled and sequenced together.

Sequencing was done at the University of Chicago Genomics Core (Chicago, IL, USA) using the
Illumina NextSeq (PE 75 bp) and at Admera Health (South Plainfield, NJ, USA) using the
Illumina HiSeq (PE 150 bp) and the Illumina NovaSeq X Plus (PE 150 bp).

ATAC-seq libraries were amplified using a set of modified Buenrostro primers that introduced
Unique Dual Indexes (UDI) (58). The generalized UDI ATAC primer sequences are:

ATAC UDI Index Read 2 (i5):
5'- AATGATACGGCGACCACCGAGATCTACACnnnnnnnnnTCGTCGGCAGCGTCAGATG
T*G -3'

ATAC UDI Index Read 1 (i7):
5'- CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATACGAGATnnnnnnnnnGTCTCGTGGGCTCGGAGATG*T -3'

Primers were synthesized with a terminal phosphorothioate bond (*) by IDT (Integrated DNA
Technologies, Coralville, Iowa).

RNA isolation for RT-qPCR and RNA-seq experiments

Embryos developed in an incubator at 25ºC until the desired nuclear cycle. Nuclear cycle was
confirmed by time after egg activation and the morphology was checked under water using a
transmission light microscope (Zeiss Stemi 2000-C). RNA isolation was performed using the
Zymo Quick-RNA Tissue/Insect Microprep Kit following the manufacturer's instructions except
for the tissue homogenization step. Instead, homogenization was done as follows. Once at the
desired nuclear cycle individual embryos were placed in the lid of a 1.5 ml low-retention
Eppendorf tube and homogenized in 10 µl of cold lysis buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.4; 10 mM
NaCl; 3 mM MgCl2; 1% Igepal CA-630) (136), using a fire-sealed microcapillary tube
(Drummond Microcap 25). Once homogenized the lysate was added to 450 µl of Zymo RNA
Lysis Buffer and thoroughly mixed. RNA isolation resumed following the manufacturer's
instructions including DNAse treatment. Purified RNA was eluted in DNase/RNase-Free Water.

RNA-seq library preparation

RNA quality and quantity was assessed using the Agilent bio-analyzer. Non-Strand-specific
RNA-seq libraries were prepared using the Smarter v4 Ultra-Low Input protocol from Takara for
cDNA synthesis and Nextera XT from Illumina for Library prep (protocols provided by Takara
and Illumina). Library quality and quantity was assessed using the Agilent bio-analyzer.
Libraries from the same experiment were pooled and sequenced together. Sequencing was done
at the University of Chicago Genomics Core (Chicago, IL, USA) using the Illumina NovaSeq X
(PE 150 bp) and at Admera Health (South Plainfield, NJ, USA) using the Illumina NovaSeq X
Plus (PE 150bp).

ATAC-seq library preparation and RNA isolation

The first steps are the same as the standard ATAC-seq protocol above. Individual embryos are
homogenized in cold lysis buffer, and a centrifugation step is performed to pellet the nuclei.
Following the supernatant (~47 ul) is removed and mixed thoroughly with 450 µl Zymo RNA
lysis buffer in a fresh low-bind tube. The nuclear pellet is resuspended in 7.5 µl Tag mentation

buffer and the ATAC-seq protocol continues as above with no deviations. RNA isolation
proceeded immediately, or the RNA lysate was stored at temperately at -20ºC. RNA isolation
was performed using the Zymo Quick-RNA Tissue/Insect Microprep Kit following the
manufacturer's instructions. Isolated RNA was for RT-qPCR and RNA-seq experiments.

Preparation of injected embryos for ATAC-seq /ATAC-seq and RNA isolation

Following the injection embryos were left to develop on the injection slide at 25ºC. Once the
embryos reached the desired nuclear stage any excess injection oil was removed using a pipette.
The embryos were then washed 6 times using DI water. Embryos were removed from the
injection slide using a blunted tungsten needle and transferred to the lid of a low bind tube. 10 μl
of cold lysis buffer was added and the embryos were homogenized using a fire-sealed
microcapillary tube. The ATAC-seq protocol proceeds as above.

ATAC-seq data processing

Demultiplexed reads were trimmed of adapters using TrimGalore! (137) (version 0.6.10,
cutadapt version 4.4) and mapped to the *Clogmia albipunctata* assembly (calbi-uni4000) using
Bowtie2 (138) (version 2.4.1) with option -X 2000. Suspected optical and PCR duplicates were
marked by Picard MarkDuplicates (version 2.21.4) using default parameters
(https://broadinstitute.github.io/picard/). Mapped, trimmed, duplicate marked reads were
imported into R using the GenomicAlignments (139) (version 1.38.2) and Rsamtools (140)
(version 2.18.0). Reads that mapped, were properly paired, non-secondary and had a map quality
scores ≥ 10 were imported. Only reads mapping to scaffolds 1-5 and scaffold 7 were used for
downstream analysis. The start and end coordinates of the reads were adjusted to account for the
Tn5 interaction site. Watson strand start sites had four base pairs subtracted, and Crick-strand
start sites had five base pairs subtracted (136). Reads with mapped length ≤ 120 bp were
considered to have originated from 'open' chromatin.

MACS2

Accessible chromatin peaks from NC11 through NC14 were determined using MACS2 (78)
(version 2.2.7.1) with options -f BEDPE -q 1e-25 on a merged dataset comprising all ATAC
reads corresponding to open chromatin (length ≤ 120 bp). Peaks were assigned to a genomic
feature on the basis of overlapping with one or more features of a gene (e.g. exon, intron,
promoter). Peaks that overlapped with no gene feature were classified as intergenic.

DESeq2

A count matrix for differential enrichment analyses using DESeq2 (82) (version 1.42.1) was
generated by counting the number of open ATAC reads (length ≤ 120 bp) that overlapped with a
MAC2 identified peak. Before running DESeq2, peaks with low count values were removed.
DESeq2 design parameters were specific to the experimental data set. For the WT stage-wise
comparisons (e.g. NC12 vs NC11, NC13 vs NC12, NC14 vs NC13 and LNC14 vs NC14) the
design parameters passed to DESeq2 were stage and sequencing platform (~instrument.atac.data
+ stage). For the comparison between RNAi embryos and alignment control embryos (e.g., *Cal-*
zld RNAi vs alignment control and *Cal-opa* RNAi vs alignment control) the design components
were embryo batch and genotype (~Experiment.Date + genotype). All control groups were given

their own genotype to account for differences in embryo manipulation, and the genotype for the
RNAi embryos was determined by the strength of knockdown (see *Fold change calculations*).
The criteria for a statistical significance change were a $\log_2$ Fold Change ≥ 1 and an adjusted p-
value ≤ 0.05 or a $\log_2$ Fold Change ≤ -1 and an adjusted p-value ≤ 0.05.

Dynamic peaks were defined as peaks that underwent a statistically significant change in
accessibility in at least one of the WT stage wise comparisons. Different dynamic peak classes
were found using the R package DEGreport (141) (R package version 1.38.5) with the parameter
of the minimum group size set to 10.

MEME

MEME (91) (version 5.4.1) analysis was performed using the following options -order 1 -meme-
mod zoops -maxw 14 -meme-nmotifs 15 -meme-searchsize 100000 -centrimo-score 5.0 -
centrimo-ethresh 10.0. Motifs were reported from all enrichment or discovery programs within
the MEME suite (i.e., MEME, STREME (92), CentriMo), unless specified otherwise. MEME
was given a set of sequences containing the 100 bp sequence centered on the summit of the peak.
A set of background sequences were also given to MEME. To determine motifs enriched in
dynamic peaks a set of non-dynamic peak sequences were provided as background sequences.
To determine motifs enriched in *Cal-zld* sensitive peaks a set of sequences from peaks unaffected
by *Cal-zld* were provided as background sequences. To determine motifs enriched in *Cal-opa*
sensitive peaks a set of sequences from peaks unaffected by *Cal-opa* were provided as
background sequences. Identified motifs were compared to known *Drosophila melanogaster*
motifs from the following databases: OnTheFly_2014, Fly Factor Survey, FLYREG,
iDMMPMM, and DMMPMM databases (142-146).

RNA-seq data processing
Demultiplexed reads were trimmed of adapters using TrimGalore! (137) (version 0.6.10,
cutadapt version 4.4; https://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/trim_galore/) and
mapped to the *Clogmia albipunctata* assembly (calbi-uni4000) using Bowtie2 (138) (version
2.4.1) with default parameters. Suspected optical and PCR duplicates were marked by Picard
MarkDuplicates (version 2.21.4) using default parameters. Mapped, trimmed, duplicate marked
reads were imported into R using the GenomicAlignments (139) (version 1.38.2) and Rsamtools
(140) (version 2.18.0). Reads that mapped, were properly paired, non-secondary and had a map
quality scores ≥ 10 were imported.

DESeq2

A gene count matrix for differential enrichment analyses was generated by counting the number
of RNA-seq reads that overlapped with a transcript of a gene. Before running DESeq2, genes
with low count values were removed. DESeq2 design parameters were specific to the
experimental data set. For the comparison between RNAi embryos and alignment control
embryos (e.g., *Cal-zld* RNAi vs alignment control and *Cal-opa* RNAi vs alignment control) the
design components were embryo batch and genotype (~Experiment.Date + genotype). All
control groups were given their own genotype to account for differences in embryo
manipulation, and the genotype for the RNAi embryos was determined by the strength of
knockdown (see *Fold change calculations*). The criteria for a statistically significant change

were a log$_2$ Fold Change ≥ 1 and an adjusted p-value ≤ 0.05 or a log$_2$ Fold Change ≤ -1 and an
adjusted p-value ≤ 0.05.

Maternal, zygotic, maternal and zygotic classification

Gene expression was compared in NC2/3 (maternal, ~45-minute old) and syncytial stage
embryos (NC11- Late NC14). We assume here that NC2/3 embryos have little to no active
transcription and instead are enriched in maternally deposited mRNAs. The distribution of gene
expression was plotted for both stages, and a gene was determined to be expressed if its
expression level was above 2^5 counts. Then genes were classified based on their expression
profile in NC2/3 and syncytial stage embryos. We found 227 maternal genes, 691 zygotic genes,
6658 maternal and zygotic genes, and 7473 genes not expressed during either stage.

Fold change calculations

Fold change was calculated as the sample's counts per million divided by the control's counts
per million for the gene of interest. First a counts per million (CPM) matrix was made by
counting the number of RNA-seq reads that overlapped with a gene's transcript and then
normalizing to counts per million. Fold change calculations were done with embryos grouped by
experimental date (i.e. embryos from the same egg packet). For each embryo the CPM was
divided by the average CPM of wild-type and alignment control embryos. If a date did not have
any wild-type or alignment control embryos, fold change was calculated using the average CPM
of all wild-type and alignment control embryos in the data set. For *Cal-zld* RNAi experiments a
fold change (FC) calculation of *Cal-zld* mRNA levels was conducted with the average of control
embryos (untreated wild-type and alignment controls) from the same experimental date as
reference. *Cal-zld* RNAi embryos with a FC < 0.25 (knockdown efficiency greater than 75%)
were used for further analysis. Similarly, for *Cal-opa* RNAi experiments FC calculations were
done separately for each stage. The fold change (FC) calculation of *Cal-opa* mRNA levels was
conducted with the average of control embryos (untreated wild-type and alignment controls)
from the same experimental date as reference. *Cal-opa* RNAi embryos with a FC < 0.25
(knockdown efficiency greater than 75%) were used for further analysis.

Genome Assembly

We used Cantata Bio's genome assembly services to generate a *de novo* reference genome for
Clogmia albipunctata from ~70 freshly eclosed males of a 12-generation inbred line of an
established laboratory culture (147). High-fidelity (HiFi) PacBio reads were used to generate an
initial draft assembly subsequently refined with Omni-C reads (**S1 Appendix**). Details on
sequencing and software used to assemble the genome have been described elsewhere (74). We
estimated genome heterozygosity and sequencing error rates using jellyfish to count 21-mers and
GenomeScope2.0 to analyze the k-mer frequencies.

Genome Annotation

816 We used *RepeatModeler* (148) (version v2.0.4) to identify repeat elements in the *Clogmia*
817 *albipunctata* genome and *RepeatMasker*'s (149) (version v4.1.5) *fambd.py* script to extract
818 *Arthropoda* records from the *Dfam* database. These sequences were combined to generate a
819 custom repeat library, which was then used to soft-mask the genome. To predict gene structures,

we used RNA-seq and protein evidence. mRNA data from 26 individual embryos of various stages, pooled samples of first and fourth-instar larvae, one female and one male pupa generated in this study were mapped to the genome (**S1 Table**). Additionally, 11 RNA samples (9 embryonic and two adult) from other studies were downloaded from NCBI (**S1 Table**). For protein evidence, we downloaded all available Dipteran sequences from NCBI's RefSeq (January 2024) and UniProt's complete protein sequences (Release 2023_04). A detailed description of the annotation pipeline is available elsewhere (74). Briefly, we assembled and mapped the RNA transcripts and protein sequences to the reference and used these data as evidence of gene structures and to predict gene models. *Evidence Modeler* (150) (EVM, version 2.1.0) was used to create a consensus gene set, which was further refined with Program to Assemble Spliced Alignments' (PASA version 2.5.3) to add UTRs and identify alternative transcripts . Gene structures overlapping with repeats and transposable elements (TEs) were filtered out. Functional annotation was performed with *EggNOG-mapper* (151, 152) (version 2.1.12), assigning gene names based on orthology. We assessed the final annotation quality using BUSCO (Benchmarking Universal Single-Copy Orthologs) (153, 154) on the predicted protein sequences. Finally, we analyzed synteny between the *C. albipunctata* and *D. melanogaster* genomes using *MCScanX* (155) (primary release) with parameters: match_score = 50 (default), match size = 20 (minimum genes per syntenic block), gap_penalty = -1 (default), and max_gaps = 100. Results were visualized using the *circlize* R package (156) (version 4.1.2). Annotations of *Cal-eve1, Cal-eve2, Cal-tll1,* and *Cal-tll2* were manually corrected in the final output file (.gff3) based on RNA-seq data and transcript data available on NCBI.

Transcription factor identification

Any gene in our annotation of the Clogmia genome that contained the Cluster-of-Orthologous-Gene (COG) symbol "K" for transcription or the Gene Ontology (GO) term "0003700" for DNA-binding transcription factor activity was treated as a putative transcription factor gene.

Acknowledgments

We thank Lily Shiue and Qianyu Jin at Cantata Bio for assembling the genome, Melissa Harrison for the Cry2-zld mutant Drosophila strain, Natasha Megherea for managing the *Clogmia albipunctata* culture, and Suryadi Mcqueen for the illustrations of *Clogmia albipunctata* and *Drosophila melanogaster*. This work used Jetstream2 at Indiana University through allocation BIO220075 from the Advanced Cyberinfrastructure Coordination Ecosystem: Services & Support (ACCESS) program, which is supported by National Science Foundation grants #2138259, #2138286, #2138307, #2137603, and #2138296. Bioinformatic work was supported in part by the Notre Dame University Genomics and Bioinformatics Core Facility.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Funding

E. A. was the recipient of predoctoral fellowships from the National Institute of General Medical
Sciences (T32 GM139782, T32 GM007183). S.A.B. is a Pew Scholar in the Biomedical
Sciences. Research reported in this publication was supported by the National Institute of
General Medical Sciences of the National Institutes of Health under Award Number R01
GM127366. The content is solely the responsibility of the authors and does not necessarily
represent the official views of the National Institutes of Health.

Data and Resource Availability

Genome: The annotated *Clogmia albipunctata* genome can be found in NCBI's Genome
database under BioProject Accession PRJNA1165226.

RNA-seq and ATAC-seq data: All fastq files containing the raw sequencing reads for each
sample have been uploaded to NCBI's Sequence Read Archive (SRA) and can be found under
the BioProject Accession PRJNA1198932. Individual BioSample and SRA accession numbers
for the annotation of the genome are listed in S1 Table, including those samples that were not
generated in this study but used as evidence for the annotation of the genome.

Genome Browser: The genomic data produced in this study can be further interrogated using a
genome browser ecosystem centered on JBrowse2 (157) and delivered as a cloud image designed
for individual use, currently available on NSF's Jetstream2 cloud platform, with a portable
Docker image in development. Jetstream2's user-friendly interface (image: *Clogmia*
albipunctata Genome Resources) (158, 159) integrates tools for genomic analysis, including
BLAST search (SequenceServer2.0) (160), CRISPR guide RNA design (modified
crisprDesigner) (161), R shiny-driven differential gene expression (DGE) analysis (freecount)
(162), and synteny mapping for comparative genomics (ShinySyn) (163). Each tool is connected
back to the browser, leveraging JBrowse2's ability to dynamically visualize and contextualize
the genomic data. BLAST results link directly to genomic regions, enabling users to explore
expression tracks, variants, and synteny relationships. CRISPR tools provide sgRNA design with
metrics for selection and visualization of target regions alongside expression data, off-target
effects, and variants. DGE analysis visualizations are linked back to the genome browser for
further exploration. All gene model annotations in the browser connect to common external
databases, such as NCBI, Uniprot, FlyBase, and Google Scholar, for further exploring and
interpreting the data. Future enhancements will include expanded sgRNA profiling, support for
Docker to enable deployment on commercial cloud platforms, and further optimization of
workflows, ensuring this ecosystem remains a powerful and accessible solution for the use of our
genomic data presented here and elsewhere (74) for research and education. To access the
Clogmia albipunctata genome browser and related tools, create an ACCESS ID and use this ID
to create an ACCESS account to log in to Jetstream2 to apply for an 'allocation' of credits that
can be used on Jetstream2. Detailed instructions on the use of Jetstream2 can be found at
https://jetstream-cloud.org/get-started/index.html. This on-demand model reduces resource costs
and security concerns compared to hosting a centralized site. Administrative tools, (e.g.
automated reboot scripts, system service management, and load balancing for multi-user groups
or workshops) enhance usability while minimizing operational overhead.

902
903

904 **Tables**

906 **Table 1:** *Clogmia albipunctata* **reference assembly statistics and quality metrics.**

Reference Assembly Statistics	
Total length (bp)	320,011,659
Number of scaffolds	274
Scaffold N50 (bp)	51,218,107
Scaffold L50	4
# of Ns per 100kb	0.19
GC (%)	32.34%
Heterozygosity (%)	0.018 - 0.038%
Masked (%)	48.55%
Eukaryotic BUSCO's recovered (%)	98.04%

909 **Table 2:** *Clogmia albipunctata* **annotation statistics and BUSCO scores.** The quality metrics
910 include the percentage of complete universal orthologs identified in the annotation across five
911 BUSCO datasets. The number of genes in each lineage-specific BUSCO database is shown in
912 parentheses.

Annotation Statistics	
Number of coding genes	15,047
Number of mRNAs	31,113
Number of mRNAs with 3' & 5' UTR	25,724
Mean mRNAs/gene	2.1
Mean gene length (bp)	9,163
Complete Single Copy BUSCOs	
Eukaryota (n = 255)	93.70%
Metazoa (n = 954)	93.30%
Insecta (n = 1,367)	94.00%
Endopterygota (n = 2,124)	92.90%
Diptera (n = 3,285)	88.80%

914
915

916 **Table 3**: **Comparison of chromatin accessibility peaks, nuclear cycle length in minutes, and**
917 **haploid genome size of *Clogmia albipunctata* and *Drosophila melanogaster*.** Peaks for
918 *Drosophila melanogaster* are based on (56, 62) and nuclear cycle lengths are based on (69).

	Clogmia albipunctata				
	NC11	NC12	NC13	NC14	Late NC14
Peaks	5013	5926	7586	16147	11628
Duration	30 m	37 m	1 h 13 m	1 h 47 m	
Genome size	~304 Mb				

	Drosophila melanogaster			
	NC11	NC12	NC13	NC14
Peaks	3084	6740	9824	13226
Duration	10 m	12 m	21 m	1 h 5 m
Genome size	~137 Mb			

922   **Figures**
923

925
Figure 1: Synteny analysis of *Drosophila melanogaster* chromosomes and *Clogmia*
***albipunctata* scaffolds.** Synteny analysis between *Clogmia albipunctata* chromosomes-sized
scaffolds *and Drosophila melanogaster* chromosomes. Groups of collinear genes are represented
by contact lines connecting the positions shared between *D. melanogaster* chromosomes and *C.*
albipunctata scaffolds. Colors correspond to *D. melanogaster* chromosomes. Positions of
developmental genes of interest indicated by a solid purple bar. Position of the HOX gene cluster
indicated by a solid brown bar.
933

934
935 **Figure 2**: **Changes in chromatin accessibility during NC11 to Late NC14.** A-D) Volcano
936 plots of differentially accessible ATAC-seq peaks between consecutive developmental stages.
937 Significant change of adjusted p-value ≤ 0.05 and |log$_2$ Fold Change| ≥ 1 highlighted; red (log$_2$
938 Fold Change $\leq$ -1) and blue (log$_2$ Fold Change ≥ 1). E) Dynamic peak groups produced using
939 DEGreport (141) (R package version 1.38.5). Y-axis, Z-score of abundance. X-axis, stage.

940
Figure 3: Cal-Zld regulates chromatin accessibility and zygotic transcription positively and
negatively. A) Observed expression change of maternal or zygotic genes that are differentially
expressed in *Cal-zld* RNAi embryos. Genes are grouped by maternal or zygotic classification on
the y-axis. Log$_2$ Fold Change on the x-axis. Only genes with an adjusted p-value ≤ 0.05 and |log$_2$
Fold Change| ≥ are shown. 1B) Genomic distribution of *Cal-zld* sensitive peaks that were up-
regulated (blue) and down-regulated (red). C) Dynamic groups whose accessibility increases
over time are more likely to be *Cal-zld* sensitive peaks that lose accessibility (Group 8 p-value,
3.4e-176; Group 16 p-value, 8.7e-05; Group 15 p-value, 1.3e-55; Group 12 p-value, 4.6e-12;
Group 14 p-value, 7.2e-12) unlike dynamic groups whose accessibility decrease over time or
after NC13 (Group 5 p-value, 3.5e-08; Group 1 p-value, 2.7e-12). Dynamic groups whose
accessibility decreases over time are more likely to be *Cal-zld* sensitive peaks that gain
accessibility (Group 5 p-value, 1.7e-70; Group 1 p-value, 1.4e-95), unlike dynamic groups
whose accessibility increases over time (Group 8 p-value, 3.4e-25; Group 16 p-value, 6.3e-01;
Group 15 p-value, 1.8e-11; Group 12 p-value, 9e-05; Group 14 p-value, 2.6e-07). Odds ratios
and p-values were calculated by a two-sided Fisher's exact test on contingency tables
constructed by the presence/absence of dynamic groups in *Cal-zld* sensitive peaks up or down.

Only groups with a $\log_2$(Odds Ratio) > 1.5 in at least one comparison are shown. D) Position
weight matrix (PWM) logo of the Zld motif enriched in *Cal-zld* sensitive peaks as identified by
MEME (top) and the canonical Zld motif in *Drosophila melanogaster*, shown for reference
(bottom).
961

962
Figure 4: Cal-Opa is required for establishing a selective set of chromatin accessibility
peaks. Volcano plots of differentially accessible peaks between the *Cal-opa* RNAi group and the
alignment control group at A) NC12 and B) NC13. Significant change of adjusted p-value ≤ 0.05
and |log₂ Fold Change| ≥ 1 highlighted; red (log₂ Fold Change ≤ -1) and blue (log₂ Fold Change
≥ 1). C) PWM logos of motifs enriched in all *Cal-opa* sensitive peaks (n = 326), in *Cal-opa*
sensitive peaks that lose accessibility (n = 277), and in *Cal-opa* sensitive peaks that gain
accessibility (n = 49), as identified by the MEME suite. Data combined for both NC12 and NC13

stages. DNA binding proteins of *Drosophila melanogaster* that bind to these or similar motifs as

identified by MEME are indicated. We include CLAMP in this list as it has been shown to bind

GA-rich motifs (see text). E-value denotes the significance of recovered motifs. The canonical

Opa motif in *Drosophila melanogaster* is shown for reference.

Figure 5: *Cal-opa* knockdown leads to the miss-regulation of a small set of transcription factor genes. Volcano plots of differentially expressed genes between the *Cal-opa* RNAi group and the alignment control group at A) NC12 and B) NC13. Significant change of adjusted p-value ≤ 0.05 and |log$_2$ Fold Change| ≥ 1 highlighted; red (log$_2$ Fold Change ≤ -1) and blue (log$_2$ Fold Change ≥ 1). The number of transcription factors (TFs) is indicated in the text.

982
Figure 6: Key Cal-Opa targets at NC12. Gene loci of A) *Cal-hbn*, B) *Cal-slp1*, and C) *Cal-*
slp2 at NC12. Top tracks: CPM of ATAC-seq data (Alignment control in blue, Injection control
in red, *Cal-opa* RNAi in yellow). Middle tracks show gene models in pale yellow. Bottom
tracks: CPM of RNA-seq data. Peaks with significant changes in accessibility are highlighted in
pink. Peaks containing Opa motifs are marked with a plus sign. The y-axis is the same for all
tracks of the same data type at each locus. *Cal-hbn* ATAC-seq: 0-10 CPM. *Cal-hbn* RNA-seq: 0-
10 CPM. *Cal-slp1* ATAC-seq: 0-25 CPM. *Cal-slp1* RNA-seq: 0-100 CPM. *Cal-slp2* ATAC-seq:
0-25 CPM. *Cal-*slp2 RNA-seq: 0-100 CPM. Blue: Alignment control. Light blue: Injection
control. Red: *Cal-opa* RNAi.
992

993
Figure 7: Key Cal-Opa targets at NC13. Gene loci of A) *Cal-hbn*, B) *Cal-slp1*, C) *Cal-slp2*, D)
Cal-Kr, E) *Cal-D* and F) *evm.TU.scaffold_4.1328* at NC13. Top tracks: CPM of ATAC-seq data.
Middle track gene model in pale yellow. Bottom tracks: CPM of RNA-seq data. Peaks with
significant changes in accessibility highlighted in pink. Peaks containing Opa motifs are marked
with a plus sign. The y-axis is the same for all tracks of the same data type at each locus. *Cal-hbn*
ATAC-seq: 0-15 CPM. *Cal-hbn* RNA-seq: 0-25 CPM. *Cal-slp1* ATAC-seq: 0-25 CPM. *Cal-slp1*
RNA-seq: 0-150 CPM. *Cal-slp2*: ATAC-seq: 0-25 CPM. *Cal-slp2* RNA-seq: 0-100 CPM. *Cal-*

Kr ATAC-seq: 0-40 CPM. *Cal-Kr* RNA-seq: 0-60 CPM. *Cal-D* ATAC-seq: 0-30 CPM. *Cal-D*
RNA-seq: 0-80 CPM. *evm.TU.scaffold_4.1328* ATAC-seq: 0-10 CPM. *evm.TU.scaffold_4.1328*
RNA-seq: 0-200 CPM. Blue: Alignment control. Light blue: Injection control. Red: *Cal-opa*
RNAi.
1005

1006

Figure 8: Time-course RNA-seq data for *Cal-hbn*, *Cal-slp1*, and *Cal-slp2*. Expression levels (CPM) of A) *Cal-hbn*, B) *Cal-slp1*, C) *Cal-slp2* at 6 consecutive stages, including NC2/3 (maternal, ~45-minute old embryos), NC11, NC12, NC13, NC14 and Late NC14 are shown above fluorescent *in situ* hybridization chain reaction (HCR) staining of each gene at NC13. Anterior, left. Dorsal, up. Gene models are shown in pale yellow. The y-axis is the same for all tracks at each locus. *Cal-hbn* RNA-seq: 0-30 CPM. *Cal-slp1* RNA-seq: 0-120 CPM. *Cal-slp2* RNA-seq: 0-80 CPM.

References

1.   Driever W, Nüsslein-Volhard C. The bicoid protein determines position in the Drosophila embryo in a concentration-dependent manner. Cell. 1988;54(1):95–104.

2.   Driever W, Nüsslein-Volhard C. A gradient of bicoid protein in Drosophila embryos. Cell. 1988;54(1):83–93.

3.   St Johnston D, Nüsslein-Volhard C. The origin of pattern and polarity in the Drosophila embryo. Cell. 1992;68(2):201–19.

4.   Surkova S, Golubkova E, Mamon L, Samsonova M. Dynamic maternal gradients and morphogenetic networks in Drosophila early embryo. Bio Systems. 2018;173:207–13.

5.   Ma J, He F, Xie G, Deng GX. Maternal AP determination in the Drosophila oocyte and embryo. Wiley Interdiscip Rev Dev Biol. 2016;5:562–81.

6.   Wieschaus E. Positional Information and Cell Fate Determination in the Early Drosophila Embryo. Current topics in developmental biology. 2016;117:567–79.

7.   Jaeger J. The gap gene network. Cellular and molecular life sciences : CMLS. 2011;68(2):243–74.

8.   Tkačik G, Gregor T. The many bits of positional information. Development. 2021;148(2).

9.   Clark E, Peel AD, Akam M. Arthropod segmentation. Development. 2019;146(18).

10.   Crombach A, Jaeger J. Life's attractors continued: progress in understanding developmental systems through reverse engineering and in silico evolution. In: Crombach A, editor. Evolutionary Systems Biology: Springer Nature Switzerland AG; 2021.

11.   Schmidt-Ott U, Lynch JA. Emerging developmental genetic model systems in holometabolous insects. Curr Opin Genet Dev. 2016;39:116–28.

12.   Lemke S, Kale G, Urbansky S. Comparing gastrulation in flies: Links between cell biology and the evolution of embryonic morphogenesis. Mechanisms of Development. 2020;164.

13.   Anderson DT. Comparative Embryology of Diptera. Annu Rev Entomol. 1966;11:23–+.

14.   Klomp J, Athy D, Kwan CW, Bloch NI, Sandmann T, Lemke S, et al. Embryo development. A cysteine-clamp gene drives embryo polarity in the midge Chironomus. Science. 2015;348(6238):1040–2.

15.   Yoon Y, Klomp J, Martin-Martin I, Criscione F, Calvo E, Ribeiro J, et al. Embryo polarity in moth flies and mosquitoes relies on distinct old genes with localized transcript isoforms. eLife. 2019;8.

16.   Schmidt-Ott U, Yoon Y. Evolution and loss of beta-catenin and TCF-dependent axis
specification in insects. Curr Opin Insect Sci. 2022;50:100877.

17.   Berleth T, Burri M, Thoma G, Bopp D, Richstein S, Frigerio G, et al. The role of
localization of bicoid RNA in organizing the anterior pattern of the Drosophila embryo. EMBO
J. 1988;7(6):1749–56.

18.   Stauber M, Taubert H, Schmidt-Ott U. Function of bicoid and hunchback homologs in
the basal cyclorrhaphan fly Megaselia (Phoridae). Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A.
2000;97(20):10844–9.

19.   Shaw PJ, Salameh A, McGregor AP, Bala S, Dover GA. Divergent structure and function
of the bicoid gene in Muscoidea fly species. Evolution & development. 2001;3(4):251–62.

20.   Lemke S, Busch SE, Antonopoulos DA, Meyer F, Domanus MH, Schmidt-Ott U.
Maternal activation of gap genes in the hover fly Episyrphus. Development. 2010;137(10):1709–
19.

21.   Wotton KR, Jimenez-Guri E, Jaeger J. Maternal co-ordinate gene regulation and axis
polarity in the scuttle fly Megaselia abdita. PLoS Genet. 2015;11(3):e1005042.

22.   Hursh DA, Stultz BG. Odd-Paired: The Drosophila Zic Gene. Advances in experimental
medicine and biology. 2018;1046:41–58.

23.   Ravindranath AJ, Cadigan KM. Structure-function analysis of the C-clamp of
TCF/Pangolin in Wnt/ss-catenin signaling. PloS one. 2014;9(1):e86180.

24.   Liu Q, Onal P, Datta RR, Rogers JM, Schmidt-Ott U, Bulyk ML, et al. Ancient
mechanisms for the evolution of the bicoid homeodomain's function in fly development. eLife.
2018;7.

25.   Nitta KR, Jolma A, Yin Y, Morgunova E, Kivioja T, Akhtar J, et al. Conservation of
transcription factor binding specificities across 600 million years of bilateria evolution. eLife.
2015;4.

26.   Duan B, Fu D, Zhang C, Ding P, Dong X, Xia B. Selective Nonmethylated CpG DNA
Recognition Mechanism of Cysteine Clamp Domains. J Am Chem Soc. 2021;143(20):7688–97.

27.   Li M, Kasan K, Saha Z, Yoon Y, Schmidt-Ott U. Twenty-seven ZAD-ZNF genes of
Drosophila melanogaster are orthologous to the embryo polarity determining mosquito gene
cucoid. PloS one. 2023;18(1):e0274716.

28.   Driever W, Nüsslein-Volhard C. The bicoid protein is a positive regulator of hunchback
transcription in the early Drosophila embryo. Nature. 1989;337(6203):138–43.

29.   Struhl G, Struhl K, Macdonald PM. The gradient morphogen bicoid is a concentration-
dependent transcriptional activator. Cell. 1989;57(7):1259–73.

30.   Hoch M, Seifert E, Jäckle H. Gene expression mediated by cis-acting sequences of the
Krüppel gene in response to the Drosophila morphogens bicoid and hunchback. Embo j.
1991;10(8):2267–78.

31.   Rivera-Pomar R, Lu X, Perrimon N, Taubert H, Jäckle H. Activation of posterior gap
gene expression in the *Drosophila* blastoderm. Nature. 1995;376:253–6.

32.   Berman BP, Nibu Y, Pfeiffer BD, Tomancak P, Celniker SE, Levine M, et al. Exploiting
transcription factor binding site clustering to identify cis-regulatory modules involved in pattern
formation in the Drosophila genome. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2002;99(2):757–62.

33.   Schroeder MD, Pearce M, Fak J, Fan H-Q, Unnerstall U, Emberly E, et al.
Transcriptional control in the segmentation gene network of *Drosophila*. PLOS. 2004;2:e271.

34.   Ochoa-Espinosa A, Yucel G, Kaplan L, Pare A, Pura N, Oberstein A, et al. The role of
binding site cluster strength in Bicoid-dependent patterning in Drosophila. Proc Natl Acad Sci U
S A. 2005;102(14):4960–5.

35.   Gao Q, Finkelstein R. Targeting gene expression to the head: the Drosophila
orthodenticle gene is a direct target of the Bicoid morphogen. Development. 1998;125(21):4185–
93.

36.   Stanojevic D, Small S, Levine M. Regulation of a segmentation stripe by overlapping
activators and repressors in the Drosophila embryo. Science. 1991;254(5036):1385–7.

37.   Arnosti DN, Barolo S, Levine M, Small S. The eve stripe 2 enhancer employs multiple
modes of transcriptional synergy. Development. 1996;122(1):205–14.

38.   Small S, Blair A, Levine M. Regulation of even-skipped stripe 2 in the Drosophila
embryo. EMBO J. 1992;11(11):4047–57.

39.   Small S, Kraut R, Hoey T, Warrior R, Levine M. Transcriptional regulation of a pair-rule
stripe in Drosophila. Genes Dev. 1991;5(5):827–39.

40.   Simpson-Brose M, Treisman J, Desplan C. Synergy between the hunchback and bicoid
morphogens is required for anterior patterning in Drosophila. Cell. 1994;78(5):855–65.

41.   Wimmer EA, Carleton A, Harjes P, Turner T, Desplan C. *bicoid*-independent formation
of thoracic segments in *Drosophila*. Science. 2000;287:2476–9.

42.   Manu, Surkova S, Spirov AV, Gursky VV, Janssens H, Kim AR, et al. Canalization of
gene expression and domain shifts in the Drosophila blastoderm by dynamical attractors. PLoS
Comput Biol. 2009;5(3):e1000303.

43.   Rivera-Pomar R, Jackle H. From gradients to stripes in Drosophila embryogenesis: filling
in the gaps. Trends Genet. 1996;12(11):478–83.

44.   Macdonald PM. Translational repression by Bicoid: competition for the cap. Cell.
2005;121(3):321–2.

45.   Staudt N, Fellert S, Chung HR, Jackle H, Vorbruggen G. Mutations of the Drosophila
zinc finger-encoding gene vielfaltig impair mitotic cell divisions and cause improper
chromosome segregation. Mol Biol Cell. 2006;17(5):2356–65.

46.   Liang HL, Nien CY, Liu HY, Metzstein MM, Kirov N, Rushlow C. The zinc-finger
protein Zelda is a key activator of the early zygotic genome in Drosophila. Nature.
2008;456(7220):400–3.

47.   Foo SM, Sun Y, Lim B, Ziukaite R, O'Brien K, Nien CY, et al. Zelda potentiates
morphogen activity by increasing chromatin accessibility. Curr Biol. 2014;24(12):1341–6.

48.   Xu Z, Chen H, Ling J, Yu D, Struffi P, Small S. Impacts of the ubiquitous factor Zelda on
Bicoid-dependent DNA binding and transcription in Drosophila. Genes Dev. 2014;28(6):608–21.

49.   Mir M, Stadler MR, Ortiz SA, Hannon CE, Harrison MM, Darzacq X, et al. Dynamic
multifactor hubs interact transiently with sites of active transcription in Drosophila embryos.
eLife. 2018;7.

50.   Bishop TR, Onal P, Xu Z, Zheng M, Gunasinghe H, Nien CY, et al. Multi-level
regulation of even-skipped stripes by the ubiquitous factor Zelda. Development. 2023;150(23).

51.   Crocker J, Stern DL. Functional regulatory evolution outside of the minimal even-
skipped stripe 2 enhancer. Development. 2017;144(17):3095–101.

52.   Ling J, Umezawa KY, Scott T, Small S. Bicoid-Dependent Activation of the Target Gene
hunchback Requires a Two-Motif Sequence Code in a Specific Basal Promoter. Mol Cell.
2019;75(6):1178–87 e4.

53.   Eck E, Liu J, Kazemzadeh-Atoufi M, Ghoreishi S, Blythe SA, Garcia HG. Quantitative
dissection of transcription in development yields evidence for transcription-factor-driven
chromatin accessibility. eLife. 2020;9.

54.   Fernandes G, Tran H, Andrieu M, Diaw Y, Perez Romero C, Fradin C, et al. Synthetic
reconstruction of the hunchback promoter specifies the role of Bicoid, Zelda and Hunchback in
the dynamics of its transcription. eLife. 2022;11.

55.   Harden TT, Vincent BJ, DePace AH. Transcriptional activators in the early Drosophila
embryo perform different kinetic roles. Cell Syst. 2023;14(4):258–72 e4.

56.   Hannon CE, Blythe SA, Wieschaus EF. Concentration dependent chromatin states
induced by the bicoid morphogen gradient. eLife. 2017;6.

57.   Haines JE, Eisen MB. Patterns of chromatin accessibility along the anterior-posterior axis
in the early Drosophila embryo. PLoS Genet. 2018;14(5):e1007367.

58.   Soluri IV, Zumerling LM, Payan Parra OA, Clark EG, Blythe SA. Zygotic pioneer factor
activity of Odd-paired/Zic is necessary for late function of the Drosophila segmentation network.
eLife. 2020;9.

59.   Cusanovich DA, Reddington JP, Garfield DA, Daza RM, Aghamirzaie D, Marco-
Ferreres R, et al. The cis-regulatory dynamics of embryonic development at single-cell
resolution. Nature. 2018;555(7697):538–42.

60.   Calderon D, Blecher-Gonen R, Huang X, Secchia S, Kentro J, Daza RM, et al. The
continuum of Drosophila embryonic development at single-cell resolution. Science.
2022;377(6606):eabn5800.

61.   Degen EA, Croslyn C, Mangan NM, Blythe SA. Bicoid-nucleosome competition sets a
concentration threhold for transcription constrained by genome replication. bioRxiv. 2024.

62.   Blythe SA, Wieschaus EF. Establishment and maintenance of heritable chromatin
structure during early Drosophila embryogenesis. eLife. 2016;5.

63.   Clark E, Akam M. Odd-paired controls frequency doubling in Drosophila segmentation
by altering the pair-rule gene regulatory network. eLife. 2016;5.

64.   Hülskamp M, Pfeifle C, Tautz D. A morphogenetic gradient of Hunchback protein
organizes the expression of the gap genes *Krüppel* and *knirps* in the early *Drosophila* embryo.
Nature. 1990;346:577–80.

65.   Tautz D. Regulation of the *Drosophila* segmentation gene *hunchback* by two maternal
morphogenetic centers. Nature (London). 1988;332:281–4.

66.   Janssens H, Siggens K, Cicin-Sain D, Jimenez-Guri E, Musy M, Akam M, et al. A
quantitative atlas of Even-skipped and Hunchback expression in Clogmia albipunctata (Diptera:
Psychodidae) blastoderm embryos. EvoDevo. 2014;5(1):1.

67.   Garcia-Solache M, Jaeger J, Akam M. A systematic analysis of the gap gene system in
the moth midge *Clogmia albipunctata*. Dev Biol. 2010;344:306–18.

68.   Koromila T, Gao F, Iwasaki Y, He P, Pachter L, Gergen JP, et al. Odd-paired is a
pioneer-like factor that coordinates with Zelda to control gene expression in embryos. eLife.
2020;9.

69.   Jimenez-Guri E, Wotton KR, Gavilan B, Jaeger J. A staging scheme for the development
of the moth midge Clogmia albipunctata. PloS one. 2014;9(1):e84422.

70.   Amabis JM, Simoes LCG. Chromosome studies in a species of *Telmatoscopus* sp.
Caryologia. 1972;25(2).

71.   Amabis JM. Cytological evidence of male sex heterogamety in sex determination of
Telmatoscopus albipunctatus (Diptera: Psychodidae). Chromosoma. 1977;62:133–8.

72.   Schmidt-Ott U, Rafiqi AM, Sander K, Johnston JS. Extremely small genomes in two
unrelated dipteran insects with shared early developmental traits. Dev Genes Evol.
2009;219(4):207–10.

73.   Generalovic TN, McCarthy SA, Warren IA, Wood JMD, Torrance J, Sims Y, et al. A
high-quality, chromosome-level genome assembly of the Black Soldier Fly (Hermetia illucens
L.). G3 (Bethesda). 2021;11(5).

74.   Tenger-Trolander A, Amiri E, Gantz V, Kwan CW, Sanders SA, Schmidt-Ott U.
Genomic resources for the scuttle fly Megaselia abdita: A Model Organism for Comparative
Developmental Studies in Flies bioRxiv. 2025.

75.   Ji J, Gao Y, Xu C, Zhang K, Li D, Li B, et al. Chromosome-level genome assembly of
marmalade hoverfly Episyrphus balteatus (Diptera: Syrphidae). Sci Data. 2024;11(1):844.

76.   Stauber M, Jäckle H, Schmidt-Ott U. The anterior determinant *bicoid* of *Drosophila* is a
derived Hox class 3 gene. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA. 1999;96:3786–9.

77.   Stauber M, Prell A, Schmidt-Ott U. A single *Hox3* gene with composite *bicoid* and
zerknüllt expression characteristics in non-Cyclorrhaphan flies. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A.
2002;99:274–9.

78.   Zhang Y, Liu T, Meyer CA, Eeckhoute J, Johnson DS, Bernstein BE, et al. Model-based
analysis of ChIP-Seq (MACS). Genome Biol. 2008;9(9):R137.

79.   Reddington JP, Garfield DA, Sigalova OM, Karabacak Calviello A, Marco-Ferreres R,
Girardot C, et al. Lineage-Resolved Enhancer and Promoter Usage during a Time Course of
Embryogenesis. Dev Cell. 2020;55(5):648–64 e9.

80.   Schulz KN, Harrison MM. Mechanisms regulating zygotic genome activation. Nat Rev
Genet. 2019;20(4):221–34.

81.   Hamm DC, Harrison MM. Regulatory principles governing the maternal-to-zygotic
transition: insights from Drosophila melanogaster. Open Biol. 2018;8(12):180183.

82.   Love MI, Huber W, Anders S. Moderated estimation of fold change and dispersion for
RNA-seq data with DESeq2. Genome Biol. 2014;15(12):550.

83.   Larson ED, Marsh AJ, Harrison MM. Pioneering the developmental frontier. Mol Cell.
2021;81(8):1640–50.

84.   Brennan KJ, Weilert M, Krueger S, Pampari A, Liu HY, Yang AWH, et al. Chromatin
accessibility in the Drosophila embryo is determined by transcription factor pioneering and
enhancer activation. Dev Cell. 2023;58(19):1898–916 e9.

85.   Harrison MM, Li XY, Kaplan T, Botchan MR, Eisen MB. Zelda binding in the early
Drosophila melanogaster embryo marks regions subsequently activated at the maternal-to-
zygotic transition. PLoS Genet. 2011;7(10):e1002266.

86.   McDaniel SL, Gibson TJ, Schulz KN, Fernandez Garcia M, Nevil M, Jain SU, et al.
Continued Activity of the Pioneer Factor Zelda Is Required to Drive Zygotic Genome
Activation. Mol Cell. 2019;74(1):185–95 e4.

87.   Sun Y, Nien CY, Chen K, Liu HY, Johnston J, Zeitlinger J, et al. Zelda overcomes the
high intrinsic nucleosome barrier at enhancers during Drosophila zygotic genome activation.
Genome research. 2015;25(11):1703–14.

88.   Gaskill MM, Gibson TJ, Larson ED, Harrison MM. GAF is essential for zygotic genome
activation and chromatin accessibility in the early Drosophila embryo. eLife. 2021;10.

89.   Duan J, Rieder L, Colonnetta MM, Huang A, McKenney M, Watters S, et al. CLAMP
and Zelda function together to promote Drosophila zygotic genome activation. eLife. 2021;10.

90.   Colonnetta MM, Abrahante JE, Schedl P, Gohl DM, Deshpande G. CLAMP regulates
zygotic genome activation in Drosophila embryos. Genetics. 2021;219(2).

91.   Bailey TL, Johnson J, Grant CE, Noble WS. The MEME Suite. Nucleic Acids Res.
2015;43(W1):W39–49.

92.   Bailey TL. STREME: accurate and versatile sequence motif discovery. Bioinformatics.
2021;37(18):2834–40.

93.   Soruco MM, Chery J, Bishop EP, Siggers T, Tolstorukov MY, Leydon AR, et al. The
CLAMP protein links the MSL complex to the X chromosome during Drosophila dosage
compensation. Genes & development. 2013;27(14):1551–6.

94.   Kuzu G, Kaye EG, Chery J, Siggers T, Yang L, Dobson JR, et al. Expansion of GA
Dinucleotide Repeats Increases the Density of CLAMP Binding Sites on the X-Chromosome to
Promote Drosophila Dosage Compensation. PLoS genetics. 2016;12(7):e1006120.

95.   Kaye EG, Booker M, Kurland JV, Conicella AE, Fawzi NL, Bulyk ML, et al. Differential
Occupancy of Two GA-Binding Proteins Promotes Targeting of the Drosophila Dosage
Compensation Complex to the Male X Chromosome. Cell Rep. 2018;22(12):3227–39.

96.   Ray P, De S, Mitra A, Bezstarosti K, Demmers JA, Pfeifer K, et al. Combgap contributes
to recruitment of Polycomb group proteins in Drosophila. Proceedings of the National Academy
of Sciences of the United States of America. 2016;113(14):3826–31.

97.   Ribeiro L, Tobias-Santos V, Santos D, Antunes F, Feltran G, de Souza Menezes J, et al.
Evolution and multiple roles of the Pancrustacea specific transcription factor zelda in insects.
PLoS genetics. 2017;13(7):e1006868.

98.   Biedler JK, Hu W, Tae H, Tu Z. Identification of early zygotic genes in the yellow fever
mosquito Aedes aegypti and discovery of a motif involved in early zygotic genome activation.
PloS one. 2012;7(3):e33933.

99.   Arsala D, Lynch JA. Ploidy has little effect on timing early embryonic events in the
haplo-diploid wasp Nasonia. Genesis. 2017;55(5).

100.   Pires CV, Freitas FC, Cristino AS, Dearden PK, Simoes ZL. Transcriptome Analysis of
Honeybee (Apis Mellifera) Haploid and Diploid Embryos Reveals Early Zygotic Transcription
during Cleavage. PloS one. 2016;11(1):e0146447.

101.   Gao S, Xue S, Gao T, Lu R, Zhang X, Zhang Y, et al. Transcriptome analysis reveals the
role of Zelda in the regulation of embryonic and wing development of Tribolium castaneum.
Bull Entomol Res. 2023;113(5):587–97.

102.   Ventos-Alfonso A, Ylla G, Belles X. Zelda and the maternal-to-zygotic transition in
cockroaches. FEBS J. 2019;286(16):3206–21.

103.   Gibson TJ, Larson ED, Harrison MM. Protein-intrinsic properties and context-dependent
effects regulate pioneer factor binding and function. Nat Struct Mol Biol. 2024;31(3):548–58.

104.   Nüsslein-Volhard C, Wieschaus E. Mutations affecting segment number and polarity in
Drosophila. Nature. 1980;287:795–801.

105.   Goltsev Y, Hsiong W, Lanzaro G, Levine M. Different combinations of gap repressors
for common stripes in *Anopheles* and *Drosophila* embryos. Dev Biol. 2004;275:435–46.

106.   Lemke S, Busch SE, Antonopoulos DA, Meyer F, Domanus MH, Schmidt-Ott U.
Maternal activation of gap genes in the hover fly *Episyrphus*. Development. 2010;137:1709–19.

107.   Wotton KR, Jimenez-Guri E, Crombach A, Janssens H, Alcaine-Colet A, Lemke S, et al.
Quantitative system drift compensates for altered maternal inputs to the gap gene network of the
scuttle fly Megaselia abdita. eLife. 2015;4.

108.   Bullock SL, Stauber M, Prell A, Hughes JR, Ish-Horowicz D, Schmidt-Ott U.
Differential cytoplasmic mRNA localization adjusts pair-rule transcription factor activity to
cytoarchitecture in dipteran evolution. Development. 2004;131:4251–61.

109.   Campos-Ortega JA, Hartenstein V. The embryonic development of *Drosophila*
melanogaster. 2 ed. Berlin, Heidelberg, New York: Springer-Verlag; 1997.

110.   Yoon Y. Evolution of embryonic axis determinants via alternative transcription:
University of Chicago; 2019.

111.   Rafiqi AM, Park CH, Kwan CW, Lemke S, Schmidt-Ott U. BMP-dependent serosa and
amnion specification in the scuttle fly Megaselia abdita. Development. 2012;139(18):3373–82.

112.   Rafiqi AM, Lemke S, Ferguson S, Stauber M, Schmidt-Ott U. Evolutionary origin of the
amnioserosa in cyclorrhaphan flies correlates with spatial and temporal expression changes of
zen. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2008;105(1):234–9.

113.   Kwan CW, Gavin-Smyth J, Ferguson EL, Schmidt-Ott U. Functional evolution of a
morphogenetic gradient. eLife. 2016;5.

114.   Caroti F, Gonzalez Avalos E, Noeske V, Gonzalez Avalos P, Kromm D, Wosch M, et al.
Decoupling from yolk sac is required for extraembryonic tissue spreading in the scuttle fly
Megaselia abdita. eLife. 2018;7.

115.   Urbansky S, Gonzalez Avalos P, Wosch M, Lemke S. Folded gastrulation and T48 drive
the evolution of coordinated mesoderm internalization in flies. eLife. 2016;5.

116.   Vicoso B, Bachtrog D. Numerous transitions of sex chromosomes in Diptera. PLoS Biol.
2015;13(4):e1002078.

117.   Hall AB, Basu S, Jiang X, Qi Y, Timoshevskiy VA, Biedler JK, et al. SEX
DETERMINATION. A male-determining factor in the mosquito Aedes aegypti. Science.
2015;348(6240):1268–70.

118.   Krzywinska E, Dennison NJ, Lycett GJ, Krzywinski J. A maleness gene in the malaria
mosquito Anopheles gambiae. Science. 2016;353(6294):67–9.

119.   Saccone G. A history of the genetic and molecular identification of genes and their
functions controlling insect sex determination. Insect Biochem Mol Biol. 2022;151:103873.

120.   Grand RS, Pregnolato M, Baumgartner L, Hoerner L, Burger L, Schubeler D. Genome
access is transcription factor-specific and defined by nucleosome position. Mol Cell.
2024;84(18):3455–68 e6.

121.   Schulz KN, Bondra ER, Moshe A, Villalta JE, Lieb JD, Kaplan T, et al. Zelda is
differentially required for chromatin accessibility, transcription factor binding, and gene
expression in the early Drosophila embryo. Genome research. 2015;25(11):1715–26.

122.   Seller CA, O'Farrell PH. Rif1 prolongs the embryonic S phase at the Drosophila mid-
blastula transition. PLoS Biol. 2018;16(5):e2005687.

123.   Walldorf U, Kiewe A, Wickert M, Ronshaugen M, McGinnis W. Homeobrain, a novel
paired-like homeobox gene is expressed in the Drosophila brain. Mech Dev. 2000;96(1):141–4.

124.   Kolb D, Kaspar P, Kloppel C, Walldorf U. The Drosophila homeodomain transcription
factor Homeobrain is involved in the formation of the embryonic protocerebrum and the
supraesophageal brain commissure. Cells Dev. 2021;165:203657.

125.   Hildebrandt K, Kolb D, Kloppel C, Kaspar P, Wittling F, Hartwig O, et al. Regulatory
modules mediating the complex neural expression patterns of the homeobrain gene during
Drosophila brain development. Hereditas. 2022;159(1):2.

126.   Ansari S, Troelenberg N, Dao VA, Richter T, Bucher G, Klingler M. Double abdomen in
a short-germ insect: Zygotic control of axis formation revealed in the beetle Tribolium
castaneum. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2018;115(8):1819–24.

127. Schomburg C, Janssen R, Prpic NM. Phylogenetic analysis of forkhead transcription
factors in the Panarthropoda. Dev Genes Evol. 2022;232(1):39–48.

128. Clark E. Dynamic patterning by the Drosophila pair-rule network reconciles long-germ
and short-germ segmentation. PLoS Biol. 2017;15(9):e2002439.

129. Cadigan KM, Grossniklaus U, Gehring WJ. Functional redundancy: the respective roles
of the two sloppy paired genes in Drosophila segmentation. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A.
1994;91(14):6324–8.

130. Grossniklaus U, Pearson RK, Gehring WJ. The Drosophila sloppy paired locus encodes
two proteins involved in segmentation that show homology to mammalian transcription factors.
Genes Dev. 1992;6(6):1030–51.

131. Fujioka M, Jaynes JB. Regulation of a duplicated locus: Drosophila sloppy paired is
replete with functionally overlapping enhancers. Dev Biol. 2012;362(2):309–19.

132. Lee HH, Frasch M. Survey of forkhead domain encoding genes in the Drosophila
genome: Classification and embryonic expression patterns. Dev Dyn. 2004;229(2):357–66.

133. Gao Q, Finkelstein R. Targeting gene expression to the head: the *Drosophila*
orthodenticle gene is a direct target of the Bicoid morphogen. Development. 1998:4185–93.

134. Choi HMT, Schwarzkopf M, Fornace ME, Acharya A, Artavanis G, Stegmaier J, et al.
Third-generation in situ hybridization chain reaction: multiplexed, quantitative, sensitive,
versatile, robust. Development. 2018;145(12).

135. Bruce HS, Jerz G, Kelly SR, McCarthy J, Pomerantz A, Senevirathne G, et al.
Hybridization chain reaction (HCR) in situ protocol V.1.; 2021.

136. Buenrostro JD, Giresi PG, Zaba LC, Chang HY, Greenleaf WJ. Transposition of native
chromatin for fast and sensitive epigenomic profiling of open chromatin, DNA-binding proteins
and nucleosome position. Nat Methods. 2013;10(12):1213–8.

137. Krueger F. Trim Galore! : Babraham Bioinformatics; 2012.

138. Langmead B, Salzberg SL. Fast gapped-read alignment with Bowtie 2. Nat Methods.
2012;9(4):357–9.

139. Lawrence M, Huber W, Pages H, Aboyoun P, Carlson M, Gentleman R, et al. Software
for computing and annotating genomic ranges. PLoS Comput Biol. 2013;9(8):e1003118.

140. Morgan M, Pages H, Obenchain V, Hayden N. Rsamtools: Binary alignment (BAM),
FASTA, variant call (BCF), and tabix file import.: Bioconductor; 2013.

141. Pantano L. DEGreport: report of DEG analysis 2017 [Available from:
http://lpantano.github.io/DEGreport/.

142.   Bergman CM, Carlson JW, Celniker SE. Drosophila DNase I footprint database: a
systematic genome annotation of transcription factor binding sites in the fruitfly, Drosophila
melanogaster. Bioinformatics. 2005;21(8):1747–9.

143.   Kulakovskii IV, Makeev V. [Integration of data obtained by different experimental
methods to determine the motifs in DNA sequences recognized by transcription-regulating
factors]. Biofizika. 2009;54(6):965–74.

144.   Kulakovskiy IV, Favorov AV, Makeev VJ. Motif discovery and motif finding from
genome-mapped DNase footprint data. Bioinformatics. 2009;25(18):2318–25.

145.   Zhu LJ, Christensen RG, Kazemian M, Hull CJ, Enuameh MS, Basciotta MD, et al.
FlyFactorSurvey: a database of Drosophila transcription factor binding specificities determined
using the bacterial one-hybrid system. Nucleic Acids Res. 2011;39(Database issue):D111–7.

146.   Shazman S, Lee H, Socol Y, Mann RS, Honig B. OnTheFly: a database of Drosophila
melanogaster transcription factors and their binding sites. Nucleic Acids Res. 2014;42(Database
issue):D167–71.

147.   Rohr KB, Tautz D, Sander K. Segmentation gene expression in the mothmidge Clogmia
albipunctata (Diptera, psychodidae) and other primitive dipterans. Dev Genes Evol.
1999;209(3):145–54.

148.   Smit A, Hubley R. RepeatModeler 2008 [Available from: https://www.repeatmasker.org/.

149.   Smit A, Hubley R, Green P. RepeatMasker 2013 [Available from:
https://www.repeatmasker.org/.

150.   Haas BJ, Salzberg SL, Zhu W, Pertea M, Allen JE, Orvis J, et al. Automated eukaryotic
gene structure annotation using EVidenceModeler and the Program to Assemble Spliced
Alignments. Genome Biol. 2008;9(1):R7.

151.   Huerta-Cepas J, Szklarczyk D, Heller D, Hernandez-Plaza A, Forslund SK, Cook H, et al.
eggNOG 5.0: a hierarchical, functionally and phylogenetically annotated orthology resource
based on 5090 organisms and 2502 viruses. Nucleic Acids Res. 2019;47(D1):D309–D14.

152.   Cantalapiedra CP, Hernandez-Plaza A, Letunic I, Bork P, Huerta-Cepas J. eggNOG-
mapper v2: Functional Annotation, Orthology Assignments, and Domain Prediction at the
Metagenomic Scale. Mol Biol Evol. 2021;38(12):5825–9.

153.   Simao FA, Waterhouse RM, Ioannidis P, Kriventseva EV, Zdobnov EM. BUSCO:
assessing genome assembly and annotation completeness with single-copy orthologs.
Bioinformatics. 2015;31(19):3210–2.

154.   Manni M, Berkeley MR, Seppey M, Zdobnov EM. BUSCO: Assessing Genomic Data
Quality and Beyond. Curr Protoc. 2021;1(12):e323.

155.   Wang Y, Tang H, Debarry JD, Tan X, Li J, Wang X, et al. MCScanX: a toolkit for detection and evolutionary analysis of gene synteny and collinearity. Nucleic Acids Res. 2012;40(7):e49.

156.   Gu Z, Gu L, Eils R, Schlesner M, Brors B. circlize Implements and enhances circular visualization in R. Bioinformatics. 2014;30(19):2811–2.

157.   Diesh C, Stevens GJ, Xie P, De Jesus Martinez T, Hershberg EA, Leung A, et al. JBrowse 2: a modular genome browser with views of synteny and structural variation. Genome Biol. 2023;24(1):74.

158.   Hancock DY, Fischer J, Lowe JM, Fischer J, Lowe JM, Snapp-Childs W, et al. Jetstream2: Accelerating cloud computing via Jetstream. . Practice and Experience in Advanced Research Computing (PEARC '21). New York, NY: Association for Computing Machinery; 2021.

159.   Boerner TJ, Deems S, Furlani TR, Knuth SL, Towns J. ACCESS: Advancing Innovation: NSF's Advanced Cyberinfrastructure Coordination Ecosystem: Services & Support. Practice and Experience in Advanced Research Computing (PEARC '23). New York, NY: Association for Computing Machinery; 2023.

160.   Priyam A, Woodcroft BJ, Rai V, Moghul I, Munagala A, Ter F, et al. Sequenceserver: A Modern Graphical User Interface for Custom BLAST Databases. Mol Biol Evol. 2019;36(12):2922–4.

161.   Beeber D, Chain FJ. crispRdesignR: A Versatile Guide RNA Design Package in R for CRISPR/Cas9 Applications. J Genomics. 2020;8:62–70.

162.   Brooks EM, Sanders SA, Pfrender ME. FreeCount: A coding-free framework for guided count data visualization and analysis. Practice and Experience in Advanced Research Computing 2024: Human Powered Computing (PEARC '24). New York, NY: Association for Computing Machinery; 2024.

163.   Xiao Z, Lam HM. ShinySyn: a Shiny/R application for the interactive visualization and integration of macro- and micro-synteny data. Bioinformatics. 2022;38(18):4406–8.