The muscleblind Gene Participates in the Organization of Z-Bands and Epidermal Attachments of Drosophila Muscles and Is Regulated by Dmef2

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We report the embryonic phenotype of *muscleblind* (*mbl*), a recently described *Drosophila* gene involved in terminal differentiation of adult ommatidia. *mbl* is a nuclear protein expressed late in the embryo in pharyngeal, visceral, and somatic muscles, the ventral nerve cord, and the larval photoreceptor system. All three *mbl* alleles studied exhibit a lethal phenotype and die as stage 17 embryos or first instar larvae. These larvae are partially paralyzed, show a characteristically contracted abdomen, and lack striation of muscles. Our analysis of the somatic musculature shows that the pattern of muscles is established correctly, and they form morphologically normal synapses. Ultrastructural analysis, however, reveals two defects in the terminal differentiation of the muscles: inability to differentiate Z-bands in the sarcomeric apparatus and reduction of extracellular tendon matrix at attachment sites to the epidermis. Failure to differentiate both structures could explain the partial paralysis and contracted abdomen phenotype. Analysis of *mbl* expression in embryos that are either mutant for *Dmef2* or ectopically express *Dmef2* places *mbl* downstream of *Dmef2* function in the myogenic differentiation program. *mbl*, therefore, may act as a critical element in the execution of two *Dmef2*-dependent processes in the terminal differentiation of muscles. © 1998 Academic Press

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INTRODUCTION

Skeletal muscle fibers are highly specialized cells formed during development by the fusion of myoblasts. These fibers

form in reproducible patterns, have a prominent intracellular filament system (the contractile apparatus), interact selectively with other tissues (i.e. the body skeleton and the nervous system), and contribute to the formation and function of cell junctions such as the neuromuscular junction (NMJ). The development of such complex cells and their arrangement into a functional pattern requires a coordinated gene regulatory cascade.

In *Drosophila*, specification of somatic muscles, the invertebrate counterpart of skeletal muscle fibers, begins by the end of gastrulation when uniformly high levels of Twist become modulated in a segmentally repeated fashion. High

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levels of Twist propel cells into somatic myogenesis whereas low levels of Twist allow for formation of other mesodermal tissues (Baylies and Bate, 1996). Subsequent genetic interactions involving proneural and neurogenic genes and signals from the overlying ectoderm, lead to the precise specification of muscle founder cells within the high Twist domain (Corbin et al., 1991; Bate et al., 1993; Baylies et al., 1995; Carmena et al., 1995). Each muscle founder cell gives rise to one individual muscle that inserts at particular points on the epidermis and establishes contacts with specific motorneurons (Bate, 1990; Rushton et al., 1995). Acquisition of these individual properties depends on regulatory genes such as Kruppel, S59 and apterous which are expressed in subsets of body wall muscles (Bate, 1993). Mutations in Krüppel, for example, affect the shape and innervation pattern of particular muscles. These misspecified cells in Krüppel mutants, however, can still carry out a differentiation program and acquire their functional properties as muscles (Ruiz-Gómez et al., 1997). Drosophila myogenesis, therefore, can be understood as two distinguishable processes, a general differentiation program that leads to ubiquitous muscle traits such as the contractile apparatus, and a specific pathway that conditions the general differentiation to produce distinctly different muscles.

General muscle differentiation requires the construction of three critical structures: the contractile apparatus that generates force, the muscle attachments that transmit the force onto the body skeleton, and the NMJs that control contraction. So far, little is known regarding the genetic mechanisms that control and coordinate assembly of these structures in time and space. One key regulator of muscle differentiation is Dmef2, a member of the MEF2 family of transcription factors implicated in activation of muscle specific gene expression in Drosophila and vertebrates (Taylor, 1995; Molkentin and Olson, 1996). Analysis of *Drosophila* embryos which are null for Dmef2 function shows that although specification of muscle founder cells and reception of specific innervation is essentially correct, myoblast fusion, assembly of the contractile apparatus and formation of junctions at muscle attachments and synapses at nerve muscle contacts fail (Bour et al., 1995; Lilly et al., 1995; Prokop et al., 1996). Accordingly, expression of structural components of the muscles such as Myosin and Tropomyosin I is severely reduced in Dmef2 mutants (Bour et al., 1995; Lilly et al., 1995; Lin et al., 1996). Interestingly, genetic data suggest that the various *Dmef2* dependent properties of differentiated muscles are regulated independently from each other. For example, myoblast city mutant embryos lack myoblast fusion while other *Dmef2*-dependent myogenic differentiation features develop normally, such as neuromuscular synapse formation or Myosin expression (Rushton et al., 1995; Prokop et al., 1996). Similarly, junction formation at muscle attachments and assembly of the contractile apparatus (Z-bands) is affected in embryos lacking PS Integrins, but myoblast fusion, Myosin expression and neuromuscular synapse formation are unaffected (Volk et al., 1990; Brown, 1993; Prokop et al., 1998). Hence, although *Dmef2* is required as a generic element for muscle differentiation, a working hypothesis consistent with the published data is that *Dmef2* carries out its function by activating a variety of parallel, independent pathways (e.g. those involving *myoblast city* or PS integrins), each of which contributes certain properties to the differentiating muscle.

Here, we provide evidence in support of the existence of such independent pathways in the execution of the Dmef2 dependent properties of muscles. mbl encodes several protein isoforms containing a common N-terminus and at least one copy of a Cys₃His motif, similar to the TIS11/NUP475/ TTP zinc finger family of proteins. Studies in the Drosophila eye have shown that mbl participates in the terminal differentiation of the ommatidial photoreceptors (Begemann et al., 1997). We report that Mbl is localized in nuclei of embryonic pharyngeal, visceral and somatic muscles, in the larval photoreceptor system, and in cells within the central nervous system (CNS). We show that muscle expression of *mbl* is regulated by *Dmef2*. In addition, *mbl* function is required for two Dmef2 dependent features of differentiating muscles, formation of Z-bands and tendons at muscle attachment sites. Our data are consistent with mbl being a regulatory factor required for terminal muscle differentiation acting downstream of Dmef2.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Drosophila Stocks

We used the mutant fly stocks $Dmef2^{22.21}$ (Bour et~al., 1995), mbf^{E27} and mbf^{E2} (Begemann et~al., 1997), and mbf^{E16} , which is an imprecise lethal excision from the P-element insertion l(2)01038, approximately 4 kb downstream of exon 3 (Spradling et~al., 1995; Begemann et~al., 1997). Transgenic fly stocks carrying the daughter-less-GAL4 (Wodarz et~al., 1995), engrailed-GAL4 (generous gift from A. Brand) and the UAS-Dmef2 fusion genes (Bour et~al., 1995) were used for ectopic expression of Dmef2 in the epidermis. Mutant stocks were balanced over CyO marked with wg^{en11} , which gives β -Galactosidase expression in the pattern of wingless in the nonmutant embryos (Kassis et~al., 1992).

Immunohistochemical Methods

Immunocytochemical staining of embryos was carried out following standard techniques for whole mounts (Rushton et al., 1995) or for flat preparations (Broadie and Bate, 1993). To detect the mbl proteins, we used a polyclonal antibody generated against the Mbl A isoform (rabbit; 1:300; Begemann et al., 1997). As all Mbl isoforms share the amino termini, this antiserum should detect all four *mbl* proteins. Additionally, we used: 1) Anti-Myosin (rabbit, 1:1000; Kiehart and Feghali, 1986), 2) anti-Synaptotagmin (rabbit, 1:1000; Littleton et al., 1993), 3) anti-Kettin (rat, 1:250; flat preparations were treated with 1 mg/ml CollagenaseIV for 30 seconds; Lakey et al., 1993), 4) anti- β_{PS} Integrin ascites (1:200 and 1:500; Brower et al., 1984), 5) anti-Tiggrin (mouse, 1:500; Fogerty et al., 1994), and 6) anti- β -Galactosidase (rabbit, 1:9000; Cappel). Biotinylated secondary antibodies were used in combination with the Vectastain Elite ABC kit (Vector Laboratories, CA). Specimens were embedded in Araldite. Flat preparations of late stage 17 embryos were dehydrated and covered by Araldite on a slide, then cut off and embedded under a cover slip. Images were captured using the camera model DXC-970MD (Sony); alternatively, negatives were scanned with a Nikon Scan LS1000. Different focal planes were combined into one picture using Adobe Photoshop software.

In Situ Hybridization Methods

In situ hybridization of embryos from the daughterless-GAL4 \times UAS-Dmef2 cross and wild type embryos was done as described (Tautz and Pfeifle, 1989) using the mblB cDNA as probe (Begemann et al., 1997). To assay the mbl transcription in the Dmef2 mutant background, an antibody staining and in situ hybridization double labeling method was used (Taylor et al., 1995). Homozygous mutant embryos were identified by the absence of β -Galactosidase staining.

Electron Microscopy

Hourly egg lays were kept at 25°C until hatching. Unhatched embryos with contracted bodies were injected with 5% glutaraldehyde in 50 mM phosphate buffer, pH 7-7.2. Tips of injected specimens were cut off with a razor blade splinter, followed by 1 hour post-fixation in 2.5% glutaraldehyde in 50 mM phosphate buffer, brief wash in 50 mM phosphate buffer, post fixation for 1 hour in 1% osmium in dH₂O, wash in dH₂O for 5 minutes, 30 minutes incubation in 2% aqueous solution of uranyl acetate, dehydration in alcohol and transfer to Araldite. Serial sections of 30-50 nm (silvergrey) thickness were obtained on a Reichert-Jung Ultracut, transferred to formvar-covered carbon-coated slot grids (Galey and Nilsson, 1966), post-stained with lead citrate for 5-10 minutes, and analyzed on a Jeol 200CX. Frontal serial thin sections were taken from abdominal segments at the anterior border of the denticle belts (indirect muscle attachments) or about 10-15 μm behind that region (direct muscle attachments). Oblique longitudinal sections of embryos were cut from the dorsolateral surface.

RESULTS

muscleblind Is Expressed in the Visceral and Somatic Musculature of the Embryo

We analyzed the embryonic pattern of mbl expression by $in\ situ$ hybridization (not shown) and by antibody staining with an antiserum detecting all four mbl protein isoforms (see Materials and Methods; Begemann $et\ al.$, 1997). Both methods reveal expression of mbl in the same tissues, although appearance of protein is slightly delayed compared to RNA, probably due to the size of the transcription unit (>100 kb; Begemann $et\ al.$, 1997). The mbl protein is always detected in the nucleus, suggesting that it might play a gene regulatory role as proposed for other members of the Cys₃His family of proteins (Fig. 1I; discussed in Begemann $et\ al.$, 1997).

Both *in situ* hybridization and antibody staining of wild type *Drosophila* embryos reveal expression of *mbl* in the ectoderm and mesoderm. Ectodermal expression is restricted to a segmentally repeated pattern of cells in the CNS and to Bolwig's organ, which contains the larval photo-

receptors (Fig. 1G,H; Lee et al., 1991). Expression in Bolwig's organ might reflect a role for mbl in the differentiation of larval photoreceptors, comparable to its function in adult photoreceptors (Begemann et al., 1997). Conspicuous expression of mbl protein starts at late stage 11 in the mesoderm underneath the stomodeal invagination and continues as a barely visible signal throughout the rest of mesoderm (Fig. 1A). mbl becomes more abundant during germ band retraction after the mesoderm has subdivided into different derivatives (Bate, 1993). By the end of this stage, mbl expression is found throughout the somatic mesoderm (Fig. 1B). At stage 16, mbl expression is clearly restricted to a subset of mesodermal derivatives: It is not detected in heart (Fig. 1E), gonads, fat body, hemocytes or the dorsal midline cells above the ventral nerve cord (not shown). However, strong expression of mbl during late development occurs in the alary, pharyngeal, visceral and somatic musculature (Fig. 1C,D,F,H and not shown). This ubiquitous late expression of *mbl* in most muscle types, and particularly in the somatic musculature, is typical of genes involved in terminal muscle differentiation, like the genes coding for Myosin, PS2 Integrin or glutamate receptor (Kiehart and Feghali, 1986; Brown, 1993; Currie et al., 1995).

muscleblind Mutant Embryos Have Normal Muscle Patterns and NMJs, but They Are Partially Paralyzed

To uncover potential functions of *mbl* during myogenesis, we analyzed mutant embryos homozygous for the three strong alleles, *mbl*^{E16}(see Materials and Methods), *mbl*^{E2} and *mbl*^{E27} (Begemann *et al.*, 1997). Mutant individuals carrying any of these *mbl* alleles die as stage 17 embryos or during hatching and show no obvious defects in the formation of somatic and visceral muscles (Figs. 2A-D). Occasionally, a few muscles are absent in the homozygous mutant embryos, but no correlation with specific muscles has been found (not shown). Thus, *mbl* function is not essential for early muscle development and muscle specification.

However, at the end of embryogenesis mbl^{E27} , mbl^{E2} or mbl^{E16} homozygous or transheterozygous embryos are severely paralyzed and only twitching movements can be observed, and their segments are strongly contracted, especially in the abdominal region (Fig. 2E,F). Several defects in the differentiation of somatic muscles could lead to paralysis in the absence of mbl: (1) failure to differentiate a NMJ, (2) defects in the differentiation of the muscle-epidermis attachments, or (3) impairment in the contractile apparatus. We investigate these possibilities below.

Antibody stainings of *mbl* mutant embryos at late stage 17 with synapse-specific anti-Synaptotagmin antibodies (Littleton *et al.*, 1993) show that muscles bear NMJs which form normal swellings, called boutons (Fig. 3A,B). At the ultrastructural level, neuromuscular contacts in *mbl* mutant embryos show all morphological features characteristic of wild type contacts, i.e. normal embedding of the neuronal bouton into the muscle, a typical array of material in the extracellular gap, and normal synapses with presynaptic

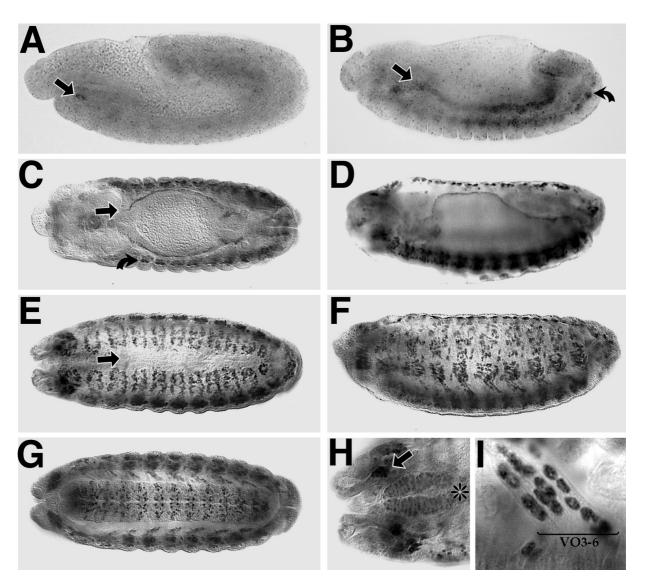


FIG. 1. mbl protein is nuclear and present in somatic, visceral, and pharyngeal musculature. Wild-type embryos were stained with an antiserum against *Drosophila mbl* protein (Begemann et al., 1997). In all figures, embryos are oriented with anterior to the left, dorsal up, and stages given according to Campos-Ortega and Hartenstein (1985). (A) Lateral view, stage 11 embryo with Mbl expression in the cephalic mesoderm (arrow) and a barely detectable signal in the remainder of mesoderm. (B, C) Mbl expression restricted to visceral (arrow) and somatic mesoderm (bent arrow) in a lateral view of a late germ-band retracting embryo (B) and a dorsal view of a late stage 13 embryo (C). (D) Ventral-lateral view of an embryo at stage 15 showing expression in visceral and somatic musculature and CNS (out of focus). (E) Dorsal view, stage 16 embryo. Mbl expression is observed in repeating nuclear clusters of fused somatic mesodermal cells but not in the heart precursor cells (arrow). (F) Lateral view, stage 16 embryo. Mbl-positive clusters of nuclei in locations corresponding to all syncitial fibers of differentiating somatic muscles are shown. (G) Ventral view, stage 16 embryo. Mbl expression is also detected in the CNS in repeated clusters of cells. (H) High magnification of the embryo in E showing the expression of Mbl in pharyngeal muscles (asterisk) and Bolwig's organ (arrow). (I) High magnification of VO3-6 muscles showing individual nuclei expressing Mbl.

densities and clustered vesicles (Fig. 3C,D). Thus, NMJs in *mbl* mutant embryos can assemble normally.

muscleblind Function Is Required for Tendon Matrix Deposition at Muscle Attachments

At the end of embryogenesis, wild type muscles connect to the epidermal cells via either direct or indirect muscle attachments (Figs. 4A,C; Prokop *et al.*, 1998). Direct muscle attachments, where muscle tips and epidermal cells stay in close contact and form connecting hemiadherens junctions (e.g. at muscles LT1-4; see Bate, 1993 for nomenclature; Tepass and Hartenstein, 1994), are not affected in *mbl* mutant embryos (Figs. 4A,B). Indirect muscle attachments are formed at the segment border (e.g. muscles VL1-4), where many muscle tips converge onto a limited amount of epider-

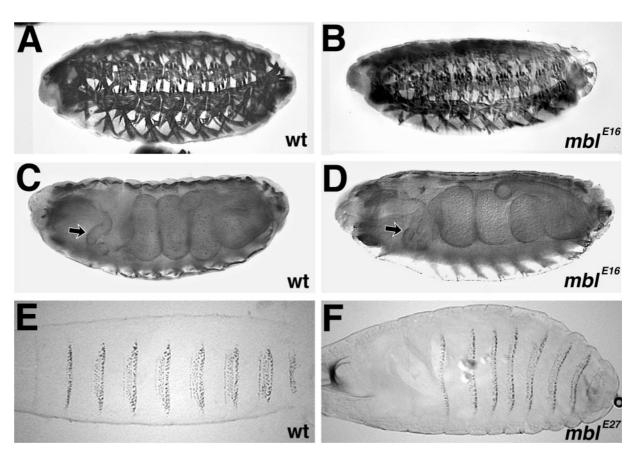


FIG. 2. Myosin heavy chain expression and cuticle preparations in wild-type and mbl mutant embryos. (A) Wild-type, lateral view stage 16 embryo showing the normal pattern of body wall muscles. (B) Same stage mbl^{E16} homozygous embryo. The pattern of somatic musculature is essentially unaffected in the mutant. (C) Wild-type, lateral view stage 16 embryo showing the morphology of the visceral musculature (arrow). (D) mbl^{E16} homozygous embryo at the same stage. The overall morphology of the gut (arrow) and time of appearance of the constrictions is indistinguishable from wild type. (E) First instar wild-type larva showing the normal pattern of ventral cuticle belts. (F) Same stage mbl^{E16} mutant larva (unhatched embryo dechorionated) showing an essentially normal pattern of denticle belts and severe contraction in the abdominal segments.

mis. At indirect muscle attachments, muscle tips and epidermal cells are connected indirectly via tendon matrix (TM), an accumulation of extracellular matrix (ECM) specific to these sites that acts as a flexible spacer allowing numerous muscle tips to attach to a limited epidermal surface (Fig. 4C; Prokop *et al.*, 1998). In *mbl* mutant embryos, the extracellular TM is severely reduced, forcing the muscles to compete for epidermal surface at the segment border (Fig. 4D). Hence, indirect muscle attachments do not assemble properly and this defect may contribute to the contracted appearance and severe paralysis of late stage 17 *mbl* mutant embryos.

Given the effect on muscle attachments, we investigated the expression of two muscle attachment specific proteins in *mbl* mutant embryos, PS-Integrins, which are concentrated at muscle tips and are essential for maintenance of muscle attachments, and Tiggrin, a hemocyte and fat body derived extracellular component (Brown, 1993; Fogerty *et al.*, 1994). At late stage 17, both wild

type and mbl^{E27} mutant embryos show strong β_P S Integrin expression at all muscle tips and do not reveal any obvious defect at muscle attachments (not shown). Anti-Tiggrin antibody stainings (Fogerty et al., 1994) also did not reveal obvious differences between wild type, mbl^{E27} and mbl^{E2} mutant embryos, consistent with the fact that a certain amount of TM can still be seen at the ultrastructural level. This remaining TM connects normally to muscle and epidermal surfaces via tendon hemiadherens junctions (Figs. 4E,F; Prokop et al., 1997). We therefore suspect that reduction of TM in mbl mutant embryos is not due to failure of muscles to anchor to the matrix properly, but that components of the TM are muscle derived and require mbl function. This interpretation is consistent with the finding that mbl is not expressed in hemocytes, fat body, or epidermis, three further sources for ECM components, amongst them Tiggrin (Fessler and Fessler, 1989; Fogerty et al., 1994; Murugasu-Oei et al., 1995).

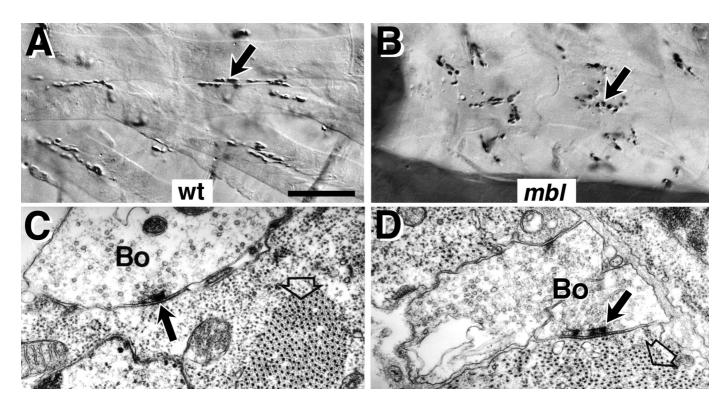


FIG. 3. mbl mutant NMJs are morphologically normal. (A, C) At wild type NMJ's motorneuronal termini form boutons, which can be identified by anti-synaptotagmin staining (arrow in A). (C) At the ultrastructural level the presynaptic boutons (Bo) form synapses (arrow in C; see Prokop et~al., 1996) with the postsynaptic muscle (open arrow indicates myofilaments). (B, D) In mbl mutant embryos, synaptotagmin appears in the right locations (arrow in B; note that muscles are contracted and therefore shape changes occur) and normal synapses are formed (arrow in D). Contractile filaments are less well ordered in mbl mutant embryos compared to wild type (open arrows). All specimens are late stage 17. Scale bar 20 μ m in A and B and 560 nm in C and D.

muscleblind Function Is Required for Z-Band Formation

We next investigated whether the partial paralysis of *mbl* mutant embryos is due to defects in the contractile apparatus of the musculature. At the ultrastructural level, the wild type contractile apparatus is composed of a dark A-band (containing intermingled thin and thick filaments) flanked by translucent I-bands (containing only thin filaments). Adjacent I-bands are separated from each other by electron dense Z-bands (Figs. 5A,C,E; Hardie, 1980). This regular organization of the contractile apparatus confers birefringent properties to the somatic muscles which, under polarizing light, show striation. In *mbl* mutant embryos, this striation is not apparent (not shown).

Ultrastructural analysis reveals that thick and thin filaments are correctly oriented in the A-bands of *mbl* mutant muscles. However, they appear less ordered and less densely packed than in wild type muscles and I-bands are always absent (Figs. 5B,D,F). Such a loss of I-bands occurs naturally when a wild type muscle is supercontracted (Hardie, 1980). Thus, muscles in *mbl* mutant embryos might be arrested in a supercontracted state, causing the body contraction observed in living *mbl* mutant embryos. Finally, the mesh-like

electron dense matrix of Z-bands is completely absent and, instead, only spindle-like concentrations of dark thin fibers can be seen (Figs. 5D,F). The spindle-like fiber accumulations found in *mbl* mutant muscles might exist in normal Z-bands, however, they would be obscured by the mesh-like matrix, which interconnects and thus aligns them into one transverse line. Loss of this alignment due to lack of the mesh-like matrix in *mbl* mutant Z-bands might cause misalignment of sarcomeres and thus promote loss of both I-bands and striation under polarized light in addition to hypercontraction.

Kettin is a Z-band component expressed in somatic, visceral and pharyngeal muscles from approximately embryonic stage 13 onwards and stays evenly distributed (slightly concentrated at muscle tips) within the muscles until stage 17, when it arranges into regular transverse stripes (Fig. 5G). In *mbl* mutant embryos, Kettin is expressed in the musculature, however, it fails to arrange into stripes at stage 17 (Fig. 5H). Thus, *mbl* function is not required for Kettin expression but for its assembly into Z-bands.

Dmef2 Regulates muscleblind Where They Are Coexpressed

In *Dmef2* mutant embryos most aspects of terminal muscle differentiation fail, including formation of the contrac-

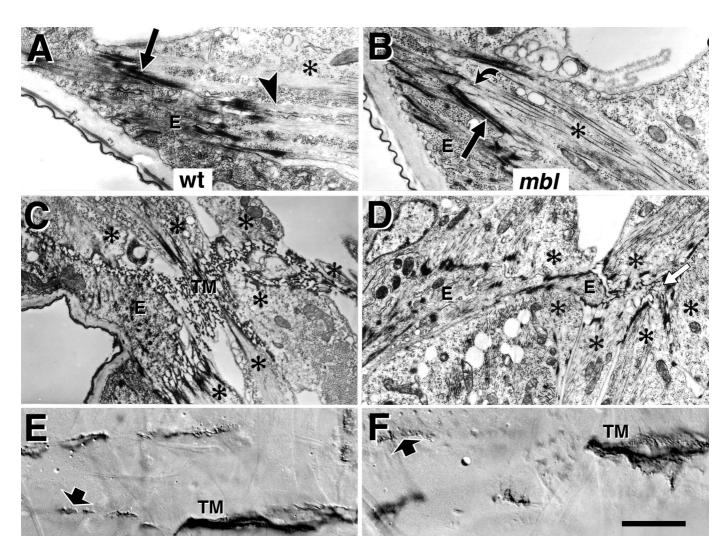


FIG. 4. TM is reduced at indirect muscle attachments in mbl mutant embryos. Muscles (*), epidermal cells (E), and tendon matrix (TM). (A) At wild-type direct muscle attachments the muscles attach to epidermal cells via connecting hemiadherens junctions (long black arrow; Prokop et~al., 1998) to which, in the muscle, thin filaments attach usually forming an I-band (arrowhead). (B) In mbl mutant embryos, connecting hemiadherens junctions appear normal (long black arrow), but thick filaments reach to the muscle tip (bent arrow), most likely due to hypercontraction. (C) At indirect muscle attachments numerous muscle tips are connected to few epidermal cells via TM. (D) At mbl mutant indirect muscle attachments, TM (white arrow) is severely reduced, and epidermal cells bulge into the body cavity, staying in close contact with muscles. (E, F) Antibody staining detects the ECM component Tiggrin at direct muscle attachments (flat arrows indicate ventral tips of VO muscles) and indirect muscle attachments (TM indicates area of VL muscle attachments) in both wild-type (E) and mbl mutant embryos (F). All specimens are late stage 17. Scale bar corresponds to 1 μ m in A and B to 1.6 μ m in C and D and 27 μ m in E and F.

tile apparatus and TM deposition (Bour et al., 1995; Lilly et al., 1995; Prokop et al., 1996 and A.P. observations). Given that mbl participates in at least two aspects of terminal differentiation of muscles, we examined mbl expression in embryos lacking Dmef2 function by in situ hybridization (not shown) and with anti-Mbl antibodies (Fig. 6C). mbl expression in the CNS and Bolwig's organ is unaffected in Dmef2 mutant embryos (Fig. 6C and not shown). As Dmef2 is not expressed in these tissues at this point of development, they can be used as a positive control for the mbl

staining. In contrast, all *mbl* positive muscle derivatives also express *Dmef2* (Lilly *et al.*, 1994; Bour *et al.*, 1995; Lilly *et al.*, 1995; Taylor *et al.*, 1995) and can therefore reveal a potential regulatory dependence. *Dmef2* mutant embryos at late stage 14 show strongly reduced *mbl* expression in somatic myoblasts and in the visceral and pharyngeal mesoderm (Fig. 6C and not shown). This reduction of *mbl* expression is not caused by cell death. *Dmef2* mutant myoblasts enter apoptosis late in embryogenesis (stage 15) due to their failure to differentiate properly (Bour *et al.*, 1995; Ranganay-

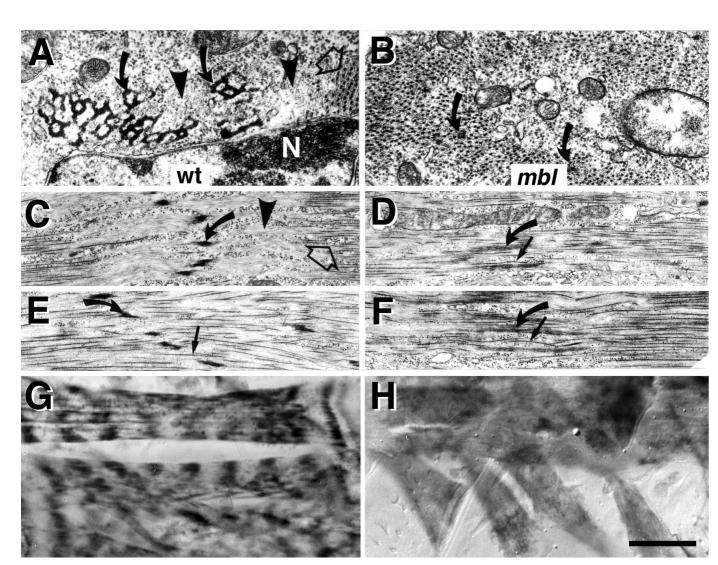


FIG. 5. Z-bands and I-bands are absent in mbl mutant muscles. (A) Transverse sections through wild-type muscles show A-bands (open arrow; compare Fig. 4C) with a densely packed pattern of thick filaments surrounded by thin filaments, electron dense reticulate Z-bands (bent arrows), and I-bands with only thin filaments (arrowheads); N indicates the nucleus. (B) mbl mutant embryos lack the I-band and electron dense matrix of Z-band; spot-shaped stippled areas (bent arrows) might represent remaining Z-band components. (C–F) Longitudinal muscle sections. (C) Relaxed wild-type muscle shows A-band with thick filaments (open arrow), I-band with only thin filaments (arrowhead), and Z-band in the form of electron dense spindles (bent arrow). (E) Contracted wild-type muscle shows Z-band (bent arrow), but no I-band; instead, thick filaments penetrate the Z-band (small black arrow). In mbl^{E2} (D) and mbl^{E27} mutant muscles (F) accumulations of electron dense thin filaments (bent arrows; corresponding to stippled areas in B) most likely represent components of the Z-band; the I-band is absent and thick filaments occur adjacent to potential Z-band structures (small arrows in D and F), comparable to hypercontracted wild-type muscle (small arrows in C). (G and H) Antibody stainings for the Z-band component Kettin reveal a banding pattern in the wild-type (G), but homogeneous distribution in mbl mutant muscles (H). All specimens are late stage 17. Scale bar corresponds to 1 μ m in A to F and to 23 μ m in G and H.

akulu *et al.*, 1995). However, we detect reduction in *mbl* expression before stage 15, and no invading macrophages, which are typically involved in the cell death process, can be seen at that stage (not shown).

The reduction in Mbl staining is also not due to myoblasts failing to fuse in the absence of *Dmef2*. As a control, we analyzed Mbl expression in *myoblast city* mutant embryos,

in which myoblast fusion fails but other aspects of muscle differentiation occur normally (Rushton *et al.*, 1995; Prokop *et al.*, 1996). *myoblast city* mutant embryos show no reduction in the level of Mbl expression at similar stages (Fig. 6B). Therefore, Mbl expression in the mesoderm requires *Dmef2* function. Some Mbl expression, however, remains even in the null allele *Dmef2*^{21.21}, comparable to the levels

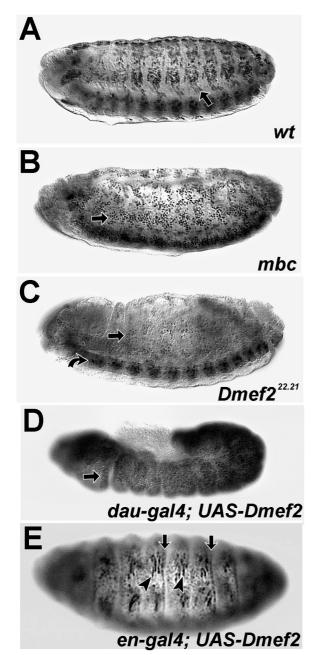


FIG. 6. *mbl* expression in different genetic backgrounds. All views are lateral. (A) Wild-type, stage 15 embryo showing the normal arrangement of muscle fibers. (B) Stage 15, homozygous *myoblast city* mutant embryo characterized by the absence of fusion among myoblasts (Rushton *et al.*, 1995). Mbl expression is normal in the unfused myoblasts. (C) Late stage 14, homozygous *Dmef*2^{22,21} mutant embryo (Bour *et al.*, 1995) showing approximately normal levels of Mbl expression in the CNS (bent arrow) and a severe reduction in the levels in cells of somatic musculature (arrow). The visceral mesoderm and pharyngeal muscles show a similar reduction. (D) *daughterless-GAL4* driven expression of *UAS-Dmef2* (Bour *et al.*, 1995) in the epidermis of embryos leads to the ectopic expression of Mbl throughout this tissue (arrow). (E) *engrailed-GAL4* (en-gal4) driven expression of the same UAS construct in the posterior epidermal cells of each embryonic segment leads

of Myosin and Tropomyosin I expression which remain in *Dmef2* null mutant embryos (Lin *et al.*, 1996; Prokop *et al.*, 1996). These observations suggest that there are other regulators of Mbl, Myosin or Tropomyosin I, in agreement with the current model that MEF2 family members cooperate with other transcription factors such as bHLH-containing proteins to regulate gene expression (Molkentin and Olson, 1996).

To test the regulation of *mbl* by *Dmef2* further, we used the Gal4 targeted expression system (Brand and Perrimon, 1993) to express *Dmef2* ectopically in the embryonic epidermis. *mbl* is never detected in the epidermis in wild type embryos. Cuticle preparations of mbl homozygous embryos show no obvious defects, suggesting that mbl function is not required in this tissue (Figs. 2E,F and not shown). In situ hybridization and antibody staining of embryos with ectopic epidermal Dmef2 in the daughterless or engrailed expression pattern clearly show induction of mbl in this tissue (Figs. 6D,E and not shown). Thus, normal expression of *mbl* in the mesoderm is dependent on *Dmef2* and ectopic *Dmef2* expression is sufficient, at least in the epidermis, to induce ectopic *mbl* expression. Similar regulation by *Dmef2* has been demonstrated for other terminal differentiation genes like Tropomyosin I, β_3 -Tubulin, and α_{PS2} Integrin (Lin et al., 1997). Interestingly, Kettin expression (which is unaffected in mbl mutant embryos) is also reduced in Dmef2 mutant embryos and can be ectopically induced in the epidermis by misexpression of Dmef2 (not shown), indicating that Z-band formation is not regulated by mbl alone but requires other Dmef2 dependent factors.

DISCUSSION

muscleblind Function Is Required for Two Ultrastructural Features of Late Muscle Differentiation

Mutations in *mbl* have no obvious effects during early phases of muscle formation and specification. However, our analysis of *mbl* mutant embryos has identified two ultrastructural defects: absence of electron dense material at the Z-bands and reduction in TM at indirect muscle attachments.

mbl mutant muscles lack reticular matrix at the Z-band. In wild type embryos, this reticular matrix contains Kettin (Lakey et~al., 1993), and accordingly, Kettin fails to localize properly in mbl mutant muscles, either due to direct dependence on mbl or secondarily due to loss of other Z-band components. Components that are potentially dependent on mbl function are Laker, α -Actinin, and a variety of yet uncharacterized proteins (Saide et~al., 1989; Lakey

to the ectopic expression of Mbl in this tissue (arrows). Arrowheads designate the normal expression of Mbl in the lateral muscles which are in the same optical focal plane.

et al., 1990; Fyrberg et al., 1990; Sparrow et al., 1991; Lakey et al., 1993; Cripps et al., 1994). Like Z-bands, the hemiadherens junctions at muscle tips contain dense material that anchors thin filaments (Tepass and Hartenstein, 1994; Prokop et al., 1998). However, the hemiadherens junctions are not affected in *mbl* mutant embryos, revealing a qualitative or developmental difference between the two kinds of densities.

mbl mutant embryos also lack TM at the indirect muscle attachments. Known ECM components at embryonic muscle attachments are produced in hemocytes and fat body (e.g. Collagen IV, Tiggrin), in epidermal cells (Masquerade) and in muscles (M-spondin) (Fessler and Fessler, 1989; LeParco *et al.*, 1989; Fogerty *et al.*, 1994; Murugasu-Oei *et al.*, 1995; Umemiya *et al.*, 1997). The restriction of *mbl* expression to the somatic muscles suggests that *mbl* dependent TM is released from the muscles. Such components could be Collagens (e.g. Collagen II), as suggested from analyses of muscle attachments in cockroach, or M-Spondin (Hagiopan, 1970; Umemiya *et al.*, 1997). The assembly of other components of TM, which are not muscle-derived, appears normal in *mbl* mutant embryos, as we demonstrate for Tiggrin.

At the light microscopic level, *mbl* mutant embryos exhibit loss of muscle striation under polarizing microscopy, hypercontraction of muscles, body contraction, severe partial paralysis and late embryonic (stage 17) or early larval lethality. The absence of Z-bands is likely the reason for loss of muscle striation. Likewise, the occurrence of hypercontraction may be a secondary defect due to the aberrant sarcomeric structure. However, Act88FE93K mutant flight muscles, which also lack Z-bands, are not hypercontracted (Sparrow et al., 1991) and would argue against this possibility. Finally, hypercontraction of muscles and disorder of the contractile apparatus, along with the reduction of TM, could cause the severe partial paralysis and thus early lethality. Furthermore, it still remains a possibility that central neurons or NMJs might not function normally in mbl mutant embryos and thus contribute to the paralysis and lethal phenotype.

How Does muscleblind Regulate the Formation of Z-Bands and Tendon Matrix?

The *mbl* protein is localized in the nuclei and, depending on the protein isoform, contains one or two copies of a Cys₃His zinc finger motif found in the TIS11/NUP475/TTP protein family. Members of this family have been implicated in gene transcription, but also in posttranscriptional processing and turnover of messenger RNA (discussed in Begemann *et al.*, 1997). Which genes might be targets of *mbl*?

In the simplest model, *mbl* could directly regulate genes encoding components of Z-band and TM, as mentioned above (Fig. 7A). Alternatively, *mbl* could have an indirect effect on those components by regulating genes involved in the recruitment, processing, modification or turnover of them. For example, *mbl* might regulate genes involved in the processing of ECM proteins (Fig. 7B). This would explain

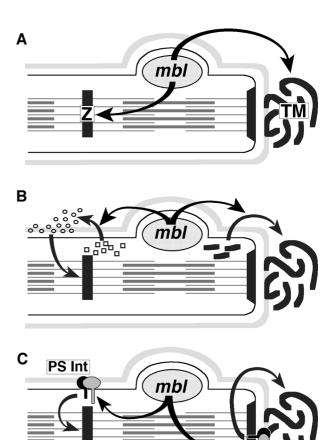


FIG. 7. Possible targets for mbl function. Mbl is nuclear (shaded circle) and participates in the differentiation of Z-bands (Z) and extracellular tendon matrix (TM) at indirect muscle attachments. Three hypotheses are illustrated. (A) mbl could directly activate genes encoding Z-band or TM components. Alternatively, mbl could regulate genes involved in the processing or recruitment of Z-band or TM components: for example, (B) genes involved in the processing of ECM components (small squares inside the cell and small circles associating with the gray basement membrane on the left; thick lines and TM on the right), which in turn are required for Z-band formation, or (C) genes required for PS integrin function (PS Int) which appear to be involved in TM and Z-band formation. A combination of these mechanisms is also possible, e.g., ECM signaling required for Z-band formation has been shown to be relayed by PS Integrins (Volk et al., 1990). See text for further details. Arrows indicate putative functional relationships.

not only the reduction of TM but also the impairment of Z-band formation since Z-band formation has been shown to depend on extracellular factors such as serum or fibronectin *in vitro* (Volk *et al.*, 1990). Also, deficiency of the ECM component Collagen IV leads to absence of defined Z-bands, in addition to defects similar to *mbl* mutant embryos, i.e. paralysis and reduction in length of the body wall muscles (Borchiellini *et al.*, 1996).

Another possibility is that *mbl* could participate in the

differentiation of Z-bands and/or TM through the activation of other regulative genes. For example, several observations suggest that mbl could regulate genes involved in a PS integrin-mediated signaling process (Hynes, 1992; Schwartz et al., 1995; Fig. 7C). First, Drosophila muscle cells require β_{PS} subunit integrin *in vitro* and *in vivo* in order to assemble or stabilize formation of Z-bands (Volk et al., 1990). Second, the piopio and steamer duck genes interact genetically with PS Integrin mutations, and the phenotypes of both are strikingly similar to mbl mutant embryos: their somatic muscles lack striation under polarized light, their abdomen is severely contracted and they are late embryonic or early larval lethal (Prout et al., 1997). Third, besides its activity during late myogenesis, *mbl* is required for the differentiation of photoreceptor neurons: *mbl* mutant photoreceptors can form and be specified, but they do not differentiate normal rhabdomeres, the light harvesting structures (Begemann et al., 1997). Retinal tissue mutant for the β_{PS} or α_{PS1} Integrin subunits exhibits comparable defects in rhabdomere organization (Zusman et al., 1993; Brower et al., 1995; Longley and Ready, 1995). Fourth, PS Integrins also appear to be required for TM assembly (Newman and Wright, 1981), although Tiggrin can localize properly in the absence of PS Integrin function (Fogerty et al., 1994), again resembling the TM phenotype of *mbl* mutant embryos. Therefore, it is conceivable that lack of *mbl* either upstream or downstream of PS integrins would disrupt the signaling pathway (not β_{PS} integrin expression, which is unaffected in mbl mutant embryos) and bring about an impairment in the formation of Z-bands and possibly TM.

In summary, we have shown that *mbl* participates in Z-band and TM formation; however, the targets of *mbl* activity are not clear. On the one hand, *mbl* may regulate Z-band and TM components directly. On the other hand, *mbl* may regulate genes that act in the formation of one or both structures by indirect mechanisms, one possibility being through PS Integrins. Of course, these different models are not mutually exclusive.

muscleblind Is Regulated by Dmef2 and Participates in a Subset of Dmef2 Functions

Dmef2 null mutant embryos display a severe reduction in the amount of *mbl* protein in their musculature without any effect on expression in the CNS or Bolwig's organ. These results imply that *mbl* is under the control of at least two genetic systems: unknown transcriptional activators in the CNS and Bolwig's organ, and Dmef2 in visceral, somatic and pharyngeal muscle derivatives. On the other hand, Dmef2 is produced in cardial cells (Lilly et al., 1994; Bour et al., 1995; Lilly et al., 1995; Taylor et al., 1995), whereas Mbl has not been detected in this tissue in all stages studied. Kettin is also not detected in the cardioblasts suggesting that Z-bands might be different in these cells or that, besides Dmef2, regulatory factors in the heart cells are different from other muscles. One possibility is that specific repressors exist in the cardioblasts or necessary cofactors are lacking. Interestingly, we found that both

Mbl and Kettin can be induced upon misexpression of *Dmef2* in the epidermis, suggesting that either repressors of *mbl* do not exist in the epidermis, or that appropriate coactivators are present as similarly pointed out by Lin *et al.* (1997) for Tropomyosin I.

Dmef2 plays a pivotal role in the late differentiation process of muscles in *Drosophila* and is required for myoblast fusion, NMJ formation, muscle attachments and organization of the contractile apparatus (Bour et al., 1995; Lilly et al., 1995; Ranganayakulu et al., 1995; Prokop et al., 1996). A possible scenario is that the various *Dmef2* dependent properties of differentiated muscle are regulated independently by Dmef2 dependent genes either alone or in conjunction with *Dmef2*. For example, the signaling molecule α_{PS2} Integrin has been shown to be regulated by *Dmef2* and also to be essential for a specific aspect of late muscle differentiation, the maintenance of muscle attachments (Brown, 1994; Ranganayakulu et al., 1995; Prokop et al., 1998). As shown here, *mbl* is likewise regulated by *Dmef2* and participates in the late differentiation of two muscle specific features, the TM and the Z-bands. Our results are consistent with the hypothesis that *Dmef2* function can be separated into independent genetic pathways and also shed light on the terminal muscle differentiation program by identifying a gene, *mbl*, which is required for the implementation of a subset of differentiated muscle properties.

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