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Accessibility
BMP signaling is required for the generation of primordial germ cells in an insect

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Two modes of germ cell formation are known in animals. Specification through maternally inherited germ plasm occurs in many well-characterized model organisms, but most animals lack germ plasm by morphological and functional criteria. The only known alternative mechanism is induction, experimentally described only in mice, which specify germ cells through bone morphogenetic protein (BMP) signal-mediated induction of a subpopulation of mesodermal cells. Until this report, no experimental evidence of an inductive germ cell signal for specification has been available outside of vertebrates. Here we provide functional genetic experimental evidence consistent with a role for BMP signaling in germ cell formation in a basally branching insect. We show that primordial germ cells of the cricket Gryllus bimaculatus transduce BMP signals and require BMP pathway activity for their formation. Moreover, increased BMP activity leads to ectopic and supernumerary germ cells. Given the commonality of BMP signaling in mouse and cricket germ cell induction, we suggest that BMP-based germ cell formation may be a shared ancestral mechanism in animals.

Significance

Many model organisms specify germ cells using maternally supplied germ-line determinants. In contrast, mice rely on embryonic cell–cell signaling to induce cells to become germ cells. Molecular evidence for inductive germ-line specification had previously been provided only for the mouse. Here we provide functional evidence for inductive germ cell specification in an invertebrate, by showing that bone morphogenetic protein (BMP) signaling, which induces mouse germ cell specification, is required for establishment of embryonic germ cells in a cricket. BMP pathway knockdown causes reduction or loss of germ cells, and elevated levels of BMP signaling cause supernumerary and ectopic germ cells. BMP-based germ cell induction in mice and crickets suggests that this may be a shared ancestral mechanism in animals.


The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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Data deposition: The sequences reported in this paper have been deposited in the GenBank database (accession nos. KF670859–KX670865).

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(Gb-tkv) (type I) and Gryllus bimaculatus punt (Gb-put) (type II) and the BMP effector Smad1/5/8 (Gryllus bimaculatus Mothers against dpp, Gb-Mad) are expressed ubiquitously, including in PGCs, throughout PGC specification and cluster coalescence (Fig. 1 G–J and SI Appendix, Fig. S2 B–C’’ and G–J’’). In summary, these expression data indicate that PGCs are competent to receive BMP signals, that BMP ligands are expressed in neighboring and nearby cells and thus could serve as a source of inductive signals, and that PGCs are responding to BMP signals at the time of their specification and throughout subsequent PGC cluster coalescence.

To test for a requirement for BMP signaling in PGC specification, we used RNA interference (RNAi), validated with quantitative PCR (qPCR) and quantification of Pmad levels, SI Appendix, Fig. S3) to knock down each BMP ligand and the effector Gb-Mad. Many BMP pathway RNAi embryos displayed severe morphological defects suggestive of dorsalization, consistent with a conserved role for BMP signaling in dorsoventral patterning (21). However, we also obtained less severely affected RNAi embryos that developed to 4 d AEL, showed normal axial patterning, and possessed an anterior–posterior axis through the dorsal region of anterior abdominal segments, showing the mesoderm flanked by a single layer of ectodermal cells at both lateral margins of the embryo. (A–C) Nuclear Pmad signal is highest in lateral (dorsal) ectodermal and mesodermal cells. Costaining with Gb-Piwi transcripts (A) or Gb-Piwi protein (B and C) reveals nuclear Pmad in PGCs. Boxed regions in A’–C’’ are magnified and shown in volume projections in B” and C’’. Arrowheads indicate Pmad-positive PGCs. As previously documented (4), Gb-Piwi is detectable at the highest levels in PGCs but is also present at lower levels in some mesodermal and ectodermal cells at these stages. (D–F) BMP ligand expression. In stage 5 embryos, Gb-dpp1 (D), Gb-dpp2 (E), and Gb-gbb (F) are not enriched along the dorsal edge, in contrast to Pmad staining (A). In stage 7 embryos, Gb-dpp1 is expressed in ectodermal foci in each segment, and Gb-dpp2 and Gb-gbb are expressed along the dorsal edge of the embryo. Abdominal segments A1–A3 are shown; arrowheads indicate strong ligand expression. (D”–F”) Embryos double-stained for BMP ligands (green, indicated by arrowheads) and Piwi protein (magenta, single optical section, indicated by arrows). (G–J) Receptors Gb-tkv and Gb-put are expressed ubiquitously throughout embryogenesis, including in PGCs. G, G’, I, and J’) A dorsal focal plane of stage 5 embryos, where PGCs form. White outlines in H, H’, J, and J’ indicate PGC clusters in stage 7 embryos. Anterior is up; A2 is the anteriormost segment shown in each panel. [Scale bar, 10 μm in A’, B’, C’, G, and H (also applies to G’–J’), and 50 μm in all other panels.]
However, the complete absence of PGCs in a significant proportion of Gb-Mad and Gb-gbb RNAi embryos and the absence of apoptotic PGCs in all RNAi experiments suggest a direct requirement for BMP signaling in Gyrilus PGC specification.

We hypothesized that if BMP signaling acts as a direct inductive signal in PGC specification, then elevated or ectopic levels of BMP signaling might increase the number of PGCs formed or cause them to form in ectopic locations. To test this hypothesis, we took two approaches to raise BMP signaling activity in early embryos above wild-type levels: (i) injecting 4'-hydroxychalcone, a recently identified chemical activator of the BMP pathway (30), and (ii) injecting recombinant *D. melanogaster* Decapentaplegic (Dpp) protein (Dm-Dpp) (*SI Appendix*, Figs. S8 and S9). In both treatments, axial patterning, mesoderm formation, and overall embryonic morphology appeared normal in experimental embryos, but nuclear pMad levels at the time of PGC specification were slightly elevated and expanded toward the ventral midline with respect to controls (Fig. 3 M–O and *SI Appendix*, Fig. S10 A–D). PGC cluster size showed a dose-dependent increase in every segment of treated embryos (Fig. 3 D–F' and *SI Appendix*, Fig. S10 E). Summing the volumes of all PGC clusters in an embryo showed that the total number of PGCs per embryo was increased by up to 42% (Fig. 3G), consistent with activation of BMP signaling. In addition, both treatments caused a significantly increased frequency of ectopic PGCs, defined as PGCs found in segments A1, A5, or A6 (10 mM 4'-hydroxychalcone, P < 0.01, n = 31, Fig. 3E’ and L; 10 μg/mL Dm-Dpp, P < 0.01, n = 23, Fig. 3F and J–L; 100 μg/mL Dm-Dpp, P < 0.05, n = 15, Fig. 3F’ and L). Ectopic and supernumerary PGCs were not randomly distributed, but instead were clustered adjacent to the coelomic pouches like wild-type PGCs (Fig. 3 C, C’, J, and K). Ectopic PGCs are unlikely to result from mismigration, as this hypothesis does not explain the supernumerary or ectopic PGCs induced by the BMP activation treatments. However, the altered distribution of PGCs in these segments can be a nonspecific consequence of embryo perturbation, even in buffer-only injected controls, and that the proportion of these segments lacking PGCs in 4'-hydroxychalcone-treated embryos was not significantly different from controls (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S10 F–H). We note, however, that a low level of PGC loss in these segments can be a nonspecific consequence of embryo perturbation, even in buffer-only injected controls, and that the proportion of these segments lacking PGCs in 4'-hydroxychalcone-treated embryos was not significantly different from controls (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S10 F–H). We think it unlikely that BMP signaling actively represses PGC formation, as this hypothesis does not explain the supernumerary or ectopic PGCs induced by the BMP activation treatments. However, the altered distribution of PGCs induced by widespread BMP activation suggests that PGC specification is not solely dependent on BMP levels, but instead may involve a range of acceptable BMP signal levels integrated with...
Elevated BMP signaling levels induce supernumerary and ectopic Gryllus PGCs. Abdominal segments A1–A6 from (A) a representative DMSO control embryo (BSA controls were similar), (B and B') 10 μM 4'-hydroxychalcone–injected, and (C and C') 10 μg/ml Dm-Dpp–injected embryos at 4 d AEL. PGCs (arrowheads) identified with anti–Gb-Piwi (magenta); anterior is up. (Scale bar, 50 μm.) L3, third thoracic leg; pp, pleurapodia. A1 is the anterior-most segment in each panel unless otherwise indicated. (D–F') Quantification of total PGCs per segment at 4 d AEL in control and experimental embryos. Asterisks indicate significance as described in the Fig. 2 legend. (G) Percent difference between median total volume of PGC clusters per embryo in each knockdown condition compared with controls. (H and J) Higher magnification views of a single PGC cluster (white outline) in a control (DMSO) and a 10 μM 4'-hydroxychalcone–injected embryo. Gb-Piwi expression appears patchy in PGCs because it is localized to the cytoplasm and PGCs have a high nuclear:cytoplasmic ratio (4). (I) Quantification of ectopic PGC clusters in BMP-activated embryos compared with controls. Bars represent percent of embryos in each treatment that have at least one ectopic PGC cluster. (M–O) pMad expression shown with rainbow heat map (white/red, highest levels; purple/black, lowest levels) in the lateral A3 mesoderm at 2.5 d AEL, where PGCs arise, in representative control and BMP-activated embryos. Anterior is left; dorsal margin is down. (Scale bar, 50 μm.) Mann–Whitney test significance in D, E, E', F, F', and G–L, *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001.

Fig. 3.
phosphorylated SMAD is also detectable in multiple somatic cells, including cells neighboring the nascent PGCs (31). A combination of antagonistic and competence signals operate together with BMP signaling to ensure mouse PGC specification in only a subset of phosphorylated SMAD-positive cells, and we hypothesize that analogous mechanisms may be operative in Gryllus. Thus, although we cannot formally rule out additional roles for BMP signaling in migration, maintenance, or proliferation of PGCs, we propose that our results are most consistent with the hypothesis that BMP signaling induces PGC specification in Gryllus.

We have provided evidence that cricket PGCs are specified via BMP signaling, which appears to be necessary for cricket PGC formation. These data represent, to our knowledge, the first functional genetic evidence for an inductive mode of invertebrate germ cell specification. Our results support a model whereby Gb-gbb signals (and to a lesser extent Gb-dpp1 signals) from the dorsolateral abdominal ectoderm are transduced via Gb-Mad in the adjacent mesoderm and cause some of those cells to adopt PGC fate. The presence of supernumerary germ cells in BMP activation experiments and the reduction in PGC cluster size in RNAi experiments raise the possibility that BMP signaling promotes PGC proliferation as well as, or rather than, specification. However, this hypothesis does not account for the presence of ectopic PGCs, given that Gryllus PGCs do not undertake long-term migration (4), nor for the complete absence of PGCs in Gb-gbb and Gb-Mad RNAi experiments, given that PGC clusters are derived from a large number of initially specified precursors rather than just one or a few (4).

The fact that ectopic germ cells are found only in lateral positions may be because although pMad levels are elevated by both treatments (Fig. 3 M–O), the shape of the activation profile is the same as that of wild-type embryos: nuclear pMad is at the highest levels dorsolaterally, where PGCs are specified, and at the lowest levels ventrally, where PGCs are never observed (SI Appendix, Fig. S10 B and D). We hypothesize that an inhibitory ventral signal, possibly of the sog/Chordin family, may repress BMP signaling to dorsal tissues. Alternatively or in addition, a lateral competence signal may play a role in ensuring that not all cells expressing high levels of nuclear pMad differentiate as PGCs. With respect to their specification at the correct position along the anterior–posterior axis, the mechanism(s) that restricts PGC formation to the lateral mesoderm of segments A2–A4 in wild-type embryos are currently unknown. The appearance of ectopic PGCs anterior and posterior to wild-type positions in BMP activation experiments suggests that sufficiently high BMP signaling activity may perturb or overcome the positional information, potentially Hox gene-mediated, that normally limits PGC specification along the anterior–posterior axis. Our observation of segment-specific effects on PGC number in both the RNAi and BMP activation experiments is consistent with this model, as it suggests that PGC sensitivity to BMP signaling varies along the anterior–posterior axis.

Our findings in the cricket are similar to those observed in mouse PGC specification. In both cases, an ectodermal BMP signal induces a competent subset of mesoderm to become PGCs (32). PGC phenotypes are observable only in mildly knocked down Gryllus embryos, or in heterozygous knockout mice (8–10), as strong RNAi phenotypes and homozygous knockout conditions severely disrupt early development. Loss of BMP2/4, BMP8, and SMAD1/5/8 orthologs leads to loss or reduction of PGCs in both systems (Fig. 4A). Two parsimonious evolutionary scenarios based on functional genetic data that could explain the mechanistic similarities observed in cricket and mouse PGC specification are that BMP-based PGC induction (i) originated in a Bilaterian ancestor (denoted by a red diamond in Fig. 4B) or (ii) evolved independently within amniotes and insects (red text in Fig. 4B).

Given that, to our knowledge, a role for BMP signaling in PGC formation has been directly tested in only two phyla, at present it is difficult to determine which of these hypotheses is more likely. However, in support of the first hypothesis, we note that in multiple metazoan phyla, germ cells are responsive to BMP signaling at some stage of their development, including PGC specification, gametogenesis, germ-line stem cell divisions, and adoption of germ cell fate by stem cells in culture (Fig. 4B and SI Appendix). This suggests that in addition to its conserved role in dorsoventral patterning (21), there is an ancient and widespread association of BMP signaling with germ cell fate or pluripotency. If future studies reveal a role for BMP signaling in PGC formation in additional taxa that use the inductive mode, that
would further support the hypothesis that BMP signaling constitutes an ancestral animal mechanism for specification of the germ line.

**Materials and Methods**

Genes were cloned using sequences from the Gryllus developmental transcriptome (33), with additional sequence data kindly provided by T. Mito (University of Tokushima, Japan). All sequences reported in this study have been deposited in GenBank under accession nos. KF670859–KF670865. Gryllus culturing, phylogenetic analysis, in situ hybridization, immunostaining, dsRNA synthesis, and qPCR were conducted as previously described (4). Zygotic RNAi was achieved by injecting dsRNA at either 0–5 μM or 10–20 μM in 4–hydroxychalcone (30) (Santa Cruz Biotechnology Chemicals SC-262260) in DMSO, with DMSO as a control, and (ii) either 10 μg/mL or 100 μg/mL of recombinant Dm-Dpp protein (R&D Systems 159-DP-020/CF) in dilute HCl as per the manufacturer’s instructions, with 10 or 100 μg/mL of BSA in dilute HCl as a control. To quantify PGCs, the volume of each PGC cluster at 4 d AEL was calculated as an ellipsoid with confocal micrographs of optical sections through the region of the abdomen containing germ cells (SI Appendix, Fig. S4). The volume of each PGC in a cluster was thus strongly positively correlated with the number of PGCs in that cluster. Measurements of PGC cluster volume, which were more efficient than directly counting PGCs, therefore allowed us to accurately determine the total number of PGCs per cluster, per segment, and per embryo.

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