REFERENCES AND NOTES

- 1. T. Collins et al., Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 81. 4917 (1984).
- C. Benoist and D. Mathis, Annu. Rev. Immunol. 8, 2 681 (1990).
- L. H. Glimcher and C. J. Kara, ibid. 10, 13 (1992). J. P. Cogswell, N. Zeleznik-Le, J. P.-Y. Ting, Crit.
- Rev. Immunol. 11, 87 (1991). M. A. Blanar, M. C. Boettger, R. A. Flavell, *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* 85, 4672 (1988). 5.
- I. Amaldi, W. Reith, C. Berte, B. Mach, J. Immunol. 6 142, 999 (1989).
- A. Celada, M. J. Klemsz, R. A. Maki, Eur. J. 7 Immunol. 19, 1103 (1989).
- D. J. Lew, T. Decker, J. E. Darnell Jr., Mol. Cell. 8. Biol. 9, 5404 (1989).
- M. Müller et al., EMBO J. 12, 4221 (1993).
 A. Maffei et al., J. Immunol. 139, 942 (1987).
- 11. V. Steimle, L. A. Otten, M. Zufferey, B. Mach, Cell 75, 135 (1993). V. Steimle, C. A. Siegrist, A. Mottet, B. Mach,
- 12. unpublished data.
- 13 B. Lisowska-Grospierre, M. Fondaneche, M. Rols, C. Griscelli, A. Fischer, Hum. Mol. Genet., in press.
- 14. The SV40-transformed fibroblast line MHV (13) is derived from the affected sibling of patient Juan (M.H.J.) (13), whose B cell line is complemented by CIITA (11).
- D. S. Singer and J. E. Maguire, Crit. Rev. Immunol. 15. 10, 235 (1990).
- M. R. Bono et al., Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 88, 16. 6077 (1991).
- J. Soh et al., Cell 76, 793 (1994); S. Hemmi, R. 17. Böhni, G. Stark, F. DiMarco, M. Aguet, ibid., p. 803.
- D. J. Lew, T. Decker, I. Strehlow, J. E. Darnell Jr., 18. Mol. Cell. Biol. 11, 182 (1991).
- K. Shuai, C. Schindler, V. R. Prezioso, J. E. Darnell 19. Jr., Science 258, 1808 (1992).
- K. Shuai, G. R. Stark, I. M. Kerr, J. E. Darnell Jr., *ibid.* **261**, 1744 (1993). 20
- 21. C. Schindler, K. Shuai, V. R. Prezioso, J. E. Darnell Jr., ibid. 257, 809 (1992).
- S. Pellegrini and C. Schindler, Trends Biochem. 22. Sci. 18, 338 (1993).
- 23. Cells were lysed in guanidinium isothiocyanate and total RNA was isolated by CsCl step-gradient centrifugation. Ribonuclease protection experiments were carried out with 10 µg (CIITA or TBP) or 5 µg (DRA) of total RNA per hybridization as described (*11*). The CIITA, TBP, and HLA-DRA riboprobes protect fragments of 350 base pairs (bp), 275 bp, and 309 bp, respectively (6, 11).
- 24. The efficiency of the cycloheximide and staurosporine treatment was verified by a >95% inhibition of cell surface HLA-DR expression after 24 hours of incubation.
- Y.-S. E. Cheng, M. F. Becker-Manley, T. D. 25. Nguyen, W. F. Degrado, G. J. Jonak, J. Interferon Res. 6, 417 (1986).
- J. M. Allen and B. Seed, Nucleic Acids Res. 16, 26. 11824 (1988).
- D. J. Charron and H. O. McDevitt, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 76, 6567 (1979); A. J. Watson, R. Demars, I. S. Trowbridge, F. H. Bach, Nature 304, 358 (1983); A. Ziegler et al., Immunobiology 171, 77 (1986).
- 28. Cell lines were transfected by electroporation (THP-1) (11) or by calcium phosphate precipitation followed by 4 hours later by a glycerol shock (ME1477 and 143B). Stable transfectants were generated by selection with hygromycin B (Calbiochem, 200 µg/ml) without selection for cell surface expression. Flow cytometric analysis was done as described (11).
- 29. Transient transfection of BLS fibroblasts was carried out in situ on sterile microscope slides with a JOUAN GHT 128/A electropulser (13). The cells were transfected in 100 µl of 10 mM sodium phosphate (pH 7.2), 1 mM MgCl₂, 250 mM sucrose with 1 µg of plasmid DNA. Five pulses (100 ms, 600 V, 1 Hz, E = 1.5 kV/cm) were delivered, and 2 min later the slides were placed in complete medium and cultivated for 48 hours. Antibody binding [monoclonal antibody (mAb) 2.06] on

ethanol-fixed fibroblasts was revealed with biotynilated sheep antibody to mouse lg (Amersham) followed by avidin-fluorescein isothiocyanate (Southern Biotechnology Associates). Immunofluorescence analysis was carried out with a Leitz Orthoplan optical microscope.

- S. Y. Tsang, M. Nakanishi, B. M. Peterlin, *Mol. Cell Biol.* 10, 711 (1990).
- P. Henthorn, P. Zervos, M. Raducha, H. Harris, T. 31 Kadesch, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 85, 6342 (1988).
- 32. C. M. Gorman, L. F. Moffat, B. H. Howard, Mol. Cell. Biol. 2, 1044 (1982).
- 33. We thank M. Zufferey for technical assistance and W. Reith and M. Strubin for critical reading of the manuscript. We also thank S. Carrel for providing the ME1477 cell line and T. Decker for providing the GBP probe. Funded by grants from the Swiss National Foundation and the L. Jeantet Foundation.

17 February 1994; accepted 6 May 1994

Pattern Formation and Eyespot Determination in Butterfly Wings

Sean B. Carroll,* Julie Gates, David N. Keys, Stephen W. Paddock, Grace E. F. Panganiban, Jane E. Selegue, Jim A. Williams

Butterfly wings display pattern elements of many types and colors. To identify the molecular processes underlying the generation of these patterns, several butterfly cognates of Drosophila appendage patterning genes have been cloned and their expression patterns have been analyzed. Butterfly wing patterns are organized by two spatial coordinate systems. One system specifies positional information with respect to the entire wing field and is conserved between fruit flies and butterflies. A second system, superimposed on the general system and involving several of the same genes, operates within each wing subdivision to elaborate discrete pattern elements. Eyespots, which form from discrete developmental organizers, are marked by Distal-less gene expression. These circular pattern elements appear to be generated by a process similar to, and perhaps evolved from, proximodistal pattern formation in insect appendages.

Most of the more than 17,000 species of butterflies can be distinguished by their wing color patterns. The diversity of butterfly wing pattern elements has stimulated. comparative, theoretical, and experimental study [reviewed in (1)]. One pattern element, the eyespot, occurs in varying sizes and numbers on the upper or lower wing surfaces and is used to confuse or warn off predators. This circular pattern of pigmentation is controlled by a patterning focus at the center (1-3). In Precis coenia (Nymphalidae), the best studied model species, cautery of this organizer ablates the eyespot (2), whereas transplantation to an ectopic site induces a new eyespot (3). Although the pattern-organizing properties of the eyespot focus may be related to other developmental organizers, nothing is known at the molecular level about butterfly wing pattern elements.

Flies diverged from butterflies approximately 200 million years ago and possess wings that are much smaller, have a simpler suborganization, and develop from imaginal discs with a distinct style of growth and morphogenesis. However, the fruit fly Dro-

SCIENCE • VOL. 265 • 1 JULY 1994

sophila melanogaster is the closest relative of butterflies for which there is detailed developmental and genetic information. Much progress has been made in the characterization of genes involved in Drosophila wing organization and patterning [(4-9), reviewed in (10)]; therefore we examined the potential roles of the butterfly cognates of such Drosophila genes in butterfly wing patterning. We cloned and examined the expression of the Precis coenia homologs of the Drosophila wingless and decapentaplegic signaling molecules and the apterous, invected, scalloped, and Distal-less transcription factors.

The largest P. coenia complementary DNAs (cDNAs) representing the apterous (ap, 3.2 kb), scalloped (sd, 3.8 kb), wingless (wg, 3.0 kb), decapentaplegic (dpp, 0.9 kb), and invected (inv. 1.5 kb) genes were isolated and analyzed. Genomic Southern blot analyses demonstrated that the cDNAs represent single copy sequences and are the closest P. coenia relatives, at the DNA level, of the respective D. melanogaster genes. Conserved regions of these cDNAs were sequenced, and the deduced amino acid translations were aligned with the D. melanogaster proteins (Fig. 1). Sequence conservation occurs within and outside (11) the ap homeodomains, and these residues are also present in an apparent vertebrate ap cognate (12). The P. coenia en/inv gene homolog contains

Howard Hughes Medical Institute and Laboratory of Molecular Biology, University of Wisconsin, Madison, WI 53706, USA.

^{*}To whom correspondence should be addressed.

residues diagnostic for the invected homeodomain (13). We have confirmed that this cDNA represents the P. coenia inv gene by isolating a P. coenia en cognate from an embryonic library (11). The P. coenia wg protein is similar to Drosophila wg, includes residues that are conserved between many Wnt genes (14), and is distinct from other P. coenia Wnt sequences. The region of the sd gene shown corresponds to a putative protein interaction domain (14), similar to the vertebrate TEFI transcription factor protein that appears to be an sd cognate (Fig. 1). In this region, the P. coenia sd and vertebrate TEFI are 91% identical, suggesting that there are strong selective constraints on this protein. The P. coenia dpp sequence is the closest relative to the Drosophila dpp gene (16) and is distinct from a second transforming growth factor (TGF)- β homolog we found in P. coenia that corresponds to the Drosophila 60A gene (17).

The Drosophila wing imaginal disc is divided into anterior-posterior (A-P) and dorsal-ventral (D-V) compartments by the action of the engrailed (Fig. 2F) (18) and apterous (Fig. 2B) (7, 9, 19) homeodomaincontaining selector proteins, respectively. The D-V boundary of the developing Dro-

Links 4

sophila second instar disc subsequently acts as a patterning focus for wing formation. Dorsal (ap^+) and ventral (ap^-) cells interact (9) and activate the sd (Fig. 2H) and vestigial pro-wing genes (7), whose products are required for formation of the wing (20, 21). This D-V boundary also forms the wing edge, or margin, which contains distinct pattern elements and is organized by the wingless protein (Fig. 2D) (5, 22). The wing perimeter comprises the most distal cells (with respect to the wing blade) and is marked by the expression of the Distal-less (Dll) gene (Fig. 3A). The global aspects of D-V, A-P, and proximodistal (P-D) positional information revealed by gene expression in butterfly wing discs appear to be similar to those described for Drosophila.

Like Drosophila, the butterfly wing disc is divided into dorsal and ventral domains by expression of the *ap* gene. The *P. coenia ap* gene is expressed exclusively in dorsal cells of both the hindwing and forewing discs (Fig. 2A and inset) at all stages examined. This pattern is consistent with *ap* functioning in the specification of dorsal cell fate (9) and in the regulation of genes involved in wing formation (7) and D-V cell interactions (23). In addition, because butterfly wing color pat-

Haliy 2

terns often differ on their dorsal and ventral surfaces (1), D-V positional information may regulate color patterns.

The pattern of wingless gene expression also suggests that the D-V organization of the butterfly wing disc is comparable to that of Drosophila (Fig. 2D). As in Drosophila, where wg organizes the patterning of the wing margin (5, 22), fifth instar P. coenia wing discs express wg in cells along the future wing margin (Fig. 2C). The similarity of the third instar Drosophila and fifth instar P. coenia wg patterns suggests that these stages of wing development may be comparable. The wg gene is also expressed in proximal bands that could correspond to banding patterns on the adult forewing (Fig. 2C, arrows).

The anteroposterior organization of the *P. coenia* wing disc is reflected, as in other insect and Arthropod segments and appendages (24, 25), by the expression of the *en/inv* selector genes. In the forewing and hindwing discs of *P. coenia*, the *invected* gene is expressed in the posterior 60 to 70% of the disc (Fig. 2E), a slightly larger portion of the disc than in Drosophila (18) (Fig. 2F). The boundary of *invected* gene expression occurs between the tra-

apterous			scalloped		
D. melanogaster P. coenia	· 361 1	LSSS SRTKRMRT SFKHHQLRTMK SY FAINHNPDAKDLKQL LGST SRTKRMRT SFKHHQLRTMK SY FAINHNPDAKDLKQL Heix 3	D. melanogaster P. coenia	· 301 1	WADLNTNTDLTTGSGDFYGVTSQYESNENVVLVCSTIVCS WADLNTNNLDDPGAFYGVTSVYESNENMTITCSTKVCS
	401 41	SQKTGLPKRVLQVWFQNARAKWRRMMMKQD SQKTGLPKRVLQVWFQNARAKWRRMVTKQENKMAEKCSPD		341 39	FGKQVVEKVESEYSRLENNRYVYRIQRSPMCEYMINFIQK FGKQVVEKVETEYARNEGGRFVYRIQRSPMCEYMVNFIHK
invected D. melanogaster P.coenia	431 81	GSGLLEKGEGALD.LDSISVHSPTSFILGGPNSTPPLNLD GSLEMDMYHGPMGSIQSLPPHSPPYSVMGGPPSPNSMDCP*	decapentaplegic D. melanogaster P. coenia	381 79	LKNLPERYMMNSVLENFTILQVMRARETQETLLCIAYVFE LKHLPEKYMMNSVLENFTILQVVSNRDTQETLLCAAFVFE
	413 1	TPIVWPAWVYCTRYSDRPSSGRSPRARKPKKPAT RSMVWPAWVYCTRYSDRPSSGRSPRTRRPKKP		420 118	VAAONSGTTHHIYRLIKE VSNSEHGAQHHIYRLYKC
	447 33	#SSAAGGGGGGVEKGEAADGGGVPEDKRPRTAFSGTQLAR PGDGNPTDEKRPRTAFSGPQLAR		· 401 1	GLLVEVRUVRSLKPAPHHHVRLRRSADEAHERWCHKQPLL
	487 56	LKHEFNENRYLTEKRRQQLSGELGLNEAQIKIWFQNKRAK LKHEFAENRYLTERRRHTLAAELGLAEAQIKIWFQNKRAK		441 33	FTYTDDGRHKARSIRDVSGGEGGGKGGRNKRHARRPT MLYTEDER.ARTARERGETRLTRNKRAAQRKGHRA
	527 96	LKKSSGTKNPLALQLMAQGLYNHSTIPLTREEEELQELQE IKKASGQRNPLALQLMAQGLYNHSTIPLTKEEEELEM		478 67	RRKNHDDTCRRHSLYVDFSDVGWDDWIVAPLGYDAYYC HHRRKEAREICQRRPLFVDFADVGWSDWIVAPHGYDAYYC
	567 133	AASARAAKEPC * KAREREQNRQ * .		516 107	HGKCPF PLADHFNSTNHAVVQTLVNNMNPGKVPKACCVPT QGDCPF PLSDHLNGTNHAIVQTLVNSVNPAAVPKACCVPT
wingless D. melanogaster P. coenia	148 1	EGTIESCTCDYSHQSRSPQANHQAGSVAGVRDWEWGGCSD EGSIESCTCDYSHVDRQPH.RLPAAAAANVRVWWWGGCSD	55	556 147	QLDSVAMLYLNDQSTVVLKNYQEMTVVGGGCR. 587 QLSSISMLYMDEVNNVVLKNYQDMMVVGCGCR* 179
	188 40	NIGFGFKFSREFVDTGERGRNLREKMNLHNNEAGRAHVQA NIGFGFRFSREFVDTGERGKTSREKMNLHNNEAARIDVQT S'primor	Fig. 1. Deduced partial amino acid sequences of the <i>P. coenia apterous invected, wingless, scalloped,</i> and <i>decapentaplegic</i> proteins. Partia sequences derived from cDNAs (<i>32</i>) representing each of the five <i>P</i>		
	228 80	EMRQECKCHGMSGSCTVKTCWMRLANFRVIGDNLKARFDG EMRQECKCHGMSGSCTVKTCWMRLPSFRSVGDALKDRFDG	<i>coenia</i> genes <i>ila</i> protein. The	<i>coenia</i> genes are aligned with the corresponding portion of the <i>Drosoph-</i> <i>ila</i> protein. The identical residues are shaded. For <i>ap</i> , the three helices of	
	268 120	ATRVQVTNSLRATNALAPVSPNAAGSNSVGSNG 306.// ASRVMMPNTEIEAPVQRNDVAPHRV	boxed and the signature regions outside of the homeodomain are bracketed. In the <i>wg</i> sequence, widely conserved residues are under- lined, and the amino acids used for the design of polymerase chain reaction primers are overlined. For <i>sd</i> , the region shown is a putative protein-protein interaction domain. In <i>dpp</i> , the conserved cleavage site is indicated (arrow). The numbering system for the <i>P. coenia</i> sequences is arbitrary and does not correspond to the beginning of the cDNA clones		
	358 145	GRRQGRKHNRYHFQLNPHNPEHKPPGSKDLVYLEPSPSFC PRRDRYRFQLRPHNPDHKTPGSKDLVYLESSPGFC			
	398 180	EKNLRQGILGTHGRQCNETSLGVDGCGLMCCGRGYRRDEV EKNPRLGIPGTHGRACNDTSIGVDGCDLMCCGRGYRTETM			
	438 220	VVVERCACTFHWCCEVKCKLCRTKKVIYTCL* FVVERCNCTFHWCCEVKCKLCRTEKVVHTCL*	or to the protein sequence.		

REPORTS

chea that will become the R2 and M1 veins in the adult forewing and hindwings (arrow, Fig. 3, E and F). This placement is more anterior than was expected from discontinuities observed in some Lepi-dopteran wing patterns (1) and does not correspond to the boundary of any *P. coenia* adult wing pattern element such as eyespots.

The overall fate map of the Drosophila

wing disc differs from that of butterfly wing discs in that the former gives rise to the wings (distal structures) and to the body wall (proximal) structures, whereas butterfly discs give rise only to wing tissue. The expression of the butterfly sd gene was examined to determine whether the prowing genes are expressed within the wing proper in butterflies. The scalloped gene is broadly expressed throughout the butterfly wing disc, in regions including the peripheral tissue (Fig. 2G). This pattern is consistent with the function of sd in Precis being similar to that in Drosophila (20).

In spite of the absence of body wall primordia in the butterfly wing disc, we observe that the P-D organization of the wing proper is similar to that in *Drosophila*. The *Dll* homeobox gene is expressed at high levels along the *Drosophila* wing margin,

В

m D

F

Η

Fig. 2. Conserved features of D-V and A-P compartmentalization and wing patterning in flies and butterflies. (A), (C), (E), and (G) are fifth-insar P. coenia wing discs hybridized in situ with specific P. coenia probes, while (B), (D), (F), and (H) are D. melanogaster discs stained to reveal gene expression patterns as the native protein (F) or as a lacZ pattern of an enhancer trap (B, D, and H). (A) Dorsal view of ap gene expression, which is restricted to dorsal cells. The adult butterfly wing is formed by tissue proximal to the bordering lacunae (bl), which forms the adult wing D-V boundary (margin). D-V compartmentalization includes both the proximal wing primordia and the peripheral tissue. (Inset a') A cross section of an in situ hybridized disc that demonstrates that (upper) dorsal but not (lower) ventral cells express ap. (Inset a") A cross section of a disc as in (a') counterstained with hematoxylin and eosin to reveal (lower) ventral cells. (B) Dorsal restriction of ap expression in Drosophila includes cells that give rise to body wall and the wing proper. (C) The wg gene is expressed along the wing margin (wm) and in two proximal bands of cells (arrows) that, on the basis of tracheal landmarks, appear to approximate the position of the outer boundaries of the proximal and distal bands of the central symmetry system of the adult forewing (Fig. 3E). The wg gene may function to pattern these forewing bands as well as elements at or near the wing margin. (D) The way gene is expressed and required (22) along the wing margin (wm) in Drosophila. (E) Expression of the inv gene is restricted to the 65 to 70% posterior of the P. coenia hindwing with a boundary between the R₂ and M1 veins (arrow) and extends through the peripheral tissue, indicating that these cells are specified with respect to A-P position, although they die during pupation. Greater transcription in the mid-posterior section of the disc is reproducible. (F) Expression of the en/inv gene in D. melanogaster is restricted to the posterior compartment (33). (G) sd is expressed in all cells of the P. coenia wing. (H) Expression of the sd gene in cells that give rise to the wing proper but not to the body wall in Drosophila. Hybridization in situ to butterfly wing discs was performed by a modification of methods established for Drosophila wing discs (34). Scale bars: (A, C, E, and G) 100 µm; (B, D, F, and H) 50 µm; (a' and a") 25 µm.

Fig. 3. Two phases of DII expression in the butterfly wing: proximodistal patterning in the wing and wing cell. (A) The Drosophila Dil gene is expressed in cells along the wing margin in the everting pupal wing disc, which is the distal perimeter of the wing blade. (B) In P. coenia in the mid-fifth instar, DII is expressed in the distal portion of each wing cell with a pronounced proximal boundary (arrows) and at higher levels down the midline of each wing cell to the proximal boundary. The conservation of the DII pattern suggests some functional constraint on DII in the wing, in spite of the absence of evidence for a genetic requirement in Drosophila (29). (C) In the dorsal forewing imaginal disc, DII resolves into a spot of expression on the midline of the Cu1-Cu2 wing cell (arrow). (D) On the dorsal hindwing imaginal disc, DII resolves into a spot of expression on the midline of the Cu1-Cu2 wing cell (arrow). (E) The adult P. coenia forewing exhibits two evespots, a small anterior (in some individuals) and a large posterior element. Other notable pattern elements include the margin (m), submarginal bands (smb), parafocal elements (pfe), and the proximal (pb) and distal (db) bands of the central symmetry system. (F) The adult hindwing exhibits two eyespots, a large anterior and a smaller posterior element. The spots of DII expression in (C) and (D) correspond to the poste-



E

G

rior eyespots in (E) and (F), respectively. Hybridization in situ to *P. coenia* wing discs was performed as in Fig. 2. Scale bars: (A) 50 μm; (B to D) 200 μm; (E and F) 2 mm.

which corresponds to the distal-most cells of the wing proper (Fig. 3A). The Dll gene is also expressed in the distal portion of the butterfly wing disc with a defined proximal boundary (Fig. 3B).

Taken together, the expression pattern of these genes suggests that the butterfly and fruit fly wing fields are organized and regulated in a similar manner (Fig. 5A). Furthermore, the restriction of *apterous* expression to dorsal cells and the conservation of the *sd*, wg (at the margin), and *Dll* patterns, all of which require formation of the D-V boundary to be properly expressed in *Drosophila*, strengthens the view that D-V compartmentalization is a fundamental feature of insect wing organization (7, 9, 10).

The fundamental units of pattern formation in the butterfly wing are the regions bounded by wing veins and the wing margin—a region designated as the wing cells (1). Pattern development within each wing cell is independent of that in other wing cells. In most species, the color pattern consists of a serial repetition of the same pattern elements in each wing cell, and the overall wing pattern is a composite of these isolated fields (1).

Most of the molecular probes revealed discrete patterns of transcription within each wing cell that have no counterpart in Drosophila. Rays of Dll transcription extend from the presumptive wing margin down the midline of several wing cells in mid-fifth instar fore- and hindwing discs (Fig. 3B). In the Cu₁-Cu₂ wing cells of the dorsal and ventral forewing and hindwing, Dll transcription is resolved into a growing circle at the proximal end of the midline ray (Fig. 3, C and D). The position of these circles of Dll transcription in the midline of the dorsal Cu1-Cu2 wing cells corresponds to the position of the large posterior evespot on the adult dorsal forewing (Fig. 3E) and to the small posterior eyespot on the adult dorsal hindwing (Fig. 3F). The position and time of appearance of the forewing Dll spot in the fifth larval instar corresponds to the position and time at which the eyespot focus is determined, as established by transplantation and cautery experiments (2, 3).

The resolution of *Dll* transcription within the eyespot primordia suggests that *Dll* responds to a dynamic positional information system within the wing cell. In younger discs, the rays of *Dll* expression are similar in shape and intensity and terminate at the proximal boundary of the global *Dll* pattern (Fig. 4A). As development proceeds, the proximal ends of the rays appear to enlarge (Fig. 4B), but only the proximal end of the Cu₁-Cu₂ wing cell rays continues to enlarge, whereas the others fade away (Fig. 4C). By the late fifth instar, the predominant wing cell subpattern of *Dll* expression is in the position of the future

Fig. 4. The ontogeny of DII expression in the eyespot primordia and molecular features of the wing cell coordinate system. (A to C) Steps in the formation of the circular DII pattern on the dorsal forewing. (A) The DII midline rays initially appear similar. (B) The proximal tips of the midline rays enlarge, with one (Cu1-Cu2, arrow) more pronounced than the others. (C) The Cu1-Cu₂ spot (arrow) continues to enlarge. (D) The Dll spot in (C) comprises about 200 cells. (E) Expression of the wg gene in two parallel rays (arrows) that emanate from the wing margin and extend up to about 12 cell diameters proximally into each wing cell. These rays are parallel to and well-spaced from the trachea. (F) The dpp gene



expressed in two rays (arrows) that extend up to approximately 30 to 40 cells proximally into each wing cell. These rays appear to form between the trachea and *wg* rays in (A). (G) The relation between *wg* and *Dll* expression in the Cu₁-Cu₂ wing cell revealed by simultaneous in situ hybridization with *wg* and *Dll* probes. The *wg* pattern is restricted to the distal end of the wing cell (bottom arrows) and terminates about 30 cell diameters from the *Dll* spot (top arrow) shown here. Hybridization in situ to *P. coenia* wing discs was performed as in Fig. 2. Scale bars: (A to C and E to G) 100 µm; (D) 50 µm.

eyespot (Fig. 4D), although we cannot determine what portion of the eyespot is represented by Dll expression. Surgical manipulations of the pupal disc suggest that the center (focus) of the eyespot consists of approximately 300 cells, whereas the Dll spot in the fifth instar disc consists of about 200 cells (3) (Fig. 4D). Because the region occupied by the adult posterior dorsal forewing eyespot is larger than and extends beyond the Cu_1 - Cu_2 wing cell, the Dll transcription spot in the fifth instar may represent only a portion of the future eyespot. The transient enlargement of the proximal ends of Dll rays that do not form eyespots suggests that the potential for eyespot formation may exist in most wing cells. The Dll ray that arises on the midline of the M_1 - M_2 forewing cell enlarges to a greater degree than those in the other non-eyespot-bearing wing cells. A small eyespot of variable diameter appears in the M_1 - M_2 wing cell of the anterior dorsal forewing of some individuals in our P. coenia colony (Fig. 3E). The Dll gene does not mark the large anterior hindwing eyespot, which suggests that molecular events are not identical in all eyespots, as was suggested by the observations that all eyespots do not respond similarly to ablation or transplantation (28).

In addition to the Dll rays and spots, other evidence suggests that a coordinate system operates within each wing cell. For example, wg is transcribed in two thin parallel rays that extend proximally into each wing cell from the wing margin and are well-spaced from the trachea (Fig. 4E). The dpp gene is also expressed in rays extending proximally from the wing margin, which appear to form just outside of the wg rays (Fig. 4F) and extend more proximally in from the wing margin than do the wg rays (Fig. 4G). Because wg and dpp are secreted growth factors and play a role in Dll regulation in Drosophila embryonic limb primordia (27, 28), one or both proteins may be involved in the formation of the midline ray of Dll. However, only dpp appears to be expressed closely enough to the Dll spot to play a role in its formation. The wg rays that emanate from the margin may be involved in the formation of pattern elements along or parallel to the margin, such as the parafocal elements or submarginal bands (Fig. 3E).

These detailed gene expression patterns, including venous stripes (sd) (11), intervenous rays (wg, dpp, and Dll), spots (Dll), and chevrons (ap) (11), appear to reflect a specialized coordinate system operating within each wing cell that creates

SCIENCE • VOL. 265 • 1 JULY 1994

REPORTS

Fig. 5. The global wing and wing cell coordinate systems, and eyespots as proximodistal pattern elements. (A) The global wing coordinate system. The insect wing consists of two cell layers, dorsal and ventral, that are directly apposed and sculpted at the margin (M). In Drosophila, the wing region is organized at the boundary between cells of dorsal and ventral fate in the growing imaginal disc (9). This boundary is demarcated by the expression of the dorsal ap (inset, gold) homeodomain protein and in mature discs by the expression of the wg (inset, wg at the margin) protein, whereas the entire wing region expresses the vg and sd (light blue background in wing) regulatory proteins (7). Anterior-posteri-



or compartmentalization is demarcated by *en* (turquoise) expression in the posterior compartment, while the P-D organization of the wing proper is reflected by *Dll* (light pink and blue-gray) expression in distal-most cells. These relations hold in the larger and morphologically divergent imaginal wing discs of the Lepidopteran *P. coenia*, which suggests that the function and regulation of the *ap*, *wg*, *sd*, *en*, and *Dll* genes in wing patterning have been conserved. (**B**) An eyespot represented as concentric circles of pigmentation surrounding a focus (clear spot). The expression of *Dll* is within the primordia of the eyespot. (**C**) The circular organization of the third instar *Drosophila* leg imaginal disc represented as concentric rings of cells. The centermost cells are fated to form the most distal structures and express the *Dll* gene.

the wing pattern elements. The rays of wg and *dpp* expression indicate that positional information is organized parallel to the wing veins (A-P coordinates), whereas the proximal boundaries of Dll, dpp, and wg expression indicate that positional information is also organized along the P-D dimension. With the exception of the eyespot, no obvious pattern elements on the adult P. coenia wing correspond directly to the wg and dpp rays or to the proximal boundary of Dll expression. However, intervenous stripes, venous stripes, chevrons, and proximodistally organized pigmentation zones do appear in numerous butterfly species (1). The coordinate system reflected by the various gene expression patterns may be conserved among butterflies and represent a common patterning landscape to which downstream genes (such as those involved in scale formation and pigmentation) respond differently in different species. With molecular probes for particular Lepidopteran gene products now in hand, the conservation or divergence of wing cell patterning between butterfly species may now be addressed.

The Dll circular transcription pattern corresponds to the position of P. coenia adult eyespots, forms at a time when the eyespot focus (center) has been determined (3), and is the first molecular evidence for distinct gene activity in the eyespot field. The Dll homeobox gene is involved in pattern formation (29, 30) and is the only regulatory gene known to be expressed in a

circular pattern in the butterfly wing. Therefore, it is reasonable to postulate a special role for *Dll*, on the basis of known features of *Dll* regulation and function in *Drosophila* [reviewed in (10) and (31)] in the elaboration of circular patterns in the wing cell. Expression of the *Dll* gene in *Drosophila* embryos (27, 28) is related to the formation of the limb primordia and is required for elaboration of the proximodistal axis within the cephalic and ventral thoracic appendages (29). The *Dll* gene is activated in a circular pattern within embryonic segments (28) and in the growing imaginal discs (Fig. 5C).

Indeed, the eyespot may be a proximodistal element superimposed on the twodimensional wing surface. That is, the center of the eyespot (the focus) may represent the distal-most positional value (and express Dll), and the surrounding rings may represent progressively more proximal positions (Fig. 5B) in a manner analogous to the organization of the Drosophila leg imaginal disc (Fig. 5C). In the eyespot field, cell interactions and diffusible factors are constrained to a single cell layer (1), and the discrete P-D positional values that are created may be read out as concentric rings of pigmentation. In the imaginal limb disc, the P-D axis is elaborated by growth and morphogenesis of the different limb segments. In both limbs and eyespots, the generation of circular pattern elements and the elaboration of proximodistal positional values from a two-dimensional coordinate system may result from combinations of secreted growth factors (for example, wg and *dpp*) operating in one plane and the patterned activation of a regulatory gene (for example, Dll) along a new patterning axis. This general principle has also been underscored in comparisons of the outgrowth of Drosophila appendages with the elaboration of the Xenopus body axis by the Spemann organizer (9). The patterning of butterfly wings may then be considered in the same context as these better studied experimental models. The identification of specific proteins that may be involved in the formation or elaboration (or both) of the eyespot suggests that some direct experimental tests of the eyespot determination mechanism and the diversity of butterfly wing patterns may now be addressed at the molecular level.

REFERENCES AND NOTES

- H. F. Nijhout, The Development and Evolution of Butterfly Wing Patterns (Smithsonian Institution Press, Washington, DC, 1991).
- _____, J. Embryol. Exp. Morphol. 86, 191 (1985).
 _____, Dev. Biol. 80, 275 (1980).
- F. A. Spencer, M. Hoffman, W. M. Gelbart, *Cell* 28, 45 (1982); J. A. Williams, J. B. Bell, S. B. Carroll, *Genes Dev.* 5, 248 (1991).
- J. P. Couso, M. Bate, A. Martínez-Arias, *Science* 259, 484 (1993).
- 6. G. Struhl and K. Basler, Cell 72, 527 (1993).
- J. A. Williams, S. W. Paddock, S. B. Carroll, Development 117, 571 (1993).
- G. Campbell, T. Weaver, A. Tomlinson, *Cell* 74, 1113 (1993).
- F. Dias-Benjumea and S. M. Cohen, *ibid.* **75**, 741 (1993); J. A. Williams, S. W. Paddock, K. Vorwerk, S. B. Carroll, *Nature* **368**, 298 (1994).
- J. A. Williams and S. B. Carroll, *BioEssays* 15, 167 (1993).
- 11. J. A. Williams, D. N. Keys, J. E. Selegue, S. B. Carroll, unpublished observations.
- Y. Xu et al., Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 90, 227 (1993).
- C.-C. Hui, K. Matsuno, K. Ueno, Y. Suzuki, *ibid.* 89, 167 (1992); K. G. Coleman, S. J. Poole, M. P. Weir, W. C. Soeller, T. Kornberg, *Genes Dev.* 1, 19 (1987).
- 14. A. Sidow, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 89, 5098 (1992).
- J. H. Xiao, I. Davidson, H. Matthes, J. M. Garnier, P. Chambon, *Cell* 65, 551 (1991).
- R. W. Padgett, R. D. St. Johnston, W. M. Gelbart, *Nature* 325, 81 (1987).
- J. S. Docter, P. D. Jackson, K. E. Rashka, M. Visalli, F. M. Hoffmann, *Dev. Biol.* 151, 491 (1992).
- A. Garcia-Bellido, *Ciba Found. Symp.* 29, 16 (1975); P. A. Lawrence and G. Morata, *Dev. Biol.* 50, 321 (1976); T. Kornberg, I. Siden, P. O'Farrell, M. Simon, *Cell* 40, 45 (1985).
- B. Cohen, M. E. McGriffin, C. Pfeifle, D. Segal, S. M. Cohen, *Genes Dev.* 6, 715 (1992).
- 20. G. Campbell et al., ibid., p. 367.
- J. A. Williams and J. B. Bell, *EMBO J.* 7, 1355 (1988); J. P. Couso, S. A. Bishop, A. Martinez-(1998).
- Arias, *Development* **120**, 621 (1994). 22. R. G. Phillips and J. R. S. Whittle, *ibid.* **118**, 427 (1993).
- M. E. Stevens and D. L. Brower, *Dev. Biol.* 117, 326 (1986).
- 24. N. H. Patel, T. B. Kornberg, C. S. Goodman, Development 107, 201 (1989).
- 25. N. H. Patel et al., Cell 58, 955 (1989).
- H. F. Nijhout and L. W. Grunert, *Development* 102, 377 (1988); V. French and P. M. Brakefield, *ibid.* 116, 103 (1992).

- 27. S. M. Cohen, G. Bronner, F. Kuttner, G. Jürgens, H. Jäckle, *Nature* **338**, 432 (1989).
- B. Cohen, A. A. Simcox, S. M. Cohen, *Development* 117, 597 (1993).
- 29. S. M. Cohen and G. Jurgens, *EMBO J.* 8, 2045 (1989).
- M. Price, M. Lemaistre, R. Ki Lauro, D. Duboule, *Nature* **351**, 748 (1991); P. Dollé, M. Price, D. Duboule, *Differentiation* **49**, 93 (1992).
- S. M. Cohen, in *Development of* Drosophila, A. Martinez-Arias and M. Bate, Eds. (Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory Press, Cold Spring Harbor, NY, 1993), pp. 747–841.
- 32. Libraries of P. coenia cDNA were constructed from polyadenylated mRNA isolated from embryos and wing discs. Clones from cDNA for ap, dpp, and sd were isolated from the embryo library, and en/inv clones were isolated from the disc library by cross-hybridization [D. Klessig and J. O. Berry Plant Mol. Biol. Rep. 1, 12 (1983)] with Drosophila probes, whereas a segment of the wg (wnt-1) gene was amplified by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) from genomic DNA [A. Sidow, *Proc. Natl.* Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 89, 5098 (1992)], and the resulting 450-bp fragment was used to probe the embryonic cDNA library. The preparation of DNA and subcloning were performed as by J. Sambrook, F. F. Fritsch and T. Maniatis (Molecular Cloning: A Laboratory Manual (Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory Press, Cold Spring Harbor, NY, ed. 2, 1989)]. Clones from cDNA were sequenced by the method of F. Sanger, S. Nicklen, and A. R. Coulson [Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 74, 5463 (1977)]
- 33. Photo courtesy of S. Blair.
- The P. coenia butterflies were maintained at 28°C 34 under a 16L:8D photoperiod, and larvae were fed an artificial diet containing Plantago lanceolata [R. Yamamoto, J. Econ. Entomol. 621, 1427 (1993)]. Fifth-instar larvae were anaesthetized by submer sion in distilled water for 30 min, and the imaginal discs were removed under cold phosphate-buffered saline. The preparation of the imaginal discs for in situ hybridization was adapted from J. D. Masucci, R. J. Miltenberger, and F. M. Hoffmann [Genes Dev. 4, 2011 (1990)], the important distinction being the proteinase K treatment. For DNA probes, the discs were treated from 3 to 4 min in proteinase K (100 μ g/ml), while for RNA probes, proteinase K (50 μ g/ml) was used for 2 to 3 min. Discs were hybridized with 40 ng of digoxigenin-labeled DNA probe (inv) or 20 to 50 ng of digoxigenin-labeled RNA probe [J. Jiang, D. Kosman, T. Ip, M. Levine, Genes Dev. 5, 1881 (1991)] in 100 μ l of hybridization buffer for 24 hours at 48°C (DNA) or 55°C (RNA). The detection and colorimetric development of digoxigenin-labeled staining was performed as described [J. D. Masucci, R. J. Miltenberger, F. M. Hoffmann (above)] except for the omission of Levamisol. Detailed protocols are available upon request. Localization of D. melanogaster gene expression patterns are as follows: The detection of wg, ap, and sd enhancer trap lacZ expression was performed as described (5), while en/inv gene expression was detected with a monoclonal antibody that recognized both proteins (25)
- 35. We thank F. Nijhout for his encouragement, advice, provision of our colony of P. coenia, and for writing a great book; S. Cohen, A. Laughon, F. M. Hoffmann, and S. Campbell for the Drosophila ap, en, dpp, and sd probes, respectively; T. Hammond and B. Majewski for the help with the cross sections of the wing discs; J Langeland and A. Laughon for their reviews of the manuscript: L. Olds for help with the illustrations; and J. Wilson for assistance in preparing the text. J.A.W. was supported by a Medical Research Council (Canada) Postdoctoral Fellowship, D.N.K. by an NIH predoctoral trainee-ship, and G.E.F.P. by an NIH postdoctoral fellowship. Supported by the Shaw Scientists Program of the Milwaukee Foundation and the Howard Hughes Medical Institute.

Changes of Induction and Competence During the Evolution of Vulva Development in Nematodes

Ralf J. Sommer and Paul W. Sternberg*

In *Caenorhabditis*, the vulva is formed in the central body region from three of six equivalent cells and is induced by the gonad. In some nematodes, however, the vulva is located in the posterior body region. Vulval development has been analyzed in three such genera. The same precursor cells give rise to the vulva in *Caenorhabditis* and in the posterior vulva species, but in the latter the cells first migrate posteriorly. In two such species, the vulva is not induced by the gonad, but instead relies on intrinsic properties of precursor cells. Thus, evolution of organ position involves changes in induction and competence.

Morphological change during evolution arises from modification of ontogeny, which implies that an understanding of morphologic evolution will require insight into the evolution of development. To elucidate how developmental processes evolve, it is necessary to have detailed knowledge at the cellular and genetic level of a particular aspect of development, as well as the ability to compare the development of a number of species. The invariant development of freeliving nematodes provides a useful experimental system for such an analysis at the single cell level. Formation of the vulva, the egg-laying structure of nematodes, is one tractable aspect of development for an evolutionary developmental analysis.

The vulva of Caenorhabditis elegans is a derivative of the ventral epidermis, which consists of 12 ectoblasts (Fig. 1A) (1). These 12 cells are equally distributed between the pharynx and anus and are named according to ' their anterior-posterior position (P1-P12). The gonadal anchor cell (AC) induces three of six vulval precursor cells (VPCs) to adopt vulval fates (2). The VPCs (P3-8.p) are descendants of the central ectoblasts. They form a so-called equivalence group because all cells have the potential to adopt vulval fates. During wild-type development, only the three cells centered around the AC, P(5-7).p, respond to the inductive signal by generating vulval cells. The cell closest to the AC, P6.p, has the 1° cell fate and generates eight progeny, whereas the two more distal cells, P5.p and P7.p, have the 2° cell fate, and each generates seven progeny. The three remaining VPCs (P3.p, P4.p, and P8.p) do not contribute to formation of the vulva; instead, they generate nonspecialized epidermis, the 3° fate. The VPCs that normally give rise to 3° cells can make 1° or 2° cells and thus regenerate the vulval pattern after ablation with laser microbeam irradiation of more AC-proximal VPCs (3). Extensive genetic and molec-

ular analysis indicates that three intercellular signals—an inductive signal, a lateral signal, and a negative signal—are involved in the specification of the precise pattern of VPC types (4). In Caenorhabditis and in most other nem-

In Caenorhabatits and in most other nematode species, the vulva forms at approximately 50% body length (5). However, species with the vulva in the posterior body region are present in many nematode taxa (5, 6). The family *Rhabditidae* contains several evolutionary lines with posterior vulvaforming species (7). Here, we have used three different genera of the subfamily *Rhabditinae* to study vulva development in species that form a posterior vulva (8). In *Cruznema tripartitum* and *Mesorhabditis* sp. PS1179, the vulva forms at 80% body length; in *Teratorhabditis palmarum*, the vulva forms at 95% body length, in a position immediately anterior to the anus (Figs. 1 and 2).

In Caenorhabditis and in other members of the family Rhabditidae with the vulva in the central body region, P(5-7).p generate the vulva (1, 9). In Panagrellus redivivus of the distinct family Panagrolaimidae, in which the vulva forms at 60% body length, P(4-9).p have the potential to generate vulval tissue (10). Because a more posterior cell, P9.p, has the potential to participate in vulva formation in Panagrellus, it might be expected that the more posterior Pn.p cells would form the vulva in species with posterior vulvae. However, our cell lineage analysis revealed that the central Pn.p cells form vulval tissue in all three species examined (Fig. 1) (11). In Mesorhabditis and Teratorhabditis P(4-8).p are VPCs; in Cruznema P(3-8).p. are VPCs. In the first larval stage (L1) of all three species, the 12 Pn.p ectoblasts are located in order along the anterior-posterior axis as they are in Caenorhabditis (Figs. 1 and 2A). The VPCs migrate posteriorly during the second larval stage (L2), adopting a species-specific position. In Cruznema, P(3-8).p lie anterior to P(9-11).p (Fig. 1B). In Mesorhabditis, the VPCs lie in the same region as P(9,10).p (Fig. 1C). In Teratorhabditis, the VPCs move posterior to P(9–11).p (Fig. 1D) (12). P(5–7).p have vulval cell fates in all three species, but

²⁴ January 1994; accepted 19 April 1994

Howard Hughes Medical Institute and Division of Biology, California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, CA 91125, USA.

^{*}To whom correspondence should be addressed. SCIENCE • VOL. 265 • 1 JULY 1994