# Noncanonical expression of *caudal* during early embryogenesis in the pea aphid *Acyrthosiphon pisum*: maternal *cad*-driven posterior development is not conserved

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#### Abstract

Previously we identified anterior localization of *hunchback* (*Aphb*) mRNA in oocytes and early embryos of the parthenogenetic and viviparous pea aphid *Acyrthosiphon pisum*, suggesting that the breaking of anterior asymmetry in the oocytes leads to the formation of the anterior axis in embryos. In order to study posterior development in the asexual pea aphid, we cloned and analysed the developmental expression of *caudal* (*Apcad*), a posterior gene highly conserved in many animal phyla. We found that transcripts of *Apcad* were not detected in germaria, oocytes and embryos prior to the formation of the blastoderm in the asexual (viviparous) pea aphid. This

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unusual expression pattern differs from that of the existing insect models, including long- and shortgerm insects, where maternal *cad* mRNA is passed to the early embryos and forms a posterior–anterior gradient. The first detectable *Apcad* expression occurred in the newly formed primordial germ cells and their adjacent blastodermal cells during late blastulation. From gastrulation onward, and as in other insects, *Apcad* mRNA is restricted to the posteriormost region of the germ band. Similarly, in the sexual (oviparous) oocytes we were able to identify anterior localization of *Aphb* mRNA but posterior localization of *Apcad* was not detected. This suggests that *cad*-driven posterior development is not conserved during early embryogenesis in asexual and sexual pea aphids.

Keywords: *caudal*, posterior axis, parthenogenetic viviparous, asymmetric localization, *hunchback*.

# Introduction

Establishment of the body axes is crucial to pattern formation in animals. In model organisms such as Drosophila melanogaster (fly; Lall & Patel, 2001), Danio rerio (zebrafish; Langdon & Mullins, 2011), and Xenopus laevis (frog; Weaver & Kimelman, 2004), body axes are preformed in the oocytes via asymmetric localization of maternal factors; this key process is required to break the egg symmetry before fertilization. The nematode Caenorhabditis elegans adopts similar mechanisms to specify the body axes but asymmetric partitioning of maternal factors such as Par proteins in the single cell eggs, is induced by fertilization (Pellettieri & Seydoux, 2002). In Mus musculus (mouse), however, a preformed body axis has not been identified in the oocytes and it is believed that axis determination is accomplished by serial specification of cell lineages under multiple cellular environments (Takaoka & Hamada, 2012).

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Of all animal models, the molecular networks involved in axis formation are best understood for Drosophila. In Drosophila, establishment of both anterior-posterior (AP) and dorsal-ventral (DV) axes is initiated by the signalling of Gurken (Grk), a transforming growth factor  $\alpha$ -like epidermal growth factor ligand, from oocytes to follicle cells in the posterior and dorsal regions, respectively. During midoogenesis, the nucleus positioned at the posterior cortex of the oocyte triggers Grk signalling into the follicle cells. Afterwards, signals delivered back to the oocvte reorganize the polarization of the cytoskeleton (Gonzalez-Reyes et al., 1995), facilitating the asymmetric localization of bicoid (bcd) mRNA to the anterior and oskar (osk) mRNA to the posterior for establishing the AP axis. The nucleus then migrates toward the anterior dorsal region, secreting grk mRNA to break the DV symmetry and then drive a molecular cascade to establish DV polarity (Kugler & Lasko, 2009).

Nevertheless, it is clear that bcd, an anterior determinant in Drosophila, is a recent invention of dipterans and posterior localization of osk mRNA can only be identified in holometabolous insects (Stauber et al., 2002; Lynch & Desplan, 2003; Extavour, 2011; Lynch et al., 2011). In Gryllus bimaculatus (cricket), a hemimetabolus insect model, expression of osk was recently identified in neuroblasts of the brain and central nervous system; however, osk was neither posteriorly localized in the oocytes nor specifically expressed in germ cells (Ewen-Campen et al., 2012). This implies that asymmetrically localized molecules for establishing the AP axis may vary within insect species. For example, in the wasp Nasonia vitripennis (Hymenoptera) breaking of asymmetry is evidenced by the posterior localization of osk (Lynch et al., 2011), nanos (nos) and caudal (cad) mRNAs (Olesnicky & Desplan, 2007). Maternal orthodenticle (otd) mRNA is localized to the anterior as well as the posterior poles of late oocytes and early embryos prior to blastoderm formation. Functional analyses show that: (1) the synergistic interaction between otd and hunchback (hb) specifies anterior development (Lynch et al., 2006); and (2) osk, nos and cad are involved in germline specification and posterior determination (Olesnicky et al., 2006; Lynch & Desplan, 2010; Lynch et al., 2011).

In contrast to the long-germ insects such as *Drosophila* and *Nasonia*, where all body segments are specified almost simultaneously by gastrulation, how the AP axis of the embryo relates to the AP polarity of the egg is much less understood in short-germ insects such as the beetle *Tribolium castaneum* (Coleoptera), where the formation of posterior segments requires a secondary phase of growth in the abdomen (Schröder *et al.*, 2008). In *Tribolium*, serious defects of development in the head, thorax and anterior abdomen were identified in larvae subjected to parental RNA interference (RNAi) against both *hb* and *otd* 

(Schröder, 2003). This suggests that synergistic interaction between hb and otd specifies anterior development in Tribolium as bcd does in Drosophila, although anterior localization of hb and otd mRNA in oocytes and early eggs was not detected (Wolff et al., 1995; Schröder, 2003). Recent studies show that axin mRNA, which encodes a negative regulator of the Wnt signalling pathway, is localized to the anterior pole of the newly laid eggs and knockdown of axin causes anterior defects in progeny (Fu et al., 2012): however, whether there exists a posterior determinant in the egg remains uncertain. Although parental RNAi of nos, a conserved posterior determinant in insects, can cause defects in abdominal segmentation, how nos is patterned in eggs and early embryos requires further clarification in Tribolium (Schmitt-Engel et al., 2012). Similarly, although accumulation of nos mRNA and Nos protein is identified in the posterior region of eggs and embryonic primordia in the grasshopper Schistocerca americana (Lall et al., 2003), a short-germ insect like Tribolium, functional analysis of nos is critical to the understanding of whether the establishment of egg polarity can affect the formation of the embryonic axis in the posterior area.

In the parthenogenetic and viviparous pea aphid Acyrthosiphon pisum, a hemimetabolous hemipteran without orthologues of bcd and osk (Shigenobu et al., 2010), we have identified anterior localization of hb (Aphb) mRNA in the oocytes and early embryos prior to gastrulation. This supports the existence of a preformed anterior axis in the asexual pea aphid (Huang et al., 2010). Posterior localization of Nos was not observed in the oocytes and its appearance was first detected later in egg chambers undergoing nuclear division - a developmental status designated as the onset of embryogenesis in the asexual ovarian tubules (ovarioles) (Chang et al., 2006). This is so far the earliest posterior polarity we can identify in the asexual pea aphid, suggesting that either we have not found a posterior molecule concurrently localized with the anterior hb mRNA or formation of the anterior polarity precedes that of the posterior polarity. In order to understand whether the posterior polarity is formed as early as the anterior polarity in the asexual pea aphid, we studied the developmental expression of cad because: (1) homologues of cad have been widely identified in animal phyla and their roles in posterior development are highly conserved (Copf et al., 2004; McGregor et al., 2009); (2) the anterior localization of Aphb implies that the asexual pea aphid may specify the AP axis by localizing transcripts of Drosophila homologues in directing anterior and posterior development (Huang et al., 2010), and cad is one of the posterior candidates; and (3) in Nasonia localization of cad mRNA is restricted to the oosome (germ plasm) in the posterior region of oocytes and early embryos (Olesnicky et al., 2006), suggesting that posterior localization of cad mRNA can be detected in some insects with a preformed

germ plasm in the egg posterior, and the asexual pea aphid, known to possess a posteriorly localized germ plasm (Chang *et al.*, 2006), may be such a case.

In Drosophila, cad is transcribed both maternally and zygotically (Mlodzik et al., 1985). Maternal cad mRNA is first detected in the nurse cells during early oogenesis, and then is transported to the oocytes from mid-oogenesis onward. Even distribution of cad mRNA remains in oocytes and syncytia before cellularization. During the 13th nuclear division. cad mRNA is down-regulated in the anterior region and a posterior-to-anterior gradient of cad transcripts is displayed in syncytia undergoing cellularization. Soon after the beginning of gastrulation, the zygotic cad mRNA is restricted to a stripe 3-5 cells in width near the posterior pole of the egg chamber. During further development - from extension to retraction of the germ band the cad-positive cells are located in the posteriormost region of the embryo, which will then differentiate into the hindgut and terminal structures of the abdomen (Mlodzik et al., 1985; Mlodzik & Gehring, 1987). The restriction of transcripts to the posterior end of the germ band has become a signature of cad genes in Drosophila as well as other insects mentioned above, regardless of long- or short-germ developmental modes (Copf et al., 2004). If pea aphids adopted this conserved feature of cad, we expected to label the posteriormost part of the newly cellularized germ band, which was neither morphologically prominent nor marked, using antisense riboprobes of posterior genes such as Apnos (Chang et al., 2009) in the asexual pea aphid.

Accordingly, in order to understand posterior determination and posterior development in the asexual pea aphid, we have cloned the aphid orthologue of the *cad* gene (*Apcad*) and detected its developmental expression using *in situ* hybridization. Through the analysis of *Apcad* expression, we found conserved and divergent roles of the *cad* gene that help enlighten how the aphid posterior is patterned in the asexual phase of reproduction. We also detected the co-expression of *Aphb* and *Apcad* in both asexual and sexual ovaries, with the aim of understanding how anterior (*Aphb*) and posterior (*Apcad*) genes are patterned in these two distinct types of eggs.

# Results

## Cloning and sequence analysis of the Apcad gene

Cloning and sequencing of *cad* homologues in the pea aphid was begun before the *A. pisum* genome sequence was available. We used a degenerate PCR approach to amplify sequences encoding the conserved homeodomain of Cad/Cdx (vertebrate Cad) proteins. These amplified a single PCR product, which we cloned and sequenced. Sequence alignment showed that 41 out of the 60 amino acids in the cloned sequence were identical to homeodomains of other Cad/Cdx proteins, with a similarity of amino acid residues of up to 80% (Fig. 1A). This suggests that our cloned sequence, designated as *Apcad*, is a *cad* homologue. Using rapid amplification of cDNA ends (RACE) PCR, we extended this sequence by an additional 271 base pairs (bp) outside the homeodomain. In total, we cloned and sequenced 451 bp of the *Apcad* gene (Fig. 1B) and this DNA fragment was used as a template for synthesizing an antisense riboprobe to detect the expression of *Apcad* mRNA.

Our degenerate PCR products contained only a single sequence, and there was no experimental indication of other cad-like sequences. After the aphid genome became available, we used nucleotide and protein BLAST to compare our cloned sequence to the aphid genome assembly (version 1, then version 2) both at the National Center for Bioinformation technology (NCBI; http://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi) and on Ensembl Genomes (http://metazoa.ensembl.org/Acyrthosiphon pisum/blastview). For both nucleotide and protein BLAST searches our cloned sequence matched, with 100% identity, a single locus in the aphid genome (NCBI Reference Sequence XM\_003244354.1, NCBI reference protein XP 003244402.1, NCBI and AphidBase locus LOC100574453). This result is also consistent with that of Shigenobu et al. (2010), who reported only a single cadlike gene in version 1 of the aphid genome assembly. Our results thus strongly suggest that the pea aphid has a single copy of the cad gene. Our results also confirm experimentally that the gene models used to identify genes and splice junctions in the sequenced genome are, at least for this gene, accurate.

# Developmental expression of Apcad mRNA during early development

The asexual pea aphid produces offspring parthenogenetically and viviparously. Accordingly, in each ovariole developing embryos are accommodated within the egg chambers in an assembly-line fashion (Blackman, 1978). As with telotrophic ovarioles in other insects, germaria containing trophocytes (nurse cells) are located to the anteriormost region of the ovariole in the asexual pea aphid and oocytes adjacent to the germaria are derived from the posterior trophocytes (Fig. 2A). Via maturation division of nuclei, oogenesis then enters into embryogenesis without the cost of fertilization (Miura *et al.*, 2003). Surprisingly, in germaria, oocytes, and embryos prior to the cellularization of blastoderm we did not detect the expression of *Apcad* mRNA (Fig. 2A, B).

We first detected *Apcad* expression in the posterior region of the cellularized blastoderm. The *Apcad*-positive region, which was 2–3 cells in width, covered several posterior blastodermal cells, newly segregated primordial



Figure 1. The *Apcad* gene. (A) Alignment of the homeodomain sequence of the ApCad protein against that of 10 other Caudal proteins across invertebrates and vertebrates. Identical amino acid sequences are boxed in black; grey boxes indicate sequence identity >50%. Fifteen amino acids in the C-terminus of the grasshopper Caudal homeodomain are not reported in the database. Species names and GenBank accession numbers of proteins are: aphid (*Acyrthosiphon pisum*, XP\_003244402.1 (genome) and HF564623 (the present report)), fly (*Drosophila melanogaster*, NP\_476954.1), wasp (*Nasonia vitripennis*, ABK39927.1), silkworm (*Bombyx mori*, NP\_001037514.1), beetle (*Tribolium castaneum*, NP\_001034498.1), cricket (*Gryllus bimaculatus*, BAD51739.1), grasshopper (*Schistocerca gregaria*, AAK56940.1), shrimp (*Artemia franciscana*, CAD98862.1), zebrafish (*Danio rerio*, NP\_001092232.1), chicken (*Gallus gallus*, NP\_99007.2), mouse (*Mus musculus*, NP\_034010.3). (B) Genomic structure of *Apcad* as annotated in AphidBase (http://www.aphidbase.com/aphidbase/). Grey boxes, together with the black boxes that encode the homeodomain (HD), represent the coding regions. Clear boxes are the untranslated regions (UTRs). Blue boxes represent 451 base pairs (bp) of sequence from our PCR and 5'-rapid amplification of cDNA ends PCR experiments. Arrow: transcription initiation site; ATG: start codon; TGA: stop codon. Lengths (from 5' to 3'): 5' UTR, 982 bp; coding sequences, 1047 bp; 3' UTR, 1057 bp. Scale bar, 500 bp.

germ cells (PGCs), and cells anteriorly adjacent to PGCs. Most of the *Apcad* transcripts were restricted to the PGCs (Fig. 2C). In addition, we used reverse transcription (RT)-PCR – a method more sensitive than *in situ* hybridization – to verify whether there was any residual expression of *Apcad* in early embryos. The RT-PCR results corresponded exactly to those carried out using *in situ* hybridization: expression of *Apcad* was not detected in germaria, oocytes and embryos prior to blastulation (Fig. 2D, E). This result shows that trophocytes in the germaria do not synthesize *Apcad* mRNA and that it is not passed to the oocytes and early embryos via the trophic cord.

Later, when all of the PGCs were aggregated near the centre of the egg chamber, expression of *Apcad* was elevated in one side of the posterior blastoderm (Fig. 2F, F'). When gastrulation began, *Apcad* expression was down-regulated in the PGCs (Fig. 2G). Moreover, we observed that strong signals of *Apcad* continued in the invaginating blastoderm flanking the blastopore (Fig. 2G, G') – the initial opening for gastrulation and the entry of the endosymbiotic bacteria (endosymbionts) in the asexual pea aphid. However, the intensity of *Apcad* signals on the other side, which remained uninvaginated, was much weaker (Fig. 2G). In order to fully clarify

whether preferential expression of *Apcad* occurs in the dorsal or ventral regions, molecular markers specific to cells in these two distinct areas are required but they are not yet available in the pea aphid. Nevertheless, as invagination of blastoderm occurs asynchronously in the asexual pea aphid and it is the dorsal blastoderm that first invaginates, later followed by the ventral blastoderm (Miura *et al.*, 2003), we infer that *Apcad* expression initially identified in the invaginating blastoderm is located on the dorsal side.

After the ventral blastoderm had folded inside the embryonic cavity, we could detect *Apcad* signals in the bilateral invaginating blastoderm with almost equivalent intensity (Fig. 2H). This indicates that the upsurge of the transcription level of *Apcad* in the dorsal and ventral invaginating blastoderm is not synchronous. Whether the increase of *Apcad* expression drives the invagination or whether *Apcad* expression is induced in the invaginating blastoderm remain open questions. Moreover, we found that both patches of the invaginating blastoderm became associated with each other, except in the region penetrated by the invading endosymbionts (Fig. 2H'). Expression of *Apcad* was not detected in germ cells after bilateral blastoderm invagination (Fig. 2H, H').



Figure 2. Developmental expression of Apcad mRNA during oogenesis and early embryogenesis. Unless otherwise noted, all embryos shown in this and other figures were produced asexually. (A)-(H) and (H'): single in situ of Apcad; (F'): double in situ of Apcad and Apvas1. Except (H'), where primordial germ cells (PGCs) are not shown in the focal plane, locations of PGCs are marked with dashed lines. Anterior region of egg chambers is to the left. Panels (A')-(C'), and (G') are nuclear staining of the preparations in (A)-(C) and (G), respectively. (A) Germaria and segregated oocytes (stage 1). (B) Embryos undergoing early syncytial synchronous nuclear divisions (stage 3). Expression of Apcad was not detected. (C) Embryos with newly formed PGCs (stage 6). Arrowheads indicate the expression of Apcad in germ cells with morphologically identifiable polar granules; hollow arrowheads designate weak expression of Apcad in cells that are adjacent to the segregated germ cells. (D, E) Comparison of Apcad expression between embryos before and after stage 4 of development. Group 1: germaria, oocytes and embryos at or before stage 4 of development; Group 2: embryos at or older than stage 5 of development. (D) outline of dissection. (E) Results of reverse transcription PCR. Apcad expression was not detected in Group 1 but it was detected in Group 2. Apvas1, positive control; Aprpl7, internal control. (F, F') Embryos with segregated PGCs (late stage 6). Apcad expression became more prominent in one side of the posterior blastoderm (arrowhead) adjacent to the PGCs specifically labelled by the Apvas1 riboprobe (blue, panel (F')). Weak expression of Apcad was detected in blastodermal cells located at the opposite side (hollow arrowhead). In (F'), Apcad signals in PGCs could not be clearly distinguished because they were quenched by the colocalized Apvas1 signals (blue). (G, G') Incorporation of the maternal endosymbionts (stage 7) and early gastrulation (stage 8). Preferential expression of Apcad (arrowhead) was identified in the newly invaginating blastoderm located dorsally. Few transcripts of Apcad were detected in the ventral blastoderm that had not invaginated inward (hollow arrowhead). In (G'), yellow box marks Apcad expression in the dorsal invaginating blastoderm. (H, H') Beginning of germ band invagination (stage 9). In (H), expression of Apcad mRNA with almost equivalent intensity was detected in blastoderm invaginating both dorsally and ventrally (arrowheads). Panel (H') shows another stage-9 embryo taken at a different focal plane, displaying the closer proximity of the bilateral patches of invaginating germ band that expressed Apcad mRNA (arrowhead). Entry of endosymbionts is marked with arrows from panels (G) to (H'). Bac, bacteria; Dn, dividing nuclei; En. Fc, enlarged follicle cells; Fc, follicle cells; Gc, germ cells; Gl, germarial lumen; Gm, germaria; Nc, nurse cells; On, oocyte nucleus; Ps. Bl., posterior blastoderm; PBN, presumptive bacteriocyte nuclei; St, stages. Scale bar, 20 µm.

# Developmental expression of Apcad mRNA during midand late development

In most insects, the differentiation of dorsal and ventral districts becomes prominent during gastrulation: the

dorsal blastoderm becomes thinner and later further differentiates into the serosa; the ventral blastoderm becomes thickened and gives rise to the germ band. Like the early gastrula shown in Fig. 2H, the extending tips of both dorsal and ventral invaginating blastoderm, the germ





**Figure 3.** Developmental expression of *Apcad* mRNA during invagination and elongation of the germ band. Dissected ovarioles were hybridized with digoxigenin-labelled *Apcad* and fluorescein-labelled *Apvas1* antisense riboprobes concurrently. Colour keys indicating expression signals of *Apcad* and *Apvas1* are shown under the figure. Anterior region of egg chambers is to the left; dorsal is upper. Embryos in (A) and (B) are presented dorso-laterally; embryo in (C) is a lateral view. Panels (A') to (C') are nuclear stains of preparations shown in (A) to (C), respectively. Arrowheads, expression of *Apcad* mRNA; hollow arrowheads, locations of the cephalic lobes; arrows, furrows between invaginating germ band [not shown in the focal plane of (B')]. (A, B) Invagination and bending of the germ band (stages 9 and 10). Expression of *Apcad* mRNA was restricted to the posteriormost region of the egg chamber. Discontinuity of the series and the presumptive cephalic lobe, a morphological feature of stage-10 embryos (B), is indicated with a hollow arrow. (C) Elongation of the germ band (S-shaped embryo, stage 11). In contrast to the embryos shown in (A) and (B), the cephalic lobe of the stage-11 embryos has migrated more posteriorly in the egg chamber and the elongating germ band folds into an S shape. Expression of *Apcad* remains at the posterior tip of the germ band. Abbreviations: Bac, bacteria; B. Nc, nuclei of the bacteriocytes; Gc, germ cells; S. M., serosal membrane; St, stage. Scale bar, 20 µm.

band in mid- and late gastrula embryos designated by Miura *et al.* (2003), expressed *Apcad* (Fig. 3A, B). Later, when the germ band extended as an S-shaped embryo (an embryonic structure that is formed by the invagination of the germ band and the inversion of the AP axis), we identified *Apcad* transcripts restricted to the posteriormost region (Fig. 3C). Because no furrows were visible within the *Apcad*-positive region of S-shaped embryos, we infer that it was fused by the dorsal and ventral tips of the invaginating germ band expressing *Apcad* (Fig. 3A, B) or even earlier during early gastrulation (Fig. 2H'). Our inference is supported by Will (1888) and Hagan (1951), where the realization of the 'closed blastopore' evidenced the fusion of dorsal and ventral tips of the invaginating germ band (Will, 1888; Hagan, 1951).

While the germ band continued to extend, *Apcad* expression persisted in the posterior terminal region of the abdomen (Fig. 4A–D). We observed that the ratio of *Apcad*-positive area to the posterior abdomen became reduced after katatrepsis [embryo flip (Fig. 4C)]. This might be caused by the expansion of the abdominal termini or by the reduction of *Apcad*-positive cell numbers. In mature embryos after germ band retraction, we identified *Apcad* transcripts restricted to the final segment of

the abdomen (Fig. 4D, E) and the posterior proctodeum [hindgut (Fig. 4F)].

# Comparison of Aphb and Apcad expressions in asexual and sexual ovarioles

We extended the detection of *Apcad* expression in the sexual (oviparous) ovarioles to understand how maternal *Apcad*, if there was any, was patterned in the oocytes. Meanwhile, we examined the expression of *hb* (*Aphb*) using double *in situ* hybridization to explore whether a preformed AP axis, which could be implicated by the asymmetric localization of *Aphb* and *Apcad* mRNAs, existed in the sexual oocytes.

In comparison with asexual (viviparous) ovarioles (Fig. 5A), the sexual ovarioles have fewer egg chambers, usually 1–3 per ovariole, but the germaria and oocytes are up to fivefold larger (Fig. 5B–D, G–J). In asexual ovarioles, *Aphb* mRNA was expressed in the germaria and localized to the anterior pole of developing oocytes as well as to the egg chambers accommodating early embryos (stage 3 in Fig. 5A) (Huang *et al.*, 2010). Nevertheless, while anterior localization of *Aphb* was detected, concurrent localization of *Apcad* mRNA in the posterior region



mRNA before and after katatrepsis (embrvo flip). Dissected ovarioles were hybridized with digoxigenin (DIG)-labelled Apcad and fluorescein-labelled Apvas1 antisense riboprobes concurrently. Colour keys indicating expression signals of Apcad and Apvas1 are shown under the figure. Anterior region of egg chambers is to the left; dorsal is upper. Before katatrepsis, the embryonic head is located in the egg posterior; after katatrepsis, it is located in the egg anterior. All views are lateral except those in panels (D) to (F), where embryos are presented dorsally. Panels (A') to (D') and panel (G') are nuclear stains of preparations shown in panels (A) to (D) and panel (G), respectively. (A) Extending germ band prior to katatrepsis (stage 14). (B) Initiation of katatrepsis (stage 15), (C) Completion of katatrepsis (stage 16). (D) Germ band retraction completed (stage 18). Expression of Apcad was detected in the posteriormost region of the germ band (arrowheads). In (D), the Apcad expression observed in the anteriormost region was non-specific signals in the extraembryonic membrane associated with the head. (E, F) Magnification of the posterior region displayed in (D). Images in panels (E) and (F) are shown at different focal planes. In (E), the arrowhead designates the preferential expression of Apcad in the central region of the last abdominal segment; hollow arrowheads label the weak expression in the adjacent area. In (F), arrow indicates the anterior boundary of the Apcad expression in the invaginating proctodeum (hindgut). (G) Negative control (-Ctrl). Ovarioles were hybridized with a DIG-labelled sense riboprobe of Apcad. No signals were detected. Abbreviations: Ab, abdomen; Ant, antenna; Bac, bacteria; Gc, germ cells; Hd, head; Th, thorax; St, stages. Scale bar, 20 µm.

Figure 4. Developmental expression of Apcad

was not identified. The first appearance of Apcad expression in the egg posterior was not detected until the anterior localization of Aphb became almost undetectable in the blastula (stage 6 in Fig. 5A). Using the same in situ hybridization conditions for detecting Apcad expression in asexual ovarioles (Fig. 5E), we did not identify Apcad mRNA expressed in the sexual ovarioles (Fig. 5B, C). In effect, our RT-PCR results showed that expression of Apcad was not detectable in the sexual ovaries dissected from the adult females (Fig. 5F). As in asexual ovarioles, we found that expression of Aphb mRNA was localized to the anterior pole of the previtellogenic oocytes in the sexual ovarioles (Fig. 5G). From vitellogenesis onward, we could even identify an AP gradient of Aphb in the anterior one fifth of the oocyte length (Fig. 5H). Additionally, in the sexual oocytes we did not identify

localization patterns of *Apvas1* or *Apnos1*, both of which are known to be germline-specific in asexual embryos (Chang *et al.*, 2007, 2009; Shigenobu *et al.*, 2010). Transcripts of *Apvas1* and *Apnos1* were evenly distributed in the previtellogenic (not shown) and vitellogenic oocytes (Fig. 5I, J).

Morphological structures of sexual ovarioles are presented and annotated in Fig. 5B'. An outline of *Apcad* expression during embryogenesis in the asexual pea aphid is shown in Fig. 6.

# Discussion

Most of the developmental genes involved in *Drosophila* segmentation are conserved among arthropods, but their hierarchical positions in the segmentation cascade show



Figure 5. Comparison of Aphb and Apcad expression between asexual and sexual ovarioles. All ovarioles were dissected from female adults. Anterior is to the left for all ovarioles; dorsal is up for the embryo shown in (E). (A): asexual ovarioles; (B)-(D) and (G)-(J): sexual ovarioles; (E): a stage-11 asexual embryo. Except ovarioles in (C) and (G), which are previtellogenic, all sexual ovarioles presented in this figure are vitellogenic. (A) Asexual ovarioles hybridized with antisense riboprobes of fluorescein-labelled Aphb and digoxigenin (DIG)-labelled Apcad. Aphb mRNA was localized to the anterior part of the unsegregated oocytes and uncellularized embryos (shown as the stage-3 embryo). In stage-6 embryos, where the cellular blastoderm is formed, anterior localization of Aphb is almost not identified (hollow arrowhead). Expression of Apcad mRNA, as shown in Figure 2, was detected in the posterior region of stage-6 embryos (bracket). The arrowhead indicates the preferential expression of Apcad. Primordial germ cells (PGCs) with weak expression of Apcad are marked with dashed lines. Compared with Figure 2F, Apcad signals in PGCs were further down-regulated here in a late stage-6 embryo. In situ signals of Apcad and Aphb are indicated with colour keys. (B, C) Sexual ovarioles hybridized with antisense riboprobes of DIG-labelled Apcad. (B') is nuclear staining of (B). Transcripts of Apcad were not identified in either previtellogenic (B) or vitellogenic ovarioles (C). (D) Negative control (-Ctrl). Ovarioles were hybridized with a DIG-labelled sense riboprobe of Apcad. No signals were detected. (E) Positive control (+Ctrl). Asexual ovarioles were hybridized with the same batch of Apcad probes used in sexual in situs of (B) and (C), demonstrating that Apcad can mark the posteriormost region (arrowhead) of germ band. (F) Comparison of Apcad expression between dissected ovarioles (do) and whole bodies (wb) of sexual adult females using reverse transcription PCR. Expression of Apcad was not detected in sexual ovarioles but it was detected in RNA extracted from whole organisms. Apvas1, positive control; Aprpl7, internal control. (G, H) Sexual ovarioles hybridized with antisense riboprobes of DIG-labelled Aphb. In both previtellogenic (G) and vitellogenic (H) ovarioles, expression of Aphb mRNA could be detected in germaria and anterior region of oocytes. In (G), anterior localization of Aphb (arrow) was restricted to the anterior pole. In (H), expression of Aphb formed an anteroposterior gradient in the anterior one-fifth of the oocytes. Aphb mRNA localized to the anterior pole was indicated with arrows. (I, J) Sexual ovarioles hybridized with antisense riboprobes of DIG-labelled Apvas1 (I) and Apnos1 (J), respectively. Expression of Apvas1 and Apnos1 mRNA was identified in the germaria and oocytes. Abbreviations: Fc, follicle cells; Gl, germarial lumen; Gm, germaria; Nc, nurse cells; Oc, oocytes; On, oocyte nuclei; St, stages; Uo, un-segregated oocytes. Scale bar, 40 µm.

much diversity among different lineages. It is clear that the relative conservation of developmental genes fits an 'hourglass model', where the width of the hourglass is inversely proportional to the degree of conservation: maternal genes for axis determination, which are at the top of the cascade, have the least conservation; following maternal genes, the conservation index increases for gap genes, then pair-rule genes, and is highest in the segment



Apcad mRNA restricted to the posteriormost region of developing embryos (after katatrepsis)

Figure 6. Schematic illustration of Apcad expression during embryogenesis of the asexual pea aphid. Expression patterns of Apcad are illustrated according to staining results shown in Figs 1-5; staging of embryos is based upon morphological characteristics described by Miura et al. (2003). Anterior localization of Aphb is highlighted in embryos before stage 6 of development but Aphb expression in later stages, which is not anteriorly localized, is omitted. In situ signals of Apcad and Aphb are indicated with colour keys. For all egg chambers, anterior is to the left and dorsal is uppermost; embryos are presented laterally. The anterior-posterior (AP) axis in embryos between stages 11-14 is opposite to the AP orientation of the egg chambers. (A) Germaria, oocytes and early embryos (stages 0-8). We did not detect Apcad signals in germaria, oocytes, stages 0-4 embryos, and stage-5 embryos with few newly segregated cells in the posteriormost region of the blastoderm (data not shown). Apcad expression was first identified in germ cells and their surrounding blastoderm in the posterior region of the blastula (stage 6). Expression of Aphb was detected in the anterior pole of egg chambers from stages 0-5 but anterior localization of Aphb became nearly undetectable in the stage-6 embryos. During late blastulation (late stage 6), Apcad expression was down-regulated in the proliferating germ cells but it was elevated in the posterior blastoderm located dorsally. Asymmetric distribution of Apcad transcripts was detected in the stage 7-8 embryos: preferential expression of Apcad was restricted to the dorsal invaginating blastoderm while weaker expression was detected in the posterior ventral blastoderm prior to invagination. Arrow indicates the migration of endosymbionts. (B) Gastrulation, formation of the closed blastopore, and germ band extension (stages 9-14). Apcad-positive signals were located in both the dorsal and ventral invaginating germ band (stage 9). The exact timing of germ band fusion remains uncertain but the formation of the closed blastopore is completed in stage-10 embryos and, according to our data and Will (1888), the fused invaginating germ band expressing Apcad later becomes the growth zone in the stage-11 embryos. Arrows indicate the movement of the cephalic lobes and the invaginating germ band (Will, 1888; Huang et al., 2010). (C) Embryos during and after katatrepsis (stages 15-20). Apcad expression was restricted to the posteriormost region of the abdomen, regardless of the orientation of the embryos. Arrow indicates the contraction of the germ band. Abbreviations: Ab, abdomen; Am, amnion; Ant, antenna; Bac, bacteria; CI, cephalic lobe; CNS, central nervous system; DIB, dorsal invaginating blastoderm; Dn, dividing nuclei; Fc, follicle cells; Gc, germ cells; GI, germarial lumen; Hd, head; Nc, nurse cells; On, oocyte nucleus; S. M., serosal membrane (serosa); St, stages; Th, thorax; T1-T3, thoracic segments 1 to 3; VIB, ventral invaginating blastoderm.

polarity genes at the midpoint of the hourglass; the degree of conservation then decreases again in homeotic (*Hox*) genes that are involved in the specification of axial identities (Duboule, 1994; Peel *et al.*, 2005; Kalinka *et al.*, 2010). This model suggests that genes functioning before

blastoderm formation (maternal genes, gap genes) are less conserved than those functioning in a cellularized germ band undergoing segmentation (pair-rule genes, segment polarity genes). In this study we find that the expression of *Apcad* mRNA matches this evolutionary trend: *Apcad* expression prior to gastrulation differs in comparison to *cad* expression as described in other insects; after gastrulation, however, restriction of *Apcad* mRNA to the posteriormost region of the germ band adheres to the canonical role of *cad* genes in insects and other arthropods (Figs 3–5; 6B, C). In the following paragraphs we discuss the noncanonical patterns of *Apcad* expression and propose potential roles for *Apcad* during posterior development in the pea aphid.

In Drosophila (Mlodzik & Gehring, 1987), Nasonia (wasp; Olesnicky et al., 2006), Bombyx (silkworm; Xu et al., 1994), and Apis (honeybee; Wilson et al., 2010), all of which are insects containing polytrophic ovarioles, expression of cad mRNA can be identified in the cytoplasm of both nurse cells and oocytes. In addition to the polytrophic ovarioles, the presence of maternal cad mRNA in the telotrophic ovarioles of Tribolium (beetle) as well as in the panoistic ovarioles of Schistocerca (grasshopper) and Gryllus (cricket) has also been reported (Schulz et al., 1998; Dearden & Akam, 2001; Shinmyo et al., 2005). Functional analyses show that maternal cad mRNA deposited in the oocytes is involved in axis elongation and segmentation in early embryos of Drosophila, Nasonia, Tribolium and Gryllus (Mlodzik & Gehring, 1987; Shinmyo et al., 2005; Olesnicky et al., 2006; Schoppmeier et al., 2009). In contrast, the absence of Apcad mRNA in nurse cells and oocytes of the asexual pea aphid is exceptional (Figs 2A; 6A), indicating that Apcad does not play a role in early patterning. This inference is supported by the continuous absence of Apcad expression in early embryos prior to blastoderm formation (Figs 2B, E; 6A). After gastrulation, however, expression of Apcad mRNA is restricted to the growth zone of the elongating germ band. suggesting that Apcad conserves the canonical role of cad genes in axis elongation from mid-embryogenesis onward in the asexual pea aphid (Figs 3C; 4A-C; 6B, C).

The pea aphid becomes the third insect model, after Drosophila and Nasonia, in which germline expression of cad can be identified (Fig. 2C). One common feature of these three species is that specification of germ cells depends on a preformed germ plasm in the posterior region of the egg, but localization of *cad* mRNA to the germ plasm can only be found in Nasonia (Olesnicky et al., 2006). In Drosophila (Mlodzik & Gehring, 1987) and pea aphid (Figs 2C; 6A), cad mRNA is not particularly restricted to the germ plasm and germline expression of cad is first detected in the newly formed PGCs. However, whether cad is involved in the assembly of the germ plasm in Nasonia and whether cad is required for germline development in Drosophila remain unclear. In Nasonia, knockdown of cad through parental RNAi can cause laying of fewer eggs, implicating a role for cad in oogenesis (Olesnicky et al., 2006). In Drosophila, we have not found reports describing how germline development is affected in maternal (*cad<sup>mat</sup>*) or zygotic (*cad<sup>Eyg</sup>*) mutants for *cad*. This may be attributable to partial rescue between maternal and zygotic *cad* mRNA driven by different promoters (Mlodzik & Gehring, 1987); nonetheless, PGC development is seriously retarded in *cad<sup>mat+zyg</sup>* mutants owing to severe defects in the abdomen (Macdonald & Struhl, 1986). With regard to aphids, we have not been successful in silencing the embryonic expression of *Apcad* using RNAi, hence whether *Apcad* can regulate the early development of PGCs remains an open question.

In Drosophila, a high concentration of Hb protein in the anterior region inhibits the expression of cad mRNA whereas a lower concentration of Hb in one half of the egg posterior allows the formation of the cad abdominal domain (Schulz & Tautz, 1995). Similarly, hb prevents the expansion of cad expression to the anterior in Nasonia (Olesnicky et al., 2006). Taken together, this suggests that inhibition of cad expression by hb is a conserved mechanism in insects. In the asexual pea aphid, Apcad expression in the posterior region of the egg is first detectable just as anterior localization of Aphb vanishes (Huang et al., 2010), implying that maternal Aphb plays a conserved role in suppressing the expression of Apcad (Figs 5A; 6A). We hypothesize that the inhibition of Apcad expression is achieved by the ApHb protein expressed in germaria as well as early embryos prior to blastulation (Supplementary Fig. S1A). The transcriptional inhibition of Apcad may be largely suppressed by ApHb in the germarium, from which maternal transcripts are synthesized and transported to oocytes and early embryos via the trophic cord (Blackman, 1978). This is why transcripts of Apcad cannot be detected in germaria and embryos prior to blastulation (Fig. 2A, B, and E). Nevertheless, we cannot exclude the possibility that residual expression of Apcad is inhibited by ApHb within oocytes and early embryos in the asexual pea aphid.

The lack of Apcad expression prior to blastoderm formation in the asexual pea aphid indicates that Apcad has lost the ancestral functions of *cad* in regulating gap genes during early embryogenesis. This ancestral 'master organizer of patterning' role of cad has been reported in Nasonia (Olesnicky et al., 2006), Gryllus (Shinmyo et al., 2005), Tribolium (Schoppmeier et al., 2009), and Artemia franciscana (brine shrimp) (Copf et al., 2004). For example, in Gryllus, cad activates the gap genes hb and Krüppel (Kr) to form gnathal and thoracic segments (Shinmyo et al., 2005); in Nasonia, cad positions the posterior boundary of the anterior domain of hb via activating Kr expression (Olesnicky et al., 2006). Recently, expression of Ap-Kr has been identified in germaria, oocytes, and early embryos prior to blastulation (Duncan et al., 2013), all of which are locations devoid of Apcad staining in the asexual pea aphid (Fig. 2A, B). This suggests that Apcad, in contrast to the functions of cad in Grvllus and Nasonia. may not regulate the expression of Ap-Kr. Apcad might, of course, commence to regulation of gap genes after it is expressed from germ band extension onward in the asexual embryos. With regard to the potential roles of Apcad in sexual embryos, we have not yet obtained expression data of Apcad and other gap genes during sexual development and so can make no observations. Apart from the pea aphid, the loss of maternal cad expression in the lower cyclorrhaphan fly Megaselia abdita is so far the only case reported among published insect models (Stauber et al., 2008). Consequently, we would like to extend our study of cad genes to other aphid species, as well as to other hemipterans, to understand whether the loss of ancestral roles for cad during early development is a universal phenomenon among aphids or if it is even the norm in Hemiptera.

The absence of Apcad expression in early embryos indicates that Apcad is unlikely to be a posterior organizer in the asexual pea aphid. Similarly, Apotd, an orthologue of otd genes in the pea aphid (Huang et al., 2010), does not act as an anterior organizer because expression of Apotd mRNA, like Apcad mRNA, cannot be detected in early embryos prior to blastoderm formation. In contrast, the anterior and posterior organizers otd and cad have been identified in long-germ insects such as Nasonia (Lynch et al., 2006; Olesnicky et al., 2006) and short-germ insects such as Gryllus (Shinmyo et al., 2005; Nakamura et al., 2010), Tribolium (Copf et al., 2004; Kotkamp et al., 2010), and Bombyx (Nakao, 2012). This suggests that otd and cad retain their ancestral roles in directing AP patterning in most insects but some of their functions during early embryogenesis have been taken over by bcd and osk in highly derived species such Drosophila. If otd and cad do not act as AP organizers in the asexual pea aphid and if this species does not possess homologues of bcd and osk (Shigenobu et al., 2010), which genes can specify the AP development remains an open question. At present, we infer that Aphb is a potential anterior organizer because anterior localization of Aphb mRNA in oocytes and early embryos resembles the localization patterns of bcd in Drosophila, although hb and bcd are not homologous to each other (Huang et al., 2010). Localized Nos signals that were detected by a cross-reacting antibody in the posterior region of early embryos support the idea that nos might retain its conserved role as a posterior organizer in the asexual pea aphid (Chang et al., 2006). Among the four nos genes in the pea aphid we have so far not been able to identify which one confers the localized signals. Nevertheless, the noncanonical expression patterns of Apcad and Apotd strongly suggest that mechanisms involved in AP axis formation in the asexual pea aphid has been reprogrammed at the top level of the segmentation hierarchy.

#### **Experimental procedures**

#### Pea aphid culture

The parthenogenetic and viviparous pea aphids (Acyrthosiphon pisum) were derived from an obligate parthenogenetic clone in Taiwan, maintained on garden pea plants (Pisum sativum) at 20 °C in a growth chamber under a 16 h light/8h dark regime for >200 generations. Staging of embryonic development of the asexual embryos followed the scheme described by Miura et al. (2003). The local obligate parthenogenetic strain was used for cloning and in situ hybridization of Apcad, but this clone is obligately parthenogenetic and cannot be induced to reproduce sexually. We therefore detected the expression of Apcad mRNA in sexual ovaries dissected from the ApL strain maintained in Japan. Induction of sexual morphs was conducted under shortday conditions (8h light/16h dark). Details of induction were those described by Ishikawa et al. (2012). For both local and ApL strains, we sequenced 451 nucleotides of Apcad cDNA that were used as templates for synthesizing riboprobes. We compared Apcad sequences from three pea aphid strains: local (Taipei), ApL, and LSR1.AC.G1 (the aphid strain used for whole genome sequencing) (The International Aphid Genomics Consortium, 2010), and found that the sequences of the 451 nucleotides were all identical. This suggests that Apcad coding sequences are highly conserved among the pea aphid strains.

#### Cloning and reverse transcription-PCR of Apcad

Total RNA was extracted from dissected ovarioles of asexual and sexual adult pea aphids using the RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). Purified RNA was reverse transcribed into cDNA with poly dT<sub>18</sub> primers and StrataScript Reverse Transcriptase (Stratagene, La Jolla, CA, USA). RNA extraction and reverse transcription experiments were performed according to the manufacturers' instructions. Degenerate primers for PCR cloning were designed to match the conserved motifs flanking the homeobox sequences of Cad (Caudal)/Cdx (Cad-related homeobox) proteins: forward primer, 5'-ACCCGCACCAAGGATA AGTAC(A/C)G(A/C/G/T)GT(A/C/G/T)GT(A/C/G/T)TA-3' (encoding TRTKDKYRVV); reverse primer, 5'-CGGCGGTTCTGGAACC A(A/G/T)AT(C/T)TT-3' (encoding KIWFQNR). Experiments using 5' RACE-PCR were performed using the GeneRacer kit (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA). Primers for RACE-PCR were: (1) 5' RACE: forward primer, 5'-CGACTGGAGCACGAGGACA CTGA-3' (GeneRacer<sup>™</sup> 5' primer); forward nested primer, 5'-GGACACTGACATGGACTGAAGGAGTA-3' (GeneRacer™ 5' nested primer); reverse primer, 5'-GCGGTCGAATATAAGCTC ATATCG-3' (located in the 3' untranslated region (Fig. 1B)); primer, 5'-AGGCTCAGCATTTTGGAC-3' reverse nested (encoding LSKMLSL); (2) 3'-RACE PCR: forward primer, 5'-TATACACCGACTTGCAGCG-3' (encoding VYTDLQR); forward nested primer, 5'-AACCGATACATCACGATCAC-3' (encoding NRYITI); reverse primer, 5'-GCTGTCAACGATACG CTACGTAACG-3' (GeneRacer<sup>™</sup> 3' primer); reverse nested primer, 5'-CGCTACGTAACGGCATGACAGTG-3' (GeneRacer™ 3' nested primer). Sequences were aligned using MacVector version 7.2.2 (Accelrys Inc., San Diego, CA, USA).

The RT-PCR was performed using cDNA reverse transcribed from RNA of ovarian and somatic tissues. Egg chambers in the asexual ovarioles were separated with a black enameled pin (diameter: 0.25 mm; Entomoravia, Slavkov u Brna, Czech

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Republic). Dissection was on the follicular stalks between egg chambers younger/older than stage 5 of development (a developmental stage with morphologically identifiable PGCs) (Miura et al., 2003). Total RNA was extracted from germaria and dissected egg chambers of 10 adults (equivalent to 120~140 ovarioles) using the EasyPure Total RNA Reagent TRI-100 (Bioman, Taipei, Taiwan). Input quantity of total RNA for each RT reaction (20 µl) was 0.6 µg, reverse transcribed with HiScript I reverse transcriptase (Bionovas, Toronto, Canada) and poly dT<sub>18</sub> primers. cDNA in 1  $\mu$ l of the RT products served as template for a PCR reaction (10 µl; condition: 94 °C for 5 min, followed by 29 cycles at 94 °C for 30 s, 60 °C for 30 s, 72 °C for 1 min and, finally, 72 °C for 10 min). RNA extraction and RT-PCR on sexual aphids followed the same conditions performed in the asexual morphs. Gene-specific primers designed for the RT-PCR were: Apcad: 5'-ACTGGCCACCCGTACAGCAGC-3' (forward), 5'-GCGGTCG AATATAAGCTCATATCG-3' (reverse), amplicon: 451 bp; Apvas1: 5'-ATGTCTGACGGTGGTTGGGATG-3' (forward), 5'-GGGCAG TAGCCATCATATCTCGTC-3' (reverse), amplicon: 616 bp, positive control (Chang et al., 2007); ribosomal protein like 7 (Aprpl7): 5'-AATCAAGGGACAACGCATTCC-3' (forward), 5'-ATTGGTCT TCTTACGCCAGCCTCC-3' (reverse), amplicon: 193 bp, internal control (Nakabachi et al., 2005).

#### Whole-mount in situ hybridization and histology

We transcribed antisense and sense riboprobes of *Apcad*, *Aphb*, and *Apvas1* using linearized plasmids as templates. Sequences of *Apcad* riboprobes were equivalent to those amplified by RT-PCR as above. Riboprobes of *Aphb* and *Apvas1* were synthesized according to the methods described in Huang *et al.* (2010) and Chang *et al.* (2007). Digoxigenin (DIG)-labelled uridine triphosphates were incorporated into the *Apcad* probes using the DIG RNA Labeling Kit (SP6/T7; Roche, Basel, Switzerland). An antisense riboprobe of *Aphb* used in single and double *in situ* assays was labelled with the Fluorescein (FLU) Labeling Mix (Roche), as was the *Apvas1* antisense riboprobe added to the double *in situs*. Hybridization was carried out at 68 °C overnight for all riboprobes used in this study.

All riboprobes labeled with DIG/FLU uridine triphosphates were detected with anti-DIG/FLU Fab fragments conjugated with alkaline phosphatase. For single in situs of Apcad (Fig. 2A-C, F-H'), Aphb (Fig. 5G, H), Apvas1 (Fig. 5I), and Apnos1 (Fig. 5J), we developed signals with the substrate Nitroblue tetrazolium (NBT)/5-bromo-4-chloro-3-indolyl phosphate (BCIP; Roche). Substrate combinations for double in situ assays were designed as follows: (1) Apcad, NBT/BCIP; Apvas1, 4-benzoylamino-2,5-diethoxybenzenediazonium chloride hemi[zinc chloride] (Fast Blue BB) salt/naphthol-AS-MXphosphate (NAMP; Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA) (Figs 2F'; 3; 4); (2) Apcad, NBT/BCIP; Aphb, 2-[4-lodophenyl]-3-[4nitrophenyl]-5-phenyl-tetrazolium chloride (INT)/BCIP (Sigma) (Fig. 5A). Concentrations of substrates and protocols for in situ hybridizations followed Chang et al. (2008). Nuclear counterstaining was carried out with DAPI (2 ng/ml; Sigma). We produced Nomarski images of each sample preparation using a Leica DMR (Leica, Wetzlar, Germany) connected to a Canon EOS 5D MarkII digital camera (Canon, Tokyo, Japan). Photos of DAPI staining were taken with the C-Apo 40X/1.2 water lens linked to a Zeiss LSM510 META laser-scanning microscope (Carl Zeiss, Jena, Germany).

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# **Supporting Information**

Additional Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article at the publisher's web-site:

**Figure S1.** Developmental expression of ApHb protein during oogenesis and early embryogenesis in the asexual pea aphid. Germaria and anterior region of egg chambers are to the left. Immunostaining protocols were as described by Chang *et al.* (2006). (A) Ovarioles stained with affinity-purified antibody against ApHb protein. Staining signals of ApHb were identified in germaria and cytoplasm of embryos undergoing nuclear division (here we present staining results in stage-3 embryos as an example). Intensity of ApHb signals declined in embryos undergoing blastulation (stages 5–6 of development). Arrowhead and hollow arrowhead indicate places where localization of *Aphb* mRNA was shown in stage-3 and stage-6 embryos in Fig. 5A, respectively. (B) Negative control. Ovarioles were stained without the application of primary antibody. No staining signals were detected. For abbreviations please refer the legend of Fig. 2. Scale bar, 20  $\mu$ m.