2	Robustness of the Dorsal morphogen gradient with respect to morphogen dosage
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14 Abstract

15 In multicellular organisms, the timing and placement of gene expression in a developing tissue assigns the 16 fate of each cell in the embryo in order for a uniform field of cells to differentiate into a reproducible 17 pattern of organs and tissues. This positional information is often achieved through the action of spatial 18 gradients of morphogens. Spatial patterns of gene expression are paradoxically robust to variations in 19 morphogen dosage, given that, by definition, gene expression must be sensitive to morphogen 20 concentration. In this work we investigate the robustness of the Dorsal/NF-KB signaling module with 21 respect to perturbations to the dosage of maternally-expressed dorsal mRNA. The Dorsal morphogen 22 gradient patterns the dorsal-ventral axis of the early Drosophila embryo, and we found that an empirical 23 description of the Dorsal gradient is highly sensitive to maternal dorsal dosage. In contrast, we found 24 experimentally that gene expression patterns are highly robust. Although the components of this signaling 25 module have been characterized in detail, how their function is integrated to produce robust gene 26 expression patterns to variations in the dorsal maternal dosage is still unclear. Therefore, we analyzed a 27 mechanistic model of the Dorsal signaling module and found that Cactus, a cytoplasmic inhibitor for 28 Dorsal, must be present in the nucleus for the system to be robust. Furthermore, active Toll, the receptor 29 that dissociates Cactus from Dorsal, must be saturated. Finally, the vast majority of robust descriptions of 30 the system require facilitated diffusion of Dorsal by Cactus. Each of these three recently-discovered 31 mechanisms of the Dorsal module are critical for robustness. Our work highlights the need for quantitative 32 understanding of biophysical mechanisms of morphogen gradients in order to understand emergent 33 phenotypes, such as robustness.

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35 Author Summary

36 The early stages of development of an embryo are crucial for laying the foundation of the body plan. The 37 blueprint of this plan is encoded in long-range spatial protein gradients called morphogens. This positional 38 information is then interpreted by nuclei that begin to differentiate by expressing different genes. In fruit 39 fly embryos, the Dorsal morphogen forms a gradient along the dorsal-ventral axis, with a maximum at the 40 ventral midline. This gradient, and the resulting gene expression patterns are extraordinarily robust to 41 variations in developmental conditions, even during early stages of development. Since positional 42 information is interpreted in terms of concentration of the morphogen, one would expect that doubling 43 or halving dosage would result in disastrous consequences for the embryo. However, we observed that development remains robust. We quantified the effect of dosage by experimentally measuring the 44 45 boundaries of 2 genes, - sna and soq, expressed along the DV axis and found that variation in the 46 boundaries of these genes was minimal, across embryos with different dosages of DI. We then used a 47 mathematical model to discern components of the DI system responsible for buffering the effects of 48 dosage and found three specific mechanisms – deconvolution, Toll saturation and shuttling

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50 Introduction

The morphogen concept forms the basis of many models of developing tissues. Through their concentration gradients in space, morphogens send positional information to cells and direct them to develop in specific ways depending on their location within a tissue. The roles of these signals range from the development of the initial polarities of embryos to specification of cell identity in specific tissues, and the nervous system in both vertebrates and *Drosophila* [1]. Tissue patterning is often initiated by the cells' concentration-dependent response to the morphogen gradient: cells throughout the tissue are subject to different levels of morphogen, depending on their position within the field, and accordingly, express distinct target genes. Thus, the quantitative shape of the morphogen gradient is critical for patterning, with cell-fate boundaries established at specific concentration thresholds. The cells' sensitivity to morphogen concentration also implies that any shift in the morphogen distribution is expected to result in an accompanying shift in patterning. Therefore, perturbations to the morphogen dosage or production rate, which should change the morphogen distribution, should in turn perturb gene expression patterns.

63 Indeed, early models of morphogen gradient formation assumed the gradient scaled globally with the 64 morphogen dose (e.g., when one copy of the gene encoding the morphogen is lost, the entire distribution is divided by two). Such "dosage-scaling" models predicted that catastrophic shifts in target gene 65 66 expression domains would occur when the dose of morphogen is altered [2,3]. In contrast, experimental 67 observations have shown that the spatial positioning of morphogen target genes shift only minimally 68 when morphogen dosage is perturbed [2–5], with some notable exceptions [6,7]. Thus, there exists a 69 paradox between the sensitivity of cells to morphogen concentration and the robustness of tissue 70 patterns with respect to morphogen dose, which implies a mechanism that prevents robust morphogen 71 gradient systems from scaling with morphogen dose. One such mechanism is self-enhanced ligand 72 degradation, where the ligand (morphogen) upregulates its own inhibitor, and which has been suggested 73 to explain experimentally-observed robustness [3,4,8,9]. However, this mechanism does not apply to all 74 morphogen gradient systems. In particular, the Dorsal/NF-κB signaling network in *Drosophila* embryos 75 does not clearly exhibit the self-enhanced degradation mechanism.

76 The NF-κB module, conserved from flies to humans, is implicated in several cellular 77 responses/phenotypes, including tissue patterning, inflammation, innate immunity. 78 proliferation/apoptosis, and cancer [10–14]. The maternal transcription factor Dorsal (DI), homologous to 79 mammalian NF-KB, patterns the dorsal-ventral (DV) axis of the developing Drosophila melanogaster 80 embryo to specify mesoderm, neurogenic ectoderm, and dorsal ectoderm cell fates (Roth et al., 1989; 81 reviewed in [16–18]. In the early embryo, DI protein is initially uniformly distributed around the DV axis.

82 During nuclear cleavage cycle (nc) 10, the nuclei migrate to the periphery of the syncytial blastoderm and 83 the DI gradient begins to be established. The IkB homolog Cactus (Cact), which is also maternally-supplied, 84 binds to Dorsal, retaining it outside the nuclei. Toll, the Drosophila homolog of the Interleukin 1 receptor, 85 is active on the ventral side of the embryo, where it signals through Pelle kinase to phosphorylate the 86 DI/Cact complex [19], which results in dissociation of DI from Cact, allowing DI to enter the nuclei, where 87 it regulates gene expression. Because Toll signaling is spatially asymmetric, a nuclear gradient of DI forms, 88 with a peak at the ventral midline and a Gaussian-like decay in space to become nearly flat at 89 approximately 45% of the embryo's circumference (Figure 1A) [5,20]. From 45% to 100% ventral-to-dorsal 90 coordinate, the gradient has a shallow downward slope to achieve non-zero basal levels at the dorsal 91 midline [5,20,21]. Our computational studies have suggested the non-zero basal levels are primarily 92 composed of DI/Cact complex in the dorsal-most nuclei, not free DI [22].

As shown in **Figure 1B**, different genes are turned on at different concentrations of DI [16,23]. It can be both an activator and a repressor of transcription. At high concentrations of DI on the ventral side of the embryo, high threshold genes such as *snail* (*sna*) are expressed. In the lateral part of the embryo, intermediate DI levels activate the expression of low threshold genes such as short gastrulation (*sog*). The domains of these genes can be quantified using measurements of the dorsal border and ventral border (**Fig 1C**).

99 While the copy number of maternal *dl* has been shown to affect the DI gradient and downstream tissue 100 structure, the phenotypes are subtle. Embryos from mothers heterozygous for a *dl* null allele (1x *dl*) have 101 shorter, wider, and flatter DI gradients as compared to wildtype [5,24–26]. While these embryos have a 102 weakly dorsalized phenotype, female flies with a half dose of *dl* produce a high fraction of viable progeny 103 at room temperature [27,28]. Furthermore, measurements in a handful of embryos (n < 12) found no 104 statistical shift in the *sog* expression domain [5], and a shift of roughly only one cell diameter in the *sna* 105 domain [26]. The altered shape of the DI gradient has recently been attributed to a combination of two

novel observations. First, Cact acts to facilitate the diffusion of DI (i.e., "shuttling" of DI by Cact), which
results in a net flux of DI to the ventral side of the embryo [26]. And second, active Toll receptor complexes
are saturated by DI/Cact complex [26]. Together, these processes act to accumulate DI on the ventral side
in wildtype embryos, but accumulate DI in ventral-lateral regions in 1x *dl* embryos. Furthermore,
experimental evidence strongly suggests the shuttling mechanism is required for viability of 1x *dl* embryos,
as embryos from heterozygous *dl* mothers that also have compromised shuttling are non-viable [26].

112 In a similar manner, embryos with overexpression of excess, transgenic copies of *dl* (4x *dl*) are only weakly 113 ventralized, and a large fraction still hatch [29]. Given the subtlety of the 1x and 4x *dl* phenotypes, and 114 the viability of the embryos, one may ask whether this implies the DI gradient system is robust, and if so, 115 whether the robustness requires special mechanisms, such as shuttling and Toll saturation [26]. As 116 mentioned above, dosage-scaling models are typically sensitive to dosage; however, such a model of the 117 DI gradient has not been analyzed for robustness of gene expression with respect to variations in 118 morphogen dosage.

119 In this work, we used empirical and computational modeling, together with quantitative measurements 120 of the DI gradient and domains of target gene expression, to investigate the robustness of the DI gradient 121 system with respect to dosage of maternal dl. First, we showed that a dosage-scaling formulation of the 122 DI gradient has an unacceptably high sensitivity to the maternal dosage of dl, even in the best-case 123 scenario, in which basal levels are composed primarily of DI/Cact complex and there is negligible DI activity 124 at the dorsal midline [22]. In particular, in the absence of a mechanism to prevent dosage-scaling, doubling 125 or halving the maternal *dl* dosage is predicted to result in drastic perturbations to gene expression. Next, 126 we experimentally measured gene expression domains and the DI gradient width in embryos from 127 mothers with dl dosages of 1x (heterozygous null for maternal dl), 2x (wildtype), and 4x (expressing two 128 copies of a *dl* rescue construct; Carrell et al., 2017; Reeves et al., 2012) and showed that, in contrast to 129 the predictions of the dosage-scaling model, the perturbations to patterns are minimal. To identify the

130 possible mechanism for this robustness, we analyzed a computational model of the DI/Cact system. Our 131 model is based on previously published models in which DI and Cact can interact, enter the nuclei, and 132 diffuse between "cytoplasmic compartments" surrounding the nuclei [21,22,24,26,30]. The active Toll 133 signaling complex, which is limited to the ventral side of the embryo, acts as a Michaelis-Menten-like 134 enzyme to favor dissociation of the DI/Cact complex. We constrained the model using our measurements 135 of DI target gene expression in 1x, 2x, and 4x embryos. A random parameter search showed that several 136 parameter sets resulted in robust phenotypes. Our analysis of the robust parameter sets showed that 137 robustness can rarely be achieved unless (1) the free DI nuclear levels drop to near zero on the dorsal side of the embryo [22], (2) significant facilitated diffusion by Cact occurs [26], and (3) active Toll signaling can 138 139 be saturated by DI/Cact complex [26]. Quantitative analysis can be used to assess rigorously the 140 robustness of different patterning models. Applying the same modelling principles to other systems might 141 identify additional mechanisms that underlie robust patterning by morphogen gradients in development.

142 Results

143 Sensitivity of a dosage-scaling model of the DI gradient

Early models of morphogen gradients exhibited "dosage-scaling," in that these descriptions of the morphogen gradient scaled globally, in a multiplicative manner, with morphogen dosage. Morphogen gradients predicted by these models were highly sensitive with respect to morphogen dosage [3,31,32]. However, these models focused on exponential-like morphogen distributions, whereas the DI gradient is Gaussian-shaped [5,20,26]. Therefore, to determine the extent to which the robustness of the DI system may be inherent to the Gaussian shape of the DI gradient, versus how much of the robustness requires a special mechanism, we analyzed an empirical, dosage-scaling description of the gradient.

151 Let c(x) be the distribution of nuclear DI as a function of the DV coordinate x:

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$$c(x) = \alpha \left[\exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) + m|x| + b \right], \quad (1)$$

where α is a proportionality constant related to morphogen dosage, σ represents the spatial width of the DI gradient, m is the shallow, downward slope of the DI gradient tail, and b represents the basal levels of the gradient, related to the levels of DI that is present in the dorsal-most nuclei. From empirical measurements, $b \approx 0.4$ and $m \approx -0.1$ [20].

157 To calculate the robustness of the predicted gene expression boundaries with respect to changes in α , we 158 performed a sensitivity analysis. Let the sensitivity coefficient of a gene expression border with respect to maternal *dI* dosage be defined as $\phi \equiv (\partial \ln x_g / \partial \ln \alpha)_a$, where x_g is the location of gene expression 159 160 boundary and θ is the threshold in DI nuclear concentration required to express the gene (see Materials 161 and Methods for more information). We found the model of the DI gradient described by Eqn (1) has 162 unacceptably high values of the sensitivity coefficient (Fig. 2A). As a rule of thumb, sensitivity coefficients 163 should be designed to be 0.3 or less [32,33]; the gradient described by Eqn (1) has sensitivity coefficients 164 of one or greater.

165 Previously, it was found that a model in which both DI and DI/Cact complex are present in the nucleus was 166 more consistent with experimental results than one in which only free DI is allowed to enter the nucleus 167 [22]. This model was also more robust to noise in DI levels. Therefore, we asked whether empirically 168 modeling the presence of DI/Cact complex in the nuclei could also improve the predicted robustness with 169 respect to maternal *dl* dosage. In this case, Eqn (1) represents the sum of the two Dl-containing species. 170 Deconvolution of the non-functional DI/Cact contribution from the sum would result in the active, "true" 171 DI gradient (i.e., free DI). Our previous work has suggested the DI/Cact contribution is roughly constant 172 across the DV axis [22], so that empirically, the active DI gradient can be modeled by Eqn (1) with a much 173 lower value of b. If we set b = 0.11, so that the intensity of free nuclear DI in the dorsal-most nuclei is 1% 174 of the intensity in the ventral-most nuclei, the sensitivity of gene expression is improved markedly (Fig.

175 <u>2A</u>). However, even in this best-case scenario, the minimum sensitivity coefficient (located at $x_g = 0.34$) 176 remains unacceptably high, roughly 0.4, while gene expression boundaries located elsewhere experience 177 even higher sensitivities.

178 To put the problem in more experimentally concrete terms, we can use Eqn (1) to predict the outcome of 179 deleting one copy of maternal dl (1x dl), or expressing two extra copies (4x dl). Let $\alpha = 1$ to represent the wildtype dosage of maternal dl, so that $\alpha = 0.5$ and $\alpha = 2$ represent the 1x and 4x embryos, respectively. 180 181 In the perturbed cases, the predicted DV gene expression profile in the embryo would result in lethality: 182 1x embryos completely lose sna expression, while 4x embryos have a highly expanded domain of sna and 183 lose *dpp* completely (Fig. 2B). As with the sensitivity coefficient above, if b is lowered, the effects on gene 184 expression are less severe (Fig. 2C). However, the empirical model still predicts lethality: 1x embryos 185 express sna in < 10% of the DV axis [26], and 4x embryos have severely reduced dpp expression. We 186 conclude that robustness does not arise simply from a Gaussian shape in a dosage-scaling context, and 187 thus, there must be a mechanism by which the embryo compensates for changes in the maternal dl 188 dosage.

189

190 Robustness of DI-dependent gene expression

While the dosage-scaling model predicted high sensitivity of gene expression, limited measurements of gene expression in 1x and 4x embryos [5,26], as well as their viability [27–29], suggest the system is robust. To more accurately quantify the robustness of DI target gene expression with respect to *dI* dosage, we performed large sample size measurements (generally n ~ 40 or greater) of the expression of two DI target genes, *sna* and *sog*, in 1x, 2x, and 4x embryos. We found that, with only one exception, the expression domains of both genes in 1x and 4x embryos were statistically different from their expression in 2x (wildtype) embryos (p-val $\leq 2 \times 10^{-4}$; Fig 3). The lone exception, the *sna* border in 4x embryos, had a much smaller sample size than the rest (n = 13). Furthermore, the direction of the shifts in gene expression
boundaries were as one might expect: in 1x embryos, the gene expression domains shifted closer to the
ventral midline, while in 4x embryos, they shifted more dorsally.

Even though we were able to measure statistically significant differences from wildtype, the shifts in gene expression borders were minimal (roughly 10% or less; see Table 1), in contrast to the predictions of the dosage-scaling model (Eqn 1). Therefore, our quantification of the robustness of gene expression domains further suggests that a mechanism exists to mitigate the effects of altering the dosage of maternal *dl*. We suspected that this mechanism could be traced to the shape and width of the DI gradient in 1x, 2x, and 4x embryos.

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208 Robustness of the DI gradient

209 Previously, it has been shown that a half maternal dose of dl significantly shortens and widens the DI 210 gradient, and results in a flattened, and sometimes double-peaked, top [5,24–26]. Given that this outcome 211 cannot be predicted by the non-robust dosage-scaling description, in which the width and shape of the 212 gradient do not change with dosage, we asked whether such changes to the DI gradient would be 213 sufficient to confer robustness to predicted gene expression. Therefore, we measured the DI gradient in embryos loaded with 1x, 2x, and 4x copies of maternal dl (see Fig. 4A and Table 1). As previously reported, 214 215 1x embryos had a wider and flatter DI gradient [5,26]. However, the previously-reported width 216 measurements for 1x embryos cannot be directly compared to widths in wildtype embryos, given the 217 width measurements are based on the assumption that the DI gradient is Gaussian-shaped, which the 1x 218 DI gradient is not. Accounting for the differing shape (see Supplementary information), the 1x DI gradient 219 measures as narrower than wildtype (Fig. 4B).

220 When we examined 4x embryos, we found the gradient became statistically wider (Table 1; Figs. 4 A,B), 221 which also defies a dosage-scaling description of the DI gradient. However, rather than explaining the 222 robustness of the DI system, these measurements naïvely predict even higher sensitivities than the 223 dosage-scaling model. Consider the basic expectation that the 1x gradient should have a roughly 50% 224 lower amplitude than wildtype, while the 4x gradient should have a roughly 200% higher amplitude, even 225 if the gradients are not the exact shape and width as wildtype. The combination of decrease in gradient 226 amplitude and decrease in gradient width in 1x embryos, or an increase of both in 4x embryos, would 227 likely result in sensitive DI-dependent gene expression, as the two effects (amplitude and width) 228 exacerbate each other. In contrast, the dosage-scaling model has only one effect: a changing gradient 229 amplitude.

230 One way to explain the robustness of gene expression, given the observed changes in DI gradient shape 231 and width, would be if the amplitudes of the 1x and 4x gradients significantly departed from expectation. 232 Therefore, we computed the amplitudes for the 1x and 4x gradients, with respect to the 2x gradient 233 (which was set to an amplitude of one), that would most closely predict the experimentally observed gene 234 expression in these embryos (Fig. 4C; see Supplementary Methods). We found that a 1x gradient with > 235 50% of the wildtype amplitude, and a 4x gradient with < 100% of the wildtype amplitude, would be 236 consistent with the experimentally observed robust gene expression. While it is unlikely the 4x gradient 237 would have a shorter amplitude than the 2x gradient, values slightly greater than one are also acceptable 238 (Fig. 4D).

These results suggest that the mechanism to impart robustness with respect to morphogen dosage can control the width, shape, and amplitude of the DI gradient. Our previous work has shown that facilitated diffusion, also known as shuttling, combined with saturation of the active Toll receptor, can produce the wider, flatter gradients observed in the 1x embryos [26]. Given the saturation of the active Toll receptor, this same mechanism may allow for negligibly taller DI gradients in 4x embryos. Furthermore, we have

seen that 1x embryos that also have compromised shuttling are non-viable [26]. Therefore, to test whether such a combination of mechanisms – shuttling and Toll saturation, together with deconvolution (Fig. 2C) – can grant the DI gradient system robustness with respect to maternal *dl* dosage, we analyzed a mechanistic model capable of capturing these mechanisms.

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249 Computational modeling of DI gradient sensitivity

The model of DI/Cact interactions analyzed here is based on previous models of the DI gradient [22,24,26,30]. In particular, we assume that DI, Cact, and DI/Cact complex can bind, diffuse, and enter and exit the nucleus; and that Toll signaling can be modeled using a Michaelis-Menten-like formulation (see Methods and Eqns 2-4) [26]. Using this model, we performed a random parameter search to screen for parameter sets in which the DI nuclear gradient was robust to changes in maternal *dI* dosage (Fig. 5 A-G, see Methods for more details).

256 We found three trends in the parameter sets necessary for robustness. First, all robust parameter sets 257 predicted that the free DI nuclear intensity drops to near zero on the dorsal side of the embryo, a result 258 consistent with the deconvolution hypothesis that suggests that DI fluorescence, as observed in 259 immunostaining experiments or in live embryos expressing DI-GFP, represents both free DI and DI/Cact 260 complex, and that it is important to distinguish between the two [22]. This observation may be similar to 261 the result seen in Fig. 2C, in which decay of the DI gradient to zero at the dorsal midline improved 262 robustness. Fig. 5A shows the concentration gradient of free DI for all three values of dosage (1x, 2x, 4x) 263 for one of the robust parameter sets; it can be seen that all concentration curves fall to zero around lateral 264 regions of the embryo. These same parameter sets predict a gradient of DI/Cact complex that is non-zero 265 at the dorsal midline (S1 Fig), suggesting that, in these simulated embryos, direct fluorescence 266 measurements (the sum of DI and DI/Cact in the nucleus) would reveal what appears to be a non-robust 267 DI gradient. Furthermore, the model does not universally predict that the DI gradient decays to zero at 268 the dorsal midline. While all robust parameter sets do so, many rejected parameter sets do not (S2 Fig). 269 Thus, the model results strongly suggest deconvolution is necessary for robustness.

Second, we found that the effective diffusivity of DI/Cact complex is greater than that of free DI in nearly all robust parameter sets. As the flux of DI/Cact complex is ventrally directed (i.e., shuttling), this result implies that there is a net flux of DI from dorsal to ventral regions [26]. We plotted the distribution of the ratio of the effective diffusivity of DI/Cact complex to that of free DI, henceforth called ratio of length scales (ρ), in Fig. 5B. In over 95% of the robust parameter sets, this ratio was found to be greater than one. Thus, the constraint of robust gene expression rejects most parameter sets that do not entail facilitated diffusion of DI by Cact.

277 Finally, the model also suggests that saturation of Toll receptors is necessary for robustness of gene 278 expression. In all robust parameter sets, the saturation constant for Toll signaling, κ , was between 0.001 279 and 2. Indeed, as seen in Fig.5C, κ was the most tightly constrained parameter, which implies tight 280 regulation of Toll saturation may be the most important aspect of the mechanism to ensure robustness 281 of gene expression. This shows that the constraints in the model overwhelmingly favor saturation of Toll 282 receptors by the DI/Cact complex, as the concentration of DI/Cact complex in our equations has been 283 scaled to be of order 1. Taken together, these modeling results suggest that the mechanisms of 284 deconvolution and Toll saturation are necessary for a robust DV system, while shuttling of DI by Cact 285 greatly improves the chances of robustness [22,26].

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287 Model predictions of amplitude ratios

In addition to endorsement of the above three mechanisms, the model makes a specific prediction
regarding the ratios of amplitudes of the 1x and 4x embryos to that of the wildtype (2x). As seen in Fig. 5

290 <u>D,E</u> the ratio of amplitudes of 1x embryos:2x embryos is overwhelmingly favored to be greater than 0.5

but less than 0.9, and that of 4x embryos:2x embryos is favored to fall between 1 and 1.55.

292 It can be seen from Fig. 5 D,E that as the value of κ decreases (and thus, Toll becomes more saturated), 293 the range of amplitude ratios available to robust descriptions of the DI gradient increases. For lower values 294 of κ , a range of 1.1 to 1.6 is accepted by the model for ratio of amplitudes of 4x embryos:2x embryos and 295 a range of 0.5 to 0.85 for ratio of amplitudes of 1x embryos: 2x embryos. At higher values of κ , the values 296 of the amplitude ratios for 4x/2x and 1x/2x seem to converge to 1.45 and 0.57 respectively, meaning that 297 as Toll is more easily saturated (lower values of κ), the model allows for a small, but noticeable range of 298 amplitude ratios for varying dosages. This result seems to indicate that under constrained conditions of 299 Toll saturation, only particular peak amplitudes are preferred – about 1.55 times the wildtype value for 300 4x embryos and about 0.57 times the wildtype value for 1x embryos. However, if Toll receptors saturate 301 easily, an appreciable range of amplitude ratios leads to robustness. Thus, Toll saturation seems to be an 302 inherent mechanism for robustness in the embryo.

In a similar way, the model predicts that the extent of shuttling of DI by Cact also affects the acceptable values of the amplitude ratios. In Fig. 5 F,G we plotted amplitude ratios against ratio of length scales, and we see that when facilitated diffusion by Cact does not occur (about 5% of parameter sets), the amplitude ratios of 4x/2x and 1x/2x are constrained around 1.45 and 0.57, respectively. The values of amplitudes seem to converge to similar values when Toll saturation was minimal. On the other hand, when the length scale ratio is greater than 1, a wider range of amplitude ratios are accessible to the embryo.

Thus, it seems that both Toll saturation and shuttling of DI from dorsal to ventral regions allows the embryos to explore a wider range of amplitude ratios, which allows greater flexibility for robustness. However, when the above mechanisms are constrained, the amplitude ratios must take on specific values, which in turn makes it difficult to achieve robustness.

313

314 Discussion

Animal development is a complex process that must be buffered against myriad environmental, 315 316 nutritional, and genetic perturbations. The robustness of development with respect to these 317 perturbations often requires regulatory mechanisms. Here we investigated the robustness of gene 318 expression in the early Drosophila embryo with respect to variations in the maternal gene dosage of the 319 NF-kB transcription factor Dorsal in a quantitative and computational manner. The NF-kB pathway is 320 highly conserved and is centrally involved in a diverse array of cellular processes, including inflammation, 321 apoptosis, and innate immunity. In flies, DI/NF-KB also directs embryonic development and 322 differentiation. However, essential questions related to NF-kB robustness in Drosophila remain 323 unresolved. Our analysis of an empirical, dosage-scaling description of the DI gradient, together with 324 detailed measurements of the DI gradient and its target genes, suggest that a mechanism to control the 325 shape, width, and amplitude of the DI gradient is necessary for robustness. Our previous work found three 326 novel mechanisms in the establishment of the DI gradient: deconvolution, shuttling, and Toll saturation 327 [22,26]. In this paper, we used a computational model to study the importance of each of these 328 mechanisms for the robustness of the DI system.

Recent work showed the importance of deconvolving experimentally-measured fluorescence signal into free DI and bound DI (DI/Cact complex) when interpreting the DI gradient [22]. Doing so results in a nuclear DI gradient that drops to near zero instead of to non-zero basal levels at dorsal regions [5,15,20,21]. In the dosage-scaling model, deconvolution was modeled by setting basal levels to near zero. While this choice of basal levels improved robustness somewhat in the dosage-scaling model, the gene expression boundaries remained overly sensitive to *dl* dosage. Furthermore, every robust parameter set in the computational model predicted a free DI gradient that decayed to near zero, whereas non-robust parameter sets did not. Thus, while deconvolution by itself is not sufficient to explain the robustness of
 gene expression boundaries, it appears to be a necessary piece.

338 Our model also suggests the shuttling mechanism increases robustness of the DI system. In such a 339 mechanism, Toll signaling creates a sink for DI/Cact complex, which establishes a ventrally-directed flux 340 to accumulate DI in ventral regions. While it is possible that free DI then diffuses dorsally, such counter-341 diffusion is likely mitigated by capture of free DI by the nuclei. Previous work in our lab suggests that 342 shuttling of DI/Cact complex from dorsal to ventral regions is an important factor for robustness in the 343 embryo [26]. Our model supports this result, as most parameter sets that selected for robust gene 344 expression favored facilitated diffusion of DI by Cact, as the effective diffusivity of DI/Cact was higher than that of free DI. 345

346 Previous work also suggested that, in wildtype embryos, active Toll receptors are limiting [26], thereby 347 maintaining robust gene expression, even when *dl* dosage varies from wildtype. In wildtype embryos, 348 when active Toll signaling complexes are saturated with DI/Cact complex, a significant number of DI/Cact 349 complexes bypass the ventral-lateral regions without being dissociated, and DI is shuttled to the ventral-350 most portions of the embryo. On the other hand, if active Toll signaling complexes are not saturated, as 351 may be the case in 1x embryos, the DI/Cact complex will be dissociated at a higher rate in the ventral-352 lateral regions of the embryo and will be unable to reach the ventral-most regions of the embryo. The lack of Toll saturation in 1x embryos thus results in a flatter and wider concentration gradient of nuclear DI. 353

While embryos with 4 copies of dI have double the wildtype DI dose, twice as much DI will not necessarily enter the nuclei because that process relies on Toll signaling, which may be saturated. Similarly, decreasing the *dI* dosage, as in the case of 1x embryos, implies halving the amount of DI/Cact complex without reducing the absolute number of free DI molecules that will enter the nuclei. If the active Toll complexes remain constant in all three cases of dosage and provided that they are saturated, only minor
 variations occur in the concentration of free DI when dosage changes (Fig 5A).

360 In this work we have demonstrated the importance of certain built-in mechanisms within the early 361 Drosophila embryo that ensure robustness of gene expression along the DV axis. These three mechanisms, 362 (deconvolution of the measured DI fluorescence into free DI and DI/Cact complex, saturation of Toll 363 receptors by DI/Cact complex, and shuttling of DI by Cact from dorsal to ventral regions of the embryo) 364 are crucial for ensuring that genes expressed in the DV axis have domain boundaries in specific regions. 365 We have presented both experimental and computational evidence that these processes are paramount 366 for safeguarding against genetic perturbations to dl dosage. The advances in studying the molecular 367 mechanism behind robustness with respect to maternal dl dosage may open the door for understanding 368 the question of how sustained embryonic development can be achieved despite genetic and 369 environmental fluctuations.

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372 Methods

373 Fluorescent in situ Hybridization

All embryos were aged to NC 14 (approx. 2-4 hours after egg lay), then fixed in 37% formaldehyde according to standard protocols [34]. A combination fluorescent *in situ* hybridization/fluorescent immnuostaining was performed according to standard protocols [34]. Briefly, fixed embryos were washed in PBS/Tween and hybridized at 55 °C overnight with anti-sense RNA probes, which were generated according to standard lab protocol. The embryos were then washed and incubated with primary antibodies at 4 °C overnight. The next day, they were washed and incubated for 1-2 hrs with fluorescent secondary antibodies at room temperature. The embryos were then washed and stored in 70% glycerol
 at -20 °C. Embryos were imaged within one month of completing the protocol.

382 Antibodies used were anti-dorsal 7A4 (deposited to the DSHB by Ruth Steward (DSHB Hybridoma Product 383 anti-dorsal 7A4)) (1:10), donkey anti-mouse- 488 (Invitrogen A21202, Lot 81493) (1:500), rabbit anti-384 histone (abcam ab1791, Lot 940487) (1:5000), donkey anti-rabbit-546 (Invitrogen A10040, Lot 107388) 385 (1:500), goat anti-biotin (ImmunoReagents, Raleigh, NC, GtxOt-070-D, Lot 19-19-112311) (1:50,000), 386 donkey anti-goat-647 (Invitrogen A21447, Lot 774898) ((1:500), goat anti-fluorescin (Rockland 600-101-387 096, Lot 19458) (1:500), rabbit anti-fluorescin (Life Technologies A889, Lot 1458646) (1:500), goat anti-388 histone (Abcam, ab12079, Lots GR6952-4 and GR129411-1) (1:100), donkey anti-rabbit-350 389 (ImmunoReagents, DkxRb-003-D350NHSX) (1:500). For some experiments the nuclear stain Drag5 (Cell 390 Signaling #4084S) was used instead of an anti-histone antibody.

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392 Mounting and Imaging of Fixed Embryos

Embryos were cross sectioned and mounted in 70% glycerol as described previously [35]. Briefly, a razor
blade was used to remove the anterior and posterior thirds of the embryo, leaving a cross section roughly
200 μm long by 200 μm in diameter. These sections were then oriented such that the cut sides became
the top and bottom. Sections were then imaged at 20x on a Zeiss LSM 710 microscope. 15 z-slices 1.5 μm
apart were analyzed, for a total section size of 21 μm.

398

399 *Image analysis*

400 Images of embryo cross sections were analyzed using a previously derived algorithm [36]. Briefly, the 401 border of the embryo was found computationally, then the nuclei were segmented using a local 402 thresholding protocol. The intensity of dl in each segmented nucleus was calculated as the ratio between 403 the intensity in the dl channel divided by the intensity in the nuclear channel. The intensity of mRNA 404 expression was calculated as average intensity within an annulus roughly 18 μm wide around the 405 perimeter of the embryo. mRNA profiles were fit to canonical parameters; those with a goodness of fit 406 (gof) less than 0.7 were omitted from study.

All dI gradients were fit to a Gaussian, and these fits were used to determine the width parameter, σ . Gradients with a gof less than 0.8 were eliminated from the results. Normalized intensity plots were generated by fitting each embryo's data to its own Gaussian by subtracting the B value and 70% of the M value, then dividing by the A value. (X = (x – B – 0.7M)/A)). The average normalized intensity plot was generated by averaging the plots of all embryos in the specified genotype.

412 Multiple experiments with statistically similar wild type controls were analyzed simultaneously to 413 generate the data in this report. Statistical significance was calculated using two-tailed homoscedastic t-414 tests.

415

416 *Model equations*

417 The equations for the computational model are as follows:

$$\frac{du_h}{dT} = a_1 \lambda_d (u_{h-1} - 2u_h + u_{h+1}) + a_2 \beta(x) \frac{w_h}{\kappa + w_h} - a_3 \gamma u_h$$
(2)

$$\frac{dw_h}{dT} = a_4 \lambda_{dc} (w_{h-1} - 2w_h + w_{h+1}) - a_5 \beta(x) \frac{w_h}{\kappa + w_h} + a_6 \gamma u_h \tag{3}$$

418 Where $\beta(x) = \beta^o exp \left(-\frac{x}{\phi}\right)^2$ represents the gaussian Toll-mediated rate constant and κ represents 419 the Michaelis Menten constant for the dissociation of Dl/Cact complex; *u* and *w* represent cytoplasmic 420 species Dl and Dl/Cact complex respectively; subscript *h* represents a nucleus and its associated 421 cytoplasmic compartment; λ_i represents effective intercompartmental exchange rates; and the a_i 's are 422 weighting factors related to the nuclear import/export equilibrium constants and the geometry of the 423 nucleus and cytoplasm (see Supplementary Information for more details).

424 Equations (2-3) above have been derived after simplifying a more detailed model (see Supplementary information for details). The nuclei are modeled as spheres sitting in cuboidal cytoplasmic compartments 425 426 that span the periphery of the embryo. Since the embryo is approximately symmetric about the DV axis; 427 the spatial coordinate was varied from 0 to 1 with the former representing the ventral midline and the latter, the dorsal midline. The number of such compartments/nuclei/cells is taken to be 51, approximately 428 429 equal to the number of nuclei in NC 14 found from live fluorescence imaging [20]. Both nuclei and the 430 cytoplasm volumes are considered well mixed. We assume that the nucleus and cytoplasm are in a state 431 of pseudo-equilibrium. Thus, $k_{out}C_{nuc} \approx k_{in}C_{cyt}$ or $C_{nuc} \approx K_{eq}C_{cyt}$ where, $K_{eq} \equiv k_{in}/k_{out}$ is defined 432 as the equilibrium constant for nuclear import/export for all species. The effect of Toll was modeled with 433 a Michaelis Menten formulation, assuming the concentration of the intermediate species DI-Cact-Toll to be approximately constant in nuclear cycle 14. The above equations were then non-dimensionalized, 434 435 approximately with respect to the conditions found in wildtype Drosophila embryos at the beginning of NC 14, such that every term was of order 1. The ratio of effective diffusivities or the length scale ratio was 436 437 then defined as

$$\rho = \frac{\lambda_{dc}}{\tilde{V}_{nuc}K_{eq,dc} + \tilde{V}_{cyt}} / \frac{\lambda_d}{\tilde{V}_{nuc}K_{eq,d} + \tilde{V}_{cyt}}$$
(4)

438 where $\tilde{V}_{nuc/cyt} = \frac{V_{nuc/cyt}}{V_{14}}$ (see Supplementary information for details).

The simulation was run for 60 min, which approximates the time period of NC 14, which is the longest nuclear cycle of the blastoderm. Dosage was varied by doubling or halving the initial concentration of DI/Cact. The Idimensionless constants obtained from it were then varied from 1e-3 to 1e+3 to obtain

- 442 concentration profiles for DI and DI/Cact. From these concentration profiles, the dorsal border of *sna* and
- the ventral and dorsal borders of *sog* were calculated assuming the borders are defined by thresholds of
- 444 free DI concentration. These model predictions of the borders were compared with experimental values
- in the least square error sense and parameter sets with errors lower than a set value were accepted as
- 446 robust (see Supplementary information for details).

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538

540 Supporting information

541 S1 File. This file contains details of methodology.

542 Figures and tables

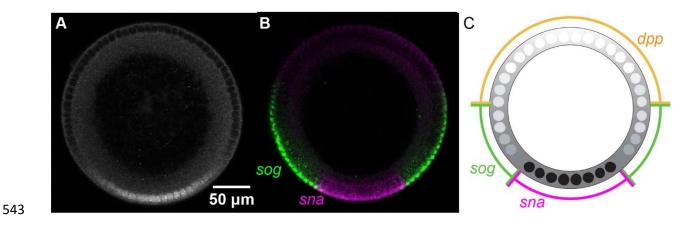


Figure 1: The protein Dorsal patterns the DV axis of the *Drosophila* embryo. (A) An antibody staining against Dorsal in an NC 14 embryo. (B) mRNA expression of Dorsal target genes *sna* (magenta) and *sog* (green). (C) Illustration of the borders of gene expression. We use these borders to quantify and compare the extent of domain of dl target genes. Embryo cross-sections are oriented so that ventral is down.

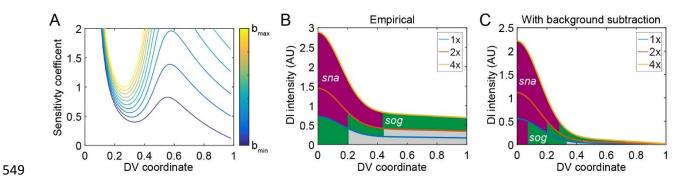


Figure 2: Theoretical consideration of the sensitivity coefficient. (A) Testing whether a lower value of the parameter
b could result in a lower sensitivity. (B) The empirical prediction shows that 1x embryos completely lose *sna*expression, while 4x embryos have an overexpanded domain of *sna*, and lose *dpp* completely. (C) The prediction
when lower b values were used.

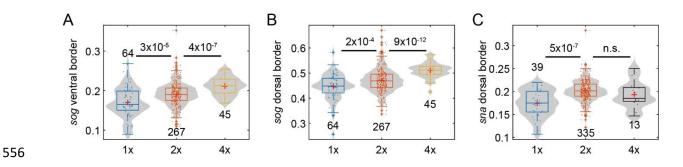
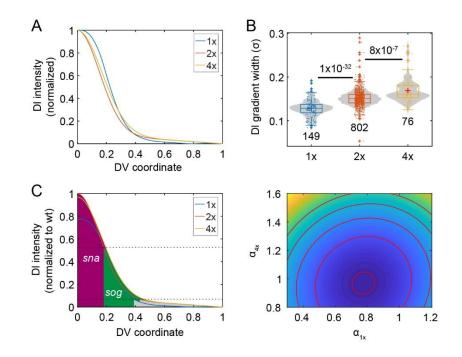
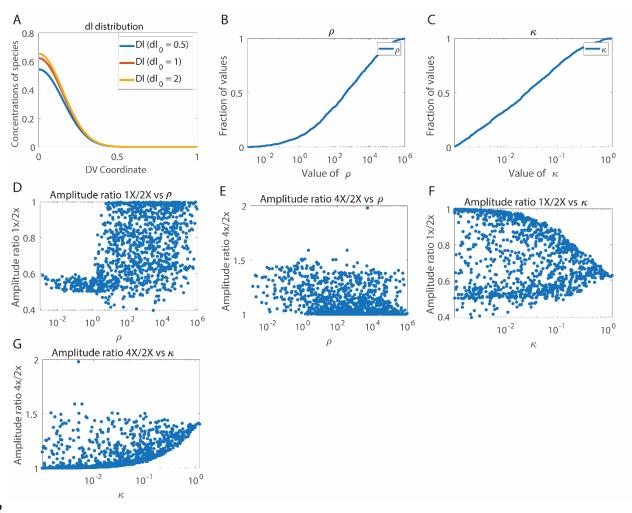


Figure 3: Varying the maternal *dl* dose influences gene expression. (A) Box-and-violin plot of the ventral border of *sog*. (B) Box-and-violin plot of the dorsal border of *sog*. (C) Box-and-violin plot of the dorsal border of *sna*. The numbers above or below distributions indicate sample size Numbers between distributions indicate p-value; n.s. = "not significant". Plus signs indicate statistical outliers.



563

Figure 4: Varying the maternal *dl* dose influences the Dl gradient. (A) Averaged and normalized Dl gradients in 1x, 2x, and 4x embryos. Averaged from n > 10 embryos. (B) Box-and-violin plot of the width of the Dorsal gradient in the genotypes shown in (A). Numbers below distributions indicate sample size. Numbers above indicate p-values. (C) Graph of Dl gradients with best-fit amplitudes for the 1x and 4x gradients, with respect to the 2x gradient set to amplitude of one. (D) Contour plot of the SSE with respect to the amplitude of the 1x gradient (α_{1x}) and that of the 4x gradient α_{4x} . Red dot: the set of best-fit amplitudes. Red curves show the contours of the objective function landscape.



572

573Figure 5: Computational results. (A). Concentration distribution of free DI for one of the robust parameter sets for574dosage 1x,2x and 4x. (B). Cumulative distribution plot for length scale ratio (ρ) (C). Cumulative distribution plot of575the Michaelis Menten constant (κ) (D). Plot of Amplitude ratio 1x/2x against length scale ratio (E). Plot of Amplitude576ration 2x/4x against length scale ratio (F). Plot of Amplitude ratio 1x/2x against κ (G). Plot of length scale ratio 2x/4x577against κ .

- **Table 1**: Average gene expression locations or DI gradient widths in 1x, 2x, and 4x embryos. The percent columns
- are the absolute percent change from wildtype.

Property	1x	1x (%)	2x (wt)	4x	4x (%)
sna boundary	0.17	14	0.2	0.19	4
sog ventral boundary	0.17	11	0.19	0.21	10
sog dorsal boundary	0.45	5	0.47	0.51	8
DI gradient width	0.13	15	0.15	0.17	11