1	Long title: A revised understanding of <i>Tribolium</i> morphogenesis further
2	reconciles short and long germ development
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4	Short title: A significant revision to our understanding of short germ
5	embryogenesis
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8	Author: Matthew A. Benton
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10	Author affiliation: Department of Zoology, University of Cologne, Cologne, NRW, Germany
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12	Corresponding author: Matthew A. Benton, matthewabenton@gmail.com
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Abstract

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In Drosophila melanogaster, the germband forms directly on the egg surface and solely consists of embryonic tissue (termed long germ development). In contrast, most insect embryos undergo a complicated set of tissue rearrangements to generate a condensed, bilayered germband (termed short/intermediate germ development). The ventral side of the germband is embryonic, while the dorsal side is thought to be an extraembryonic tissue called the amnion. While this tissue organisation has been accepted for decades, and has been widely reported in insects, its accuracy has not been directly tested in any species. Using live cell tracking and differential cell labelling in the short germ beetle Tribolium castaneum, I show that most of the cells previously thought to be amnion actually give rise to large parts of the embryo. This process occurs via the dorsal-to-ventral flow of cells and contributes to germband extension. In addition, I show that true 'amnion' cells in Tribolium originate from a small region of the blastoderm. Together, my findings show that development in the short germ embryos of Tribolium and the long germ embryos of Drosophila is more similar than previously proposed. Dorsal-to-ventral cell flow also occurs in Drosophila during germband extension, and I argue that the flow is driven by a conserved set of underlying morphogenetic events in both species. Furthermore, the revised Tribolium fatemap that I present is far more similar to that of *Drosophila* than the classic *Tribolium* fatemap. Lastly, my findings show that there is no qualitative difference between the structures of the blastoderm and the short/intermediate germ germband. As such, the same tissue patterning mechanisms could function continuously throughout the cellularised blastoderm and germband stages, and easily shift between them over evolutionary time.

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Introduction Insects are the most speciose phylum of animals and display remarkable diversity in adult morphology [1]. Insect embryo development is also very diverse, particularly in the stages leading to the formation of the elongated, segmented embryo (called the germband) [2]. The molecular and morphogenetic basis of this process is best understood in the fly Drosophila melanogaster. In this species, a predominantly hierarchical chain of patterning events specifies nearly all segments more-or-less simultaneously at the syncytial blastoderm stage [3]. Cellularisation takes place near the end of this process, after which point morphogenetic events such as germband extension (GBE) occur (see Fig 1 for schematic summary). The *Drosophila* mode of development is termed long germ development and is fairly representative of most true flies [4]. In contrast, the vast majority of insects undergo short or intermediate germ development, meaning that only a handful of segments are specified at the blastoderm stage and the remaining segments are specified sequentially as the germband elongates [5]. Short germ development has been best studied in the beetle Tribolium castaneum, and recent research has shown that development in this species is more similar to Drosophila than previously thought. In Drosophila, GBE is predominantly driven by the mediolateral intercalation of ectodermal cells (i.e. convergent extension), although cell deformation along the anterior-posterior (AP) axis and cell divisions are also involved [6–11]. In contrast to this, Tribolium germband elongation was previously thought to be driven by the so-called 'growth zone' at the posterior of the germband [12]. Now, however, it is clear that Tribolium germband elongation is also predominantly driven by mediolateral cell intercalation (see Fig 1 for schematic summary of *Tribolium* development) [13–15].

Furthermore, in both *Tribolium* and *Drosophila*, this intercalation requires the striped expression of a specific group of Toll genes (so-called Long Toll/Loto class genes) [16,17].

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Drosophila Tribolium Amnioserosa Serosa Cephalic furrov Surface Surface Sagittal Sagittal Flatmount view section view section Cell Intercalation Cell shape change Cell division

Fig 1. Schematics of development in *Drosophila* and *Tribolium*. The two left columns show schematics of *Drosophila* embryos from the uniform blastoderm stage to the extended germband stage. The right three columns show schematics of *Tribolium* embryos at comparable developmental stages. The schematics in the right-most column depict dissected, flatmounted embryos. Red arrows display cell/tissue movement. The question marks highlight two regions (the *Drosophila* embryo/amnioserosa border in the cephalic furrow region, and the DV position of the *Tribolium* embryo/amnion border) where the tissue boundaries are unknown/undescribed. Several features have been omitted, including the yolk, mesoderm gastrulation, anterior gut formation and appendage formation. The

Drosophila fatemap is based on data from [18] and the references therein. Refer to text for additional details.

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It is highly likely that germband elongation mediated by cell intercalation is homologous in these two species, and probably in other arthropods, as well [17]. As such, I will hereafter refer to Tribolium 'germband elongation' as 'germband extension'/GBE, unifying the Drosophila/Tribolium terminology. In addition, as there is no evidence for a qualitatively different 'growth zone' in Tribolium (i.e. a specialised zone of volumetric growth), I will refer to the posterior unsegmented region as the 'segment addition zone' (SAZ) [19-21]. Despite the similarities described above, there are substantial differences in the embryonic fatemaps of these two species (Fig 1). In Drosophila, almost the entire blastoderm is fated as embryonic tissue, and only a small dorsal region is fated as extraembryonic tissue (termed the amnioserosa) [18]. In contrast, in Tribolium, roughly the anterior third of the blastoderm gives rise to an extraembryonic tissue called the serosa [22]. Of the remaining blastoderm, a large dorsal region is thought to give rise to a second extraembryonic tissue called the amnion, with only the remaining ventral tissue giving rise to the embryo itself [23–25]. Like the amnioserosa, the serosa and the amnion are proposed to support the embryo during development, but are thought to degenerate prior to hatching and not contribute to any larval or adult structures [19,26,27]. Drosophila and Tribolium also exhibit dramatic differences in the morphogenetic events occurring during early development (Fig 1). When GBE occurs in Drosophila, the germband stays at the surface of the egg and the amnioserosa largely remains in place. In

Tribolium, on the other hand, germband extension begins with a process called embryo

condensation, during which the embryonic ectoderm and presumptive amnion (together termed the 'germ rudiment') form the germband (see Fig 1; for a detailed description see [14,28]). Several concurrent morphogenetic events underlie embryo condensation. The embryonic ectoderm condenses towards the ventral side of the egg via both mediolateral cell intercalation and a cuboidal-to-columnar cell shape transition. Simultaneously, epithelial folding and tissue involution occurs, causing the presumptive amnion to fold over the embryonic ectoderm. During these movements, the serosa cells undergo a cuboidal-to-squamous transition to spread over the entire egg surface. The final stage of embryo condensation coincides with closure of the serosa (serosa window stage).

The differences in fatemap and tissue folding described above show that both fatemap shifts and reductions in early morphogenetic events have contributed to the evolution of the long germ mode of development found in *Drosophila*. However, it is important to note that *Drosophila*, regarding the extraembryonic tissues, represents an extreme case of reductive evolution, which is characteristic only for higher cylorrhaphan flies [29]. More basally branching flies form both an amnion and a serosa, while still exhibiting the long germ mode of development (for a review see [26]). For example, in the scuttle fly *Megaselia abdita*, both an amnion and serosa form, but while the serosa spreads over the egg surface as in *Tribolium*, the amnion remains at the dorsal side of the embryo, similar to the *Drosophila* amnioserosa [30–33]. Such intermediate topologies help to explain the evolution of the situation in *Drosophila*, where all extraembryonic cells remain at the dorsal side.

Understanding how these differences evolved is integral to understanding the short-to-long germ transition, but in order to study how this occurred, we first need to understand how these tissues develop in each species. The form and function of the *Tribolium* serosa has

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been analysed in several studies [22,34,35]. The amnion, on the other hand, has proven harder to analyse, and the precise embryo/amnion boundary at the blastoderm stage is unknown. However, a defined boundary between embryo and amnion has been proposed to exist at the germband stage (Fig 1) [23]. Cells in the ventral half of the germband (ventral with respect to the germband DV polarity, but dorsal with respect to the egg) are thought to give rise to all embryonic structures, while cells in the dorsal half of the germband (dorsal with respect to the germband DV polarity, but ventral with respect to the egg) are thought to form the amnion [25,36,37]. This germband structure has been described in many insects over the past century and is proposed to represent the core conserved structure of short/intermediate germ embryos (reviewed in [2,38,39]). However, the proposed boundary between cells fated to become embryo and those fated to become amnion has not been directly tested. Here, I investigate the development of the presumptive amnion in Tribolium using a combination of fluorescent live imaging and fate mapping techniques. To my great surprise, I find that the majority of the cells previously described as 'amnion' actually form large parts of the embryo proper. Using fate-mapping experiments, I show that true 'amnion' cells originate from a very small domain of the blastoderm, just as the *Drosophila* amnioserosa cells do. I also show that the movement of cells from the 'amnion' side of the germband to the 'embryo' side of the germband occurs via the large scale flow of the ectodermal epithelium. Lastly, I describe the underlying causes of this flow, and show how this tissue movement is likely homologous to the dorsal-to-ventral tissue flow that occurs during Drosophila GBE. This discovery forces a major shift in our view of development in *Tribolium* (and of

short/intermediate germ insects in general) and demonstrates that there is no qualitative

difference in germband tissue structure between *Tribolium* and *Drosophila*. Furthermore, this discovery has significant consequences for the study of short/intermediate germ development going forward, as currently the tissue thought to be "amnion" (but is actually a large region of the embryo) is routinely discarded or ignored during sample preparation.

Results

Live cell tracking reveals movement of 'amnion' cells into the embryo

To examine the development of the *Tribolium* presumptive amnion in detail, I carried out high resolution live imaging of embryos transiently labelled [14] with a fluorescent histone marker (H2B-venus) to label nuclei. My goal was to track presumptive amnion cells from the blastoderm stage onwards. However, it was not possible to accurately track the majority of cells throughout embryo condensation and GBE, due to the extensive morphogenetic rearrangements that take place during this process. Instead, I focused on the stage immediately following condensation when the germband has formed, and analysed the embryonic region where the presumptive amnion is closest to the surface of the egg. Specifically, I tracked over 200 presumptive amnion cells from the central region of the embryo from the closure of the serosa window until after the formation of the thoracic segments (over 11 hours of development; Fig 2 and S2 Movie). As previously described [14], the germband and yolk exhibit pulsatile movements during this period, as well as rotating within the serosa (S1 Movie).

The presumptive amnion initially consists of many tightly packed cells, which become increasingly spread out during GBE (S2 Movie, Fig 2(A-C)). However, rather than remaining restricted to the 'amnion territory', many of the tracked cells moved around the edge of the germband into the 'embryo territory'. Differential labelling of tracked cells clearly showed

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that these cells that moved around the germband edge became part of the embryo proper (S2 Movie and Fig 2(A-C)). The cells that joined the 'embryo territory' became tightly packed, continued to divide, and formed embryonic structures (S3 Movie and Fig 2(D-F)). In contrast, cells that remained in the 'amnion territory' became squamous and stopped dividing. The nuclei of these latter cells became enlarged (S3 Movie and Fig 2(D-F)), suggesting that they underwent endoreplication to become polyploid, as seen in the *Tribolium* serosa and in the Drosophila amnioserosa [18,24]. In addition, several germband nuclei underwent apoptosis (S3 Movie) as has been described in fixed embryos [40]. These results show that many of the cells previously thought to constitute extraembryonic amnion give rise to embryonic structures. Since the epithelium formerly termed 'amnion' is made up cells that will variously form amnion, dorsal ectoderm and dorsolateral ectoderm, it is not accurate for the entire tissue to be called 'amnion'. Therefore, I will refer to this part of the germband as the 'dorsal epithelium', based on the tissue's location at the dorsal side of the germband (with respect to the DV polarity of the germband rather than the egg). This term 'dorsal epithelium' is simply a spatial designation, and comes with no implicit assumptions about the identity of the tissue nor the final fate of the tissue. It is also important to keep in mind that the dorsal

epithelium is continuous with the ventral epithelium.

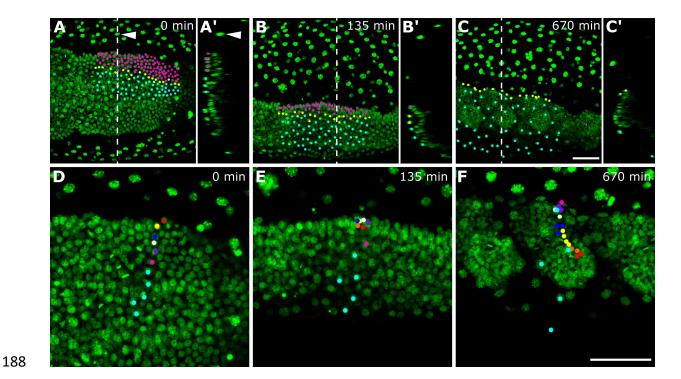


Fig 2. Live cell tracking reveals contribution of 'amnion' cells to embryonic tissue. (A-F)

Time series from fluorescent live imaging of a *Tribolium* embryo expressing H2B-venus. The serosa nuclei located above the germband have been manually removed from these frames, but left in the surrounding territory (arrowhead in (A+A')). (A'-C') show optical transverse sections of the respective frame at the position shown by the dashed line (the surface of the egg is to the left). In (A-C), all nuclei that lie in a region of the 'amnion territory' in (A) have been tracked and differentially labelled depending on whether they become part of the embryo (magenta; labels disappear when nuclei join the germband), become located at the edge of the germband (yellow) or remain in the 'amnion territory' (cyan). In (D-F), a line of nuclei that lie in the 'amnion territory' in (D) have been tracked and differentially labelled depending on whether they become part of the embryo (coloured points; daughter cells are labelled in same colour as parent) or remain in the 'amnion territory' (cyan; no division takes place). Note that in panel (D), the orange spot is mostly hidden below the yellow spot because the nuclei in that region are partially overlapping when viewed as projections. The first frame of the timelapse was defined as timepoint 0. In (A-F), embryos are oriented based

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on the AP/DV polarity of the egg with anterior to the left and dorsal to the top. (A-C) are maximum intensity projections of one egg hemisphere. (D-F) are average intensity projections of 46 microns to specifically show the germband. Scale bars are 50 µm. Differential cell labelling confirms widespread dorsal-to-ventral cell movement My next question was whether the movement of cells from the dorsal epithelium to the ventral epithelium occurs throughout the AP axis or is just limited to the thoracic region. The extensive movements of the germband made it difficult to track individual cells accurately at the anterior and posterior poles. To overcome this problem, I combined differential cell labelling with long term fluorescent live imaging to follow small groups of nuclei throughout development. Specifically, I microinjected mRNA encoding a nuclear-localised photoconvertable fluorescent protein (NLS-tdEos) into pre-blastoderm embryos to uniformly label all nuclei, then photoconverted a small patch of nuclei at different positions along the AP axis at the final uniform blastoderm stage. I then performed long term confocal live imaging of both the unconverted and photoconverted forms of the fluorescent protein throughout the period of GBE (or longer). Unlike that of *Drosophila*, the *Tribolium* egg shell does not show any dorsoventral (DV) polarity, and I was therefore unable to specifically target particular locations along the DV axis. Instead, I opted for a brute-force approach and performed the photoconversion experiment for 50-150 embryos at each AP position (75% egg length [EL] from the posterior pole, 50% EL, 25% EL, and close to the posterior pole), and then used the resulting live imaging data to determine the DV position of the photoconverted cells. Using a new live imaging set up (see Materials and Methods), I obtained the same range of hatching rates as I typically obtain for other microinjection experiments (approximately 80%, [14]), even after continuous confocal live imaging for

almost the entirety of *Tribolium* embryonic development (3.5 days; S4 Movie). Both unconverted and photoconverted protein persisted throughout germband extension and retraction, although fluorescent signal faded over time. I have included various examples from this data set in S1-S3 Figures. In addition, I have made the raw confocal data for a large number of timelapses available online (>300 embryos, >700 GB of data [41]) for the benefit of the community. This data will likely prove valuable for a wide range of research projects.

When I examined clones initially located in the dorsal epithelium, I found that movement of cells from the dorsal epithelium to the ventral epithelium occurred throughout the posterior of the embryo during GBE (Fig 3(A-F), S5 Movie). I also observed the same movements at the anterior of the germband (Fig 3(G-J)), although I have focused my analysis on the middle and posterior parts of the embryo. Together with the cell tracking data, these results show that most of what was previously thought to be 'amnion' is in fact embryonic tissue, and that cells move from the dorsal epithelium to the ventral epithelium throughout the germband (summarised in Fig 3(K,L)).

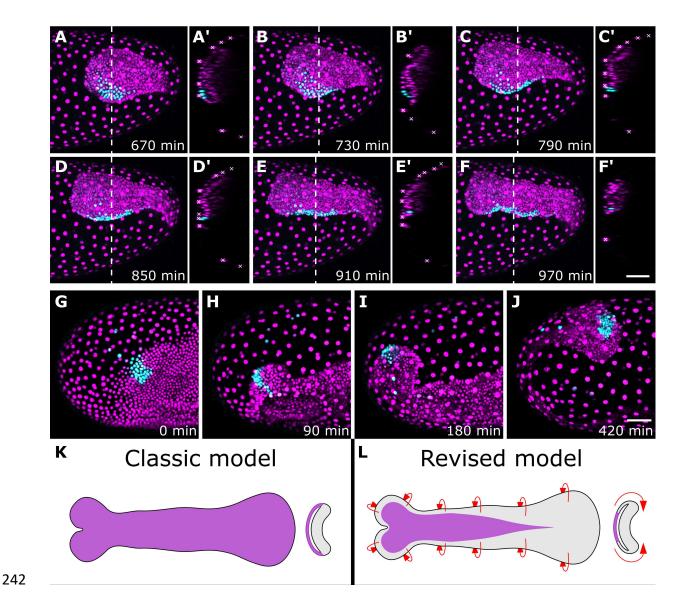


Fig 3. Differential cell labelling reveals widespread movement of cells from the dorsal epithelium to the ventral epithelium. (A-J) Time series from fluorescent live imaging of two *Tribolium* embryos expressing NLS-tdEos showing unconverted protein (magenta) and

photoconverted protein (cyan). In (A-F') a patch of nuclei at the posterior-dorsal region of
the blastoderm were photoconverted. Panels (A-F) show the posterior region of the
germband during late GBE and panels (A'-F') show optical transverse sections made at the
position of the dashed line at each timepoint (roughly following the same nuclei). Serosa
nuclei are marked by white crosses in the transverse sections. In (G-J), a patch of nuclei at
the anterior-lateral region of the blastoderm were photoconverted. Panels (G-J) show the

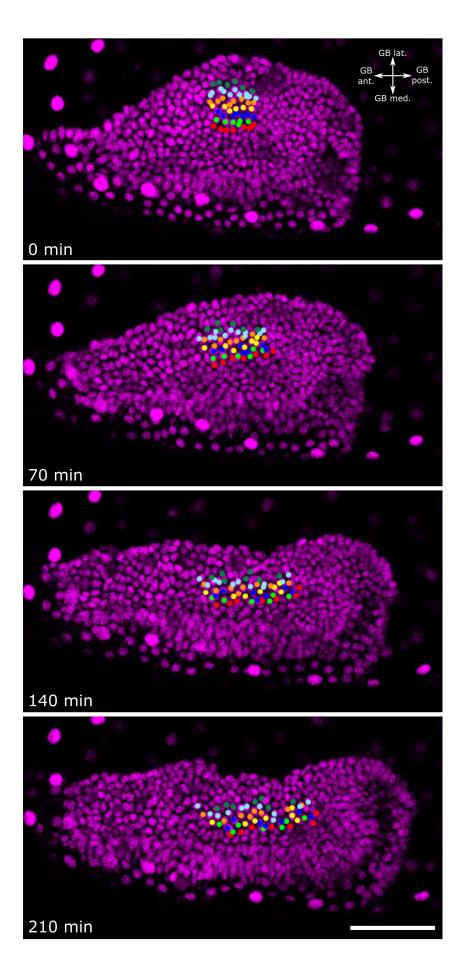
anterior of the germband during condensation and GBE. In both embryos, all converted nuclei are initially located in the dorsal epithelium, but most move into the ventral epithelium during GBE. (K-L) Schematics showing the classic and revised models of the *Tribolium* germband (presumptive amnion is shown in purple, presumptive embryo is shown in grey, red arrows show the newly discovered tissue flow). The first frame of the timelapses was defined as timepoint 0. In (A-J), embryos are oriented based on the AP/DV polarity of the egg with anterior to the left and dorsal to the top. In (A'-F'), the surface of the egg is oriented to the left. In (K-L), schematics show flatmounted germbands with the focus on the dorsal epithelium, the anterior to the left and the orthogonal sections are oriented with the dorsal half of the germband to the left. (A-J) are maximum intensity projections of one egg hemisphere. Scale bars are 50 µm.

Mediolateral cell intercalation occurs throughout GBE

During my live imaging, ectodermal cell clones became elongated along the AP axis over time, as previously reported in a *Tribolium* study that used a non-live imaging cell clone method [15]. However, this study found that "labelled ectodermal cells ... rarely mix with unlabelled cells" even as clones became greatly elongated [15]. In contrast, I frequently observed non-converted nuclei in the midst of labelled nuclei (S1-S3 Fig and see below).

To test whether the pattern I observed was caused by mediolateral cell intercalation, I tracked the nuclei of abutting rows of ectodermal cells in the SAZ during formation of the abdominal segments (50 cells in total, tracked for 3.5 hours; Fig 4 and S6 Movie). This analysis clearly showed that, as during embryo condensation [14], cells intercalated between their dorsal and ventral neighbours. Together with the photoconversion dataset, these

- 275 results show that extensive mediolateral cell intercalation takes place throughout GBE to
- 276 drive the convergent extension of the ectoderm.



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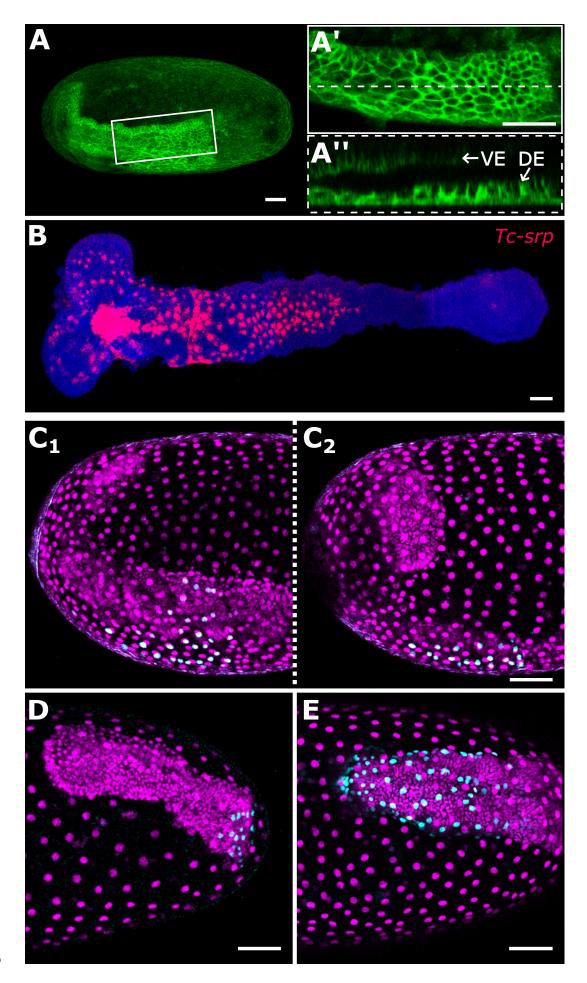
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Fig 4. Mediolateral cell intercalation occurs in the SAZ during GBE. Time series from fluorescent live imaging of a *Tribolium* embryo expressing NLS-tdEos showing the SAZ during abdominal segment formation. Coloured points mark tracked nuclei. During the timelapse, nuclei underwent apicobasal movement but no cell delamination occurred. Note that the same embryo is shown in Fig 3(A-F). The first frame of the timelapse was defined as timepoint 0. The embryo is oriented based on polarity of the visible region of the germband. Panels show maximum intensity projections of 15 µm to specifically show the germband. Abbreviations as follows: germband (GB); anterior (ant); posterior (post); medial (med); lateral (lat). The scale bar is 50 µm. Tribolium serpent may mark true 'amnion' As described earlier, cells that remained in the dorsal epithelium became squamous, and this cell shape change occurred progressively along the AP axis (Fig 5(A)). This change in cell shape may be a sign of maturation of true 'amnion'. While characterising cell fate markers, I found that the Tribolium ortholog of the GATA factor serpent (Tc-srp) exhibited spatial and temporal expression dynamics that were very similar to those of the potential 'amnion' (Fig 5(B), S4 Fig). At the end of GBE, all but the most posterior cells of the dorsal epithelium were squamous (data not shown) and Tc-srp seemed to be expressed in dorsal epithelium cells along nearly the full length of the germband (S4 Fig(I₂)). However, this latter finding was difficult to confirm as most of the dorsal epithelium is lost during embryo fixation at this embryonic stage (presumably due to the fragility of the tissue). I also found *Tc-srp* to be expressed in several other domains, including in the presumptive endoderm (S4 Fig).

In *Drosophila, serpent* is also expressed in extraembryonic tissue (the amnioserosa) [42–45], and, therefore, *Tc-srp* may mark 'true' extraembryonic amnion. However, future work is required to confirm whether this putative amnion degenerates prior to hatching (as is required to be defined as extraembryonic). For simplicity, I will refer to this tissue as 'amnion' for the remainder of this text.



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Fig 5. Development of the putative amnion. (A-A") Tribolium embryo transiently expressing the membrane marker GAP43-YFP. (A) shows an overview of the whole egg, (A') shows the dorsal epithelium of the same embryo at the position of the white box, (A") is an optical sagittal section at the position of the dashed line in (A') showing the apical-basal height of cells of the dorsal epithelium. (B) Tc-srp (red) expression in a flatmounted Tribolium germband also showing nuclei (DAPI, blue). The strong Tc-srp signal in nuclei may suggest nuclear or peri-nuclear localisation of the transcript, or it may be due to the cell body being flattened. Aside from the strong patch of anterior medial expression (which is from cells beneath the embryonic ectoderm), all visible expression is in the putative amnion epithelium. (C-E) Extended germband stage Tribolium embryos transiently expressing NLStdEos showing unconverted protein (magenta) and photoconverted protein (cyan). In each embryo, the clone of converted cells spans the entire amnion. (C_{1-2}) show both sides of the same embryo in which a 6 nuclei wide patch of dorsal-most cells located at 50% EL were photoconverted at the blastoderm stage. (E) shows an embryo in which a 3 nuclei wide patch of dorsal-most cells located at 25% EL were photoconverted at the blastoderm stage. (F) shows an embryo in which a 3 nuclei wide by 6 nuclei long patch of dorsal-most cells located at roughly 2-10% EL were photoconverted at the blastoderm stage. In (A) and (C-E), embryos are oriented based on the AP/DV polarity of the egg with anterior to the left and dorsal to the top. In (A''), the surface of the egg is oriented to the bottom. In (B), the anterior of the germband is to the left. (A) is an average intensity projection of one egg hemisphere. (A') is an average intensity projection of 6 µm to specifically show the dorsal epithelium. (B) is a maximum intensity projection of the whole germband. (C-E) are maximum intensity projections of one egg hemisphere. Abbreviations are: ventral ectoderm (VE) and dorsal ectoderm (DE). Scale bars are 50 µm.

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A revised Tribolium amnion fatemap To determine which blastoderm cells give rise to the amnion, I analysed 85 embryos in which the dorsal and dorsolateral blastoderm cells were labelled by NLStdEos photoconversion as described above. I found that amnion cells arose from a very small domain of dorsal-most cells (that tapers from its anterior to posterior extent) and from a narrow strip of cells between the presumptive embryo and presumptive serosa (summarised in Fig 6 and S5 Fig). At 50% EL, only approximately the 6 most dorsal cells (approximately 8% of the circumference of the blastoderm) gave rise to all amnion cells stretching from one side of the thorax to the other (Fig 5(C), S1 Fig). Nearer to the posterior of the blastoderm (25% EL), even fewer cells gave rise to amnion (approximately 3 of the most dorsal cells; approximately 6% of the circumference; Fig 5(D), S2 Fig). The posterior limit of the amnion was difficult to define, as although some cells from approximately 5-10% EL appeared to become amnion (Fig5(E)), these cells condensed posteriorly towards the hindgut during germband retraction, and might have contributed to the hindgut tissue (S3 Fig, S7 Movie). I was unable to unambiguously determine the fate of these cells. At the anterior of the embryo, I found that a narrow strip of 1-2 cells between the presumptive embryo and presumptive serosa also gave rise to amnion (Fig 3(G-J)). While substantial additional work will be required to define a complete blastoderm fatemap for Tribolium, my findings clearly demonstrate that the 'amnion' domain is drastically smaller than previously proposed.

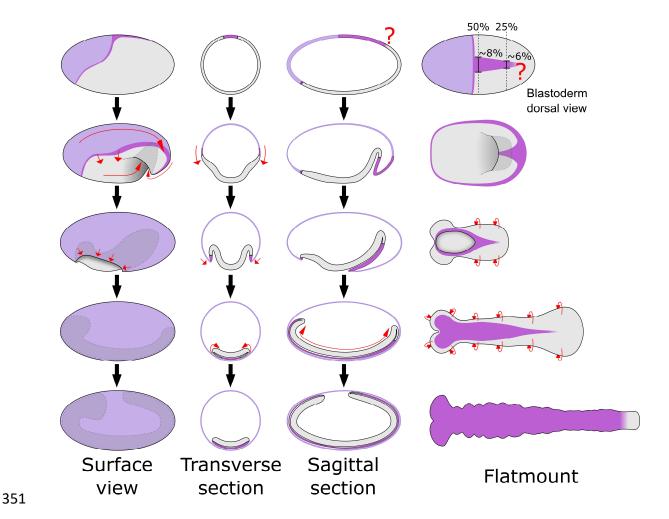


Fig 6. Schematics showing the revised *Tribolium* fatemap and germband model. Schematics drawn as in Fig 1 to show the revised fatemap (top row; drawn directly from the numbers described in the text) and germband model based on the results of this manuscript. Note that the posterior amnion/embryo boundary is unclear. The schematics of the flatmounted germbands are drawn with the focus on the dorsal epithelium. See text for additional details, and S6 Fig for an extended figure with the classic and revised models side-by-side.

Discussion

In this article, I have shown that a majority of the cells currently thought to be extraembryonic amnion actually give rise to embryonic tissue. Movement of these cells from

the dorsal side of the germband to the ventral side was visible in live cell tracking and differential cell labelling experiments. My results also indicate that the true amnion region differentiates progressively along the AP axis during GBE, as evidenced by differences in cell behaviour and the expression of the gene *Tc-srp*. Lastly, presumptive amnion cells predominantly originate from a small domain on the dorsal side of the blastoderm.

A revised understanding of the short germ embryo

The revision to the *Tribolium* blastoderm fatemap that I describe is essentially a quantitative shift in our understanding of where cell fate boundaries lie along the DV axis. In the revised fatemap (Fig 6, S5 Fig), the proportion of the blastoderm that gives rise to the presumptive amnion is much smaller than previously thought. The presumptive amnion domain is, therefore, remarkably similar in size to the amnioserosa domain of the *Drosophila* blastoderm fatemap [18]. However, it is important to recognize that fatemaps such as those presented here show a static picture of a dynamic process. There is no evidence that the presumptive amnion is specified at the blastoderm stage in *Tribolium*. Instead, the progressive changes in cell shape and *Tc-srp* expression in the dorsal epithelium of the germband suggest that the amnion is specified progressively along the AP axis during GBE. Progressive specification of DV cell fates during GBE fits with previous hypotheses [36,46], and analysis of how this process occurs represents an exciting avenue of future research (I discuss possible mechanisms below).

In contrast to the fatemap revision, the observation that cells move from the dorsal half of the germband to the ventral half of the germband represents a qualitative shift in our understanding of development in short/intermediate germ insects. In the classic model of short/intermediate germ development, the germband was thought of as a more-or-less flat

sheet of ectodermal cells (with mesoderm underneath) covered by the extraembryonic amnion. Because of this, the entire dorsal epithelium is routinely removed during embryo preparation, or not included in descriptions of gene expression patterns and embryonic phenotypes. Based on the new data presented here, it is obvious that we have been discarding or ignoring large parts of the embryo. Furthermore, the movement of cells from the dorsal epithelium into the ventral epithelium must be contributing to GBE, and is, therefore, a key aspect of the extension and overall development of the germband that has thus far been missed.

The revised model of the germband does present some technical challenges for future work on short/intermediate germ embryo. The flattened geometry of the germband makes it difficult to image both the dorsal and ventral epithelium using bright-field microscopy approaches. However, this problem can be overcome either by using fluorescence based techniques and confocal microscopy or by mechanical sectioning of the germband. Both approaches have been shown to work well in *Tribolium* (for example see [13,47] and results in this manuscript). In the rest of this article, I discuss why the revised fatemap and cell flow accord well with what we know about *Tribolium* development, and outline the implications of this discovery on our understanding of the evolution of insect development.

The cellular and molecular causes of tissue flow unify the blastoderm and the germband The revised model of the *Tribolium* germband reconciles the blastoderm and germband stages. The ectoderm of the germband is a continuous epithelium, which means that the movement of cells from the dorsal epithelium to the ventral epithelium occurs as a tissue level 'flow'. Such dorsal-to-ventral tissue flow also occurs during embryo condensation in

Tribolium [14], and I propose that the flow is caused by largely the same morphogenetic processes at both stages. The evidence for this hypothesis is summarised here, but for an extended discussion see Appendix 1 in S1 Text.

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Three morphogenetic processes contribute to dorsal-to-ventral cell flow in *Tribolium*, and at least two of the three occur at both the blastoderm and germband stages. First, mediolateral cell intercalation occurs at both stages and causes tissue-wide convergence (along the DV axis) and extension (along the AP axis). This process requires two Toll genes that are expressed in rings around the entire blastoderm and germband epithelium [17]. Second, tissue specific cell shape changes occur at both stages such that ventral/lateral cells become columnar and dorsal/dorsolateral cells become thinner (during condensation (S6 Fig.)) or squamous (during GBE). The tissue level effect of these changes is contraction of the ventral/lateral tissue and spreading of the dorsal tissue. The flattening of dorsal/dorsolateral cells is likely regulated by BMP signalling, as not only does BMP activity correlate with the cell shape changes (see Appendix 1 in S1 Text), but functional disruption of BMP signalling components leads to uniform cell shape changes along the DV axis [25,48]. A third major morphogenetic event is gastrulation of the mesoderm. This occurs along the ventral midline, and as gastrulation occurs, the ectoderm moves ventrally to seal the gap left in the epithelium [47]. At the stage when a complete germband has formed, gastrulation is complete along most of the embryo. However, current data suggests mesoderm gastrulation may be ongoing in the SAZ [47]. If true, the ongoing invagination would contribute to tissue flow in this region.

It is important to note that while each of the events described here is involved in the dorsal-to-ventral tissue flow, no single event is absolutely required for it. In the absence of cell intercalation, embryo condensation and thinning of dorsal/dorsolateral ectoderm still

takes place, yielding abnormally wide and short germbands [17]. In the absence of tissue specific cell shape changes, condensation occurs in a more radially symmetrical manner yielding a tube-shaped germband that undergoes segment specification and convergent extension [25,48]. Finally, both condensation and GBE are only mildly affected in the absence of mesoderm specification [49]. This functional independence comes from each of the three processes being specified by different pathways (intercalation via segment specification, dorsal thinning via dorsal tissue specification, and gastrulation via ventral tissue specification). There may also be further, as yet undiscovered, morphogenetic events which also contribute to the dorsal-to-ventral tissue flow.

Reconciling long and short germ development

I propose that the dorsal-to-ventral tissue flow occurring during embryo condensation and GBE in *Tribolium* is homologous to the dorsal-to-ventral tissue flow that occurs during gastrulation and GBE in *Drosophila* (Fig 1). This conclusion is based on the flow being driven by a conserved set of morphogenetic events.

As described above, tissue flow in *Tribolium* is caused by (1) mediolateral cell intercalation, (2) tissue specific cell shape changes along the DV axis, and (3) gastrulation at the ventral side of the embryo. As described below, equivalent processes are all observed in *Drosophila* as well.

In *Drosophila*, *Toll*-mediated mediolateral cell intercalation causes tissue-wide convergence (along the DV axis) and extension (along the AP axis) of the ectoderm during GBE [16]. As in *Tribolium*, the periodic expression of the *Toll* genes is regulated by the pairrule genes. Conservation at the level of tissue identity, morphogenetic process, and molecular control strongly suggest *Toll*-mediated cell intercalation to be homologous.

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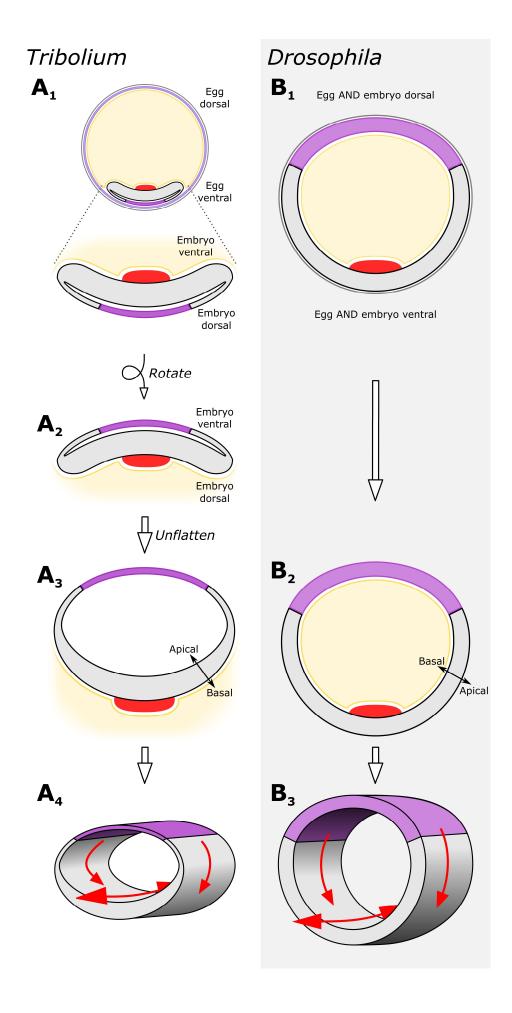
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Cell shape changes are harder to compare between Drosophila and Tribolium, because unlike in most insects, cellularisation in Drosophila leads to the direct formation of columnar cells [18,50]. However, tissue-specific cell shape changes along the DV axis do occur in *Drosophila* and are dependent on BMP signalling ([51,52]; for a detailed description see Appendix 2 in S1 Text). While the intracellular effectors of these cell shape changes are unknown, the dorsal patterning function of BMP signalling is homologous in *Drosophila* and Tribolium, and many dorsal cell specification genes are conserved between these two species [48]. Last, Drosophila mesoderm gastrulation also occurs along the ventral midline, and causes lateral/dorsolateral ectoderm to move ventrally [51]. Similar to the tissue specific cell shape changes described above, the intracellular effectors of Tribolium mesoderm gastrulation are unknown, but the upstream patterning events and the tissue specification genes are highly conserved [36,49]. Furthermore, mesoderm gastrulation at the ventral region of the embryo is widely observed within the insects, and is undoubtedly a homologous process in each species [53]. The conservation of the tissue-level flow during GEB, and the underlying processes driving that flow, shows that development in Drosophila and Tribolium, which are themselves models for long and short germ development respectively, are far more similar than previously thought. This similarity is further emphasised when the Tribolium germband is represented as a cylinder rather than its normal in vivo flattened shape (Fig 7). This finding helps explain how the long germ mode of development has evolved independently many times, as it takes fewer evolutionary 'steps' to go from one form to another than previously thought.



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Fig 7. Representation of the *Tribolium* germband as a cylinder. (A₁) the germband of Tribolium (and other short/intermediate insects) is usually drawn as it is in in vivo, that is, as a flattened shape with the ventral cell fates nearest the top and the dorsal cell fates nearest the bottom. Drawn in this way, the germband appears very different to that of the *Drosophila* embryo (B_1). However, the *Tribolium* germband can be rotated (A_2) and unflattened (A₃) to highlight its cylindrical nature without changing the planar dimensions of the tissue itself. Following this transformation, the similarities in cell fate boundaries and overall structure of the *Tribolium* germband and *Drosophila* embryo (B₂) become obvious. When the third dimension is incorporated to visualise the AP axis (A₄ and B₃), the similarities in the ongoing tissue rearrangements also become apparent. Note that while both (A₃) and (B₂) show cylindrical embryos, the epithelium of the *Tribolium* germband inverts during embryo condensation so the apical surface of the embryo faces inwards. Both (A) and (B) are sections from roughly the middle of the respective embryo during GBE. Possible flattening of dorsal tissue in *Drosophila* has been omitted due to a lack of detailed data at this stage. Tissue colouring is the same as in previous schematics, with the addition of mesoderm (red) and yolk (yellow).

While I have focused on *Tribolium* and *Drosophila* here, evidence exists that my new findings in *Tribolium* may also apply to other short/intermediate germ insects. For example, in the intermediate germ bug *Oncopeltus fasciatus*, the dorsal epithelium of the germband initially consists of a thick epithelium which progressively becomes squamous late during GBE ([54] and data not shown). These tissue-specific cell shape changes are likely the same as those occurring during *Tribolium* GBE. Furthermore, *Oncopeltus* pair-rule genes, Loto *Toll* genes and even segment polarity genes are expressed in rings around the entire germband

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prior to thinning of the dorsal epithelium (shown but not described in [17,55,56]). The expression of these genes in the dorsal epithelium provides additional evidence that much of the Oncopeltus dorsal epithelium is made up of embryonic tissue. Future analyses of the molecular and morphogenetic drivers of GBE must analyse the entire germband, rather than focusing on the ventral half. In addition, further work is required to determine whether the new findings in *Tribolium* also apply to more basally branching insects such as crickets. The Drosophila posterior gut fold may represent an evolutionary remnant of short germ development Despite the deep conservation in morphogenetic events described above, there is an obvious difference between the germbands of Drosophila and Tribolium. While the Drosophila germband develops mostly on the egg surface with the apical side of the epithelium facing outwards, the epithelium of the Tribolium germband folds onto itself such that the apical side faces inwards (Fig 1, 7). The last common ancestor of Tribolium and Drosophila almost certainly exhibited short/intermediate germ development [57], which would include the formation of a bi-layered germband like that of *Tribolium*. As such, in the lineage leading to *Drosophila*, the epithelial folding that previously generated the bi-layered germband must have become heavily reduced during evolution. However, I propose that a remnant of the ancestral folding still exists in *Drosophila* today, in what is now termed the "posterior gut fold". The epithelial folding that causes the formation of the bi-layered germband of *Tribolium* initiates with a deep infolding of tissue at the posterior of the embryo (classically termed the posterior amniotic fold) [14,24]. Epithelial infolding also occurs at the posterior of the *Drosophila* blastoderm during posterior gut formation [58], and the similarities between these folds have been pointed out before

[24]. However, the evolutionary relationship of these two structures has been unclear due to the belief that the dorsal half of the fold in *Tribolium* gave rise to the amnion. Now, with the revised fatemap, it is clear that these folds form from the same region of the embryo.

Therefore, I propose that the epithelial fold that forms during posterior gut formation in *Drosophila* is homologous to the posterior epithelial fold that forms during embryo condensation in *Tribolium*. This hypothesis is supported by two pieces of molecular data. First, a recent report found that a gene essential for hindgut development (the *Tribolium* ortholog of *senseless*) is already expressed at the posterior pole of the *Tribolium* embryo at the blastoderm stage [59]. Second, the *Tribolium* 'posterior amniotic fold' is controlled at the morphogenetic level by the Fog signalling pathway, just as is the *Drosophila* posterior gut fold (Frey et al. manuscript in preparation).

Due to this revised evolutionary relationship and the new *Tribolium* fatemap, I propose that the 'posterior amniotic fold' in *Tribolium* be renamed simply the 'posterior fold'.

New insights in tissue patterning

While I have predominantly focused on morphogenetic events in this manuscript, the revised model of short germ embryo development also has impacts for how we understand tissue patterning to occur in *Tribolium*. Here, I present one example of this, but for descriptions of pair-rule gene expression, posterior terminal gene expression, and of how DV patterning may be occurring in the germband, see Appendix 3 in S1 Text.

In *Tribolium*, segment polarity genes are expressed in a single stripe in each segment, with each domain appearing first near the ventral midline of the embryo before being activated in more dorsal cells [60–62]. Under the classic model, the ventral-to-dorsal

activation of expression appears to stop shortly after each domain first appears. However, the revised model shows that cells at the lateral edges of the germband move ventrally as cells from the dorsal epithelium move around the edges of the germband. This means that for each stripe of a segment polarity gene to 'stay' at the edge of the germband, cells at the correct AP location must activate segment polarity gene expression when they move around the edge of the germband. This can be thought of like Lewis Carroll's Red Queen's race, where "it takes all the running you can do, to keep in the same place" [63]. A similar ventral-to-dorsal activation of segment polarity gene expression can be seen in the *Drosophila* ectoderm ([64,65] S7 Fig), indicating that sequential ventral-to-dorsal activation of expression may be controlled by a conserved upstream mechanism.

Conclusions

The deep conservation of morphogenetic events that I am proposing here may seem unlikely, but I would argue that such conservation should have been expected from the beginning. The vast majority of morphogenetic events are controlled by upstream patterning networks. As such, morphogenesis can be viewed as a physical readout of such networks. Decades of research has shown that many of the key patterning genes that function during germband formation and extension in *Drosophila* have conserved roles in *Tribolium* and other insects. As such, without evidence to the contrary, conservation of the cellular events driven by these patterning genes makes perfect sense.

Materials and methods

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Tribolium animal husbandry, egg collection, and RNA in situ hybridisation was performed as previously described [17]. The Tc-srp ortholog was previously described [66] and was cloned into pGEM-t (Promega Reference A1360) with primers TCCCGCTGCTTTGATCTAGT and TGCGATGACTGTGACGTGTA. The *Tc-cad* ortholog was as previously used [14]. The H2B-ven fusion was created by fusing the D. melanogaster histone H2B coding sequence (without the stop codon) from the published H2B-RFP [14] to the venus fluorescent protein [67] and cloning into the pSP64 Poly(A) (Promega Reference P1241) expression vector. The NLS-tdEos fusion was kindly provided by Matthias Pechmann. Additional details and both plasmids are available upon request to M. Pechmann or myself. Capped mRNA synthesis was performed as previously described [14]. H2B-ven capped mRNA was injected at 1 μ g/ μ L, *NLS-tdEos* capped mRNA was injected at 2-3 μ g/ μ L. Embryo microinjection was performed as previously described [14], with the following changes. Up to 100 dechorionated embryos were mounted on a rectangular coverslip (24 mm by 50 mm) that rested on a microscope slide. Water was allowed to dry off the embryos before they were covered in Voltalef 10S halocarbon oil and injected as usual. The coverslip (still resting on the slide) was then placed in a petri-dish (92 mm) containing a base layer of 1% agarose (dissolved in water) and placed at 30-32°C until the embryos were at the appropriate stage for imaging. The coverslip was then removed from the slide, inverted (so that embryos were face down), and quickly but gently placed on a lumox dish (50 mm; Sarstedt Reference 94.6077.410) that was sitting upside down. The corners of the coverslip rested on the raised plastic lip of the dish such that the membrane and embryos were close to each other but not touching. To ensure lateral stability of the coverslip during the timelapse recording, approximately 5-10 µL of heptane glue (made by soaking parcel tape in heptane) was placed at each corner. Additional Voltalef 10S halocarbon oil was then

added to fill any remaining space between the coverslip and the oxygen permeable membrane. This contraption was then stuck to a microscope slide (using double sided tape) for imaging on an upright microscope. This last step may be unnecessary depending on the microscope stage and orientation.

Live imaging was performed on an upright Zeiss SP8 confocal microscope equipped with Hybrid detectors in the Biocentre Imaging facility (University of Cologne). Image stacks of 15-50 focal planes with z-steps ranging from 2-10 μ m were taken with a 10x/0.3NA dry objective or a 20×/0.7NA multi-immersion objective at intervals of 5-45 minutes. The temperature of the sample during imaging could not be carefully regulated, but was typically between 25-28 degrees. While this lack of temperature control is not ideal, it does not affect the findings presented in this manuscript.

Photoconversion of NLS-tdEos protein was performed by constantly scanning the region of interest for 20-30 seconds with the 405 wavelength laser at low power (5%). These settings were manually determined on the above microscope, and need to be determined independently on different systems. Photoconversions were performed during the final uniform blastoderm stage, as photoconversion prior to this resulted in substantial diffusion of the photoconverted protein during nuclei division. The positions of the different regions of the embryo (75% EL etc.) were determined by measuring the length of each embryo in the LASX software and selecting the appropriate region. Photoconversions were performed on all embryos on the coverslip before setting up the timelapse, which led to a 0.5-2 hour delay between performing the photoconversion and beginning the timelapse. As such, the positions of the photoconverted region at the first time point in the timelapses in this manuscript do not reflect the original region of photoconversion.

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Imaging of fixed material was performed on an upright Zeiss SP8 confocal, an upright Zeiss SP5 confocal microscope and an inverted Zeiss SP5 confocal microscope. The Drosophila gooseberry expression patterns were kindly provided by Erik Clark and acquired as in [68]. Images and timelapses were analysed using FIJI [69] and Photoshop CS5. Manual cell tracking was performed on confocal hyperstacks with MTrackJ [70]. The figures were arranged and the schematics created using Inkscape. **Acknowledgements** This article is dedicated to Siegfried Roth on the occasion of his 60th birthday (2017); for the years of support, encouragement, and, most importantly, inspiration. I thank E. Clark for stimulating discussions, extensive feedback on the manuscript, and for providing the Drosophila images. I thank M. Pechmann for providing the NLS-tdEos construct and S. Roth for supporting me during this project. In addition, I thank M. Akam, M. Pechmann and S. Roth for comments on the manuscript. References 1. Grimaldi D, Engel M. Evolution of the Insects. Cambridge University Press; 2005. Anderson DT. Embryology and Phylogeny in Annelids and Arthropod. Pergamon Press; 2. 1973. Jaeger J. The gap gene network. Cell Mol Life Sci. 2011;68: 243–74. 3. doi:10.1007/s00018-010-0536-y 4. Davis GK, Patel NH. SHORT, LONG, AND BEYOND: Molecular and Embryological

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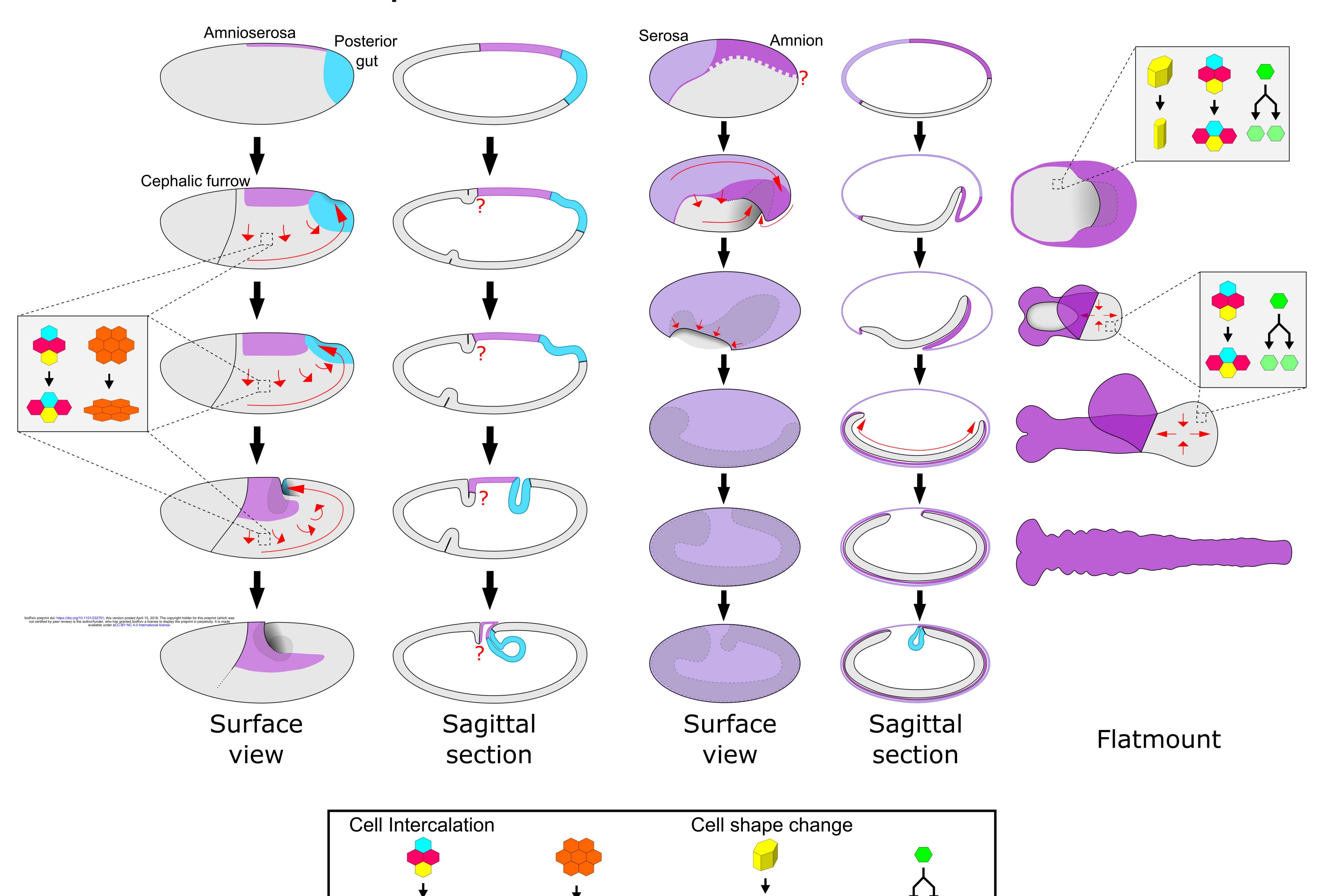
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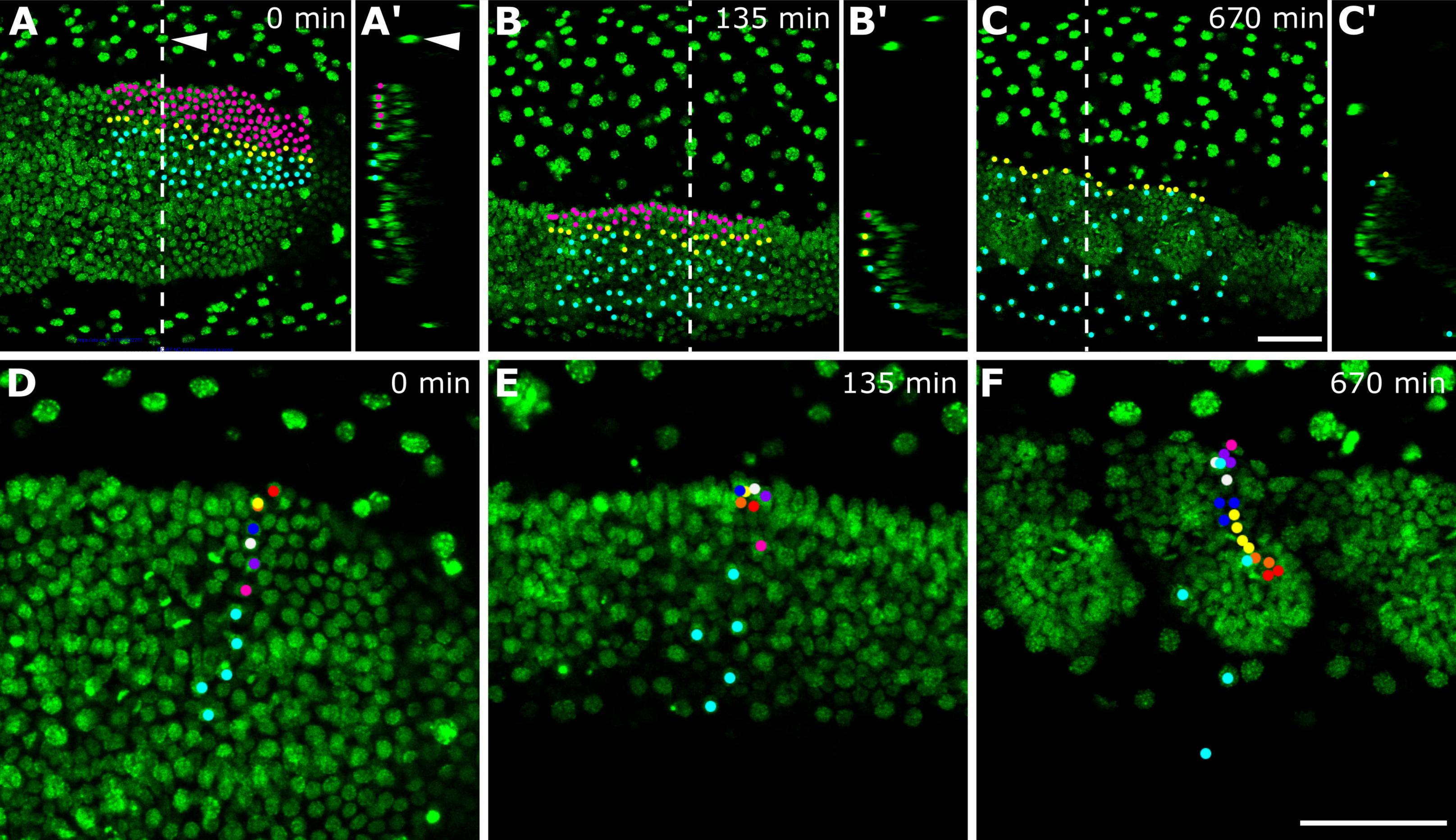
Drosophila

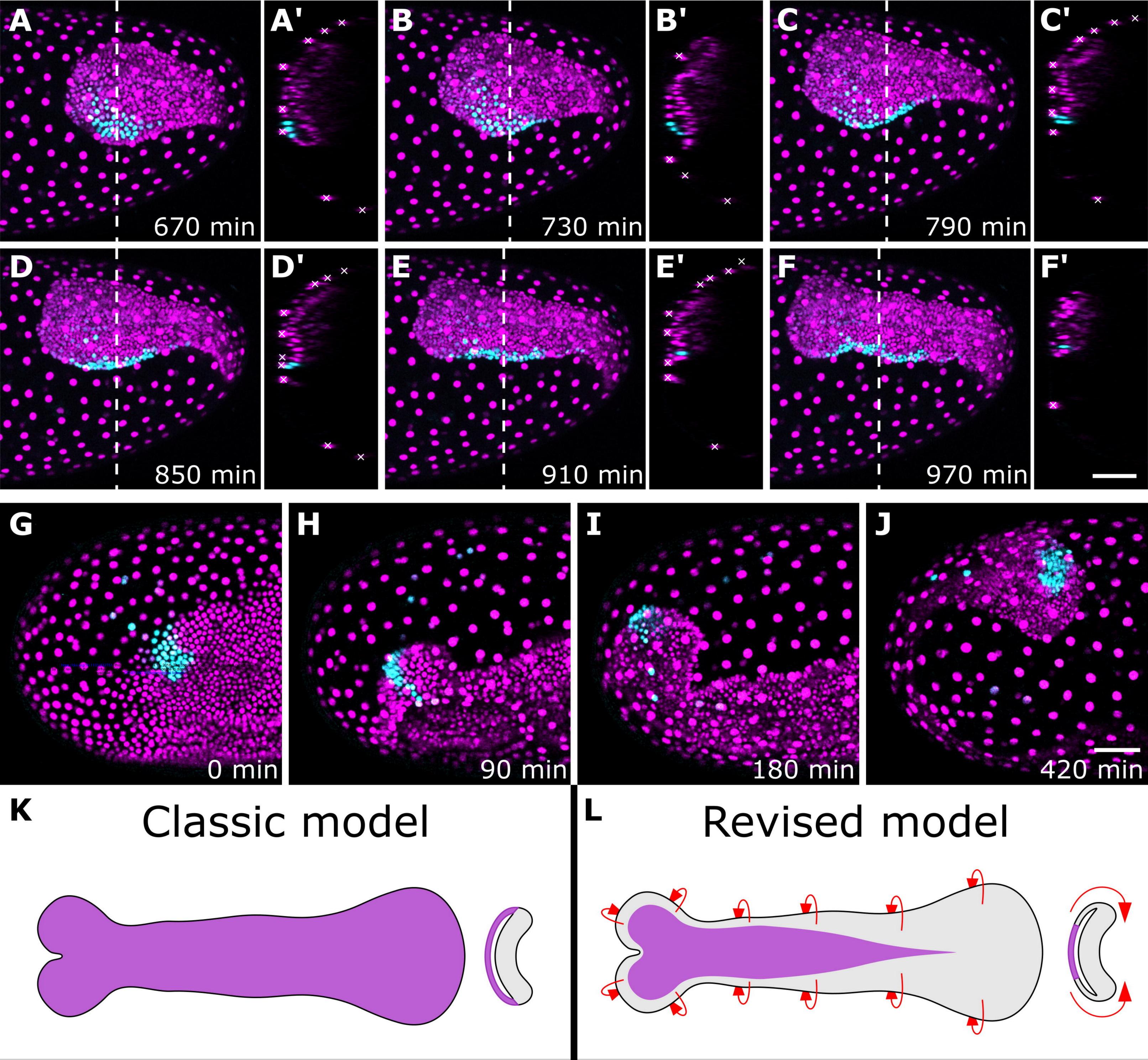
Tribolium

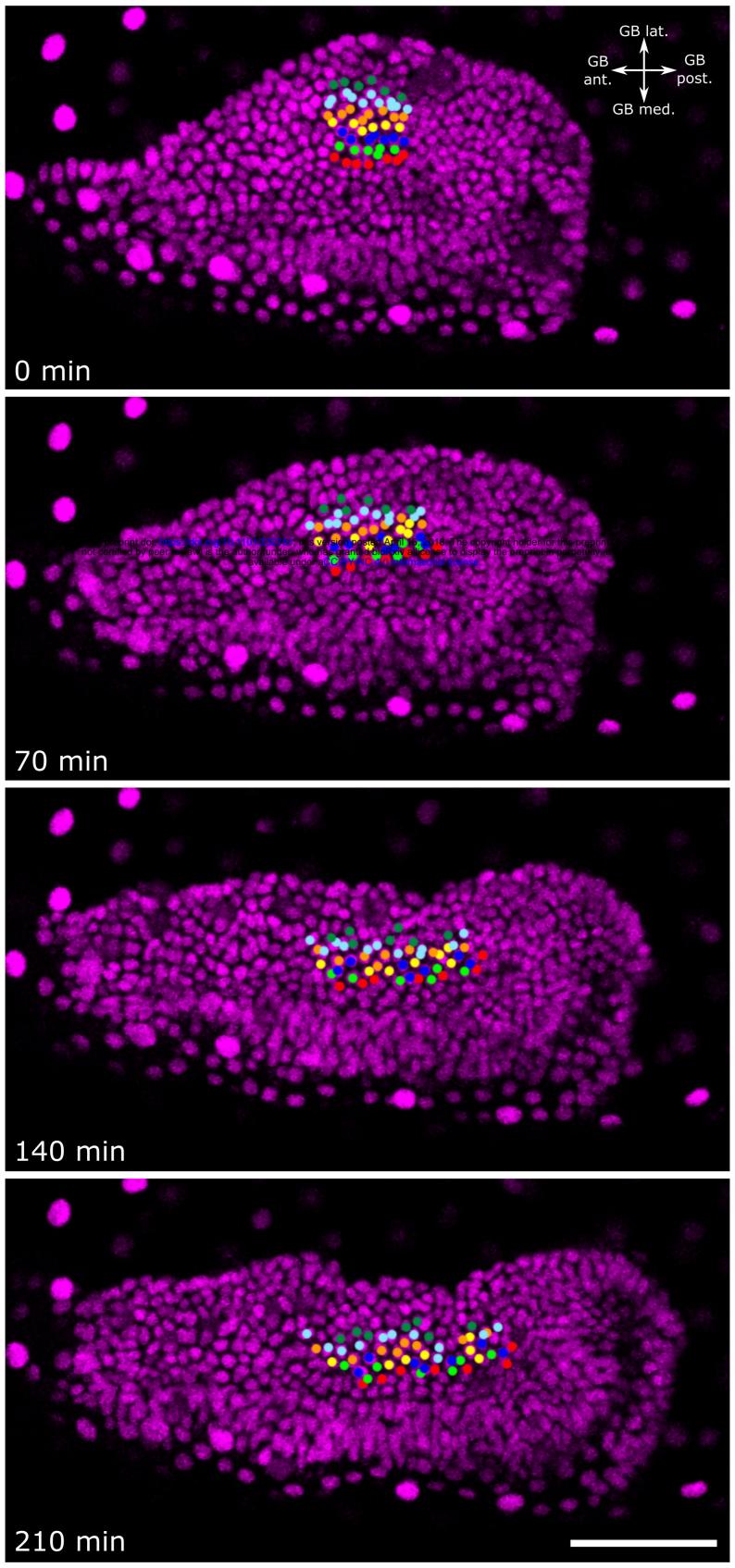
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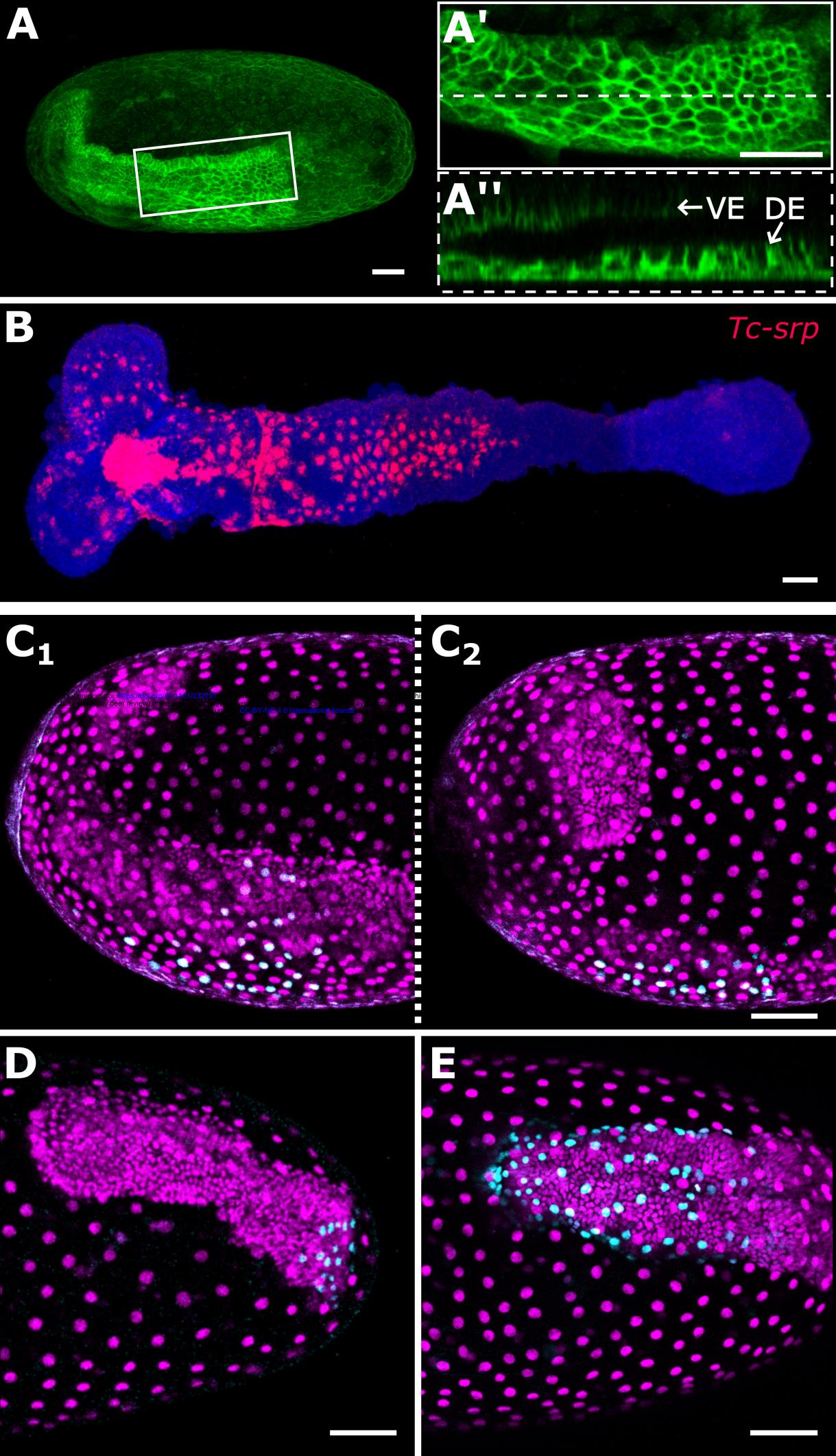


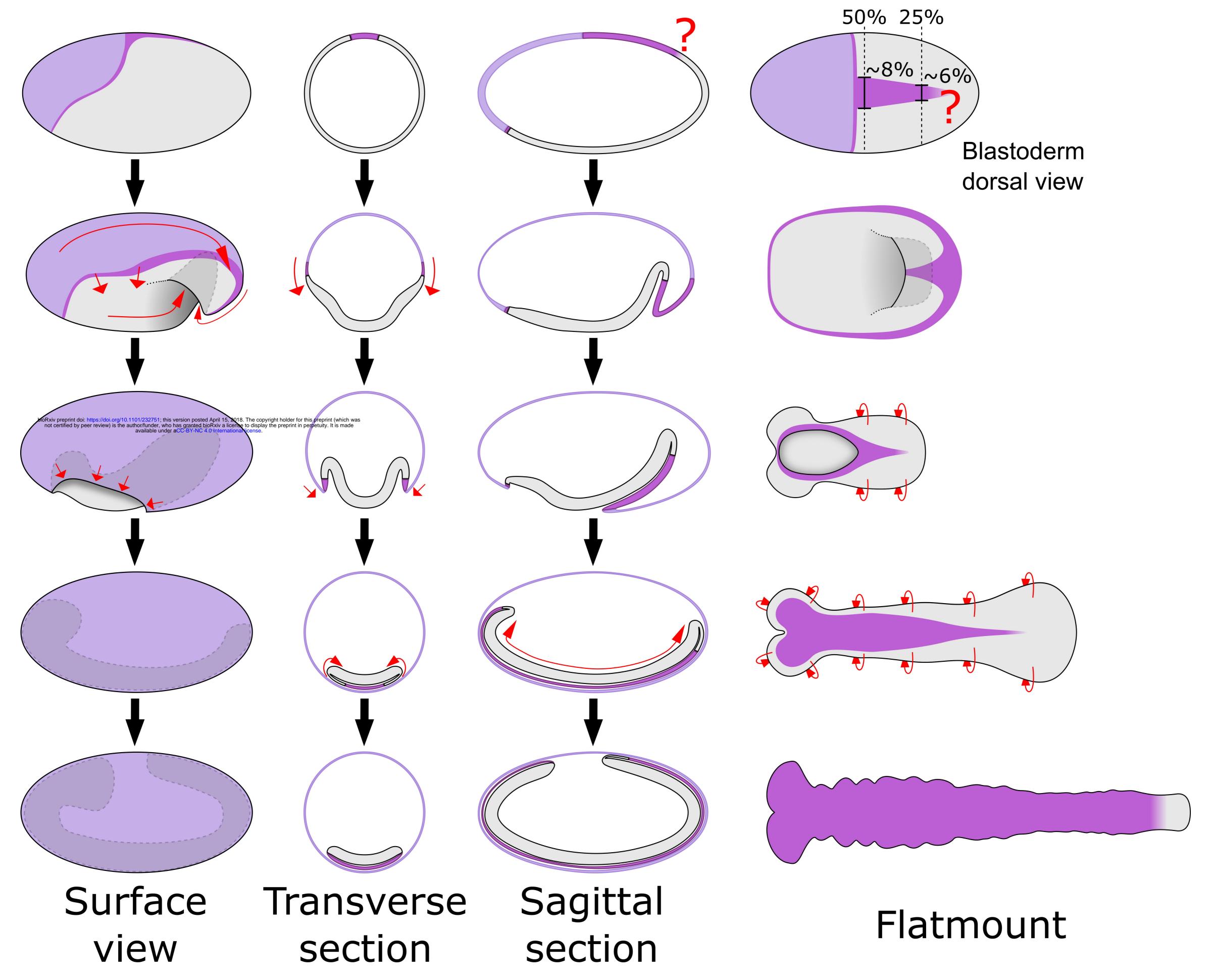
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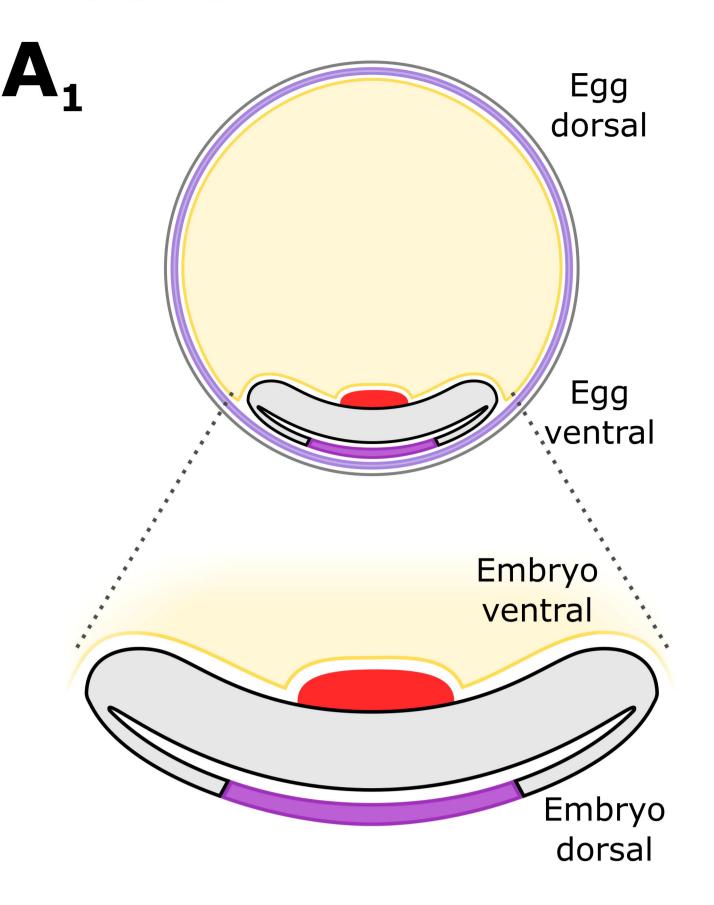


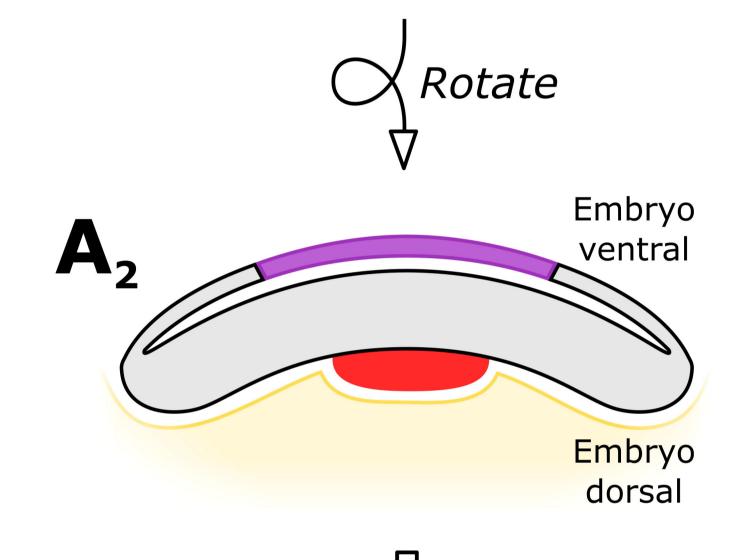


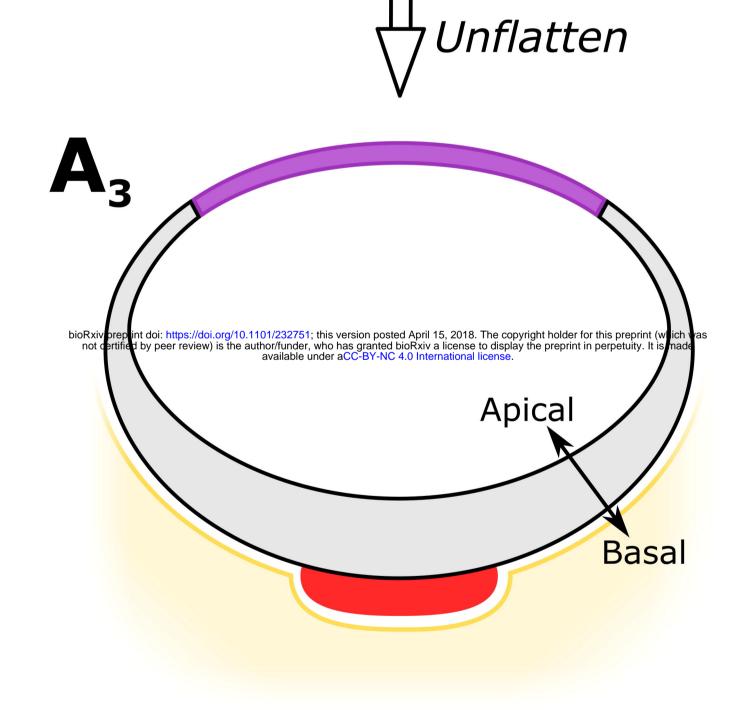


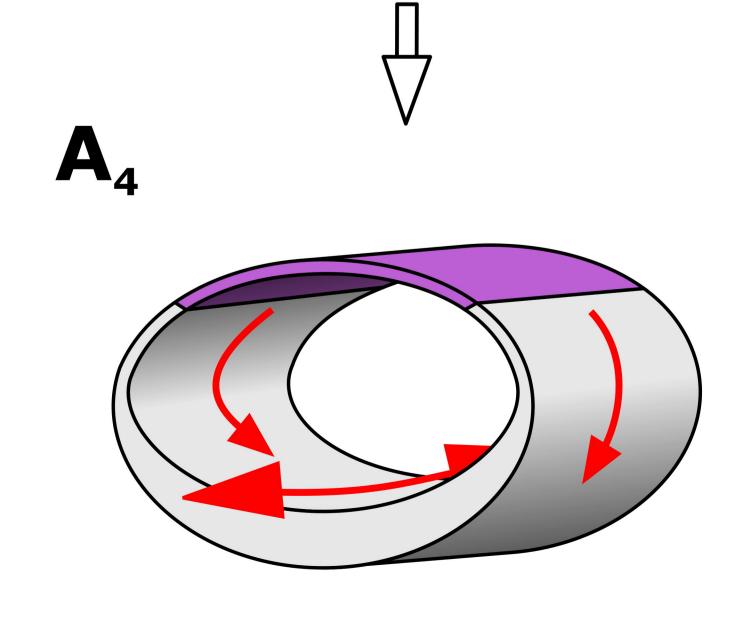


Tribolium



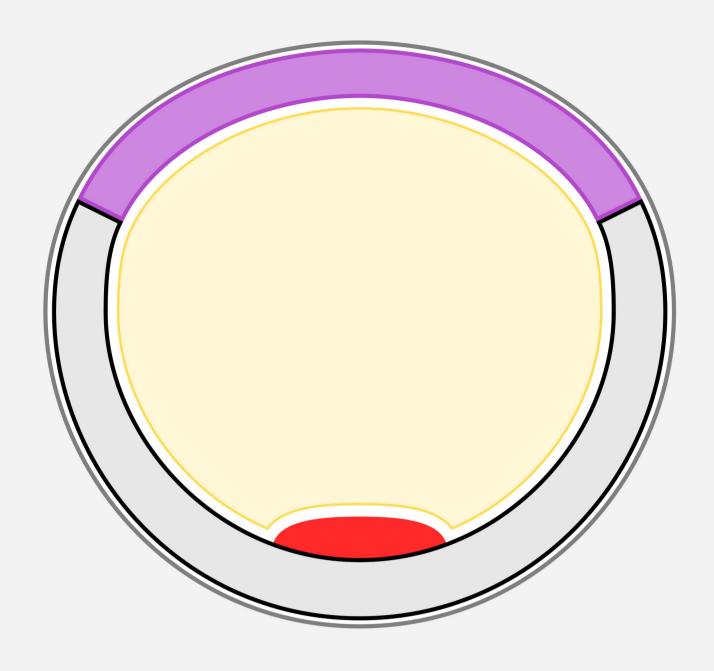






Drosophila

B₁ Egg AND embryo dorsal



Egg AND embryo ventral

