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Evolution and loss of β -catenin and TCF-dependent axis specification in insects

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Summary

Mechanisms and evolution of primary axis specification in insects are discussed in the context of the roles of β -catenin and TCF in polarizing metazoan embryos. Three hypotheses are presented. First, insects with sequential segmentation and posterior growth use cell-autonomous mechanisms for establishing embryo polarity via the nuclear ratio of β -catenin and TCF. Second, TCF homologs establish competence for anterior specification. Third, the evolution of simultaneous segmentation mechanisms, also known as long-germ development, resulted in primary axis specification mechanisms that are independent of β -catenin but reliant on TCF, a condition that preceded the frequent replacement of anterior determinants in long germ insects.

Introduction

Many animals use β -catenin to polarize embryo development [1, 2]. This molecule is a conserved structural component of cadherin-based adherens junctions, but it also functions as a transcriptional co-factor and regulator of chromatin structure [3, 4]. Accumulation of β -catenin in the nucleus is regulated by a cytoplasmic β -catenin destruction complex, which can be disrupted by Wnt signaling (canonical Wnt signaling) [5] or independent of Wnt ligands through various lineage-specific mechanisms [6–10]. Disassembly of the destruction complex causes nuclear β -catenin levels to rise and can induce the formation of ectopic axial organizers in organisms as diverse as juvenile sponges [11, 12], cnidarians [13–16], sea urchins [9, 10, 17], and vertebrates [6]. It is also required for establishing anterior-posterior polarity in regenerating bilaterians [18–21]. Therefore, β -catenin-dependent primary axis specification is likely a shared heritage of the Metazoa. While in general peak levels of nuclear β -catenin are required for specifying the posterior pole of the embryo and antagonistic effects are associated with the anterior pole [1], many lineage-specific innovations in embryogenesis have obscured this common heritage and thus the comparison of metazoan body plans (Box 1).

Nuclear β -catenin breaks symmetry in axis specification and in binary cell fate decisions by binding transcription factors of the T-cell factor (TCF)/ Lymphoid enhancer-binding factor (Lef) protein family (henceforth TCF) [2, 3]. The nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans* (*C. elegans*) has emerged as an important model to study this mechanism in the context of reiterated β -catenin-dependent binary cell fate specifications, which occur throughout development [7, 8, 22–24]. We will use this model to explain how β -catenin and TCF break symmetry before reviewing the evolution of these factors in primary axis specification mechanisms in the insect lineage. The binary cell fate specifications in *C. elegans* are driven by functionally distinct β -catenin paralogs, called SYS-1 and WRM-1. SYS-1-bound POP-1 (TCF) enables the expression of POP-1 target genes, whereas the β -catenin related protein WRM-1, which is not conserved in other species, promotes phosphorylation and nuclear export of POP-1. SYS-1 and WRM-1 are regulated downstream of the Wnt receptor complex and Dishevelled, a regulator of the β -catenin destruction complex. Exposure to Wnt signal orients the spindle of the dividing cell. As a result, SYS-1 and WRM-1 preferentially accumulate in the nuclei of the posterior-born daughter cells and the two daughter cells exhibit opposite bias of POP-1 and SYS-1. However, Wnt ligands are not an obligatory component of this cell fate specification mechanism and some cells of the *C. elegans* embryo undergo β -catenin-dependent binary cell fate specifications independent of Wnt.

The principle of breaking symmetry via the nuclear ratio of β -catenin and TCF seems to be applicable to β -catenin-dependent axis specification mechanisms in a broad range of metazoans. Below, we examine how this mechanism evolved in arthropods – insects in particular, which in turn may inform our understanding of the role of TCF in primary axis specification mechanisms in other metazoans. To meet editorial constraints on the length of this short opinion piece, we have prioritized recent primary research articles and refer the reader to references cited therein for a more complete coverage of the vast literature on axis specification in insects and other metazoans.

TCF and β -catenin requirements in early arthropod embryos with sequential segmentation

In early embryos of arthropods, the regulation of TCF (Pangolin) activity via β -catenin (Armadillo) has been implicated in establishing segment boundaries [25, 26], posterior specification and growth [27–30], and embryo polarity [31–33]. Of these, only a role in establishing segmental boundaries is conserved in the genetic model organism *Drosophila melanogaster* [5, 25]. The role of TCF/Pangolin and β -catenin/Armadillo in specifying the posterior embryo and in promoting growth has been documented (or inferred) in insects and spiders with sequential segmentation [27–30]. This developmental process requires zygotic signaling through Wnt ligands. The Wnt-activated receptor complex of Frizzled and Arrow (LRP5/6) sequesters Axin at the cell membrane and, through a process that also involves Dishevelled, triggers disintegration or inactivation of the β -catenin destruction complex and increases nuclear levels of β -catenin[5].

A maternal role of the nuclear ratio of β -catenin/Armadillo and TCF/Pangolin in establishing embryo polarity has been proposed based on experiments in the beetle *Tribolium castaneum*

[31–33], a species with posterior growth zone and sequential segment addition under the control of zygotic Wnt signaling. In *Tribolium*, maternal transcripts of *axin* are localized at the anterior pole of the egg and essential for anterior specification and embryo polarity [32–34], presumably because the maternal Axin gradient reduces anterior β -catenin levels. Additionally, maternal *Tcf/pangolin* transcript is enriched at the anterior pole of the *Tribolium* egg [34]. The reason for this is less clear, given that *Tcf/pangolin* knockdown blocks posterior specification, growth, and segmentation [27, 32]. However, maternal TCF/Pangolin seems to aid in suppressing posterior cell fate specification in the anterior embryo [35], presumably by reinforcing a low nuclear β -catenin:TCF ratio at the anterior pole of the egg.

TCF-related anterior determinants in insects with simultaneous segmentation

In species with simultaneous segmentation (long-germ development), such as the dipterans (true flies), maternal *axin* mRNA does not seem to be localized in the anterior egg. However, some of these species use TCF/Pangolin as anterior determinant (Figure 1, Table 1) [36]. For example, in anopheline mosquitoes, a maternal transcript isoform of TCF/Pangolin is localized at the anterior pole of the egg and required for anterior specification. Knockdown of *Tcf/pangolin* in early *Anopheles* embryos by RNAi prevents anterior specification and can cause a mirror image duplication of the posterior end in addition to segmentation defects that probably reflect perturbed zygotic roles of β -catenin-bound TCF/Pangolin. Crane flies, which represent a different lineage of lower dipterans, also accumulate maternal *Tcf/pangolin* transcript in the anterior egg. Of particular interest is the case of *Chironomus* midges, which are related to mosquitoes. In *Chironomus*, *Tcf/pangolin* is conserved but only expressed zygotically while a specialized *Tcf/pangolin* paralog, called *panish*, assumes a strictly maternal role as anterior determinant [37]. This apparent case of gene duplication with subfunctionalization of maternal and zygotic *Tcf/pangolin* roles provides an opportunity to assess the maternal function of TCF/Pangolin in primary axis specification of a long-germ insect without constraints imposed by TCF/Pangolin functions in posterior growth and segmentation. The zygotic TCF/Pangolin functions in posterior growth and segmentation require interaction with β -catenin via the N-terminal β -catenin-binding domain and DNA-binding via High Mobility Group (HMG) domain, as well as a cysteine-clamp (C-clamp) [3, 38]. The HMG domain, which bends DNA at its target sites, is considered essential for the function of TCF homologs, whereas the C-clamp is thought to provide added target gene specificity via a GC-rich motif near HMG binding sites. However, *Panish* lacks the β -catenin-binding domain and the HMG domain, and only retains the C-clamp. Taken together, the findings in anopheline mosquitoes, crane flies, and *Chironomus* suggest that β -catenin may have become dispensable for specifying embryo polarity in long germ insects. Moreover, conservation of the C-clamp and loss of the HMG domain in *Panish* suggest that the C-clamp plays a critical role in the function of anterior determinants of the TCF/Pangolin protein family. What this function might be will be discussed in the context of novel TCF-unrelated anterior determinants that evolved in other dipteran insects.

TCF-unrelated anterior determinants in dipteran insects

Long-germ insects have evolved many mechanisms for establishing embryo polarity that are based on maternal mRNA localizations at the anterior pole or both the anterior and posterior poles of the egg [36, 37, 39–43]. These evolutionary innovations may have been unleashed after removing the constraint of maintaining a segment addition zone under the control of posteriorizing β -catenin signal and making embryo polarity dependent on anterior TCF/Pangolin activity. They seem to have occurred independently in many lineages and often led to a replacement of TCF/Pangolin as symmetry-breaking anterior determinant. For example, among the lower dipterans (Nematocera), moth flies and culicine mosquitoes evolved new anterior determinants that are encoded by unrelated C2H2 zinc-finger genes, including *zic/odd-paired* and *cucoïd*, respectively [36], while among the higher dipterans (Brachycera), cyclorrhaphan flies evolved the anterior determinant gene *bicoid* from a duplicated Hox3 ortholog [44, 45]. Dipterans may have evolved many more anterior determinants, given that *bicoid* was repeatedly lost during the radiation of cyclorrhaphan flies [37].

The diversity of anterior determinants in dipteran insects raises the question of whether they share a common molecular mechanism for breaking symmetry in the context of zygotic genome activation. In *Drosophila*, zygotic genome activation is largely driven by a small number of ubiquitous pioneer factors that initiate chromatin accessibility at thousands of cis-regulatory elements [46–49]. The anterior-to-posterior Bicoid gradient polarizes this process along the primary axis by driving chromatin accessibility at cis-regulatory elements of target genes that need to be activated for anterior specification [50–52]. Optogenetic experiments indicate that robust pattern formation continuously requires Bicoid from the time shortly after blastoderm formation onwards (i.e., after nuclear cycle 10) until the onset of gastrulation [53]. This phase of development corresponds to the blastula stage during which other organisms specify embryo polarity through TCF and β -catenin [6, 10, 17, 54, 55]. The same study also shows that the prospective head region, where Bicoid builds up first, is most sensitive to shortened Bicoid exposure [56]. Therefore, timing of naïve chromatin exposure to Bicoid, rather than the formation of a static spatial concentration gradient of Bicoid, may enable its anterior determinant function.

Whether the anterior determinants of other dipterans function in a similar manner is currently unknown but a possibility. *Drosophila* Odd-paired is required for chromatin accessibility at specific target genes during gastrulation [52, 57], and may have been “preadapted” for breaking symmetry at the chromatin level during zygotic genome activation as anterior determinant in moth flies. The function of Cucoïd in mosquitoes remains poorly known; while *cucoïd* is a conserved single copy gene across lower dipterans, its evolution in higher dipterans is complex and not well understood. TCF and other HMG proteins, have been found to exhibit high affinity to nucleosomes [58–60] and have been described as a platform for broad chromatin remodeling in response to β -catenin binding and other factors [3]. However, the TCF-related anterior determinant of *Chironomus*, Panish, has lost the HMG-domain, and whether its C-Clamp can engage with nucleosome-bound DNA is unknown but should not be ruled out. Panish seems to establish competence for anterior development throughout the *Chironomus* blastoderm. We infer this from the Panish-dependent RNAi phenotype of *tailless*, which is likely a direct target gene [37]. In

Chironomus, *tailless* transcription is initiated zygotically in a posterior-to-anterior gradient and suppresses head formation in the posterior embryo, thereby preventing the formation of embryos that only consist of mirror-image double heads. In the anterior embryo, Panish represses *tailless* and prevents embryos from developing as mirror image double abdomens. However, even though *tailless* functions downstream of Panish, double knockdown of *panish* and *tailless* resulted in double abdomens, indicating that in the absence of Panish the posterior blastoderm loses its competence for head formation. Thus, it is conceivable that Panish primes naive blastoderm cells throughout the embryo for anterior specification while early zygotic *tailless* expression – a negative target of Panish in the anterior embryo - limits its realization.

Evolution of new anterior determinants in dipteran insects

It is by now well established that anterior determinants frequently changed during the dipteran radiation. Moreover, at least some dipterans abandoned β -catenin-dependent or β -catenin and TCF-dependent primary axis specification mechanisms (e.g., *Drosophila*). If this trend was enabled by the evolution of simultaneous segmentation mechanisms and the loss of β -catenin-dependent posterior growth zone specification, the independent evolution of long-germ development in other insects, including beetles and wasps, likewise may have resulted in many new lineage-specific anterior determinants.

How did new anterior determinants adopt their fundamental role in development? One approach to this question in recent years has been to reconstruct ancestral amino acid sequences of the DNA-binding homeodomains of Bicoid (AncBcd HD) and its immediate Hox3/Zerknullt precursor (AncZB HD) and to compare the function of diagnostic residues that distinguish these proteins using *in vitro* DNA binding assays and rescue experiments in *Drosophila* [45, 61]. The *in vitro* assays (electro mobility shift assays, protein binding microarrays) quantitatively confirmed that DNA motif recognition differences between AncBcd and AncZB HDs mostly depend on a single amino acid replacement (Q50K) in the recognition helix of the Bicoid homeodomain, but full functionality of AncBcd HD in *Drosophila* embryos was found to additionally depend on other diagnostic residues. These findings seem to suggest that Bicoid acquired its function gradually. However, it is unknown how any of the Bicoid mutations affected the ancestral organism and whether they occurred before or after Bicoid assumed the role of anterior determinant.

Another approach was to investigate phylogenetically old genes, such as *odd-paired*, *cuicoid*, and *TCF/pangolin*, that acquired this function by localizing a maternal transcript isoform with distinct 5' end (via alternative transcription) or 3' end (via alternative polyadenylation) at the anterior pole of the egg[36]. For technical reasons, these studies were mostly carried out in the moth fly *Clogmia albipunctata*. In this species, maternal and zygotic *odd-paired* transcripts with distinct 5' ends serve non-overlapping roles in anterior specification and segmentation, respectively. It was found that maternal and zygotic *odd-paired* sequences as well as *odd-paired* homologs from other species, such as *Drosophila*, can serve as anterior determinant in *Clogmia* when provided ectopically in the posterior embryo at a very early stage of development. These observations indicate that *Clogmia odd-paired* evolved the anterior determinant function without essential changes to the Odd-paired protein via

co-option of localized maternal *odd-paired* activity. Given that the anterior determinant functions of *cucoid* in culicine mosquitoes and of Tcf/pangolin in anopheline mosquitoes also rest on localized alternative transcript isoforms, co-option of localized (or locally active) transcript isoforms might be a common mechanism by which preexisting genes adopt an additional function as anterior determinant. It is therefore possible that *panish* and *bicoid* inherited their specific anterior determinant function from multifunctional progenitor genes by gene duplication and subfunctionalization. In this scenario, which has been discussed elsewhere in more detail [36], the Panish and Bicoid proteins retained their inherited anterior determinant function despite divergence from their evolutionary sisters (TCF/Pangolin, Hox3/Zerknullt) through repeated cycles of compensatory evolution [36, 45]. TCF/Pangolin and Hox3/Zerknullt cannot substitute for the anterior determinant functions of Panish and Bicoid in rescue experiments. Therefore, it is possible that Panish and Bicoid benefit their organisms by capping pleiotropy of their multifunctional ancestral progenitors and reducing the risk of genetic mis-regulation. However, the frequent replacement of anterior determinants suggests that other factors also drive or enable their rapid evolution.

Conclusions and outlook

Our understanding of primary axis specification mechanisms in insects remains surprisingly incomplete (Figure 1). Three hypotheses are proposed in the hope that they may help to guide future research.

1. *Short-germ insects use cell-autonomous (Wnt-independent) mechanisms to establish embryo polarity via the nuclear ratio of β -catenin and TCF:* Asymmetry in the nuclear ratio of β -catenin and TCF is widely used to establish embryo polarity in metazoan development. This ratio is regulated via cytoplasmic β -catenin destruction and the local enrichment or depletion of TCF. Canonical Wnt signaling interferes with cytoplasmic β -catenin degradation and thereby increases nuclear β -catenin levels. However, the importance of Wnt ligands in establishing embryo polarity under normal conditions may have been overstated. In frogs and fish, targeted Axin degradation establishes the axial organizer via nuclear β -catenin accumulation. This process is regulated by the localization of maternal *huluwa* mRNA and is independent of Wnt ligands [6]. In invertebrates, the regulation of nuclear β -catenin levels prior to gastrulation is less well understood but compelling evidence for a role of Wnts in establishing embryo polarity or early blastomere specification is rare (e.g., *C. elegans* [62]). In cnidarians and ctenophores, axis specification occurs during the first cleavage cycle [63] and seems to be regulated cell-autonomously via polarized Dishevelled protein accumulation [64, 65]. In sea urchins, high levels of maternal Axin suppress nuclear β -catenin accumulation and posterior cell fate specification in anterior blastomeres cell-autonomously [10]. Unlike in frogs and fish, the upstream regulator of posterior Axin degradation in sea urchins remains unknown. In short-germ insects (*Tribolium*), too, high levels of maternal Axin suppress posterior cell fate specification in the anterior embryo [33]. However, in this species, maternal mRNA localization at the anterior egg pole, rather than localized Axin degradation or Axin sequestration in response to posterior

Wnt signaling, establishes embryo polarity, apparently in parallel with other much weaker polarizing mechanisms that remain less well understood [31]. Knockdown of the Wnt receptor complex or Wnt ligands disrupts the segment addition zone and segmentation, but it does not abolish embryo polarity in *Tribolium* [27, 31–33, 66]. While residual Wnt receptor activity has not been ruled out in these knockdown experiments, available evidence does not suggest an essential role of Wnt ligands in establishing embryo polarity in insects.

2. *TCF/Pangolin establishes competence for anterior specification:* Short-germ insects use β -catenin-bound TCF/Pangolin to establish and maintain the segment addition zone (growth zone), rather than embryo polarity *per se*. However, in *Tribolium*, the only arthropod with sequential segmentation in which TCF/Pangolin function has been studied in the context of primary axis specification, anterior specification seems to require depletion of nuclear β -catenin (in response to high Axin levels). This finding suggests a critical role of TCF/Pangolin in this process, but knockdown of *Tcf/pangolin* had only mild effects on anterior specification [35]. The competence of these embryos to form anterior structures could be due to residual TCF/Pangolin activity and/or additional polarity-generating genetic mechanisms, such as asymmetric anterior Torso signaling through dpERK [31]. A knockout of maternal *Tcf/Pangolin* activity would be required to distinguish between these hypotheses but whether such embryos can be obtained is unclear. While the role of maternal *Tcf/pangolin* in early *Tribolium* embryos remains poorly understood, Panish seems necessary to establish competence for anterior specification throughout the early *Chironomus* embryo, i.e., even in the posterior blastoderm where its expression level is low. Panish may have inherited this function from TCF/Pangolin because some other lower dipterans use TCF/Pangolin as anterior determinant (Figure 1, Table 1). It is therefore conceivable that the establishment of anterior competence through TCF/Pangolin reflects an ancestral function of this protein in axis specification.
3. *Loss of β -catenin as axis determinant in long-germ insects preceded evolutionary plasticity of anterior determinants:* The phylogenetic occurrence of anterior determinants in dipterans suggests that axis specification through localized TCF/Pangolin preceded the frequent replacement of anterior determinants during the dipteran radiation. Moreover, given the lack of evidence for asymmetric maternal β -catenin regulation in these species, asymmetric TCF/Pangolin activity may have evolved to compensate for the loss of asymmetric β -catenin activity. Whether this condition is evolutionarily unstable and led to the evolution of many alternative anterior determinants, including Bicoid, is currently unknown. A better understanding of the molecular mechanisms by which new anterior determinants specify embryo polarity in different species should help to illuminate this question.

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Box 1:**Selection of embryological features that obscure the shared metazoan heritage of axis specification mechanisms**

1. In cnidarians (jelly fish) and ctenophores (comb jellies), the posterior end of the embryo forms at the site of polar body expulsion. However, in bilaterians, the polar bodies (abortive meiotic nuclei) give rise to anterior (apical) structures and thus by convention, defines the animal pole. The mechanism for linking posterior specification and polar body expulsion in cnidarians and ctenophores is unknown, but it reflects the position of the oocyte and zygote nucleus [63]. As shown in the sea anemone *Nematostella vectensis*, the nuclear position coincides with the side of Dishevelled protein accumulation, which in turn may interfere with the β -catenin destruction complex [64].
2. In most deuterostomes, it is difficult to untangle the roles of β -catenin and Nodal signaling in primary (animal-vegetal) and secondary (dorsoventral) axis specification. Nodal signaling is an evolutionary novelty of the Bilateria [67], the last common ancestor of which may have been very similar to the last common ancestor of deuterostomes [68–70]. Nodal signaling functions in parallel with the BMP pathway through paralogous receptor and effector proteins [67, 71, 72]. In non-chordate deuterostomes, such as sea urchins, the roles of β -catenin, Nodal, and BMP signaling can be discerned more readily than in other deuterostomes. In these species, β -catenin specifies endomesoderm and gastrulation at the vegetal (posterior) pole, breaking symmetry along the primary axis [9, 10, 73], and Nodal specifies the oral ectoderm, thereby breaking symmetry along the secondary axis and dissociating the formation of the mouth from the site of gastrulation (deuterostomy) [74–76]. Due to Nodal-dependent expression of the BMP antagonist Chordin on the oral side, Nodal also establishes an aboral-to-oral (dorsal-to-ventral) gradient of BMP activity, i.e., the entire secondary axis of sea urchin embryos. The related hemichordates also use β -catenin for establishing the primary body axis [77] and Nodal for specifying chordin expressing oral ectoderm [78], but the gene network differs especially in direct developers with delayed specification of the oral ectoderm [79]. Moreover, hemichordates also use β -catenin for posterior extension of the embryo [80]. In chordates, the concerted actions of β -catenin and Nodal in primary and secondary axis specification are even more difficult to untangle. For example, in cephalochordates [55, 81] and vertebrates [6, 82, 83], the two molecules function interdependently in primary and secondary axis specification.
3. The terms dorsal and ventral are used for opposite body sides in chordate and non-chordate bilaterians [84, 85]. This is probably a consequence of the evolution new mouth openings in chordates and their relocation to the formerly aboral body side. Chordate innovations in gastrulation, including

the infolding (“mesodermalization”) of the *nodal* and *chordin*-expressing organizer of the secondary body axis, and neurulation [86–88], preclude Nodal-dependent deuterostomy, as seen in echinoderms and hemichordates and are incompatible with the blastopore becoming the mouth (protostomy), as seen in cnidarians and ctenophores, because neurulation covers the blastopore [89]. Cephalochordates resolved this issue by unilaterally fusing somatic mesoderm with adjacent ectoderm and endoderm. During subsequent developmental stages, cephalochordates move this new oral opening away from the neural fold to the opposite (formerly aboral) body side [90], possibly in response to their filter-feeding behavior in sandy grounds. In the lineage of urochordates and vertebrates, a new oral opening evolved anterior to the neural fold [91, 92], from where the increasing size of the vertebrate brain may have pushed it anterior and then to the opposite body side. In summary, cephalochordates and vertebrates independently relocated their oral openings to the formerly aboral side, referred to as the chordate’s “ventral” side. This convention not only confounds dorsal and ventral but also left and right when comparing the body plans of chordate and non-chordate bilaterians, as reviewed elsewhere [71].

4. Stereotypic asymmetric early cleavage patterns led to modifications in axial patterning in many animal groups (e.g., nematodes, urochordates, spiralian). Superphylum of spiralian, annelids, mollusks, ribbon worms, and free-living flatworms share a stereotypic cleavage pattern called spiral cleavage. The hallmark of spiral cleavage is that the first two (equal or unequal) cell divisions produce four blastomeres (quadrants) that undergo synchronous cleavage cycles with alternating oblique spindle orientations along the primary (animal-vegetal) body axis [93]. While β -catenin establishes the vegetal (posterior) pole of the larva in ribbon worms (Nemertini) [94], other spiralian have modified this mechanism in ways that remain poorly understood [95]. Additionally, spiralian use a specific blastomere lineage as organizer of the secondary axis. This cell lineage is determined by asymmetric inheritance of maternal material and/or induction (reviewed in [96, 97]). While Nodal signaling is required for this process, directly or indirectly, in distantly related polychaetes (Annelida) [96–98], it is not required in snails (Mollusca) [99, 100]. When compared to deuterostomes, the organizers for the secondary axis in animals with spiralia cleavage differ in two important ways. First, they are established on non-homologous body sides (aboral/dorsal in spiralian and oral/ventral in deuterostomes (called “dorsal” in chordates; see previous section). Second, while the deuterostome organizer expresses the BMP antagonist Chordin and is characterized by reduced BMP activity [101, 102], the spiralian organizer lacks Chordin and exhibits peak BMP activity in some species [103] or does not require BMP signaling for specifying the secondary body axis [104]. Brachiopods, which may have reverted from spiral to radial cleavage, use β -catenin and BMP activity (but not Nodal [71]) to promote posterior and dorsal cell fate specification, respectively, possibly in conjunction with additional factors

that remain to be discovered [105]. In conclusion, stereotypic asymmetric cleavage patterns in species with spiral cleavage enabled lineage-specific modifications in the primary and secondary axis specification mechanisms, including the loss of organizer activity on the oral/ventral body side.

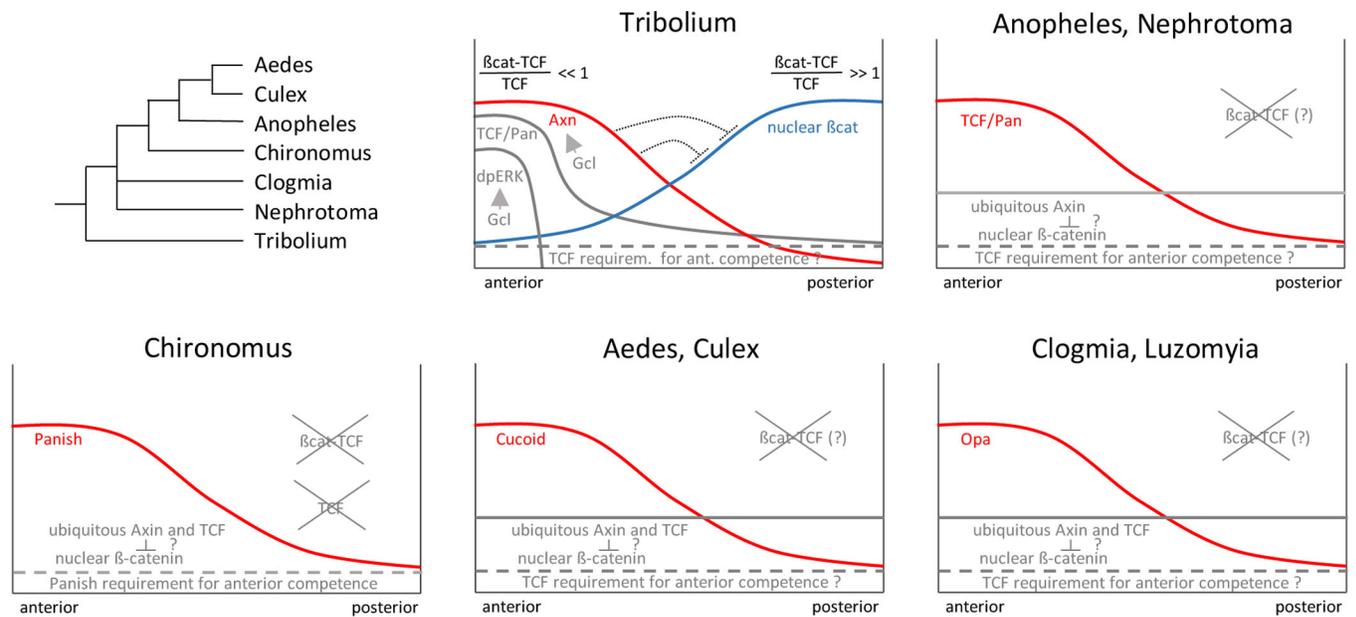


Figure 1. Inferred maternal activities of β -catenin and TCF in early embryos of the beetle *Tribolium castaneum* and various midges and mosquitoes. Note that Chironomus and *Drosophila* (not shown) lack maternal Tcf expression. Protein activities (y-axis) are inferred based on maternal transcript distributions and knockdown experiments, as described in the text.

Table 1.

Presence (+) and absence (–) of maternal transcripts and posterior germ plasm in dipteran eggs [36, 37, 106]. Functionally validated (bold) or predicted (based on anterior-posterior expression profiling) anterior determinants (ADs) are indicated for Tipulomorpha (green), chironomid Culicomorpha (yellow), culicid Culicomorpha (orange), Psychodomorpha (blue), and Cyclorrhapha (grey) representatives. The gene list includes *bicoid* (*bcd*), *odd-paired* (*zic/opa*), *cucooid*, *pangolin* (*Tcf/pan*), *panish*, *wnt* family (*wnt*), the Wnt receptor complex genes *frizzled* (*fz*) and *arrow* (*LRP5–6/arr*), and genes that encode key regulators of intracellular β -catenin levels, including *dishevelled* (*dsh*), *axin* (*axn*), *APC-like* (*apc*), and *shaggy* (*gsk3 β /sgg*).

| | Nephrotoma | Chironomus | Anopheles | Aedes | Culex | Clogmia | Lutzomyia | Drosophila |
|---------------------------------------|------------|------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|------------|
| <i>Tcf/pan</i> | AD | – | AD | + | + | + | + | – |
| <i>panish</i> | not appl. | AD | not appl. |
| <i>cucooid</i> | + | + | + | AD | AD | + | + | n. a. |
| <i>zic/opa</i> | + | + | + | + | + | AD | AD | – |
| <i>bcd</i> | not appl. | not appl. | not appl. | not appl. | not appl. | not appl. | not appl. | AD |
| | | | | | | | | |
| <i>wnt</i> | + | – | – | + | + | – | (–) | – |
| <i>fz</i> | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |
| <i>LRP5–6/arr</i> | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | (–) |
| <i>dsh</i> | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |
| <i>axn</i> | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |
| <i>apc</i> | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |
| <i>gsk3β/sgg</i> | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |
| <i>β-catenin/arm</i> | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |
| | | | | | | | | |
| germ plasm | + | + | + | + | + | – | + | + |