The Molecular Genetics of Tail Development in Drosophila Melanogaster

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Abstract. The formation of the telson in the Drosophila embryo, which encompasses all structures posterior to abdominal segment 7, is under the control of the «terminal class» genes. These maternally expressed genes are organized in a signal transduction pathway which implicates cell-cell interactions between the germ cell derivatives (the nurse cells and oocyte) and the surrounding follicle cell epithelium. Activation of this localized signal transduction pathway at the termini of the embryo is believed to specify the domains of activation and repression of a set of zygotic genes whose interactions specify the various cell states required for the proper formation of tail structures.

Introduction

Pattern formation in the *Drosophila* embryo requires the regulation of maternal and zygotic gene activities to establish and maintain cellular identities within progressively smaller developmental fields. Initially, embryonic polarity is set up along the anterior-posterior and dorsal-ventral egg axes by maternal gene products, which then permit the subsequent establishment of restricted domains of zygotic gene expression (see reviews in references 1,2, 3). It has been proposed that anterior-posterior polarity is determined by the generation of two gradients originating from opposite egg poles (4, 5). The maternal *bicoid* gene product is responsible for the morphogenetic gradient originating at the anterior egg pole (6, 7) while posteriorly localized *nanos* activity defines a region in which posterior body pattern can be specified by other morphogens (8, 9, 10).

In addition to these two gradients that operate along the anterior-posterior axis, an activity encoded by the «terminal class» of maternal effect genes is required for the establishment of cell fates at each of the embryonic poles (2, 11, 12,

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13). Thus, in embryos lacking maternal «terminal class» function, both head and tail structures are deleted.

This review focuses on the maternal genes that are involved in defining the tail region and the zygotic genes which are responding to these maternal cues. A recent review of the genetic control of the other terminus of the embryo, the head region, which is under the control of both the bicoid and terminal class system can be found in Finkelstein and Perrimon (14). Here, we present a summary of the cascade of gene interactions that are involved in the formation of the telson and review the evidence for a gradient of «terminal class» activity.

Structure of the telson

The *Drosophila* larvae can be broadly divided into head, thorax, abdomen and tail or telson with each of these regions being specifically defined by characteristic cuticular landmarks. The telson encompasses all structures posterior to abdominal segment 7 (A7) (2). Since all of these «tail» structures can be deleted by mutations at any one of several loci, i.e., the maternal «terminal class» genes, this region of the *Drosophila* embryo constitutes a genetically defined developmental unit.

1. Cuticular tail structures. The major visible cuticular tail structures of a fyrst instar larvae are seen in figure 1B and schematized in figure 2A. The tail region is characterized by a lack of segmental reitiration of structures. A7, which is virtually indistinguishable from segments A2 through A6, will be used here as a comparison of segmented from non-segmented tail structures. The literature contains different terminologies for various tail structures; for this review the terminology, as well as much of the morphological description of the tail, is from Jurgens (15). A7 has well defined anterior and posterior segment borders. Ventrally the anterior cuticle of A7 bears 6 rows of darkly pigmented denticles which are followed posteriorly by a naked cuticular region. The dorsal surface is nearly covered by lightly pigmented hairs of varying thicknesses. Within this dorsal lawn are three

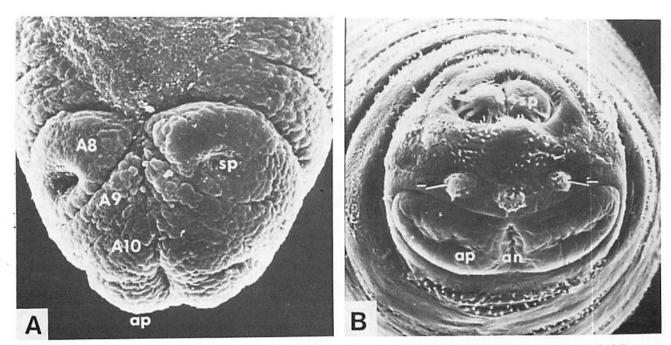


Figure 1. Morphology of the telson. A and B are scanning electron micrographs of the posterior ends of a germ band shortened embryo and a fully mature embryo at hatching, respectively. From Turner and Mahowald (18). A. Complex morphogenetic movements have resulted in the placement of abdominal segment 8 (A8), from which the posterior spiracles (sp) develop, and rudimentary abdominal segment A10, from which the anal pads (ap) arise, in their approximate final positions. B. At hatching the posterior tip of the embryo is characterized by the prominant anal pads (ap) and the posterior spiracles (sp) with the anal sense organs (arrows) and anal tuft (just above the anus (an)) located between these structures.

sensory hairs, the dorso-lateral (dh), lateral (lh) and ventrolateral (vh) hairs.

In contrast, A8, while having a defined anterior segment border is lacking a recognizable posterior border. Ventrally, A8, like A7, bears a denticle band of thick, darkly pigmented denticles, however while in A7 there are 6 rows of denticles, A8 has only 4 rows of denticles. The denticles are not followed posteriorly by a naked region but by the large, convex anal pads (ap) which are separated ventro-medially by the anus (an). Just posterior to the anus, along the ventral midline is the anal tuft (at), a group of denticles resembling the ventral denticles seen more anteriorly. Dorsally, the tail ends with the posterior spiracles (ps), elongated protuberances, the base of which is covered with darkly pigmented hairs, the Fell. The apex of the posterior spiracles bear four groups of innervated hairs (sph) which encircle the spiracular openings (spo) and are continuous, via the cuticular specialization, the Filzkorper, with the dorsal longitudinal tracheal trunks. Sensory hairs, like those of A7, are not observed in the tail region; instead seven pairs of sensory protuberances or cones are observed (aso and numbers 1 through 6). Each sensory cone bears an innervated sensillium which is morphologically distinguishable into either a hair or peg type (see legend for figure 2A). The neural connections of the sensilla with the central nervous system is through the segmental nerves of either A8 or A9 (16).

2. The blastoderm fate map of the telson. Well before the

appearance of the cuticular structures of the telson, extensive morphogenetic movements have taken place to organize individual terminal structures (Figure 1A). Turner and Mahowald (17, 18) used scanning electron microscopy to describe these complex cell movements. Various methods, UV-laser ablation or physical removal of small groups of cells and intracellular markers, have been utilized to trace the origins of specific structures or regions back to their presumptive cells of origin at the blastoderm stage (15, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23). For each of these methods small numbers of precisely localized cells of a blastoderm stage embryo are destroyed, removed or labeled. To determine the presumptive fates of the «altered» cells, development is allowed to proceed and the locations of the subsequent defects or labeled cells are scored in mature embryos or first instar larvae. Many experiments are required to achieve a detailed fate map for the myriad of external and internal structures. For each method utilized the generated fate maps, for the large part, confirm the results from the other methods.

Figure 2B is a presumptive fate map for many of the tail structures described in figures 1B and 2A. At the blastoderm stage the anterior limit of the tail anlage is defined to be at 20% egg length (EL; egg length is measured from the posterior tip of the blastoderm embryo, 0%, to the anterior tip, 100%) since irradiation or cell removal at 20% EL, in addition to tail defects causes defects in the posterior half of A7 (15, 21, 33). As demonstrated by cell killing and labeling experiments the posterior 10% of the blastoderm stage

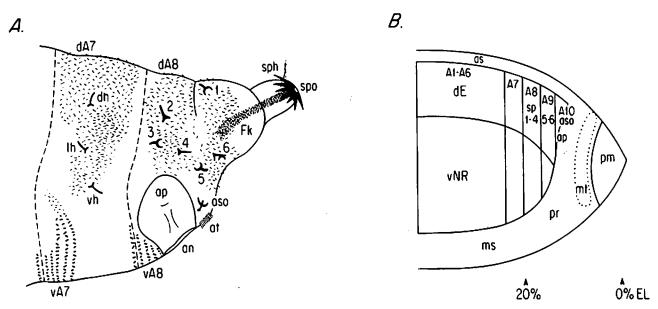


Figure 2. Cuticular elements and fate map of the telson. A. Schematic drawing of the cuticular structures at the posterior end of a Drosophila larvae. All structures posterior to abdominal segment 7 (A7) are part of the tail region or telson. B. Presumptive blastoderm fate map of the structures of the telson. In both panels, anterior is to the left and dorsal is up. Modified from Hartenstein and Campos-Ortega (20).

Abbreviations: an, anus; ap, anal pads; as, amnioserosa; aso, anal sense organs; at, anal tuft; A1-A10, abdominal segments 1 through 10; dE, dorsal epidermis; dA7 and dA8, hairy dorsal surface of abdominal segments 7 and 8; dh, dorsal hair; EL, egg length; Fk, Filzkorper; Ih, lateral hair; ms, mesoderm; mt, Malpighian tubules; pm, posterior midgut; pr, proctodeum; sp, spiracles; sph, spiracular hairs; spo, spiracular opening; vA7 and vA8, ventral dentical bands of abdominal segments 7 and 8; vh, ventral hair; vNR, ventral neurogenic region. Numbers 1 through 6 represent sense organs: 1 and 2 are the dorso-medial; 3 and 4 are the anterior lateral; and 5 and 6 are the posterior lateral sense organs. Sence organs 1, 3 and 5 are peg types and 2 and 4 are hair types. The anal sense organ and sense organ 6 contain both hair and peg sensillum (15).

embryo develops exclusively into internalized structures, specifically the posterior midgut (pm), the Malpighian tubules (mt) and the hindgut (hg) and proctodeum (pr) (Figures 2B and 3). No cuticular defects were found when cells between 0 and 10% EL were destroyed following irradiation (15). Similarly, when horseradish peroxidase-labeled cells were transplanted into this region, their progeny were found to be incorporated into internalized structures (22) (Figure 3).

«Terminal class» maternal genes

During embryogenesis specification of telson, as well as acron (head), cellular fates requires the maternal activity of at least six genes collectively known as the «terminal class» genes. These are: fs(1)Nasrat (12), D-raf or $l(1)pole\ hole$ (24), $fs(1)pole\ hole$ (25), fs(2)trunk, fs(2)torso (13), and fs(3)torsolike (2). When any one of these gene products are absent in the female germ line similar maternal effect defects on embryonic development are observed, i.e., embryos with both anterior and posterior deletions (see review in reference 26). Posteriorly, these deletions encompass from 0-20% egg length; Wi.e., the entire telson, which includes the abdominal 8 segment, anal pads, posterior spiracles, hindgut, Malpighian tubules and posterior midgut. The deletion of the

telson occurs by a reorganization of the cellular fates along the anterior-posterior axis. Posteriorly located blastoderm cells now adopt more anterior cellular fates (27, 28) and thus fail to differentiate the tail structures. Interestingly, all six maternal members of the «terminal class» genes have been reported to have a «pole hole» phenotype which consists in the absence of blastoderm cell formation underneath the pole cells. This defect is readily visualized following staining of mutant embryos with a nuclear stain (12, 13, 29). The basis for this phenotype is not understood.

fs(2)torso (tor). The tor gene has been well characterized genetically and molecularly. Two kinds of tor mutations exist: tor loss-of-function alleles which lack all terminal structures; and, hyperactive, gain-of-function tor alleles which produce a «spliced» phenotype, where embryos lack thoracic and abdominal structures, but retain terminal structures (30, 31). Thus, the «spliced» embryonic phenotype is the reverse of the loss-of-function phenotype. The tor gene encodes a putative transmembrane receptor tyrosine kinase and neither its RNA or protein products are spatially restricted to the embryonic poles (32, 33). That the tor protein is not spatially restricted suggests that its kinase activity is modulated such that it is only activated at the embryonic poles. The mere existence of constitutively active gain-of-function tor alleles that redirect

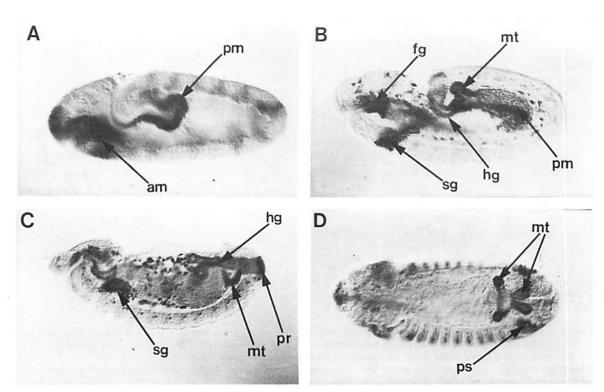


Figure 3. Development of the internalized telson structures. To follow the wildtype development of the structures originating from the posterior 10% of blastoderm stage embryos, the expression pattern of the lacZ insertion strain 1A121 (75) (A) and the protein expression patterns of forkhead (B,C) and cut (D) were used. Stages are according to Campos-Ortega and Hartenstein (16). In all panels anterior is to the left. Dorsal is up in A, B and C. D is a dorsal view. A. Stage 11. By the time the germ band is fully extended, the posterior-most blastoderm cells have invaginated to form the posterior midgut (pm). B. Stage 12. The posterior midgut continues its invagination and the Malpighian tubule anlage (mt), as well as the hindgut (hg) and proctodeal anlage also become internalized. C. Early stage 13. With germ band shortening, the hindgut assumes its final position respective to the proctodeum (pr). The Malpighian tubules have begun to elongate. D. Late stage 13. The tracheal tree has begun to form and the «pits» destined to become incorporated into the posterior spiracles (ps) are clearly visible. Other abbreviations: am, anterior midgut; fg, foregut; sg, salivary glands.

thoracic and abdominal regions into terminal fates suggests that in wildtype embryos the *tor* protein is activated only locally at the embryonic termini. The existence of the «spliced» phenotype also allows the conclusion that, aside from the putative *tor* ligand, each of the components of the terminal system must be present throughout the embryo in order for terminal structures to replace more central body elements (33).

 $l(1)pole\ hole\ l(1)ph$ or D-raf. The l(1)ph gene is maternally required to achieve appropriate embryonic terminal cell fates (24, 29). However, unlike mutations in the other maternal «terminal class» loci, $l(1)ph^+$ activity is also necessary at other stages of development. The l(1)ph gene was first identified as a zygotic lethal mutation causing death at the larval-pupal transition stage of l(1)ph hemi- or homozygous progeny derived from heterozygous females (29). The proliferation of imaginal cells fails to occur in these third instar larvae, resulting in small, undifferentiated imaginal discs. Thus, zygotic synthesis of $l(1)ph^+$ product is essential for imaginal disc development, but it is not required for the growth of non-dividing polyploid larval cells. Since all im-

aginal tissues are equally affected by l(1)ph mutations it seems likely that expression of this gene plays a fundamental role in dividing cells.

The *D-raf* RNA is evenly distributed throughout the embryo (34). The *D-raf* gene shows 45% homology at the amino-acid level to the human *raf-1* gene, with as much as 65% homology at the C-terminus encompassing the protein kinase domain (35, 36). The serine/threonine kinase domain of *D-raf* is well conserved suggesting that in flies the protein also behaves as a protein kinase.

fs(1)Nasrat (fs(1)N), fs(1)pole hole (fs(1)ph), fs(2)trunk (trk) and fs(3)torso-like (tsl). Less is known about the function of these «terminal class» genes. The maternal effect phenotypes of these three genes are virtually identical but in addition, for both fs(1)N and fs(1)ph, there are alleles in which females lay only collapsed, flaccid eggs (12, 15) indicating a role for these genes in egg envelop formation. Of special interest is the tsl gene which has been shown by mosaic analysis to function in the follicle cell epithelium during oogenesis (37). This property makes tsl unique among all other known maternal members of the terminal class which

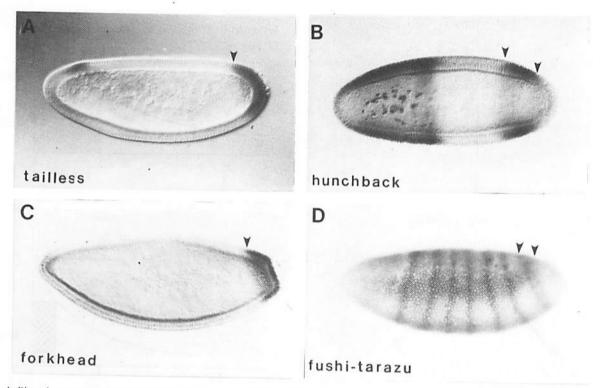


Figure 4. Blastoderm expression patterns of zygotic telson genes. Wildtype blastoderm stage embryos with (A) tailless. (B) hunchback, (C) forkhead and (D) fushi-tarazu expression patterns. The expression patterns were revealed by non-radioactive in situ hybridization (A), antibody staining (B,C) and using a ftz-lacZ construct (76). Arrowheads indicate the anterior and posterior limits of staining at the posterior ends of the embryos. Note that tailless, at this stage, is expressed at a higher level in the posterior domain. In all panels anterior is to the left and dorsal is up in all panels.

by mosaic analysis have been shown to function exclusively in the germ line (37, 38). The cloning of these genes has not yet been reported.

«Terminal class» primary zygotic genes

Posteriorly, two zygotic genes tailless (tll) and huckebein (hkb), are believed to be the first zygotic genes that respond to the «terminal class» maternal activity (39, 40). Their domains of expression likely overlap but their resulting developmental lesions are complementary.

tailless (tll). Deleted in tll mutant embryos are structures from about 7-20% egg length, including the abdominal 8 segmenq, anal pads, posterior spiracles, hindgut, and Malpighian tubules. The posterior midgut is also reduced in size in severe tll alleles. In wildtype, at the syncitial blastoderm stage, tll transcripts are initially expressed symmetrically from 0-20% and 80-100% egg lengths. However, by the cellular blastoderm stage, tll expression (Figure 4A) resolves into smaller domains at both termini with the posterior domain extending from 0-15% egg length (41). The tll gene product, a member of the steroid receptor superfamily (41), may function as a transcription factor to activate terminal-specific genes.

huckebein (hkb). In hkb mutant embryos only the posterior midgut is deleted (40), which is the only posterior structure not completely deleted in tll mutant embryos. hkb encodes a putative transcription factor with multiple zinc fingers that is expressed in both the anterior and posterior midgut anlagen (G. Bronner and H. Jackle, personal communication).

The «terminal class» signal transduction pathway

The phenomenon of epistasis is when the action of one gene can wholly or partially obscure the effect of a different gene. Genetic epistasis experiments allow the ordering of genes, with different mutant phenotypes, within the same or different pathways of action. For example, if in embryos doubly mutant for genes A and B both mutant phenotypes are observed, then these genes do not function in the same pathway of action. However, if in embryos doubly mutant for genes A and B only the phenotype of gene B is observed, then gene B is "epistatic" to gene A and therefore may function downstream of gene A in a biochemical pathway.

Often times genes with indistinguishable mutant phenotypes belong to the same functional pathway and in these cases epistasis experiments may be uninformative. However, if for one of these genes gain-of-function alleles exist that produce

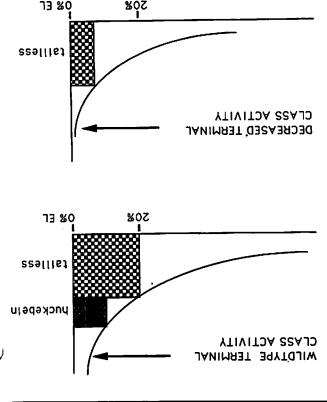


Figure 6. A gradient of terminal class activity? This model postulates that in wildtype (10p) a gradient of terminal class activity is established at the posterior pole with hkb being expressed at higher levels of terminal activity und till expressed at lower levels. If this terminal activity is absent, as it is in munitions from torso, 10-raf and the other maternal members of the puthway, neither till or hkb are expressed (see text). However, if the terminal class activity is decreased, but not eliminated (bottom), it is predicted that till would be expressed in a smaller domain and hkb may fail to be expressed at all.

by mutations in D-raf, ill and both ill and hkb genes but not by mutations in the remaining maternal members of the terminal system (30, 31, 34, 40). This result supports a model whereby tor activates D-raf, ill and hkb since the effect of an excessively active tor protein can be suppressed by reducing the number of molecules of D-raft ill and both ill and hkb in the egg (see also 26).

This model is supported by the molecular characterization of both the tor and D-raf genes which turn out to encode a molecules involved in signal transduction. tor encodes a putative transmembrane tyrosine protein kinase and D-raf encodes a putative serine/threonine protein kinase. Since teceptor tyrosine kinases are activated when they become the cytoplasm by phosphorylating intracellular proteins a current working model (Figure 5) implies that the receptor tyrosine kinase torso, activated by an extracellular proteins a current working model (Figure 5) implies that the receptor current working model (Figure 5) implies that the receptor tyrosine kinase torso, activated by an extracellular ligand, would activate a phosphorylation cascade mediated through the serine/threonine protein kinase D-raf. This phosphorylation cascade would ultimately define the domains of transtion cascade would ultimately define the domains of transtion cascade would ultimately define the domains of trans-

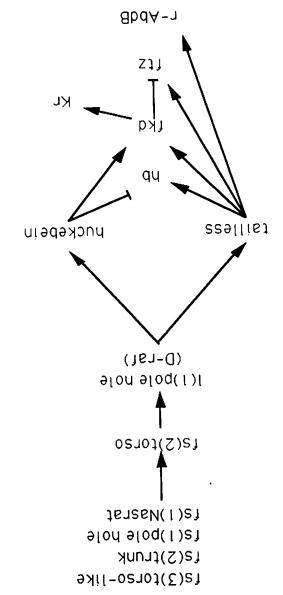


Figure 5. Model of the control of gene activities during telson formation. This model depicts the interactions between the known maternal and zygotic members of the terminal class signal transduction pathway. This model is based on both genetic epistasis experiments and expression patterns of specific genes in various mutant backgrounds (see text). All interactions need not be direct. Activations are indicated by arrows and repressions by blocks.

a phenotype different than the loss-of-function phenotype, then epistasis experiments can be carried out. As described above, loss-of-function mutations from maternal members of the terminal class, as well as ill and ill, hkb double mutants, do not develop the most terminal cuticular elements. Hyperractive tor alleles give the reverse phenotype, where embryos lack thoracic and abdominal structures, but retain enlarged terminal structures; the «spliced» phenotype (30, 31, 34). The terminal structures; the cominant alleles can be negated effect of the hyperactive tor dominant alleles can be negated

criptional regulation of the zygotic trancription factors *tll* and *hkb*. Both the co-extensive nature of the *tll* and *hkb* mutant phenotypes and the observation that *tll*, *hkb* double mutant embryos are phenotypically similar to *torso* mutant embryos suggests that posteriorly *tll* and *hkb* are sufficient to mediate the maternal activity of *torso* (40).

Neither the RNA or protein products generated by the tor gene are spatially restricted to the embryonic poles (32, 33). Additionally, loss-of-function mutations in tsl, trk, fs(1)ph or fs(1)N block the activation of torso protein without altering its normal distribution (33). It therefore appears that tor protein depends on these four genes to become locally activated. Unique among these genes is tsl whose function is required in the follicle cells (37) making it a good candidate for the tor ligand, or at least required for the production of the ligand.

A gradient of terminal class activity

It is apparent that the tor activity is organized into a gradient allowing for the formation of discrete terminal structures at various levels on tor activity (33). The temperature sensitive, gain-of-function tor allele, RL3, is more active at 29°C than at 25°C, and more active at 25°C than at 18°C. This allele is used to generate incremental changes in the level of tor protein activity and in double mutant combination with trk the females give rise to embryos where the only tor activity is attributable to the constitutively active mutant protein. The cuticles of larvae derived from these mutant females at 29°C reveal near normal complements of terminal structures. As the temperature of the females is lowered the resulting larvae show progressively fewer terminal structures suggesting that different levels of tor activity specifies distinct terminal pattern elements (33).

It is likely that in wildtype a gradient of terminal class activity is established at the posterior pole (Figure 6, top) with hkb being expressed at higher levels of terminal class activity and tll expressed at lower levels. As described above this terminal activity is absent from tor, D-raf and the other maternal «terminal class» members of the pathway where neither tll or hkb are expressed (30, 40, G, Bronner and H. Jackle, personal communication). However, when this gradient is decreased, but not eliminated (Figure 6, bottom) we postulate that tll will be expressed in a smaller domain and hkb may fail to be expressed at all. The testing of these predictions is dependent on genetic means to decrease, but not eliminate, the terminal class activity perhaps through the use of hypomorphic alleles of genes downstream of tor or by the isolation of new loci which when mutated alters the terminal activity.

«Terminal class» secondary downstream zygotic genes

Other genes that are known to be under the control of the maternal terminal system and whose expression are mediated by the primary terminal zygotic gap genes, tll and hkb, are the

gap gene hunchback (hb) (42), the homeotic gene fork head (fkd) (43, 44), the pair-rule gene fushi-tarazu (ftz) (27), the regulatory element of the homeotic gene Abdominal B (r-AbdB)(45), the gap gene Kruppel (60) and the homeotic gene caudal (65). As described below each of these genes are expressed in the posterior 20% of the developing embryo and the posterior expression patterns of each is variably affected in embryos mutant for maternal and primary zygotic members of the «terminal class».

fork head (fkh). In fkd mutant embryos, the posterior tail structures (anal pads, Malpighian tubules and hindgut) have been homeotically replaced by more anterior tail and posterior abdominal structures (anal sense organs, dorsal hairs and denticles). Additionally, the posterior midgut degenerates (44, 46). The embryonic fkd expression pattern is complex. In widtype blastoderm embryos fkd is expressed from both 0-13% and 94-100% egg lengths (Figure 4C). At gastrulation, fkd protein in widtype embryos is seen lining the posterior midgut invagitation. Then, at germ band elongation and throughout later stages of embryogenesis fkd protein is observed in the foregut, hindgut, Malphghian tubules and salivary glands (43, 44) (Figure 3B, C). Molecular analysis of the fkd gene reveals an highly conserved, novel DNA binding motif that is also present in the rat transcription factor HNF-3a (44, 47, 48). Consistent with the idea that fkd acts to regulate transcription is the finding that its protein product localizes to the nucleus (44).

In wildtype embryos fkd is known to be under the control of the terminal system since in embryos lacking torso activity, or doubly mutant for both tll and hkb, the posterior fkd domain is completely lacking, while in either tll or hkb mutant embryos it is merely reduced, but not missing (40). fkd also functions to define the posterior boundary of ftz expression (see below), since in fkd mutant embryos the 7th ftz stripe is expanded posteriorly (49).

hunchback (hb). Posteriorly, homozygous mutant embryos derived from strong hb alleles have deleted A8 and posterior parts of A7 (50). At the blastoderm stage in wildtype embryos, the gap gene hb is expressed in both an anterior and posterior domain. The posterior expression begins as a cap which subsequently is repressed at the posterior pole and resolves into a single stripe from 10-20% egg length (42, 50, 51) (Figure 4B). Sequence analysis of the hb gene reveals the presence of two putative DNA binding finger domains in the hb protein (51) suggesting that hb functions as a transcription factor.

Posterior hb expression is under the control of the terminal system since in embryos lacking tor activity, or doubly mutant for both tll and hkb, the posterior hb domain is completely lacking. (42, 49). The evolution of the hb polar cap of expression into a posterior stripe is due to repression by hkb, since in hkb mutant embryos hb remains expressed as a polar cap (49). The boundaries, then, of the posterior hb stripe are defined by tll activation and hkb repression.

fushi-tarazu (ftz). Homozygous ftz mutant embryos die late in embryogenesis with cuticles bearing only half the number of segments of wildtype embryos. Also, the posterior spiracles are mispositioned laterally and appear poorly differentiated (52). In wildtype cellular blastoderm embryos the pair-rule gene ftz is expressed in seven evenly spaced stripes of cells along the anterior-posterior axis with the 7th stripe positioned between 10 and 20% EL (53) (Figure 4D). Molecular analysis of the ftz gene reveals that it contains an homeodomain of the Antennapedia type and functions as a transcription factor (reviewed in reference 54).

In embryos lacking torso activity, or mutant for tll, the 7th ftz stripe is entirely deleted and the 6th stripe is expanded posteriorly, while in hkb mutant embryos the 7th ftz stripe is present but expanded posteriorly (40, 55). In wildtype the 7th ftz stripe likely appears at a given threshold of tll activity since analysis of this stripe in various hypomorphic tll alleles reveals various degrees of stripe formation (49). The posterior boundary of the 7th ftz stripe coincides with the anterior boundary of the posterior fkd domain; however in fkd mutant embryos the 7th ftz stripe extends further posterior, indicating that fkd expression represses the posterior expansion of the 7th ftz stripe (49).

r-AbdB. r-AbdB is required to specify the identity of parasegment 14 (PS14), corresponding to posterior A8 and much of A9 and possibly PS15 (45). Not unexpectedly, it is expressed, beginning at germ band extension stages, in PS14 and PS15 (56). In r-AbdB mutant animals structures derived from PS14 are partially transformed into PS13 derived structures (45, 56). Molecular analysis of the AbdB gene reveals a transcriptionally complex locus encoding homeobox containing proteins which regulate two distinct functions, either specification of PS10-15 (m-AbdB) or specification of PS14-15 (r-AbdB) (57, 58, 59).

r-AbdB expression is deleted in embryos lacking torso activity and in tll null mutants; however in tll hypomorphs varying levels or r-AbdB is observed (49). Ectopic expression of r-AbdB is also observed in embryos derived from torso gain-of-function mutant mothers (49); again suggesting that r-AbdB is under the control of the terminal system.

Kruppel (Kr). In addition to the well known central domain of expression, the gap gene Kr is also expressed in a cap at the posterior pole in the anlagen of the posterior midgut and Malpighian tubules (60, 61). Consistent with this finding is the observation that in Kr mutant embryos the Malpighian tubules are missing (62). In these mutants it is known that the cells which normally give rise to the Malpighian tubules do not die but instead are integrated into the hindgut suggesting that Kr also has homeotic properties (63). Kr likely functions as a transcription factor since it encodes a protein with multiple putative DNA-binding fingers (64).

Kr expression in the central segmentation domain is repressed by tll and hkb; however both of these genes activate Kr in the posterior Malphighian tubule domain. Further, this posterior activation is mediated through the fkd gene since in fkd mutant embryos the posterior Kr domain is deleted (40,

61). As described below, posterior Kr expression is also required for *caudal* (*cad*) expression in the Malpighian tubule anlage (61).

caudal (cad). Homozygous cad mutant embryos obtained from heterozygous mothers give rise to larvae which lack several posterior cuticular structures, the anal tuft, parts of the anal pads and the terminal sense organs (65). The cad gene produces two transcripts, one expressed maternally and the other zygotically. Both encode identical proteins (66). The maternal product is expressed in a concentration gradient along the anterior-posterior axis, highest at the posterior pole, after fertilization from nuclear cycle 12 through the onset of gastrulation. The zygotic product appears during the cellular blastoderm stage as a stripe between 13 and 19% egg length and continues to be expressed throughout embryogenesis in cells of the posterior midgut, the Malpighian tubules, the hindgut and cells in posterior epidermal structures (65, 66, 67). cad encodes an homeobox containing protein and likely functions as a transcription factor (67, 68).

Zygotic cad expression is dependent on Kr. In Kr mutant embryos the cells destined to form the Malpighian tubules are incorporated into the hindgut and in these embryos no cad expression is seen in the hindgut (61). However, cad is not necessary for differentiation of the Malpighian tubules since in late cad mutant embryos the Malpighian tubules, visualized with antibodies to fkd, appear like wildtype (61).

Putative «terminal class» secondary downstream zygotic genes

Two genes, spalt and cut have expression patterns and mutant phenotypes which suggest that they are most likely regulated by the terminal system. However, this has not yet been determined.

spalt (sal). sal functions in two regions near each pole of the embryo to promote head and tail as opposed to trunk development. Specifically, in sal mutant embryos posterior head segments are transformed into anterior thoracic structures and anterior tail segments are transformed into posterior abdominal structures. Posteriorly sal incompletely transforms A9 and A10 into A8 (69). Another homeotic gene, Abd-B (see above), also functions in this domain; however, embryos doubly mutant for sal and Abd-B mutations simply modify their respective mutant phenotypes in PS14 and 15 suggesting that these two genes act independently (69). Transcripts from the homeotic gene sal first accumulate at syncytial blastoderm stages ventro-laterally along the entire length of embryo, but by cellular blastoderm high levels are observed anteriorly (60 to 70% EL) and posteriorly (0 to 15% EL). During later embryonic stages sal is expressed posteriorly in the hindgut, but also in regions where no requirement has been observed (70). The putative sal gene encodes a small mRNA of 0.8 kb which is under the control of over 15 kb of upstream sequences. The putative sal protein contains internal repeats and other repeated motifs but no homeobox (70).

cut (ct). The cut locus is genetically complex. The alleles

fall into five complementation groups, two of which result in embryonic lethality. In these dead embryos the Malpighian tubules are missing (71, 72). In wildtype embryos antibodies to the *cut* protein label the peripheral nervous system (PNS) as well as many cells in the central nervous system (CNS), the Malpighian tubules and cells surrounding both the anterior and posterior spiracles (72). The *cut* protein contains a homeodomain and likely functions as a transcription factor (73).

Perspectives

Genetic and molecular evidence suggests that during embryogenesis the specification of the telson cellular fates involves a signal transduction pathway. The components of this signal transduction pathway are set up during oogenesis. Cellular interactions between germ cells and follicular cells triggers a localized phosphorylation cascade that culminates in the local activation of transcription factors at the embryonic poles.

In the next few years intensive studies along three major lines of research will certainly be emphasized.

First, it will be of extreme interest to understand the mechanism by which the tor receptor tyrosine kinase becomes locally activated. Obviously, good candidates for genes involved in this local activation are the maternal «terminal class» genes that act upstream of torso. Molecular characterization of these genes will certainely help in understanding this process.

A second set of studies will focus on the understanding of the mechanisms by which information is transduced from the tor receptor tyrosine kinase to the nuclear transcription factors. Genetic and molecular analyses support a model by which the putative serine/threonine protein kinase *D-raf* is the main signal transducer in this pathway. Therefore, it will be important to understand whether *D-raf* is able to either directly modify a transcription factor(s) that defines the domains of activity of both tailless and huckebein or whether *D-raf* acts on other intermediate factors which in turn regulate a transcription factor(s). Screens for second site modifiers to identify loci that interact with torso or *D-raf* might help to identify the interacting proteins.

Third, studies on the «terminal class» system will allow a detailed analysis of the zygotic gene hierarchy involved in tail formation. Already a number of components have been identified (see the section on secondary «terminal class» genes). Here the use of the «enhancer trap technique» (reviewed in reference 74) may play an important role in identifying genes that are regulated by either tailless and/or huckebein.

In conclusion, the formation of the *Drosophila* tail involves the use of a complex system of cell-cell interactions and transcriptional gene regulation that operates during oogenesis and early embryonic development. The formation of the tail provides an exciting developmental system to further our understanding of the control of gene activity during pattern formation.

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