1 **A hormonally regulated gating mechanism controls EMT timing to ensure progenitor**
2 **cell specification occurs prior to epithelial breakdown**
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Abstract

Epithelial-to-mesenchymal transitions (EMTs) are essential for morphogenesis, converting
static epithelial cells into migratory mesenchymal cells. As EMT disrupts epithelial barriers, its
timing must be tightly regulated during development. We investigated this regulation in the
Drosophila posterior embryonic midgut, where the GATA transcription factor Serpent (Srp)
drives a collective partial EMT in the principal midgut epithelial cells (PMECs). Srp is
expressed well before PMEC-EMT initiation and is also required for an earlier event: the
specification and delamination of endoblasts, which give rise to different midgut lineages
including adult midgut progenitors (AMPs). Here we identify the steroid hormone ecdysone as
a temporal cue that triggers PMEC-EMT. Although Srp activates and represses numerous
genes during early stages of midgut development, including polarity regulators such as *crumbs*
(crb), the removal of polarity proteins and E-Cadherin from the membrane of PMECs only
properly occurs in the presence of ecdysone signalling. This suggests that Srp primes cells
transcriptionally for EMT, which proceeds only once polarity and adhesion proteins are
downregulated post-translationally. Accordingly, premature ecdysone exposure induces an
early EMT, in a Srp-dependent manner. Furthermore, early PMEC-EMT leads to a reduction
in the number of progenitor cells, suggesting that maintaining epithelial integrity until after
endoblasts are selected is crucial for early fate decisions. These findings reveal that ecdysone
functions as a EMT gatekeeper, ensuring that EMT is temporally restricted to occur only after
progenitor specification, and in coordination with other developmental processes. More
broadly, our work shows that in this context, transcriptional priming of EMT can be uncoupled
from its execution, which is post-translationally triggered by hormonal signals. Given the
conserved role of nuclear steroid hormone receptors as GATA co-factors and their association
with poor prognosis in cancer, this may represent a broader strategy by which systemic cues
regulate EMT in development and cancer.

Introduction

Epithelial cells are essential building blocks of animal tissues, forming tightly connected sheets that provide both structural support and protective barriers roles during development and in adult organs. The regulated transformation of epithelial cells into mesenchymal cells, a process known as epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition (EMT), is essential for embryonic development[1]. EMT enables cells to delaminate from epithelial sheets, migrate, and build organs and tissues throughout the body. Given the critical barrier functions of epithelia, EMT must be tightly controlled both spatially and temporally. Premature or dysregulated EMT can lead to developmental defects and has been implicated in pathological conditions such as cancer metastasis and fibrosis[2].

A key feature of developmental EMTs is the presence of EMT-inducing transcription factors (EMT-TFs)[3], which are often expressed well before any overt cellular changes[4-6]. For example, the EMT-TF Snail is expressed very early in the presumptive *Drosophila* mesoderm[7]. Although Snail is transcriptionally active at this stage, with known targets already being expressed[8-10], EMT does not occur until after the mesoderm has been internalised and the actomyosin tension released[4,11]. Studies in vertebrates have provided further evidence that the activity of EMT-TFs can be modulated by the mechanical properties of the cellular environment, highlighting a conserved role for mechanical cues in regulating EMT timing[4,5,12]. However, additional mechanisms are likely required to regulate the precise timing of EMT onset and ensure that EMT only proceeds once appropriate developmental milestones are reached. How EMT-TF activity is temporally regulated beyond mechanical influences remains poorly understood.

The embryonic midgut of *Drosophila melanogaster* presents a well-characterised and experimentally accessible system to study how the timing of EMT is developmentally regulated[13-15]. The midgut originates from two epithelial-endodermal invaginations positioned at opposite poles of the blastoderm-stage embryo[16,17]. During gastrulation, specific cells within these anterior and posterior invaginations - the principal midgut epithelial cells (PMECs) - undergo a collective, partial EMT[13,18]. They temporarily adopt mesenchymal behaviour, migrate towards each other and subsequently undergo a mesenchymal-to-epithelial transition, and form the epithelial lining of the embryonic gut tube[14,19].

We have recently shown that prior to EMT, another key developmental event occurs[15]. Individual cells, termed endoblasts, delaminate apically into the lumen of each midgut primordium. These transient cells undergo a single asymmetric cell division to produce either

an enteroendocrine cell (EE) or an adult midgut progenitor cell (AMP). A small subset of
endoblasts in the distal tip of the posterior midgut instead generates EEs or interstitial cell
precursors (ICPs). These populations of endoblast-derived cells collectively migrate with the
PMECs and contribute to the formation of cell lineages required for later developmental
stages. In particular, the AMPs form progenitor cells which subsequently give rise to all cells
in the adult midgut epithelium, including the intestinal stem cells[20,21].

EMT in the posterior midgut is driven by the GATA transcription factor Serpent (Srp). Srp
shows many parallels with Sna – both are required for EMT in their respective tissues, but
also have earlier roles in determining cell fate, with Srp necessary for endoderm specification,
and Sna for mesoderm[7,22,23]. Previous work has shown that Srp is first expressed during
stages 5-6 of development, yet EMT does not occur until roughly 2 hours later[13]. This is not
simply due to a delay in Serpent activity as *hindsight* (*hnt*), a known Srp target, is already
expressed during stage 6 (Fig. 1A,B and[24]). Furthermore, Srp is also required for the
specification of AMP, EE, and ICP cell types, processes that precede its role in EMT[25]. These
observations raise a fundamental question—given the early expression and activity of Srp,
what prevents premature EMT?

Here, we uncover a role for the steroid hormone 20-hydroxyecdysone (ecdysone) in the
temporal control of Srp-driven EMT. Given that GATA factor activity is often regulated through
interactions with transcriptional co-factors[26], we generated a genome-wide binding profile for
Serpent in the endoderm and searched for common binding motifs to identify putative co-
regulators. This analysis revealed that Serpent transcriptional targets can be subdivided by
the presence of ecdysone-responsive motifs. Although Serpent alone regulates a broad set of
target genes—including those involved in epithelial polarity such as *crumbs* (*crb*)—timely
cellular de-adhesion and EMT occur only in the presence of ecdysone signalling. Consistent
with this, treatment of early embryos with ecdysone activates premature EMT in a Srp-
dependent manner. Notably, the induction of early EMT disrupts midgut cell fate specification,
underscoring the importance of coordinating EMT and differentiation signals. Furthermore,
only PMECs respond to ecdysone, whereas delaminating endoblasts that give rise to the
AMPs and EEs do not, suggesting that differing responsiveness to hormone signalling can act
as a method for producing further functional diversity within a developing tissue. Together,
these findings reveal that ecdysone functions as a temporal gate for EMT, ensuring that
breakdown of the midgut epithelium only occurs after progenitor specification is complete.
Given the strong conservation of hormone-responsive transcriptional machinery, and the
known cooperation between hormone nuclear receptors and GATA factors in mammalian

systems, we propose that hormone gating may act as a conserved mechanism for the
temporal regulation of EMT onset.
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115 **Results**
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117 **Mapping Serpent binding sites during midgut EMT**
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Srp is a GATA transcription factor, part of a highly conserved family that regulates diverse
developmental processes in a context-dependent manner[26]. GATA factor activity is often
modulated by interactions with other transcription factors, and their ability to activate or repress
specific target genes depends on the presence of appropriate co-regulators. These
interactions help confer spatial or temporal specificity, which is essential for carrying out
distinct functions, as GATA factors often have multiple roles despite being broadly and
constitutively expressed within developing tissues[27]. Given that Srp is expressed well before
the onset of EMT in the midgut, we hypothesised that additional factors may be necessary to
enable Srp to induce EMT. Specifically, we hypothesised that Srp may function in combination
with other transcription factors to regulate distinct aspects of endoderm specification and EMT
onset. To identify such co-regulators, we aimed to generate a genome-wide binding profile for
Srp in the endoderm, spanning the period before and after EMT initiation (Stages 8-11).
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To achieve this, we employed Targeted DamID (TaDa), a cell type-specific profiling method
based on DamID[28] that enables the detection of protein-DNA interactions *in vivo* without the
need for cell isolation, fixation, or specific antibodies[29,30] (Fig. 1C). While GATA factors are
characterised by the presence of two highly conserved zinc fingers, Srp is either produced in
an isoform that contains both zinc fingers (SrpNC) or just one zinc finger (SrpC)[31]. While Srp
isoforms differ in the capacity to activate certain target genes *in vivo,* analyses of isoform
specific loss-of-function mutants suggests that either is sufficient to drive EMT during midgut
formation[32]. We therefore generated two constructs, UAS-Dam-SrpNC and UAS-Dam-SrpC
(see Methods), and reasoned that *bona fide* EMT targets would be bound by both isoforms.
This strategy allowed us to control for isoform-specific or non-specific background binding.
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Analysis of peaks of binding indicate that both SrpC and SrpNC primarily bind to intergenic
regions and in sites overlapping with the transcription start site (Supp. Fig. 1). This shows
parallels with vertebrate orthologs of Srp, GATAs 4 and 6, which are similarly expressed in the
endoderm and are also capable of driving an EMT[13,33,34]. GATA4 sites are mainly intragenic
(primarily in the first intron) and intergenic regions, with only a small subset of the binding sites

targeting upstream promoters, while GATA6 binds to promoters, intragenic regions and distal

intergenic regions (reviewed in[27]).

We identified 578 target genes bound by SrpNC and 659 for SrpC, with 313 of these targets

shared between the two isoforms (Fig. 1F). Supporting the validity of our analysis, we

replicated binding peaks previously identified by Chromatin Immunoprecipitation followed by

Polymerase Chain Reaction (ChIP-PCR) in the first intron of crumbs (crb), Laminin B1, and

Laminin B2, as well as identifying binding in the known Srp target GATAe (Fig. 1D,E, Supp.

Fig 2 and[13,35]). Furthermore, the most common motif found among genes bound by either

isoform was the consensus WGATAR sequence[36] (Fig 1H). To further characterise common

binding sites, we used established pipelines[37] to extract the associated genes and carried out

gene set enrichment analysis. Overrepresented Gene Ontology (GO) terms included

categories related to cell migration, actin cytoskeleton organisation, digestive tract

development, establishment of maintenance of cell polarity, cell-cell junction organisation and

apical constriction (Fig. 1G), reflecting the multifaceted roles of Srp in midgut morphogenesis

and EMT.

Ecdysone is required for EMT in the midgut

To identify putative co-factors associating with Srp when binding to the genome, we searched

for transcription factor-binding motifs that are overrepresented in the genes bound by both Srp

isoforms using i-cisTarget[38]. Top hits included Serpent itself, the GAGA factor Trithorax-like

(Trl) and notably, the Ecdysone Receptor (EcR) (Fig. 1I). In line with EcR being a potential co-

factor, we found Srp binding sites in the first intron of the known ecdysone-responsive gene

Eip75B (Fig. 1J). These findings raised the possibility that ecdysone signalling may cooperate

with Srp to regulate target gene expression during early midgut development

Given the well-established role of hormones in regulating developmental timing across

species (reviewed in[39]), the enrichment of EcR motifs within Srp-bound chromatin regions was

particularly striking. EcR is the nuclear receptor for the steroid hormone ecdysone, which

coordinates major developmental transitions in Drosophila, including molting and

metamorphosis[40]. While a requirement for ecdysone in midgut morphogenesis during mid-

embryogenesis has been reported[41,42], its presence in Srp-bound chromatin regions during

stages 8–11 of embryogenesis suggests a previously unappreciated role for ecdysone

signalling in regulating earlier stages of midgut development.

To test whether Edysone signalling contributes to midgut-EMT, we blocked the functioning of

endogenous EcR by expressing a dominant negative form of the EcR (UAS-EcR-DN) together

with the membrane marker UAS-SrcGFP, using hkb-Gal4, which expresses in midgut cells

from very early stages of development[13]. At the stage when midgut cells have normally

rounded up and multilayered (Fig. 2A, arrows), we observed that midgut cells with disrupted

ecdysone signalling retained a more columnar, epithelial-like morphology (Fig. 2B, arrows).

To characterise these shape differences in greater detail, we used single cell morphometric

analysis (scMorphometrics), a powerful approach for quantifying cell shape in 3D from

confocal image stacks[43]. scMorphometrics allows an unbiased measurement of cell

morphology, which can then be projected onto 2D shape trajectories[43,44].

We segmented cells from 3D confocal z-stacks in wild type embryos post-EMT, focusing on

the more distal portion of the midgut (Fig. 2C, C'), then segmented cells from the same region

of the midgut in embryos at the same stage expressing EcR-DN. A principal component

analysis of cellular features revealed that cells defective for ecdysone signalling retain a

distinct morphology from their wild type counterparts (Fig. 2D). Principal Component 1 is

comprised of metrics related to cell size (Supp. Fig. 3A), while Principal Component 2

describes the regularity of the cell shape (Supp. Fig. 3B). The negative contribution of maximal

lateral width to PC2 (Supp. Fig. 3C) suggests that cells widen as their shape becomes more

irregular, perhaps reflecting a loosening of tension at the onset of EMT.

EcR-DN expressing cells score higher in both Principal Components, meaning these cells are

taller and larger than in wild type (Fig 2. C, E, F). Furthermore, their high score in PC2 suggests

that EcR-DN cells possess a more regular surface which may be indicative of tighter packing

within the tissue. Indeed, these cells are more columnar, often with clear apical surfaces, and

fail to adopt the wider and shorter mesenchymal morphology seen in wild type midguts (Fig.

2D). The fact that apical domains remain more established in EcR-DN cells suggests that a

key step in midgut-EMT is the constriction and removal of the apical surface.

Ecdysone signalling is required for post-translational downregulation of

apicobasal/junctional proteins from the plasma membrane

We previously showed that a key component of Srp-driven EMT is the direct transcriptional

repression of the apicobasal polarity determinant *crumb (crb)*, which leads to a loss of

epithelial polarity[13]. In contrast, junctional proteins such as dE-Cadherin (dE-Cad) and

Bazooka ((Baz), *Drosophila* Par-3) are not transcriptionally repressed. Instead, these proteins

are removed from the cell membrane during EMT[13] and are later recycled to mediate dynamic

adhesions as cells undergo collective migration[18].

To determine which aspects of EMT require ecdysone signalling, we first examined *crb* RNA

expression dynamics in the developing midgut using fluorescence *in situ* hybridisation

(FISH)[45]. We found that *crb* expression is downregulated by stage 7, well before the onset of

EMT (Fig. 3A-C). In EcR-DN embryos, *crb* repression occurs normally, indicating that Srp-

mediated transcriptional repression of *crb* is independent of ecdysone signalling (Fig. 3D,E).

We next examined Crb protein localisation. Despite the early loss of *crb* RNA, Crb protein

persists at the apical membrane of midgut cells until stage 10, when it is rapidly lost (Fig. 3F).

In embryos with impaired ecdysone signalling, Crb is not downregulated from the membrane

and remains apically localised (Fig. 3G). Similarly, dE-Cad and Baz also fail to be removed

from the membrane when EcRDN is expressed in midgut cells (Fig. 3H-K).

Together, these data suggest that midgut cells are transcriptionally primed for EMT through

early repression of *crb*, but loss of polarity and adhesion requires the ecdysone-dependent

removal of Crb and junctional proteins from the membrane. Notably, in *crb* mutant embryos,

EMT occurs prematurely in the midgut[13], further supporting the idea that membrane-localized

Crb maintains cells in an epithelial state until these proteins are actively cleared.

Crb protein removal depends on different mechanisms in endoblasts vs PMECs

This led us to investigate how Crb is removed from the cell membrane. Previous studies have

shown that binding of the E3 ubiquitin ligase Neuralized (Neur) to the Crb complex protein

Stardust (Sdt) promotes Crb endocytosis[46,47]. We therefore hypothesised that ecdysone

signalling may act upstream of Neur, triggering its expression to initiate membrane removal of

Crb and the subsequent downregulation of junctional proteins at the appropriate

developmental stage.

To test this, we first examined the spatial and temporal dynamics of *neur* expression in the

posterior midgut. FISH revealed that *neur* is expressed in stage 9 embryos (Fig. 4A). However,

rather than being expressed throughout the epithelium—which would be expected if it were

involved in midgut EMT - it appears to be expressed in a salt and pepper pattern. As this is

reminiscent of the localisation of endoblasts prior to delamination (Fig. 4C), we performed

FISH for the endoblast marker *sna* and found that it co-localises with *neur,* both in early stages

where endoblasts are still part of the epithelium, and later after the cells have moved into the
midgut lumen (Fig. 4A,B).

This led us to ask whether different mechanisms remove Crb in the different midgut cell
populations. Because Neur is also a key component of Notch signalling, which is required for
endoblast selection, direct genetic perturbation of *neur* would likely interfere with endoblast
formation and specification of the AMPs and EEs. Instead, we used a more targeted approach
by analysing embryos carrying the *sdtΔ3:GFP* allele, in which the Neur-interaction domain of
Std is specifically disrupted[47]. This mutation abrogates Neur-mediated endocytosis of Crb
without affecting other Sdt-dependent functions.

In control embryos, Crb and Sdt were completely cleared from endoblast cells and their
progeny (Fig. 4D, arrows), while low levels remained on the membrane and intracellularly in
the PMECS (Fig. 4D, arrowheads). In contrast, in *sdtΔ3:GFP* mutants endoblasts, EEs and
AMPs retained both Crb and Sdt (Fig. 4D-G), indicating that the interaction between Sdt and
Neur is essential for Crb removal in these cells. However, the absence of *neur* expression in
PMECs suggests that a different, as-yet unidentified, pathway must traffic Crb from the
membrane in these cells. Importantly, given the persistence of Crb in PMECs when ecdysone
signalling is blocked, this suggests that the alternate pathway operates under hormonal
control.

Ecdysone signalling is active only in PMECs and is dispensable for progenitor cell
specification

The expression of Neur suggested a previously unrecognised cellular specificity to the
remodelling events occurring around the time of endoblast delamination and midgut EMT. To
determine if there is any specificity to ecdysone signalling, we next examined the spatial
distribution of ecdysone pathway activity using an ecdysone response element (EcRE)-
driven *LacZ* (*EcRE-LacZ)* reporter[48]. FISH for *lacZ* showed that there is no ecdysone activity
during early stages of midgut development (Fig. 4H,I), and it is first detected in the PMECs
during stages 10–11, corresponding with the onset of EMT (Fig 4J,K, region between dotted
yellow and red lines denote the PMECs). In contrast, endoblasts and their progeny showed
very little detectable *lacZ* expression at any stage examined (Fig. 4L,M). This suggests that
ecdysone signalling is spatially restricted to the PMECs and is not active in the delaminating
endoblasts.

To confirm that there is no role for ecdysone in endoblasts, we next asked whether blocking
ecdysone signalling affected the formation of their daughter cells – the EEs and AMPs. Cell
counts revealed no significant differences in the number or AMPs and EEs compared to wild-
type controls (Supp. Fig. 4), indicating that ecdysone signalling is dispensable for endoblast
delamination and EE and AMP cell specification.
298
299 Together, this points to two temporally separable morphogenetic events in the early midgut –
300 endoblast selection and delamination from the epithelial midgut primordium, followed later by
301 EMT in the outer epithelial PMECs. The timing of EMT onset appears to be triggered by the
302 downregulation of Crb, and the subsequent removal of junctional proteins from the cell
303 membrane downstream, which is under ecdysone control.
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305 **Ecdysone controls the timing of PMEC-EMT in a Srp-dependent manner**
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307 Our findings thus far strongly indicate that ecdysone signalling acts as a key trigger to initiate
308 PMEC-EMT by acting as a co-regulator for a subset of Srp targets. Srp is present in the
309 embryo from as early as stage 6. Therefore, if the temporal control of EMT is governed by the
310 timing of exposure to the ecdysone hormone, this would suggest that exposing posterior
311 midgut cells to ecdysone at earlier stages should trigger a premature EMT.
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To test this, we cultured embryos with exogenous 20-hyroxyecdysone (20E), the
physiologically active form of the hormone. Previous studies have demonstrated that 20E
treatment can induce premature and widespread activation of ecdysone signalling across the
embryo[42]. In untreated control embryos at stage 7, the posterior midgut epithelium remains
fully intact and epithelial, as indicated by tight apical localisation of Baz, which we used as a
readout for polarity (Fig. 5A-A1'). However, embryos exposed to 20E at this stage undergo
precocious EMT, as indicated by Baz delocalised from the apical membrane and a rounded
appearance (Fig. 5B-B1').
321
322 Crucially, this premature EMT phenotype was entirely dependent on Srp, as 20E treatment
323 failed to induce polarity changes or EMT-like behaviour in *srp* mutant embryos (Fig. 5C-C1').
324 These results demonstrate that ecdysone acts to control the timing of EMT, and that the
325 developmental competence of midgut cells to undergo EMT is contingent on the presence of
326 Srp, but that hormone signalling is required for it to proceed.
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328 **Premature PMEC-EMT leads to a reduction in progenitor cell specification**
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Having established that ecdysone signalling regulates the timing of PMEC-EMT onset, we
next sought to understand why the temporal control of EMT is so critical for proper midgut
development. Notch signalling is known to play an important role in early fate decisions in the
midgut, acting upstream of the specification of endoblasts, EEs and AMPs. Given the known
importance for both topological tissue organisation and for Crb interactions in Notch
signalling[49,50], we wondered if maintenance of an epithelium is required until Notch signalling
has selected endoblasts. We reasoned that premature EMT, by disrupting epithelial integrity
and reducing cell-cell contacts, might negatively affect endoblast selection and progenitor
specification.
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To investigate this, we took advantage of our previous finding that in *crb* mutants there is a
premature EMT[13]. We therefore immunostained *crb* mutants for markers for EEs and AMPs
and performed cell counts. We found that in this condition, the numbers of AMPs and EEs are
greatly reduced (Fig. 6). This suggests that maintaining the epithelial sheet during the window
of endoblast selection and progenitor specification is critical to ensure appropriate levels of
Notch signalling takes place.
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347 **Discussion**
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In this study, we show that the steroid hormone ecdysone plays an essential role in the
temporal control of EMT during *Drosophila* midgut development. While the GATA factor Srp
initiates transcriptional priming by directly repressing *crb* early in development, we find that
physical changes associated with EMT—such as junctional protein removal and loss of
polarity—are delayed and require ecdysone signalling. This temporal separation between
transcriptional priming and execution ensures that EMT does not proceed prematurely,
allowing other developmental processes, such as cell fate specification via Notch mediated
lateral inhibition, to occur in a properly organised epithelium.
357
Intriguingly, our findings suggest that two temporally and mechanistically distinct types of
epithelial remodelling events occur in close succession in the midgut: endoblast delamination
and PMEC-EMT. While endoblast delamination has not previously been classified as an EMT,
it shares key morphological features with it—including junctional detachment, loss of
apicobasal polarity and exit of cells from the epithelial layer into the midgut lumen. Our data
suggest that, despite occurring within the same tissue, endoblasts and PMECs undergo two
distinct partial EMTs. Endoblasts express Sna, individual delamination initiates with a basal
constriction and cells downregulate Crb via the ubiquitin ligase Neur. In contrast, PMEC-EMT
is triggered later, occurs collectively and involves apical domain remodelling, likely via

constriction. It requires both Srp activity and ecdysone signalling and proceeds via the Neur-
independent removal of polarity and adhesion proteins from the plasma membrane. This
highlights that observed mechanistic and morphological differences in EMT are not merely
context-dependent, but that even within a single epithelial tissue, at least two distinct EMT
mechanisms can be deployed.
372
A key mechanistic insight from this study is that EMT in the midgut is triggered not simply by
transcriptional changes, but by the removal of polarity and junctional proteins from the plasma
membrane. While the transcriptional repression of adhesion and polarity factors like E-Cad
and Crb have long been considered a hallmark of EMT, our data demonstrate that midgut cells
retain E-Cad and Crb protein for several hours after *crb* transcription is repressed. Only upon
ecdysone signalling are Crb and other junctional proteins removed from the membrane,
allowing cell shape changes and detachment. This two-step mechanism—transcriptional
priming followed by hormone-triggered protein clearance—ensures that EMT occurs with high
temporal precision.
382
Post-translational control of junctional disassembly has been observed in other EMT contexts,
including in the *Drosophila* mesoderm, where adherens junction disassembly and
internalisation occurs rapidly upon the release of actomyosin tension[4]. Our findings suggest
that ecdysone signalling provides an additional route for post-translational EMT regulation,
allowing transcriptionally primed cells to respond to systemic cues and remodel rapidly when
the developmental context permits. It is possible that this mechanism represents a conserved
feature of hormone-regulated EMTs. Indeed, ecdysone has recently been implicated in other
Drosophila EMT and EMT-like contexts, including in the mesoderm[51], follicle cell
reorganisation[52], and fat body remodelling[53], although its molecular role in those processes
remains unclear.
393
This work also provides insight into how EMT timing intersects with fate decisions. We have
recently shown that progenitor cells arise from endoblasts, which are selected from the midgut
epithelium via Notch–Delta–mediated lateral inhibition[15,54]. In this process, Notch signalling
becomes inactive in the endoblasts, allowing them to delaminate into the midgut lumen, while
it remains active in the neighbouring epithelial cells. Interestingly, we observe a reduction in
progenitor cells in *crb* mutants, suggesting that loss of Crb leads to overactivation of the Notch
pathway in midgut cells. This could result directly from the loss of Crb protein at the apical
membrane. In the developing pupal wing, for example, Crb is required for proper apical
localization of Notch, and its absence leads to ligand-independent Notch activation and
subsequent defects in cell fate specification[55]. Similarly, in zebrafish, Crb has been shown to

interact with Notch in cell culture, and its overexpression reduces Notch activity[56]. Additionally,

premature EMT in *crb* mutants may lead to early epithelial multilayering, which will alter the

spatial context of Notch signalling. In a monolayered epithelium, cells interact laterally; in a

multilayer, cells contact neighbours apically and basally as well, increasing the number of

signalling interfaces and raising the possibility that multilayering leads to broader or ectopic

activation of Notch. Thus, either through altered membrane organisation or tissue architecture,

premature EMT disrupts Notch patterning and reduces progenitor output.

These findings highlight a previously unrecognized link between epithelial architecture,

hormone signalling, and the developmental timing of EMT. While the roles of Crb and tissue

organization in modulating Notch signalling are well established, our data show that these

factors also constrain when EMT can occur without compromising fate decisions. Specifically,

we demonstrate that EMT must be precisely delayed until after Notch-mediated progenitor

selection has taken place. This highlights the broader developmental principle that tissue

remodelling events such as EMT must be tightly coordinated with fate specification, and that

this coordination can be achieved by separating transcriptional priming from post-translational

execution.

More broadly, this work suggests that steroid hormones may play a general role in temporally

gating EMTs during development. Transcription factors like Snail, Twist, Srp, and Zeb proteins

are expressed across many contexts and often well before morphological transitions occur.

Their pleiotropic activity suggests that additional layers of regulation—such as mechanical

input or hormonal signalling—may be needed to fine-tune EMT onset. In vertebrates, the GATA

factors GATA2 and GATA3 are known to interact with nuclear hormone receptors such as

Androgen and Estrogen receptors[57,58] and are implicated in EMT-related processes and

cancer progression[26,59]. It is tempting to speculate that similar transcription factor–hormone

partnerships could coordinate EMT timing across species.

Material and Methods

Fly stocks and maintenance

Drosophila melanogaster stocks and crosses were maintained and performed on cornmeal

molasses food at 25°C. Details for all genotypes and transgenes can be found in flybase

(http://flybase.org) or in references listed here. Unless otherwise noted, stocks were obtained

from the Bloomington Stock centre. Stocks obtained from Bloomington *Drosophila* Stock

Center (NIH P40OD018537) were used in this study. The following lines were used in this

paper: Hkb-Gal4 (gifted by Helen Skaer), UAS-EcR-B1-DN (BDSC:6869), UAS-stingerGFP

(BDSC 84277), 48Y-Gal4 (BDSC 4935), OreR (BDSC 5), *crb[11A22]* (gift by Elisabeth Knust[60]),

Stardust::GFP (BDSC 99581)[47], Stardust[Δ3]::GFP (BDSC 99580)[47].

Embryos driving UAS-stingerGFP or UAS-srcGFP in the midgut using either hkb-Gal4 or 48Y-

Gal4 (BDSC 4935), or OreR were used as wildtype controls.

***Drosophila* embryo fixation and immunofluorescence**

Embryos for standard stainings were dechorionated using 50% bleach for 3 minutes, fixed in

4% PFA for 20 minutes, and then devitellinised with manual shaking. Embryos were

permeabilised and blocked in PBS + 0.2% Triton X-100 (PBT) + 0.1% BSA for 2 hours. Primary

antibodies were incubated overnight at 4°C, while secondary antibodies were incubated for 2

hours at room temperature. Primary antibodies used were: goat anti-GFP 1:500 (AB6673),

rabbit anti-GFP 1:1000 (PABG1), rat anti-E-Cad 1:100 (DCAD2, DSHB), mouse anti-FasII 1:20

(1D4, DSHB) mouse anti-prospero 1:100 (MR1A, DSHB), guinea pig anti-Snail 1:1000[4] (a gift

from Mo Weng), mouse anti-Hindsight 1:20 (1G9), rabbit anti-Bazooka N-term 1:200[61] (a gift

from Andreas Wodarz), and rat anti-Serpent[13] (1:500). Stainings for E-cad were performed on

fresh embryos fixed for 10 minutes. DAPI was used as a DNA stain at a concentration of 1:250.

Secondary antibodies, used at a concentration ranging from 1:100-200, were as follows:

Donkey anti-Goat Alexa Fluor Plus 488 (A32814), Donkey anti-Rabbit Alexa Fluor Plus 488

(A32790), Donkey anti-Mouse Alexa Fluor Plus 555 (A32773), Donkey anti-Rat Alexa Fluor

Plus 555 (A48270), Donkey anti-Rabbit Alexa Fluor Plus 555 (A32794), Donkey anti-Mouse

Alexa Fluor Plus 647 (A32787), Goat anti-Guinea Pig Alexa Fluor 647 (A-21450) Unless

otherwise stated, secondary antibodies were sourced from Thermo Fisher Scientific. Embryos

were mounted in ProLong Glass Antifade Mountant (Thermo Scientific) or Fluoromount G

(Invitrogen).

HCR *in situ* hybridisation

HCR *in situ* hybridisation was performed using an adapted version of previously published

protocols[45,62]. HCR v3.0 probes (*pros*-B1, *sna*-B4, *hnt*-B1, *hnt*-B2, *lacz*-B3, *neur*-B3, *crb*-B1)

and hairpins (B1 546, B1 647, B2 546, B2 647, B3 647 and B4 647) were synthesised by

Molecular Instruments. Following standard fixation, embryos were incubated in Probe

Hybridization Buffer (Molecular Instruments) at 37°C for 30 minutes then hybridised with Probe

Hybridisation Buffer (Molecular Instruments) containing HCR probes overnight at 37°C.

Embryos were washed four times for 15 minutes each, using pre-warmed Probe Wash Buffer

(Molecular Instruments) at 37°C. Embryos were then washed twice at room temperature in 5x

SSC buffer, pre-amplified in Probe Amplification Buffer (Molecular Instruments) for 10 minutes,

and then incubated overnight in Probe Amplification Buffer containing snap-cooled HCR

hairpins at room temperature in the dark. Excess hairpins were removed with two 5 min

washes with 5x SSC, followed by 2 washes for 30 minutes and a final 5 minute wash in 5x

SSC. Embryos were mounted in ProLong Glass Antifade Mountant (Thermo Scientific).

Image collection

Confocal images were generated using a Zeiss LSM880 with the Plan-Apochromat 25x/0.8

multi-immersion lens with oil, Plan-Apochromat 40x/1.3 oil immersion lens, or the Plan-

Apochromat 63x/1.4 oil-immersion lens. Images were captured with either the internal GaAsP

detector or an Airyscan detector; Airyscan processing was performed on Zen software. All

images in the paper are oriented with the anterior facing the left. Image analysis was

performed using Fiji[63] and associated plugins.

Targeted DamID

SrpC and SrpNC isoforms were cloned from pBS-KS Srp, which contains the open reading

frame(ORF) for SrpC (gifted by C.Antoniewski), and the full-length SrpNC ORF was cloned

from pBS-KS SrpNC, (gifted by M.Haenlin[64]) and inserted into UAS-LT3-Dam (gifted by

T.Southall[30]). UAS-SrpC-Dam, UAS-SrpNC-Dam and UAS-LT3-Dam (control line) flies were

crossed to hkb-Gal4 and reared at 25°C. ~1 g of embryos were collected per condition.

Embryos of the correct genotype were collected after 1 hr periods for successive lays over a

12-hr period. Embryos were aged to stage 11 and dechlorinated and fixed using standard

procedures. Genomic DNA was extracted using the Qiagen QIAamp DNA Micro Kit, followed

by overnight digestion at 37°C by DpnI, resulting in restriction endonuclease activity within

methylated GATC sites. Digested DNA was purified using the QIAquick PCR Purification kit.

Adaptors were blunt-end ligated for 2 h at 16°C using T4 DNA ligase and heat inactivated at

65°C for 20 min. The ligated DNA was then digested with DpnII to cleave any unmethylated

GATC sites, and purified with a 1:1 ratio of Seramag beads. Adaptor-ligated fragments were

then amplified with MyTaq and PCR purified. The amplified DNA was sonicated and digested

with AlwI to remove large adaptor sequences. Custom sequencing adaptor sequences

containing unique identification sequences were ligated in-place of DamID adaptor

sequences, pooled and prepped for Illumina sequencing, according to previously published

methods [30]. The quality of newly generated sequencing libraries containing unique identifier

sequences was assessed using a Bioanalyzer. All sequencing was performed as a single end
50 bp reads generated by NovoGene using the NovaSeq 6000. Each sub-indexed library
contained 4 biological replicates, each with 2 experimental replicates of embryos collected at
distinct time periods.
517

518   **Targeted DamID analysis**

519   Sequencing data generated from UAS-SrpC-Dam and UAS-SrpNC-Dam were used to
520   generate Log2 ratio files relative to UAS-Dam (UAS-SrpNC-Dam/UAS-Dam and UAS-SrpC-
521   Dam/UAS-Dam) via the DamMer pipeline[37]. A False Discovery Rate of -log10(50) was used
522   for peak calling.
523

Bioinformatic analysis

Called peaks from the DamMer pipeline were mapped to nearby genes using Uropa[64]. The
Motif enrichment analysis of Srp-bound peaks was performed using the FindMotifsGenome
command from Homer[65]. Motif enrichment analysis in gene lists was undertaken using i-
cisTarget[66,67]. Binding plots at genomic loci were created using pygenometracks[68,69]. GO term
analysis was performed using the PantherGO web tool. Aggregation plots of Serpent binding
profiles were made using Seqplots[70].
531

Exposure to exogenous 20E

Embryos were dechorionated, immobilized between two nylon meshes, and permeabilized by
immersing the immobilized embryos in *n*-octane (Sigma) for 5 min. After evaporation of the
octane, 1 ml of Schneider's medium containing 5×10^{-6} M 20-hydroxyecdysone (Sigma) was
applied to the double mesh for 2 h. The 20-hydroxyecdysone solution was then replaced by
Schneider's medium, and the embryos were left to develop for a further 1 hr. Control embryos
received the same treatment, but without 20-hydroxyecdysone.
539

540   Embryos were laid over a 1 hr period, left to develop for 2 hrs, followed by exposure to either
541   Schneider's medium containing 20E or Schneider's medium alone for a period of 2 hrs. All
542   embryos, regardless of previous treatment, were then exposed to Schneider's medium only
543   for 1 hr.
544

Cell segmentation and scMorphometrics
Cells were manually segmented from Z-stacks of Airyscan-processed images (0.44μm Z
distance) using the interactive object drawing tool in Arivis Vision4D. To avoid variability, only

the distal portion of the midgut was segmented. Each cell surface was extracted, and cells
were reoriented in the apical-basal axis using Blender v4.3. Morphometric features were
extracted for each cell using PyVista[71]. These features were volume, surface area, surface
area:volume, cuboidness (cell volume/bounding box volume), sphericity, flatness, surface
area of the most apical 10% of the cell, surface area of the most basal 90% of the cell, apical
area:basal area, cell height, and cell width at the widest point. Principal component analysis
of these properties was performed with Factoextra[72].
555
556 **Fluorescence intensity quantification and cell counting**
557
558 To quantify Stardust and Crumbs intensity across midguts, a 500 pixel line was drawn from
559 the ventral end of the midgut to the dorsal end in pre-migration midguts, spanning PMECs and
560 endoblast-derived cells. The measure tool from Fiji (RRID:SCR_025376) was used to collect
561 intensity values which were normalised for length and to the maximum intensity value collected
562 for each embryo.
563
564 To quantify fluorescence intensity of *lacz* FISH in different cell populations, cell outlines were
565 traced using the draw tool in Fiji and the area outside the selection deleted. Once done in all
566 Z slices, the segmented image was sum intensity projected and the *lacz* channel intensity
567 recorded.
568
569 Embryos were imaged at stage 15 when intending to count EEs or AMPs. All cells were
570 counted using the Cell Counter plugin in Fiji[62]. Pros⁺ cells were considered EEs and Snail⁺
571 cells were considered AMPs. Any Pros⁺Snail⁺ cells were considered a subset of EEs.
572
573

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Author contributions
This project was conceived by A.T.P., J.A. and K.C. Experiments were performed by A.T.P. and
J.A. with contributions from Z.R. A.T.P and K.C. wrote the manuscript, which was edited and
reviewed by all authors.

Declarations of interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Figure Legends

Figure 1. Serpent binding sites during Midgut-EMT overlap with the Ecdysone Receptor binding motifs. (A,B) Expression of Srp (green) and Hnt (magenta) in stage 6 (A) and stage 7 embryos. (C) Schematic of TaDa for Srp-Dam. (D,E) Srp binding sites associated with *crb* (D) and *LanB1* (E). The y-axis is a $\log_2$ score for Srp binding enrichment over background binding. (F) Venn diagram depicting the overlap between SrpNC and SrpC target genes. (G) Graphical representation of the overrepresented GO annotation classes from shared SrpNC and Srp targets. (H) GATA motifs are enriched in SrpNC and SrpC targets. (I) Motif-enrichment analysis of shared SrpNC and SrpC targets identifies an enrichment for the PWMs for Trithorax-like, Srp and EcR showing enriched binding motifs in shared SrpNC and SrpC targets. (J) Srp binding sites associated with the EcR target Eip75B. Scale bars, 50 μm (A,B).

Figure 2. Ecdysone Receptor activity is required for changes in cell morphology that occur during EMT. (A,B) Immunofluorescence for GFP (green) and hnt (magenta) in control embryos expressing Src-GFP alone (A), or in embryos co-expressing UAS-EcrDN (B). (C, C') Representative image of a developing midgut and the region in which cells were segmented. (D) Principal Component Analysis plot for segmented cells. Each dot represents a single cell. Ellipses represent 95% confidence regions for each genotype. Numbers indicate which cell has been selected to be highlighted in D'. (E, F) Boxplots for cell height and volume in each genotype. The box height represents interquartile range, with asterisks showing significant differences via t-test, **** is $p<0.0001$. Scale bars, 10 μm (A,B).

Figure 3. Ecdysone signalling is required for the downregulation of polarity and adhesion proteins from the cell membrane. (A-C) FISH for *crb* mRNA (green) and mRNA for the midgut marker *hnt* (magenta) in wild type embryos at different stages of development. (D,E) FISH for *crb* (green) and *hnt* (magenta) in wild-type (D, D') versus ecdysone signalling-deficient (E, E') stage 10 midguts. (F, G) Immunofluorescent staining of stage 10 embryos stained for Crb (green) and FasII (magenta) in wild type (F, F') and ecdysone signalling-deficient (G, G') midguts. (H, I) Immunofluorescent staining of stage 10 embryos stained for Ecad (green) and FasII (magenta) in wild type (H, H') and ecdysone signalling-deficient (I, I') midguts. (J, K) Immunofluorescent staining of stage 10 embryos stained for Baz (green) and

FasII (magenta) in wild type (J, J') and ecdysone signalling-deficient (K,K') midguts. Yellow

dotted lines outline the posterior midgut in each image. Scale bars, 25 µm.

Figure 4. Different methods of Crb protein removal are used in different midgut cell

populations. (A, B) FISH for *neur* mRNA (green) and *snail* mRNA (magenta) in stage 9 (A-

A") and stage 10 (B-B") midguts. (C) Cartoon of the steps leading to endoblast delamination.

1. Lateral inhibition results in differential Notch-Delta activity in neighbouring cells. 2.

Endoblasts are selected by low Notch activity and delaminate apically. 3. Endoblasts

asymmetrically divide. 4. Differential inheritance of cell fate determinants produces different

cell fates. (D, E) Immunostaining for Crb (green) and GFP-tagged Stardust (magenta) with (D-

D") or without (E-E") its Neur interaction site. Yellow arrows point to cells within the endoblast-

derived population, while arrowheads point to cells in the PMEC layer. (F,G) Normalised

fluorescence intensity profiles of GFP-tagged Stardust (F) and Crumbs (G) across the midgut,

showing a decrease in intensity from endoblast-derived cells in wild type conditions. (H, I)

FISH for midgut marker *hnt* mRNA (green) and *lacz* mRNA (magenta) where *lacz* is driven

under control of the ecdysone response element in stage 7(H, H') and stage 10 (I, I') embryos.

(J, K) FISH for *lacz* mRNA and the EE marker *pros* (J-J") or the AMP marker *snail* (K-K") in

stage 10 embryos. Yellow dotted lines show the midgut, while orange dotted lines show the

boundary between PMECs and AMPs/EEs. Arrows point to individual EEs (J-J") and AMPs

(K-K"). Fluorescence intensity of *lacz* signal was measured for different cell types across

multiple embryos, as laid out in superplot format (L, M). Average values for each embryo were

used to calculate the overall mean ± standard deviation, with p-values calculated via t-test.

Scale bars, 25 µm.

Figure 5. Early ecdysone exposure triggers a premature midgut-EMT in a Srp-

dependent manner. Immunostaining of wild type embryos for Baz (green) and Hnt (magenta)

in stage 7 embryos bathed in Schneider's Medium (A-A1') or Schneider's Medium

supplemented with 20E (B-B1'). (C-C1') A *srp* mutant embryo bathed in Schneider's Medium

supplemented with 20E. The red dotted lines outline the midgut of each embryo, while the

yellow box indicates the region highlighted in A1-C1. Scale bars = 50µm (A-A', B-B', C-C') and

10µm (A1-A1', B1-B1', C1-C1').

Figure 6. Premature loss of cell polarity reduces the number of EEs and AMPs. Cell

counts in stage 15 wild type and *crb* mutant embryos for AMPs (A) and EEs (B). Each dot

represents the cell count from an individual embryo. Black diamonds represent the mean with

error bars for standard deviation, with p-values calculated via t-test.

Supplementary Figure 1. Both Serpent isoforms primarily bind to intragenic regions. (A, B) Aggregation plots show peak binding intensity between the transcription start site (TSS) and transcription end site (TES) for SrpC (green) and SrpNC (magenta). Uropa analysis shows that the majority of peaks are within gene loci for both SrpC (B) and SrpNC (D).

Supplementary Figure 2. Serpent isoforms bind to known target genes. TaDa binding profiles for SrpNC (magenta) and SrpC (green) at the locus for *lanb2* (A) and *gatae* (B). The y-axis is a log$_2$ score for Srp binding enrichment over background binding.

Supplementary Figure 3. Breakdown of principal components producing morphospace variability. Plots showing which physical properties extracted from segmented cells contribute to PC1 (A) and PC2 (B). The red line represents the average expected contribution for properties. (C) Biplot showing the positive and negative contributions to PCs by each measured property. Arrow colour represents the strength of that property's contribution to the PC.

Supplemental Figure 4. Blocking ecdysone signalling does not affect AMP and EE specification. Cell counts from stage 15 hkb>stGFP and hkb>EcRDN embryos for AMPs (A) and EEs (B). Black diamonds are the mean for each genotype with error bars showing standard deviation. P-values were calculated via t-test.

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Figure 1.

Figure 2.

Figure 3.

Figure 4.

Figure 5.

Figure 6.

Supplementary Figure 1.

Supplementary Figure 2.

Supplementary Figure 3.

Supplementary Figure 4.