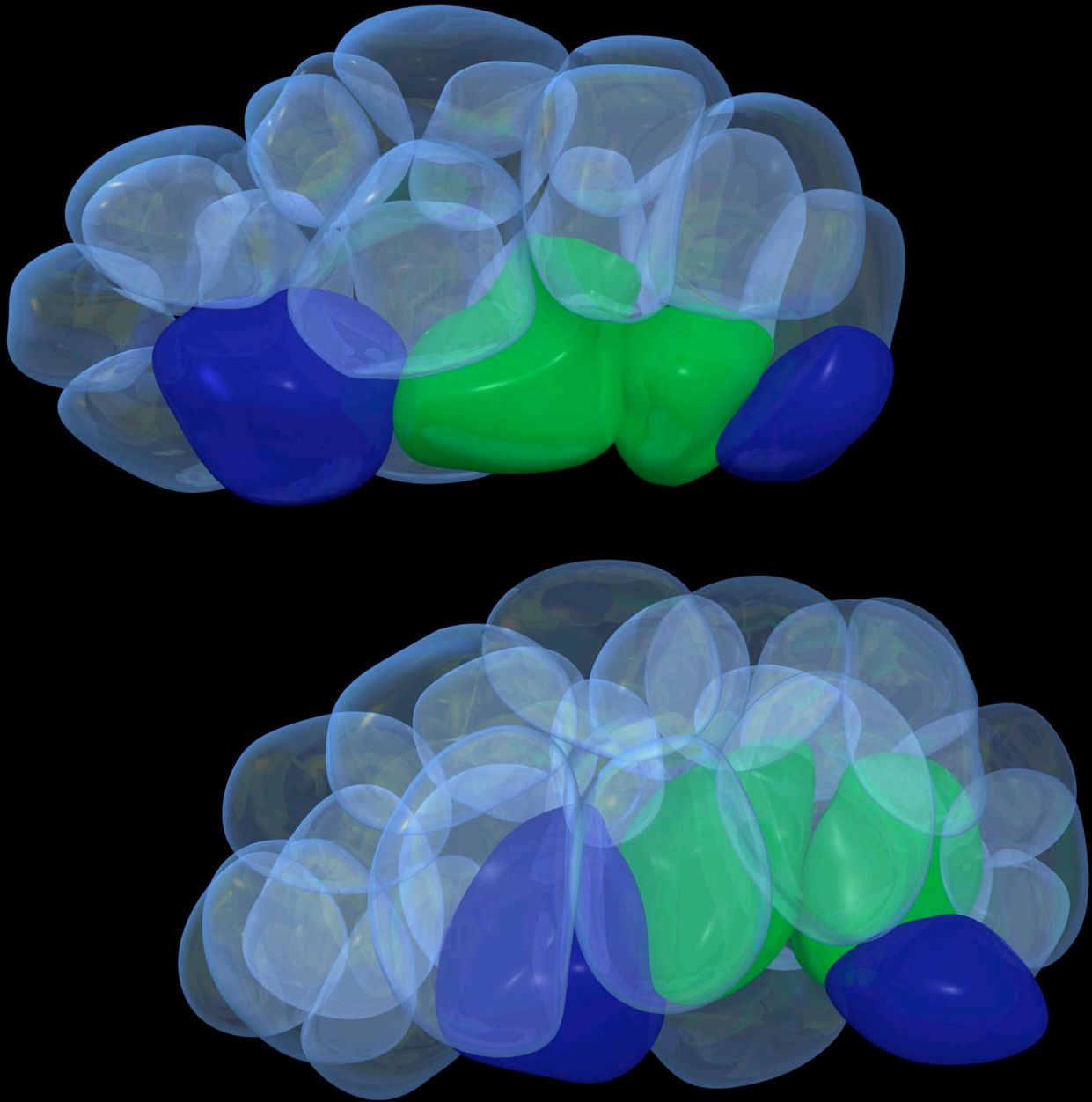


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**Wnt Signaling  
in *C. elegans* Gastrulation**

# Wnt/Frizzled Signaling Controls *C. elegans* Gastrulation by Activating Actomyosin Contractility

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## Summary

**Background:** Embryonic patterning mechanisms regulate the cytoskeletal machinery that drives morphogenesis, but there are few cases where links between patterning mechanisms and morphogenesis are well understood. We have used a combination of genetics, in vivo imaging, and cell manipulations to identify such links in *C. elegans* gastrulation. Gastrulation in *C. elegans* begins with the internalization of endodermal precursor cells in a process that depends on apical constriction of ingressing cells.

**Results:** We show that ingression of the endodermal precursor cells is regulated by pathways, including a Wnt-Frizzled signaling pathway, that specify endodermal cell fate. We find that Wnt signaling has a role in gastrulation in addition to its earlier roles in regulating endodermal cell fate and cell-cycle timing. In the absence of Wnt signaling, endodermal precursor cells polarize and enrich myosin II apically but fail to contract their apical surfaces. We show that a regulatory myosin light chain normally becomes phosphorylated on the apical side of ingressing cells at a conserved site that can lead to myosin-filament formation and contraction of actomyosin networks and that this phosphorylation depends on Wnt signaling.

**Conclusions:** We conclude that Wnt signaling regulates *C. elegans* gastrulation through regulatory myosin light-chain phosphorylation, which results in the contraction of the apical surface of ingressing cells. These findings forge new links between cell-fate specification and morphogenesis, and they represent a novel mechanism by which Wnt signaling can regulate morphogenesis.

## Introduction

The morphogenetic events that shape embryonic development rely on the movements and shape changes of individual cells. Because the cellular cytoarchitecture provides the driving forces for these cellular events,

one of the keys to understanding the molecular basis of morphogenetic movements is determining how well-studied developmental pathways specifying cell fate lead to modulation of the cytoskeleton in individual cells in ways that can produce forces capable of moving cells or deforming tissues. Toward this goal, there has been identification of many genes that function upstream of morphogenetic movements, including many essential for cell-fate specification and extracellular signaling, and there is some understanding of the cytoskeletal mechanics that drive these movements. However, there has been more limited progress in tying these two ends together to provide a coherent thread from cell fate and signaling molecules to the cytoskeletal dynamics responsible for morphogenesis [1, 2].

One of the earliest morphogenetic events in animal development is gastrulation, the process by which the embryo reorganizes itself into three germ layers. Gastrulation in *C. elegans* begins at the 26-cell stage when the two endodermal founder cells, Ea and Ep, begin to migrate from the outer, ventral surface of the embryo to the embryonic interior [3] (Figure 1). The mechanisms that specify endodermal fate in these cells are well studied. SKN-1, an endomesodermal determinant, is segregated to two cells (P<sub>2</sub> and EMS) at the four-cell stage. In P<sub>2</sub>, SKN-1 activity is repressed in the P<sub>2</sub> cell, whereas SKN-1 activity persists in EMS to promote endomesodermal fate [4]. A Wnt interaction at the four-cell stage then specifies endodermal fate on one side of the EMS cell. Differential regulation of transcription factor activity in this cell's two daughters results in a single endodermal precursor cell (E) at the eight-cell stage [5].

After E is born, its daughter cells (Ea and Ep) ingress during a cell cycle that is extended by the introduction of a gap phase [6]. The space left on the ventral side of the embryo is filled by neighboring cells, a total of six cells from the MS, AB, and P<sub>4</sub> lineages [7]. After ingression, Ea and Ep divide (Figure 2A). For simplicity, we use the term “gastrulation” here solely to refer to Ea-Ep ingression, the internalization of the endoderm. Gastrulation in *C. elegans* continues later with the internalization of other cells including mesoderm and germline progenitors [8].

Recent work has begun to shed light on the mechanisms required for *C. elegans* gastrulation [9]. One of the driving forces for Ea-Ep ingression is apical constriction, which is likely powered by an actomyosin contraction [7]. Consistent with this finding, NMY-2, a non-muscle myosin II heavy chain, accumulates at the apical (ventral) surfaces of Ea and Ep, and this polarized accumulation requires the activity of the PAR proteins [8, 10]. The PAR proteins were first identified as essential for polarity in the 1-cell *C. elegans* embryo [11] and have since been found to be required for polarity in organisms as diverse as *Drosophila* and humans [12]. In gastrulation-stage embryos, the PAR proteins have polarized distributions that are established by cell-cell contacts, with PAR-3, PAR-6, and PKC-3 localized apically, at

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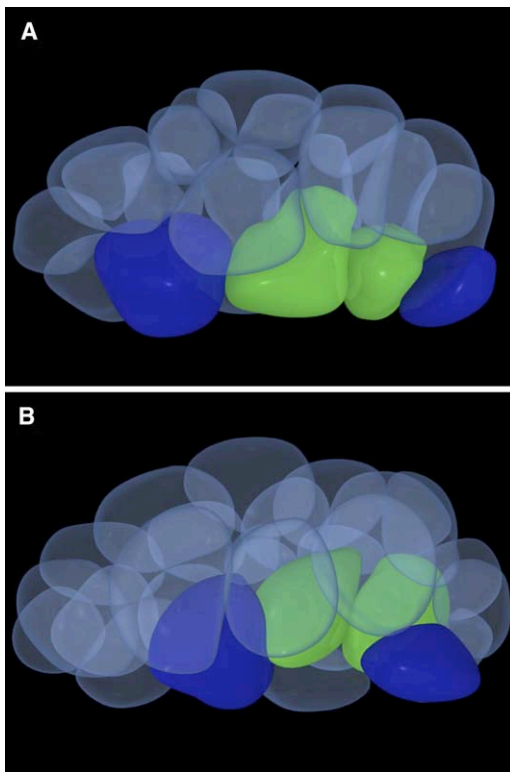


Figure 1. Three-Dimensional Illustrations of Embryos prior to and during Gastrulation

Ea and Ep (green) become completely enveloped by neighboring cells as gastrulation proceeds. These 3D renderings are based on tracings of optical sections of 24-cell (A) and 28-cell (B) embryos that were stained with labeled phalloidin to mark the cell cortex in each cell. Six cells extend into the gap vacated by the ingressing Ea and Ep cells. Two of these—one granddaughter of MS, left, and the P<sub>4</sub> cell, right—are shown here in opaque blue. Illustrations by Janet Iwasa ([janet@onemicron.com](mailto:janet@onemicron.com)).

contact-free areas, and PAR-1 and PAR-2 localized basolaterally where cells contact neighboring cells [8, 10]. Depleting the embryo of specific PAR proteins just before gastrulation compromises gastrulation movements. The timing of ingression is delayed significantly compared to that in wild-type cells, but the E lineage cells still internalize [10]. This suggests that there must be additional and essential gastrulation regulators that remain to be identified.

The Wnt pathway has been implicated in cell-fate specification, cell polarization, and morphogenesis across the animal kingdom [13]. Wnt ligands or their Frizzled (Fz) receptors, or both, are required in many processes including establishment of *Drosophila* segment polarity [14, 15], zebrafish and *Xenopus* gastrulation [16–18], and *Xenopus* neural tube closure [19]. Wnt and Fz are known to act through various signal transduction pathways, generally categorized as canonical and noncanonical pathways. Canonical signaling results in translocation of  $\beta$ -catenin from the cytoplasm to the nucleus, where it participates in the transcriptional activation of downstream targets. In *C. elegans*, *mom-2*, the Wnt gene that functions during the four-cell stage to specify endoderm, acts in a variant of the canonical manner by activating WRM-1, a *C. elegans*  $\beta$ -catenin

homolog, which results in downregulation instead of upregulation of POP-1, a TCF/LEF transcription factor [20]. In contrast, noncanonical pathways act through cytoplasmic factors that ultimately regulate cytoskeletal components but can also act to regulate transcription independently of  $\beta$ -catenin [5]. Further understanding of the mechanisms by which Wnt signaling can regulate cell movements will be important for understanding morphogenesis during normal development and Wnt pathway function in tumor invasion and metastasis in human cancers [21].

We have used a candidate approach to begin to identify genes required for *C. elegans* gastrulation. We found that the pathways that specify the endodermal precursors also regulate ingression of these cells. We show that Wnt/Fz signaling has a role in gastrulation in addition to its function in regulating endodermal cell fate and cell-cycle timing. Although Wnt signaling functions in cell polarization in many contexts [22], Wnt signaling does not affect *C. elegans* gastrulation by establishing polarity in the ingressing cells or by affecting the rate of myosin accumulation at the apical cortex of these cells. Instead, we found that Wnt/Fz signaling functions in gastrulation by causing regulatory myosin light chain in the apical cortex of Ea and Ep to be phosphorylated at a contraction-activating serine residue. Our results forge new links among cell fate, cell signaling, and cell form and suggest a novel role for intercellular signaling by a Wnt protein—the regulation of morphogenetic movements through activation of myosin contractile activity.

## Results

### Endodermal-Fate-Specification Pathways Act Upstream of *C. elegans* Gastrulation

To determine whether endodermal fate specification is necessary for Ea and Ep morphogenetic behavior, we first determined whether *C. elegans* embryos defective in each of the endodermal-fate-specification genes also have gastrulation defects. The endodermal founder cells are specified by two intersecting pathways: A GATA-factor transcriptional cascade initially restricts mesoderm fate to the appropriate endoderm and mesoderm precursors, and the Wnt signaling pathway then acts to repress nuclear POP-1 and thus allow endoderm development in the progeny of the E cell [4]. The endoderm-specification pathways also affect cell-cycle timing in endodermal precursors. The Ea and Ep cells are the first cells in the *C. elegans* embryo to introduce a gap phase, a G<sub>2</sub> phase that results in the Ea and Ep cells dividing approximately 20 min later than MSa and MSp cells ( $20.2 \pm 2.4$  min SD; Figure 2B) [6]. This delay does not occur in endoderm-specification mutants [4]. We speculated that either endoderm specification or cell-cycle delay, or both, might be required for gastrulation. Gastrulation defects have been found in embryos defective in some of these genes, e.g., *mom-2* [23], *skn-1* [24], *end-1* [25], and *end-3* [26], but many of the relevant genetic backgrounds have not been analyzed for gastrulation movements.

Mutant embryos were imaged by 4D time-lapse video-microscopy and were subsequently analyzed for gastrulation movements. For the experiments described

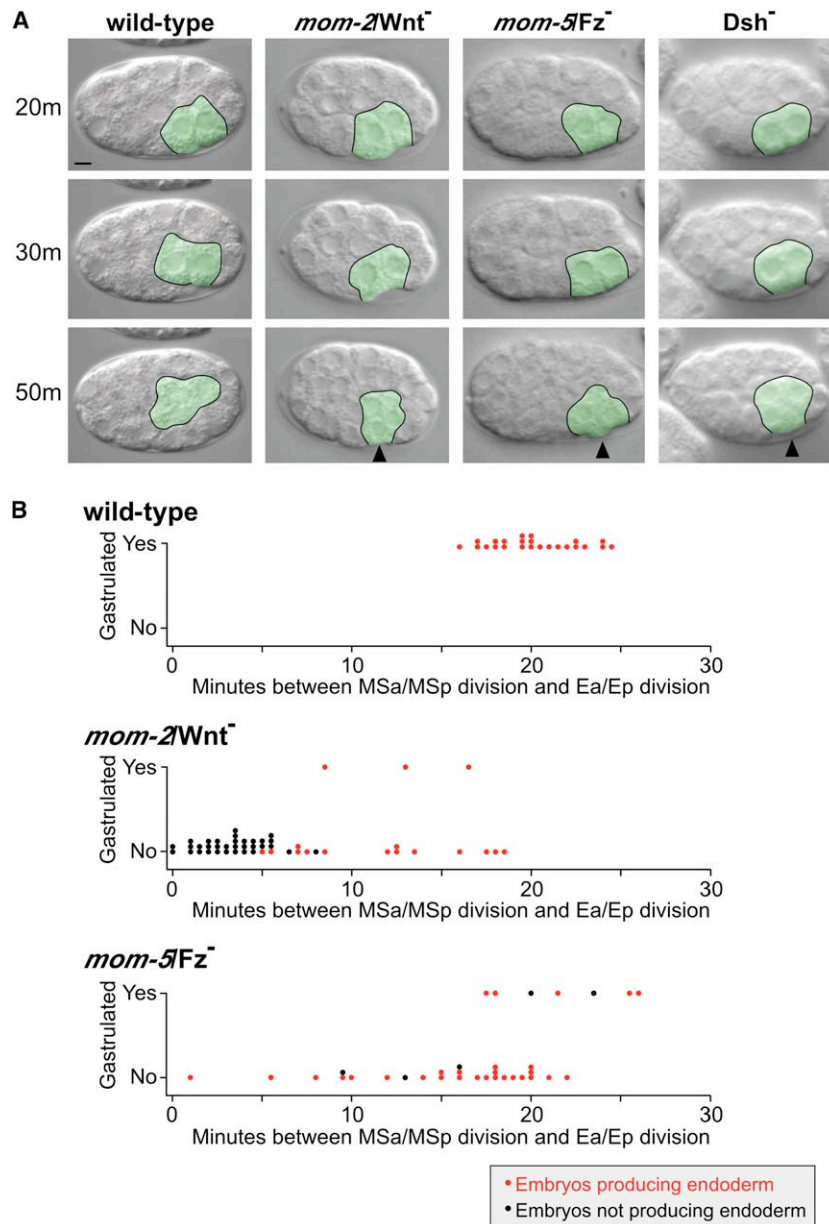


Figure 2. *mom-2*/*Wnt*, *mom-5*/*Fz*, and *Dsh* Are Required for Gastrulation

(A) Gastrulation in wild-type embryos occurs with the ingress of Ea and Ep, and the embryos divide once they are completely surrounded by neighboring cells. Each panel is a single midsagittal optical section from a Nomarski time-lapse movie, with the minutes elapsed since Ea-Ep birth noted on the left side. All sections were examined to ensure that cells internalized in one section were internalized in three dimensions. E cells are pseudocolored green in all frames. *mom-2* and *mom-5* embryos are mutants, and the *Dsh* embryo shown is triple *dsh-1*;*dsh-2*;*mig-5*(RNAi). Arrowheads point to E lineage cells that failed to ingress. In this and all figures, embryos are oriented with anterior to the left and dorsal side up. Scale bar represents 5  $\mu$ m.

(B) There is no strict correlation between endoderm production and gastrulation or between Ea-Ep cell-cycle timing and gastrulation in *mom-2* or *mom-5*. Each dot represents one embryo (24 wild-type, 50 *mom-2*, and 34 *mom-5* embryos). The length of Ea-Ep delay, whether it gastrulated, and whether it produced endoderm are indicated.

in this paper, we defined successful gastrulation as the ingress of Ea and Ep to the point where they are completely surrounded by their neighbors before they divide (Figure 2A). We found that nearly all of the endoderm-specification mutants were also gastrulation defective, with rates of failure reaching as high as 100% in *mom-4*, *lit-1*, and *end-3* embryos (Table 1). The only endoderm-specification-pathway gene not required for gastrulation was *elt-2*, a downstream-acting

transcription factor whose expression is not detected until just after Ea-Ep ingress [27].

In an attempt to further identify potential links between patterning pathways and gastrulation, we determined whether ectopic endodermal cells in a mutant undergo ectopic gastrulation. PIE-1 is a CCCH zinc-finger protein that becomes segregated to posterior cells, where it specifies cell fates in part by repressing the function of the endomesoderm-specifying gene *skn-1*.

Table 1. Gastrulation Movements in Endoderm-Specification Mutants

Genotype	Homolog/Conserved Domains	Gastrulated/Total	Percentage Gastrulating	Allele Type <sup>a</sup>
Wild-type		17/17	100%	
<i>mom-1</i>	<i>porcupine</i>	2/18	11%	strong loss-of-function
<i>mom-2</i>	<i>wnt/wingless</i>	3/50	6%	deletion; genetic null
<i>mom-3</i>	<i>wntless</i>	3/7	43%	strong loss-of-function
<i>mom-4</i>	MEKK/TAK1	0/10	0%	strong loss-of-function
<i>mom-5</i>	<i>frizzled</i>	7/34	21%	TC1 transposon
<i>lit-1</i>	<i>nemo-like kinase</i>	0/10	0%	protein null
<i>pie-1</i>	CCCH zinc-finger protein	10/11 (Ea-Ep); 11/11 (P <sub>4</sub> -D)*	91%	strong loss-of-function
<i>skn-1</i>	bZIP transcription factor	2/27	7%	strong loss-of-function
<i>end-1</i>	GATA factor	1/7	14%	deficiency; genetic null
<i>end-3</i>	GATA factor	0/12	0%	genetic null
<i>elt-2</i>	GATA factor	12/12	100%	TC1 transposon; genetic null

\* Ea-Ep ingression is followed within the next 30 min by P<sub>4</sub>-D ingression in *pie-1* embryos only. In wild-type, 0/17 embryos showed P<sub>4</sub>-D ingression during this period.

<sup>a</sup> References are as follows: *mom-1*, *mom-3*, and *mom-4* [23]; *mom-5* [33]; *lit-1* [55]; *pie-1* [55]; *skn-1* [24]; *end-1* [25]; *end-3* [25]; and *elt-2* [27]. See the Supplemental Experimental Procedures for allele designations.

Embryos from *pie-1* loss-of-function mothers produce ectopic endoderm from E's posterior neighbor, P<sub>3</sub>, a cell that normally produces muscle and germline founder cells [25]. Time-lapse recordings of *pie-1* mutant embryos showed ectopic gastrulation: The two daughters of P<sub>3</sub> invariably ingressed soon after Ea-Ep (17.5 ± 3.3 min SD; Table 1). Because loss of function of endoderm-specifying genes interferes with gastrulation and loss of function of *pie-1*, a gene that prevents ectopic endoderm from forming, results in ectopic gastrulation, we conclude that the genes that specify endodermal cell fate in Ea and Ep function upstream of the cytoskeletal mechanisms that drive gastrulation. The most downstream player we found, the transcriptional activator END-1 [4], suggests that some molecular player(s) in gastrulation may be regulated transcriptionally, consistent with a known requirement for transcription in gastrulation [9].

#### Wnt/Frizzled Signaling Functions in Gastrulation as Well as Endoderm Specification

Next, we asked whether any of these endoderm-specification genes played a direct role in determining gastrulation behavior. Wnt ligands, Frizzled receptors, and Frizzled's downstream effectors function upstream of morphogenetic events in diverse organisms [15–18, 28]. We asked whether Wnt/Fz signaling functions during *C. elegans* gastrulation independently of its role in specifying endoderm by using rhabditiin granules as a terminal-differentiation marker for endoderm development (see the Supplemental Experimental Procedures available with this article online). If Wnt/Fz signaling affects gastrulation solely through its role in endoderm specification, then *mom-2*/Wnt or *mom-5*/Fz embryos that produce endoderm should gastrulate and those embryos that fail to make endoderm should fail to gastrulate. As expected, we found that all *mom-2* deletion allele embryos that failed to produce endoderm also failed to gastrulate (n = 33); however, we were surprised to find that most of the escapers—the endoderm-producing *mom-2* embryos—also failed to gastrulate (82%; n = 17) (Figure 2B). Similarly, most *mom-5* embryos that produced endoderm failed to gastrulate (85%; n = 34) (Figure 2B). We also examined the expression of

two endoderm-specific molecular markers, END-1, which is expressed during gastrulation, and ELT-2, which is expressed after gastrulation. *mom-5*(RNAi) embryos exhibited similar gastrulation defects to *mom-5*(*zu193*) embryos, and the END-1 and ELT-2 expression was comparable to that in wild-type cells in all embryos examined (n = 17 for END-1 and n = 9 for ELT-2; Movies S1 and S2 and Figure S1). Because Ea and Ep in *mom-5* embryos generally fail to gastrulate despite producing END-1 and producing ELT-2 and rhabditiin granules later, we propose that Wnt/Fz signaling has two functions: regulating endoderm specification and also, at least partially independently, regulating gastrulation.

The multidomain protein Dishevelled (Dsh) functions downstream of the Frizzled receptor in several systems [29]. *C. elegans* has three Dsh homologs: DSH-1, DSH-2, and MIG-5. Although null alleles of Dsh homologs affect endoderm specification, RNA interference (RNAi) of *dsh-1*, *dsh-2*, and *mig-5* individually or together has not [30]. This facilitated the determination of whether Dsh-mediated signaling is required for *C. elegans* gastrulation independently of a potential role in endoderm specification. We carried out RNAi of these three genes individually and in combination. With the exception of *dsh-1* RNAi, all of these treatments resulted in some embryos that failed to gastrulate despite producing endoderm, and RNAi of all three genes simultaneously produced a more penetrant gastrulation-defective phenotype than RNAi of any single gene alone (Figure 2 and Figure S2), suggesting that multiple Dsh proteins act redundantly to regulate gastrulation (we refer to these three proteins collectively as Dsh below). Our attempts to determine whether canonical or noncanonical signaling is involved in gastrulation downstream of Dsh have not yet resolved this issue. We conclude that MOM-2/Wnt, MOM-5/Fz, and multiple Dishevelled homologs function in the ingression of endodermal precursors in addition to their roles in endoderm specification. Because a *mom-2* null allele does not abolish gastrulation movements completely (Table 1), we conclude from these data that Wnt signaling acts partially redundantly as direct or indirect regulators of gastrulation with one or more additional pathways.

### Wnt/Frizzled Signaling Affects Gastrulation Independently of Control of Ea-Ep Cell-Cycle Length

Previous work suggested that the G2 phase introduced in the Ea-Ep cell cycle near the time of gastrulation might be important for gastrulation: In *gad-1* (gastrulation defective) mutant embryos, endodermal cell fate is properly specified, but the Ea and Ep cells do not have a G2 phase nor do they ingress [31]. The division delay in Ea and Ep compared to their cousins MSa and MSP has been considered an aspect of endodermal cell fate because it is absent in many endoderm-deficient mutants [4]. We confirmed that the Ea-Ep division delay in *mom-2* embryos is generally shorter than that in wild-type embryos (Figure 2B). Very few *mom-2* embryos gastrulated (6%; n = 50), and the few embryos that did gastrulate had somewhat longer cell cycles than the average for *mom-2* embryos (8.5, 13, and 16.5 min compared with an average of 6.2 min). Similar results were seen in *mom-5* embryos and Dsh RNAi embryos (Figure 2B and Figure S2). These results demonstrate that embryos can gastrulate even when the Ea-Ep cell cycle is shorter than that in wild-type embryos, but they raised the possibility that more precocious cell division might prevent gastrulation movements, perhaps by reorganizing the actomyosin network for cell division in a way that precludes apical constriction from occurring at the same time.

We therefore conducted two types of experiments to test more directly whether Wnt signaling functions in gastrulation independently of its effect on cell-cycle timing. First, we lengthened the cell cycles of Ea and Ep in the absence of Wnt signaling. Ea and Ep cell cycles can be artificially lengthened by brief irradiation of Ea and Ep nuclei with a laser (referred to here as laser-delay; see Supplemental Experimental Procedures). This treatment did not interfere with ingression in wild-type embryos (9/9 cases; Figure 3A). In *gad-1* embryos, laser-delaying Ea and Ep cell division rescued ingression in approximately half of the cases (9/19 cases; Figure 3A), and control laser-delay of cell pairs in AB or P<sub>2</sub> lineages in *gad-1* embryos did not cause ingression (data not shown). The rescue of ingression by laser-delay of Ea and Ep suggests that *gad-1* functions in gastrulation only indirectly, through regulating Ea and Ep division timing, and also indicates that laser-delay can be used to rescue ingression in a mutant that would otherwise have premature Ea-Ep division.

In contrast to the *gad-1* experiments, irradiation of Ea and Ep nuclei to delay Ea and Ep cell division completely failed to rescue gastrulation movements in *mom-2* embryos (0/14 cases; Figure 3A). Because neither long Ea-Ep cell cycles in untreated *mom-5* embryos nor artificially extended Ea-Ep cell cycles in *mom-2* embryos are sufficient for gastrulation to occur, and yet many such embryos would normally produce endoderm (Figure 3 legend), we propose that endoderm specification and long Ea-Ep cell cycles may not be sufficient for gastrulation to occur in the absence of this Wnt signaling pathway, and that Wnt signaling has additional functions in gastrulation.

Second, if Wnt signaling acts once to specify endoderm and cell-cycle timing and again later during gastrulation, then manipulating the presence of a Wnt signal after induction of endodermal fate and cell-cycle timing

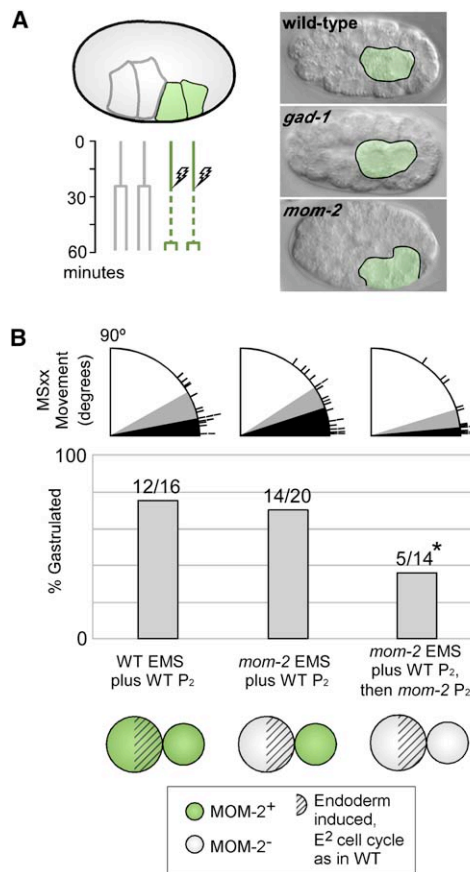


Figure 3. *mom-2* Is Required for Gastrulation in Addition to its Effect on Ea-Ep Cell-Cycle Timing

(A) Laser-mediated delay of Ea-Ep cell division does not prevent gastrulation in wild-type embryos (9/9 cell pairs ingressed), and it can sometimes rescue gastrulation in *gad-1* embryos (9/19 cell pairs), but it cannot rescue gastrulation in *mom-2* embryos (0/14 cell pairs, significantly lower than the proportion of untreated *mom-2* embryos that produced endoderm in Figure 2, chi-square test,  $p < 0.05$ ). A schematic of MSa-MSp (gray outlines) and Ea-Ep (green) cell positions is shown above cell-division patterns. Lightning bolts represent approximate time of irradiation.

(B) In vitro cell-recombination experiments suggest that MOM-2 functions in gastrulation after endoderm specification has occurred. Three experiments are diagrammed at bottom. In these experiments, wild-type P<sub>2</sub> cells recombined with *mom-2* EMS cells always rescued endoderm and rescued normal cell-cycle division timing in Ea-Ep cells. The top of the panel shows quarter-pie graphs depicting the extent of movement by MSxx relative to Ea-Ep during the 30 min after MSxx birth in each experiment. Each short line represents the degree of movement in one recombination experiment. The black area encompasses 50% of the data, and the gray area encompasses a further 25% of the data. Results are quantified in the bar graph below, in which the proportions that gastrulated are shown (more than 8° of MSxx movement was required to score movement as gastrulation, based on previous results [7]). Wild-type P<sub>2</sub> cells more successfully rescued movement. The asterisk indicates that the results from this manipulation was statistically different from each of the other two manipulations with chi-square tests, at  $p < 0.05$ .

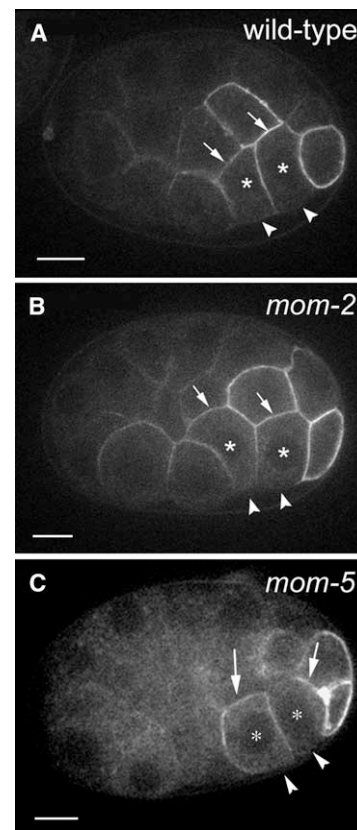
should determine whether gastrulation occurs. At the four-cell stage, P<sub>2</sub> induces endoderm in the neighboring EMS cell via Wnt signaling [23, 32, 33]. The timing of this induction is well characterized and can be manipulated in an in vitro blastomere culture system [34]. We used these cell manipulations to present a Wnt signaling cell

to specify E cell fate, and we then replaced it with either Wnt-minus or Wnt-plus signaling cells to look for specific effects on gastrulation. First, a number of control experiments were performed. When we separated wild-type P<sub>2</sub> from wild-type EMS cells and recombined these cells with wild-type partners that were at the same developmental time point, most recombinants exhibited gastrulation movements (75%, n = 16; [Figure 3B](#)). In contrast, *mom-2* P<sub>2</sub> and *mom-2* EMS negative control recombinations resulted in little or no movement ([Figure S3](#)), as seen previously in related experiments with *mom-2* [7]. We then confirmed that gastrulation defects could be rescued by recombining *mom-2* EMS cells with wild-type P<sub>2</sub> cells (70%, n = 20; [Figure 3B](#)). Next, we asked whether a Wnt signaling cell during endoderm specification was sufficient for gastrulation movements by replacing a Wnt-plus P<sub>2</sub> cell with Wnt-minus cells after endoderm induction. We found that after endoderm induction had occurred, a Wnt-plus P<sub>2</sub> cell is able to rescue gastrulation movements (70%, n = 20) significantly more effectively than a Wnt-minus signaling cell (36%, n = 14; [Figure 3B](#)), suggesting that the P<sub>2</sub> cell or its descendants, or both, are likely to be a source of Wnt signaling for gastrulation.

Together, these results suggest that although Wnt signaling can affect gastrulation indirectly by regulating endodermal cell fate and division timing, Wnt signaling also has a second role during gastrulation. This could be a second, independent Wnt-Fz interaction, or possibly a higher threshold response to the interaction that establishes endoderm cell fate. These results prompted us to look for more direct cellular effects of Wnt/Fz signaling during gastrulation by examining the effect of Wnt/Fz signaling on the polarization and cytoskeletal motility of ingressing cells. Below, we show that in the absence of Wnt signaling, some cell biological events implicated in ingression occur normally in Ea and Ep, but others do not.

#### Ea and Ep Apicobasal Polarization Proceeds Independently of Wnt/Frizzled Signaling

Because Wnt and Fz-dependent signaling are known to affect cell polarity in several systems [35], we examined whether Ea-Ep apicobasal polarity was disrupted in the absence of Wnt/Fz signaling. During gastrulation, the PAR proteins are localized in apicobasally polarized patterns and are required for apical myosin enrichment and efficient ingression movements [8, 10]. We examined wild-type embryos expressing PAR-2::GFP and compared them to PAR-2::GFP embryos from mothers that were either fed with a bacterial strain expressing *mom-2* dsRNA or injected with *mom-5* dsRNA. PAR-2::GFP;*mom-2*(RNAi) embryos and PAR-2::GFP;*mom-5*(RNAi) embryos exhibited similar gastrulation defects to *mom-2*(*or309*) and *mom-5*(*zu193*) embryos respectively (see [Supplemental Experimental Procedures](#)). We confirmed that GFP is detected in PAR-2::GFP embryos in a basolateral pattern in Ea-Ep (11/11 embryos; [Figure 4A](#)). We found that PAR-2::GFP;*mom-2*(RNAi) embryos also display PAR-2::GFP in a basolateral pattern (16/16 embryos; [Figure 4B](#)) as do PAR-2::GFP;*mom-5*(RNAi) embryos (8/8 embryos; [Figure 4C](#)), indicating that Wnt-Fz signaling does not regulate PAR-2 basolateral distribution at this stage.



**Figure 4.** GFP::PAR-2 Distribution Shows that Apicobasal Polarity Is Established Normally in the Absence of *mom-2*/Wnt or *mom-5*/Fz. GFP::PAR-2 is enriched basolaterally in Ea and Ep in wild-type (A), *mom-2* (B), and *mom-5* (C) embryos. Ea-Ep are labeled with asterisks. Arrows mark the basal sides of Ea-Ep cells, where GFP::PAR-2 is enriched, and arrowheads mark the apical sides. P<sub>4</sub>, on the posterior side of the embryo, exhibits nonlocalized GFP::PAR-2 because the GFP construct is driven by a PIE-1 promoter that is most active in the P lineage. Confocal images are shown; scale bars represent 5  $\mu$ m.

A second step in cell polarization occurs when NMY-2, a nonmuscle myosin II heavy chain, accumulates at the apical surfaces of Ea and Ep, where it contributes to gastrulation movements [7, 8]. It is possible that Wnt/Fz signaling may effect gastrulation by acting in parallel with PAR proteins to enrich NMY-2 apically. The majority of cortical NMY-2 accumulation in Ea and Ep occurs during the G2 phase of the Ea and Ep cells [8]. We used *mom-5* mutants as a source of Wnt signaling-deficient embryos because Ea-Ep division timing in *mom-5* mutant embryos more closely resembles that in wild-type embryos than it does in *mom-2* mutants ([Figure 2B](#)). We found that NMY-2::GFP accumulated in the apical cortex of Ea and Ep in *mom-5* embryos as much as in wild-type embryos and did not accumulate apically in other cells at this stage ([Figure 5A](#)). Quantification of cortical to cytoplasmic NMY-2::GFP ratios confirmed this: Wild-type and *mom-5* Ea-Ep cells accumulated NMY-2::GFP at similar rates, and both accumulated significantly more NMY-2::GFP than did cells not of E lineage in either background ([Figure 5B](#)). It is therefore unlikely that Wnt/Fz signaling affects gastrulation by regulating the accumulation of NMY-2. These results

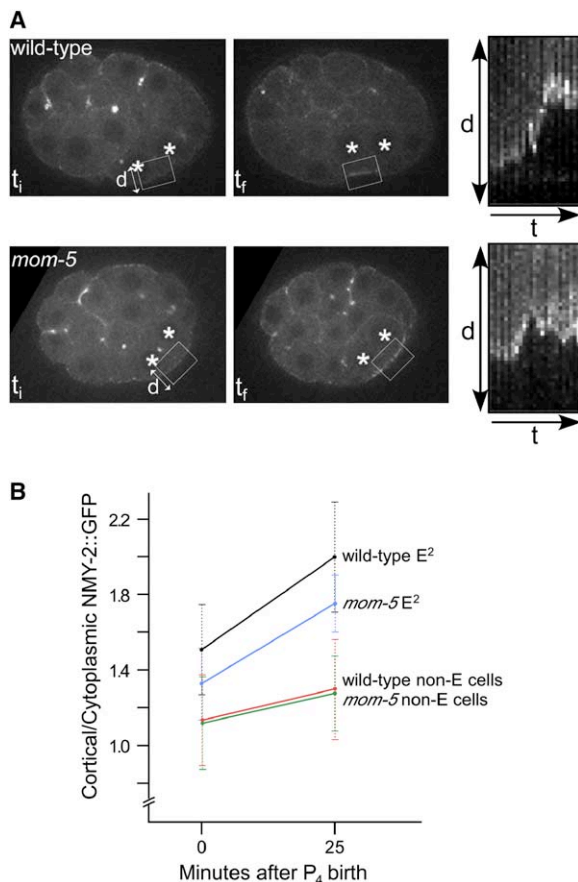


Figure 5. Apical NMY-2 Accumulation Occurs in Both Wild-Type and *mom-5*/Fz Ea and Ep Cells and at Similar Rates

(A) Confocal images from recordings of wild-type and *mom-5* embryos expressing NMY-2::GFP. Asterisks mark Ea and Ep cells.  $d$  represents distance,  $t$  represents time, where  $t_i$  is the initial time point analyzed and  $t_f$  is the final time point analyzed 25 min later. Boxes around the Ea and Ep cortex represent the areas used to make each kymograph at right, in which the maximum pixel value along each  $d$  position in each box is shown over 25 min. In the kymographs, the cortex in wild-type can be seen accumulating NMY-2::GFP and moving toward the interior of the embryo, and the cortex in *mom-5* can be seen accumulating NMY-2::GFP but moving only erratically. Similar areas were analyzed on three other quadrants of the embryo.

(B) Graph of cortical to cytoplasmic NMY-2::GFP level over time. Five wild-type embryos, and four *mom-5* embryos that failed to gastrulate, were analyzed. NMY-2::GFP levels were quantified by calculation of the ratio of cortical to cytoplasmic pixel level above background. A ratio of one therefore indicates that the cortex is at the same intensity as the cytoplasm. By 25 min after P<sub>4</sub> birth, E cell cortices have enriched significantly more NMY-2::GFP than non-E cells, in both backgrounds ( $p < 0.05$ ). The wild-type Ea-Ep GFP ratio is not statistically distinguishable from the *mom-5* Ea-Ep GFP ratio at either time point. Error bars indicate  $\pm 1$  SD.

suggest that Wnt/Fz signaling does not appear to affect gastrulation through regulation of apicobasal polarity in the ingressing cells.

### Frizzled Signaling Functions Upstream of Apical Constriction

Because myosin II heavy chain becomes enriched on the apical side of the ingressing cells at a normal rate but ingression does not occur in Wnt-pathway mutants,

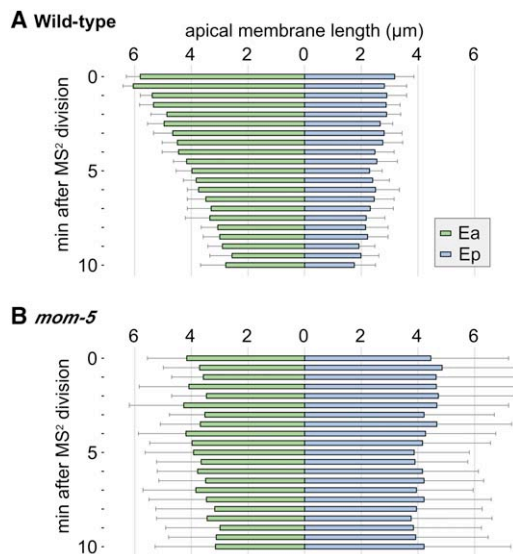


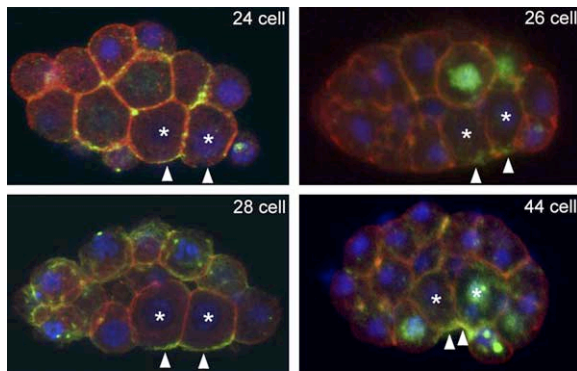
Figure 6. Apical Domains of Ea-Ep Fail to Constrict in *mom-5* Mutant Embryos

Lengths of the apical domains of Ea and Ep over time are shown for (A) 13 wild-type and (B) six *mom-5* mutant embryos that produced endoderm but failed to gastrulate. Error bars are 95% confidence bars.

we speculated that Wnt signaling might instead regulate contraction of the apical actomyosin network. To test this, we first measured the rate of apical constriction during gastrulation in wild-type and *mom-5* (RNAi) embryos. We generated 4D movies of gastrulating embryos and marked the sites of contact between Ea and Ep and the surrounding cells at their apical surfaces. We then calculated the distances between these sites of cell contact. We considered Ea-Ep apical-surface measurements for only the first 10 min after MSA-MSp division so that the premature Ea-Ep division that occurs in some *mom-5* embryos could not affect the results. During this time in wild-type embryos, the length of the apical domain decreased at a rate of  $7.1 \pm 1.3$  nm/s (Figure 6). In contrast, the length of the apical domain of the Ea and Ep cells in *mom-5* embryos that produced endoderm but failed to internalize Ea and Ep decreased significantly more slowly, at a rate of  $2.3 \pm 3.6$  nm/s ( $p < 0.05$ ). These data suggest that Wnt signaling regulates constriction of the apical domains of the Ea and Ep cells.

### Myosin II Becomes Activated in the Apical Cortex of the Ea and Ep Cells Near the Time of Ingression

The failure of apical constriction in the absence of Wnt signaling suggested that apical myosin II might normally become activated to contract at the time of gastrulation and that Wnt signaling might function in this activation. Myosin II has two heavy chains and two essential light chains and two regulatory light chains, and phosphorylation of the two regulatory light chains (referred to here as rMLC) at serine 19 is required for formation of active myosin filaments that can drive contraction in various systems [36]. We used an antibody that recognizes this phosphoepitope, which we refer to as p-rMLC, to determine the localization of activated myosin before and during gastrulation. We found first that commonly



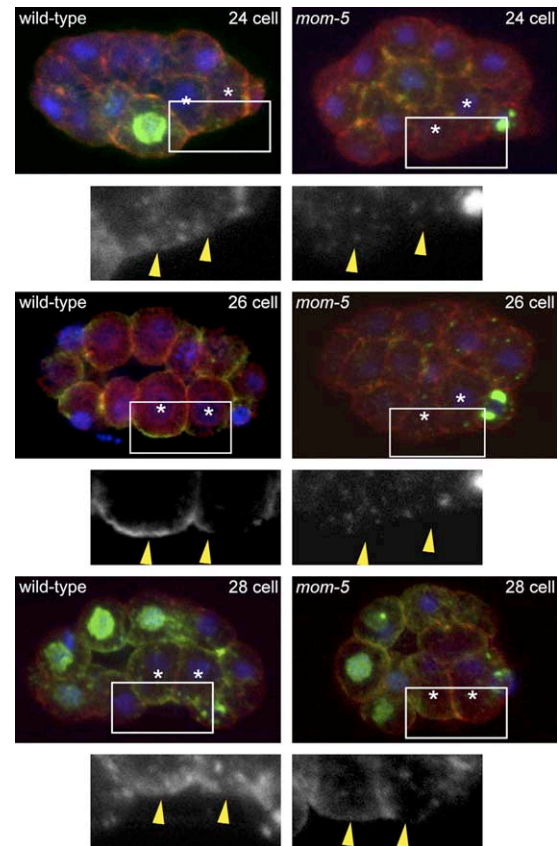
**Figure 7. Phosphorylated Regulatory Myosin Light Chain Accumulates Apically in the Endoderm Precursors Near the Time that Gastrulation Occurs**

Gastrulation movements begin near the 26-to 28-cell stage in most embryos. Ea-Ep cells are indicated by asterisks, and apical-domain membranes are labeled with arrowheads. p-rMLC is shown in green, F-actin is shown in red, and DAPI staining is shown in blue.

used methods for immunostaining *C. elegans* embryos with methanol failed to preserve the p-rMLC signal, but the signal could be detected reliably with a formaldehyde fix designed to best preserve actin filaments [37] (see Supplemental Experimental Procedures). One-cell embryos stained in accordance with this protocol showed cortical staining consistent with published results [38, 39], and cortical staining was abolished by RNAi to the rMLC-encoding gene *mlc-4* (16/16 embryos; Figures S4 and S5). Furthermore, the cortical staining colocalized with NMY-2, the myosin heavy chain (Figure S6), suggesting that the antibody we used can recognize p-rMLC at the cell cortex. During gastrulation, we detected a striking enrichment of p-rMLC at the apical surfaces of Ea and Ep (Figure 7). p-rMLC staining appears enriched apically in the ingressing Ea and Ep cells specifically starting at the 26-cell stage (after MSA-MSp division) and until the Ea and Ep cells are fully ingressed, and it is not enriched apically in any other nondividing cells during these stages. We conclude that apically localized regulatory myosin light chain is activated in Ea and Ep near the time of ingression, by an as yet unidentified kinase.

#### Frizzled Signaling Activates Myosin II at the Ea and Ep Apical Cortex

Next, we asked whether Wnt-Fz signaling functions upstream of rMLC phosphorylation by immunostaining *mom-5* embryos with anti-p-rMLC. In light of the fact that Ea and Ep cells can divide earlier in *mom-5* embryos than in wild-type, we were careful to only compare wild-type and *mom-5* embryos of similar stages (Figure 8 and Supplemental Experimental Procedures). In contrast with wild-type embryos, *mom-5* embryos exhibited markedly lower levels of p-rMLC staining at the apical surface of Ea and Ep throughout all stages of gastrulation movements (Figure 8). The apical surfaces of Ea and Ep in *mom-5* embryos stained in few cases, and staining was weak in these cases (2/11 embryos), whereas apical staining in wild-type embryos is more robust (10/20 embryos showing strong staining, as shown in the Figure 8, and 6/20 embryos showing



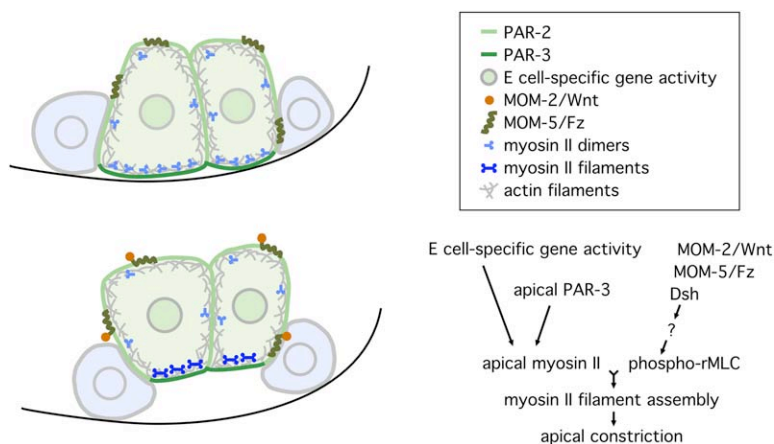
**Figure 8. Regulatory Myosin Light-Chain Phosphorylation Depends on MOM-5/Fz**

Wild-type embryos show apical accumulation of phosphorylated rMLC as gastrulation occurs, particularly in 26- and 28-cell stage embryos. In contrast, *mom-5* embryos show reduced accumulation of phosphorylated rMLC compared to wild-type embryos of the same stages. Ea-Ep cells are indicated by asterisks. p-rMLC is shown in green, F-actin is shown in red, and DAPI is shown in blue. In the bottom panels, Ea-Ep apical membranes are expanded to show p-rMLC staining. Apical membranes are denoted by arrowheads.

weak staining equivalent to the *mom-5* embryos). We conclude that in the absence of Wnt signaling, there is a significant reduction in the level of phosphorylated regulatory myosin light chain on the apical sides of the Ea and Ep cells.

#### Discussion

The study of morphogenesis is one of the key areas where cell and developmental biology meet [1, 40]. Although embryonic patterning mechanisms can play crucial roles in determining cytoskeletal behaviors, there are few examples where the coupling between embryonic patterning and cytoskeletal behaviors is well understood [41]. We have found that the well-studied pathways that specify endoderm in *C. elegans* act upstream of mechanisms that internalize the endodermal precursors. We have demonstrated that Wnt-Fz signaling regulates *C. elegans* gastrulation in addition to specifying endodermal cell fate and cell-cycle timing. The mechanism by which Wnt-Fz signaling acts is not through the generation of the polarized distribution of PAR proteins



or apical-myosin accumulation, suggesting that Wnt-Fz signaling might directly affect apical constriction downstream of myosin accumulation. In support of this, we found an enrichment of an activated form of myosin at the apical cortex of wild-type Ea and Ep during gastrulation, and we found that this activation of myosin is dependent on signaling through Fz.

Our results rule out the simple possibility that Wnt signaling affects *C. elegans* gastrulation solely through its well-documented role in endoderm specification because we found that Ea and Ep often produce endoderm by multiple measures, but fail to gastrulate, in the absence of Wnt signaling. However, it remains possible that rMLC phosphorylation could be a higher threshold response to Wnt-Fz signaling at the four-cell stage. Alternatively, rMLC phosphorylation could depend on an independent, later Wnt-Fz interaction. Signaling to rMLC downstream of Dsh in either way could occur by a transcriptional mechanism or by signaling that is more direct to rMLC. It will be of interest to identify more members of this signaling pathway and to determine when they function so that these questions can be answered.

Our results, together with previous results from us and others [7, 9, 10] outline a molecular and mechanical model for *C. elegans* gastrulation (Figure 9). The apico-basal polarity of all or most cells is determined by the positions of cell-cell contacts and is reflected in the localization of PAR proteins. The pathways that specify endodermal fate in *C. elegans*, involving many of the genes listed in Table 1, determine which cells will enrich myosin heavy chain apically in response to PAR-protein localization. Having myosin enriched at the apical, contact-free surfaces likely primes these cells for internalization. Wnt-Fz signaling leads to phosphorylation of a conserved residue on rMLC, and this phosphorylation can result in the formation of active myosin filaments. The contraction of the apical actomyosin machinery then shrinks the contact-free apical areas, pulls neighboring cells under the Ea and Ep cells, and results in the ingression of Ea and Ep into the center of the embryo. In this way, ingression appears to depend on the combinatorial information from cell-fate specification, apico-basal polarity, and reception of a cell signal that results in contraction of the actomyosin network on a specific side of specific cells.

The role of cell-fate-specification mechanisms and Wnt signaling in activating ingression of specific cells in *C. elegans* gastrulation has both striking parallels and critical differences with *Drosophila* gastrulation. In *Drosophila*, the mesoderm-specification protein Twist activates apical secretion of a different intercellular signaling protein, Folded-gastrulation (Fog) [41, 42]. Fog acts through a presumed but unidentified cell-surface receptor and a G $\alpha$  protein, Concertina, to cause myosin localization to the apical surface of cells. Loss of the Fog downstream targets, DRhoGEF or the Rho kinase Drok, causes much more severe defects in ventral furrow formation than does loss of Concertina, suggesting that Fog must act redundantly with another, unidentified pathway to drive apical constriction [41]. Myosin motor activity is required for its apical localization in *Drosophila* gastrulation [41]. Whether Fog signaling regulates myosin activity by rMLC phosphorylation in *Drosophila* gastrulation like the Wnt pathway does in *C. elegans* has not been examined, but Rho kinase is known to cause phosphorylation of rMLC or myosin activation in other settings in *Drosophila* [43–45] and other organisms [36].

In vertebrates, the actin-binding protein Shroom functions to localize both actin filaments and myosin and can cause apical constriction when expressed in MDCK cells and during normal neural-tube closure [46–48]. Shroom functions in apical constriction by restricting myosin localization, and it is not known to affect myosin activity. Shroom acts through a small GTPase like Fog, but does so through a different GTPase, Rap1. Fog, Shroom, and Wnt-dependent control of apical constriction appear to work independently rather than as parts of a single pathway because Fog and Shroom do not have homologs in the *C. elegans* genome, and removal of the function of the Rap1 homolog in *C. elegans* has no effect on gastrulation (T. Grana and J.H., unpublished data). Also, Shroom is required for apical constriction of only some cells in the organisms where it functions; for example, *Xenopus* bottle cells do not require Shroom during gastrulation [48]. These data suggest that apical constriction is regulated during animal development by multiple, independent mechanisms that can affect either myosin distribution or activity, or both.

Although ours is the first report of intercellular Wnt signaling regulating morphogenesis through rMLC phosphorylation, there is precedent for Frizzled acting

in a similar but cell-autonomous fashion in *Drosophila*, suggesting that this might be an ancient mechanism of morphogenetic regulation. Frizzled can affect ommatidial polarity and actin bundle number in *Drosophila* planar-cell polarity (PCP) signaling pathways via Dsh, RhoA, Drok, and rMLC phosphorylation [45]. This pathway suggests some molecular players that might act between Dsh and rMLC phosphorylation in *C. elegans* gastrulation. The *Drosophila* PCP pathways differ from what we have outlined in this report in that Frizzled is probably not responding to intercellular Wnt signals in PCP signaling pathways [49, 50] and in that PCP signaling is not known to drive apical constriction. The mechanism by which myosin activation regulates ommatidial polarity and actin bundle number in PCP pathways is unknown.

In zebrafish and frog embryos, PCP signaling is required during gastrulation for convergence and extension movements [17, 18]. Vertebrate PCP genes are known to regulate the activity of the cytoskeletal modifiers Rho and Rac [51–53], but the direct effect of PCP signaling on the cytoskeleton has not yet been analyzed in detail. Both the vertebrate PCP pathway and *C. elegans* Wnt/Fz signaling result in modification of cell shape and cell behavior during gastrulation. These pathways differ in that vertebrate PCP signaling affects cell polarity [17, 18], whereas cell polarity is undisturbed in *mom-2*/Wnt and *mom-5*/Fz mutant embryos (this report) and RNAi experiments targeting *C. elegans* homologs of the PCP genes *fat* and *flamingo* (D.M., unpublished) and *van gogh/strabismus* (T.W. and J.H., unpublished data) have not resulted in any gastrulation defects, suggesting that *C. elegans* Wnt/Fz signaling in gastrulation through conventional PCP signaling is unlikely.

Why would myosin activity in *C. elegans* gastrulation be regulated by a cell-cell signal? It seems plausible that constitutively activating myosin could achieve the same goal because myosin is enriched in the apical cortex of the Ea and Ep cells, and hence, activation of myosin throughout these cells might cause an imbalance of forces that could drive apical constriction reliably. One possible explanation is that signaling ensures that apical constriction occurs at the right time. For example, signaling could ensure that myosin activation occurs at a time when the actomyosin network is apically enriched and is not being used for cell division or at a time when adhesion to neighboring cells is sufficiently strong for constriction to pull neighboring cells under the Ea and Ep cells. Signaling might also contribute spatial specificity. For example, it is possible that there are stages in development when several cells have the potential to ingress but only the appropriate ones do so because they contact a Wnt signaling cell.

Others have speculated that morphogenesis may more often depend on redundant pathways than embryonic patterning does [2]. Very few backgrounds that we examined prevented gastrulation in all embryos, suggesting that *C. elegans* gastrulation is regulated by multiple, partially redundant mechanisms. Morphogenesis depends on diverse mechanisms that are of interest in the field of cell and developmental biology, including spatial and temporal gene regulation, cell signaling, cell polarization, cell adhesion, and cytoskeletal dynamics. It will be of interest to explore how such

mechanisms work together in morphogenesis in *C. elegans* gastrulation.

## Conclusions

We have used a combination of genetics, cell manipulations, and in vivo imaging to investigate the regulation of the cytoskeleton by cell-fate-specification genes and by intercellular signaling pathways during the morphogenetic movements of *C. elegans* gastrulation. We have shown that the pathways required for endoderm specification, including a Wnt/Frizzled pathway, are required for gastrulation to occur. Furthermore, we have shown that this Wnt/Frizzled pathway functions in gastrulation in addition to specifying endodermal cell fate. In the absence of Frizzled, apical constriction of the endoderm precursors fails to occur. Additionally, embryos lacking Frizzled show reduced levels of phosphorylated myosin in the apical domains of the endodermal precursors compared to wild-type embryos. Because this phosphorylation of myosin is likely to drive actomyosin contraction, and thus the ingression in these cells at this site, we hypothesize that this failure to phosphorylate myosin underpins the gastrulation defect in Wnt/Frizzled signaling defective embryos. Thus, we have demonstrated a novel role for Wnt signaling during morphogenesis through understanding its modulation of the cytoskeleton and how this impacts upon cell movements.

## Supplemental Data

Supplemental Data include six figures and two movies and can be found with this article online at <http://www.current-biology.com/cgi/content/full/16/20/1986/DC1/>.

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# Wnt/Frizzled Signaling Controls *C. elegans* Gastrulation by Activating Actomyosin Contractility

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## Supplemental Experimental Procedures

### Strains and Worm Maintenance

Nematodes were cultured and handled as described [S1]. Unless indicated, experiments were performed with the wild-type N2 (Bristol) strain. The following mutant and reporter strains were used: EU361 *mom-1* (*or10*), EU855 *mom-2* (*or309*), EU404 *mom-3* (*or78*), EU414 *mom-4* (*or39*), EU452 *mom-5* (*zu193*), EU1 *skn-1* (*zu67*), JR728 *end-1* (*wDf4*), JM69 *elt-2* (*ca15*), EU603 *lit-1* (*or131*), BW1943 *gad-1* (*ct226*), KK866 GFP::PAR-2 [S2], JJ1317 *zuls3* [*end-1::GFP*] [S3], JJ532 *pie-1* (*zu154*), JR1838 *wls84* [*elt-2::GFP*], RB1331 *end-3* (*ok1448*), and JJ1473 *unc-119* (*ed3*) III; *zuls45* [*nmy-2::NMY-2::GFP*; *unc-119* (+)] [S3]; referred to here as NMY-2::GFP, LP25 *mom-5*(*zu193*);NMY-2::GFP. LP25 was constructed by crossing JJ1473 NMY-2::GFP males with EU452 (*zu193*) hermaphrodites. All strains were maintained at 20°C, except for the following strains: KK866 PAR-2::GFP was maintained at room temperature (22°C–23°C) and EU603 *lit-1* was maintained at 15°C. Imaging was performed at 20°C–23°C for all strains except EU603 *lit-1*, which was filmed at 25°C. In experiments where endoderm differentiation was scored, this was assayed by examining of embryos or partial embryos the next day for the presence of birefringent rhabdittin granules under polarized light [S4, S5].

### DIC and Confocal Time-Lapse Microscopy

Intact and devitellinized embryos were mounted for DIC and confocal imaging as described [S6]. DIC images were acquired on a C2400-07 Hamamatsu Newvicon video camera mounted on a Nikon Eclipse 800 microscope. Time-lapse images were acquired at 1  $\mu$ m sections every 30 s with 4D Grabber and subsequently analyzed with 4D Viewer (both programs from LOCI, University of Wisconsin, Madison). Cell-cycle timings were scored from and to the time that a cleavage furrow could first be seen. Gastrulation was scored by examination of whether the Ea and Ep cells left no surface on the outside of the embryo and were instead surrounded by neighboring cells in three dimensions at the time that Ea and Ep divided, as occurs in wild-type embryos. If Ea and Ep divided before being completely surrounded by neighboring cells, then we scored gastrulation as having failed. For measuring apical membranes, the longest ventral surface was measured from the Ea-Ep ventral border to both the Ep-P<sub>4</sub> ventral border and the Ea-MSxx ventral border. Only embryos that produced endoderm, failed to gastrulate, had sufficiently long Ea-Ep cell cycles (>10 min) and normal E-division orientation were analyzed. Confocal images were acquired with Metamorph software (Molecular Devices) on a Nikon Inverted Eclipse TE2000-U, equipped with a Yokogawa Spinning Disk Confocal Scanner Unit CSU10. Image processing was performed with Metamorph or Adobe Photoshop CS 8.0, or both.

### Laser-Delay Experiments

Cells were irradiated with a VSL-337 nitrogen laser (2 mW, Laser Science Inc.) mounted on a Nikon Eclipse 800 microscope. Cells targeted for delay at a sublethal laser dose by irradiation with several 10–30 s durations of 3 nanosecond pulses at 10 Hz. The laser was focused primarily in the nucleus and on the nuclear envelope. Cells were laser-irradiated until intracellular damage such as excess Brownian motion or an irregularly shaped nuclear envelope was visible. Experiments were only included in analyses if the nucleus could be clearly seen after laser irradiation and the cell did not appear to lyse (approximately 90% of all experiments were included in analysis). In more than 85% of the experiments, targeted cells divided again within 120 min. Nontargeted cells did not appear to be affected by the laser because division rates measured in selected experiments were normal. Embryos in which the targeted cells were completely surrounded by other cells in three dimensions by 120 min after laser-delay were scored as being successfully ingressed.

### Cell Recombination Experiments and Measurement of MSxx Cell Movements In Vitro

Embryos were devitellinized, and P<sub>1</sub> cells were isolated and cultured as described [S6]. Five min after formation of the cleavage furrow of the dividing P<sub>1</sub> cell, P<sub>2</sub> and EMS cells were separated from each other. Cells of the same developmental time point were recombined within approximately one min of separation, mounted on a slide, and filmed by 4D videomicroscopy. In experiments where the P lineage cell was replaced after induction, P<sub>2</sub> was allowed to divide once for ensuring that cells were placed back in a way that P<sub>4</sub> would be in contact with Ep during gastrulation. Analysis of MSxx movement was performed as previously described [S6]. Except where otherwise noted, endoderm differentiation was assayed by examining of embryos or partial embryos the next day for the presence of birefringent rhabdittin granules under polarized light [S4, S5]. Rare cases where cell divisions stopped early were excluded from analysis because these were likely to be damaged.

### RNA Interference (RNAi)

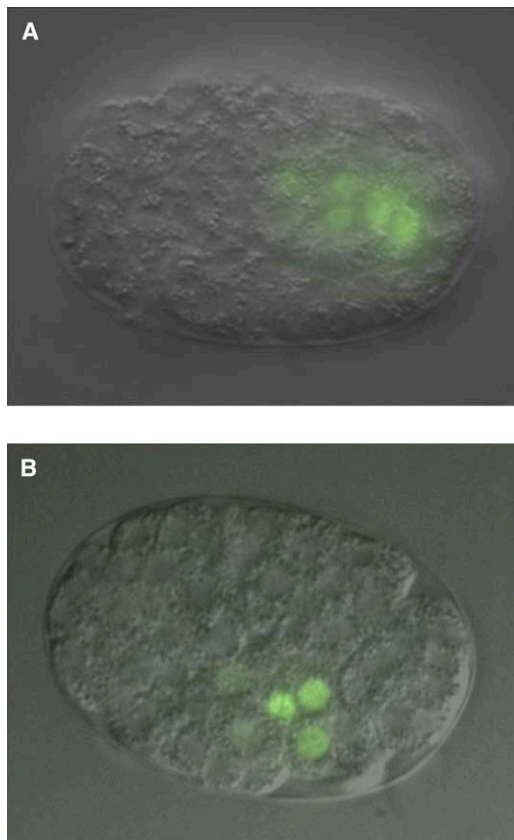
RNAi by feeding was performed according to a standard protocol [S7], except that the experiments were performed at room temperature (~22°C). Feeding constructs were obtained from a dsRNA feeding library, MRC Geneservice [S8]. PAR-2::GFP worms were shifted to 25°C the night before imaging so that the GFP signal-to-noise ratio could be improved. Control experiments with *gad-1* RNAi, known to result in embryonic lethality, were performed simultaneously with *mom-2* RNAi experiments to ensure that the RNAi feeding protocol was working. PAR-2::GFP; *mom-2*(RNAi) embryos that were analyzed usually failed to gastrulate (13/16 embryos), had precocious division, and lacked endoderm (10/14 embryos; two were not analyzed for endoderm), similar to the phenotypes seen in *mom-2*(*or309*) embryos. RNAi by injection was performed as previously described [S9]. For *mom-5*, the target region included residues 15–170 and was injected at a concentration of 100 ng/ $\mu$ l. Embryos were dissected out for experiments 24–36 hr later and exhibited *mom-5* phenotypes. For *mlc-4*, the targeted region included residues 3–163 and was injected at a concentration of 100 ng/ $\mu$ l. These embryos failed to undergo cytokinesis. Embryos were stained 24 hr after injection.

### Analysis of NMY-2::GFP Accumulation

NMY-2::GFP and *mom-5*;NMY-2::GFP embryos were imaged on a spinning disk confocal microscope (see above). Images were captured once each min after the birth of P<sub>4</sub> for 25 min. A line was drawn perpendicular to the cortex of four regions of the embryo, where the E, MS, C, and AB lineage cells were located. With Metamorph software, these lines were converted into kymographs of maximum pixel intensity over time.

### Immunostaining and Confocal Microscopy

Immunostaining of embryos was performed according to a protocol modified from Costa and colleagues [S10]. In brief, embryos were isolated by dissection of gravid adults in egg buffer (118 mM NaCl, 40 mM KCl, 3.4 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub>, 3.4 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, and 5 mM HEPES [pH 7.2]) and were allowed to develop to the desired stage. Embryos were treated with 10% NaOCl solution (Sigma) in egg buffer for 3–4 min and washed four times in egg buffer. The egg shells were digested for 3 min with a combination of chitinase (3 U/ml; Sigma) and chymotrypsin (10 U/ml; Sigma) in egg buffer. Embryos were fixed in situ by excess addition of 4% formaldehyde (Electron Microscopy Sciences) in fix buffer (10 mM MES [pH 6.1], 125 mM KCl, 3 mM MgCl, 2 mM EGTA, and 10% sucrose) containing 0.1 mg/ml L- $\alpha$ -lyssolecithin (Sigma; to aid in permeabilization) for 2 min. The embryos were then transferred to fresh 4% formaldehyde in fix buffer for a further 10 min. The embryos were washed in PBS and mounted on poly-L-lysine coated coverslips then permeabilized



**Figure S1.** ELT-2::GFP Expression in Wild-Type and *mom-5(RNAi)*  
**(A)** ELT-2::GFP is expressed in the endoderm cells in wild-type embryos well after these cells are internalized.  
**(B)** Comparable expression is seen in *mom-5(RNAi)* embryos at a similar stage but in cells that are not completely internalized. Both embryos have eight endoderm cells; some out of the optical section are shown.

with 0.2% Triton-X in PBS for 5 min. Embryos were subsequently incubated in TSA block (Molecular Probes) for 1 hr, and then the block was replaced with primary antibody diluted in block solution. The primary antibody used was anti-Phospho-Ser19-MLC (1/100, Abcam), detected with the TSA (tyramide signal amplification) antibody detection kit (Molecular Probes). F-actin was detected with TRITC conjugated phalloidin (Sigma). NMY-2::GFP was detected with GFP antibodies (1/100, Molecular Probes). Embryos were imaged with a Zeiss LSM510 confocal microscope and LSM software, and images were processed with Metamorph software. Embryos were staged by counting nuclei, and only embryos from the 26- or 28-cell stages were counted when comparing *mom-5* with wild-type.

#### Supplemental References

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- S4. Laufer, J.S., Bazzicalupo, P., and Wood, W.B. (1980). Segregation of developmental potential in early embryos of *Caenorhabditis elegans*. *Cell* 19, 569–577.
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- S8. Kamath, R.S., and Ahringer, J. (2003). Genome-wide RNAi screening in *Caenorhabditis elegans*. *Methods* 30, 313–321.
- S9. Dudley, N.R., Labbe, J.C., and Goldstein, B. (2002). Using RNA interference to identify genes required for RNA interference. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 99, 4191–4196.
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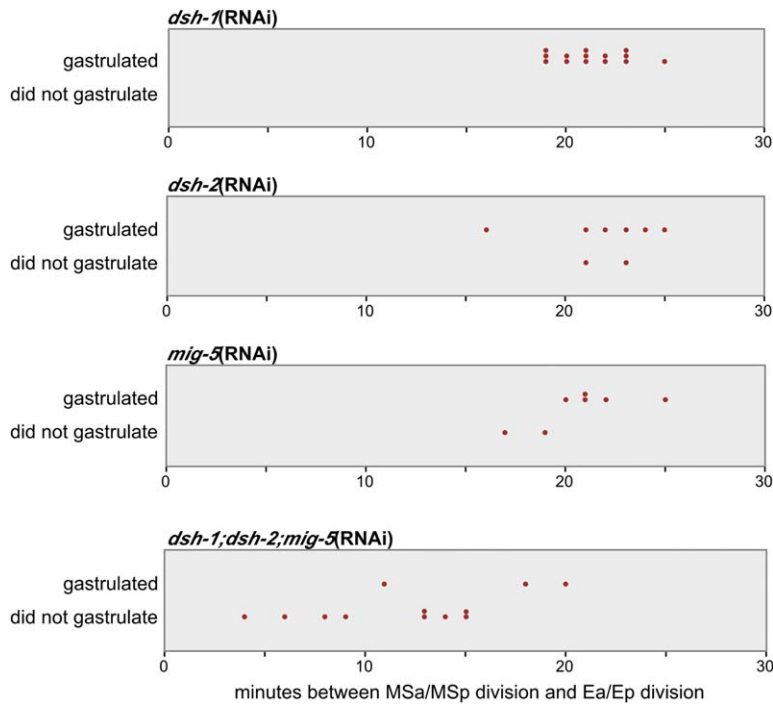


Figure S2. Dishevelled Phenotype  
Gastrulation and Ea-Ep division delay as in Figure 2B for Dishevelled RNAi embryos. All embryos produced endoderm.

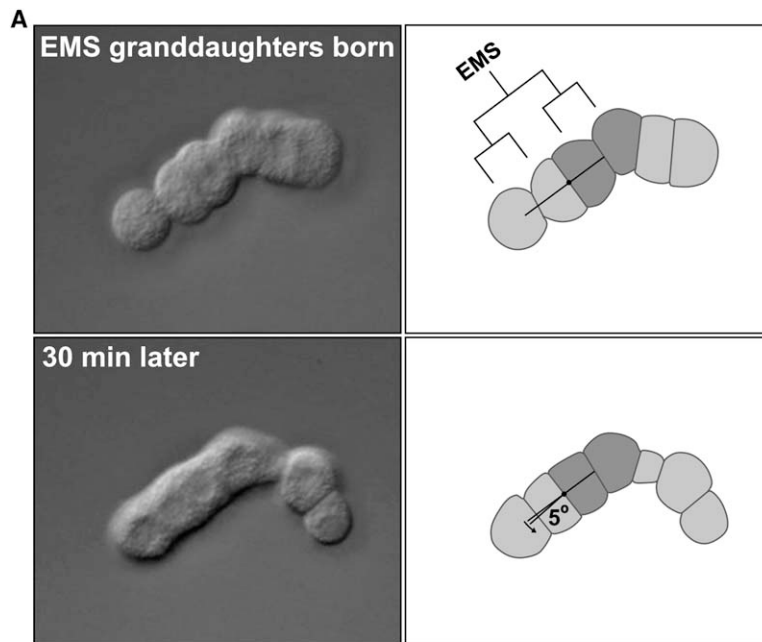
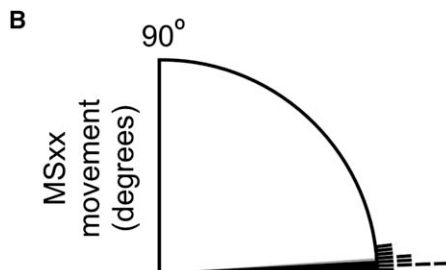


Figure S3. *mom-2* EMS and *mom-2* P<sub>2</sub> Placed in Contact Results in Little Movement of MSxx  
Movement was assayed as in Figure 3B.  
(A) EMS granddaughter positions at birth and 30 min later.  
(B) 12/12 cases resulted in movement of 8° or less.



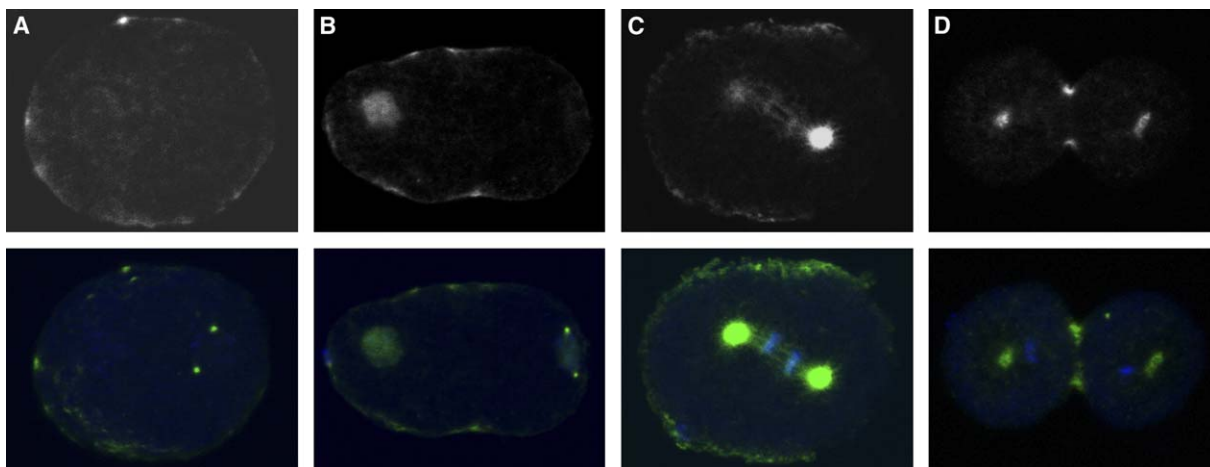


Figure S4. p-rMLC Accumulation after Fertilization

(A) p-rMLC (top panels) accumulates cortically after fertilization of the one cell embryo as previously published [S11].

(B) During polarization, myosin accumulates in the anterior side of the embryo [S12].

(C) During anaphase, p-rMLC is detected cortically.

(D) p-rMLC accumulates in the cytokinetic furrow as the cell divides [S13]. Additional staining is seen at the nuclei prior to nuclear-envelope breakdown and at centrosomes throughout the cell. Merged images (bottom panels) show DAPI staining (blue) and phospho-myosin (green).

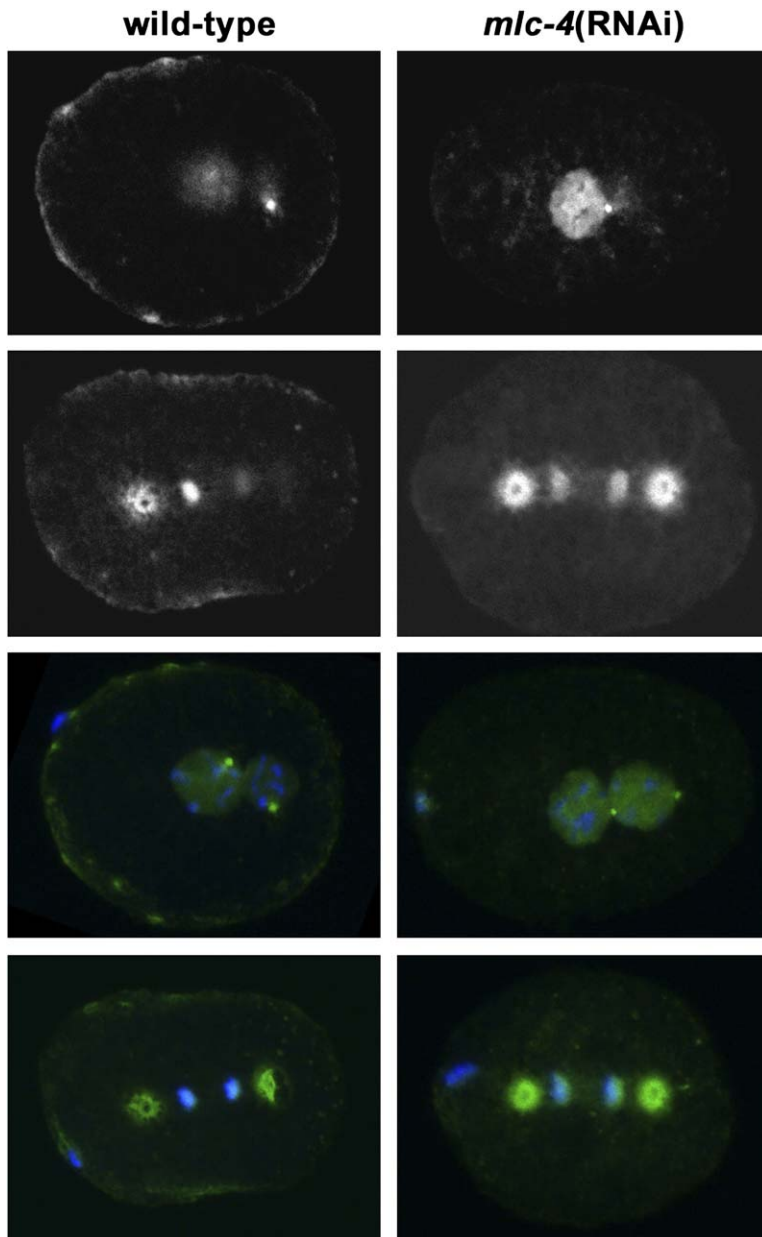


Figure S5. Cortical Anti-Phospho-rMLC Staining Depends on MLC-4

Phosphorylated myosin (top four panels) is detected at the cortex in wild-type embryos (left panels) at pronuclear meeting (upper embryo) and during anaphase (lower embryo). Additional staining is detected at the nucleus prior to nuclear-envelope breakdown and at the centrosomes. In *mlc-4(RNAi)* embryos of comparable stages (right panels), no cortical staining is detected, whereas the nuclear and centrosomal staining is still present. Merged images (bottom four panels) show DAPI staining (blue) and p-rMLC staining (green).

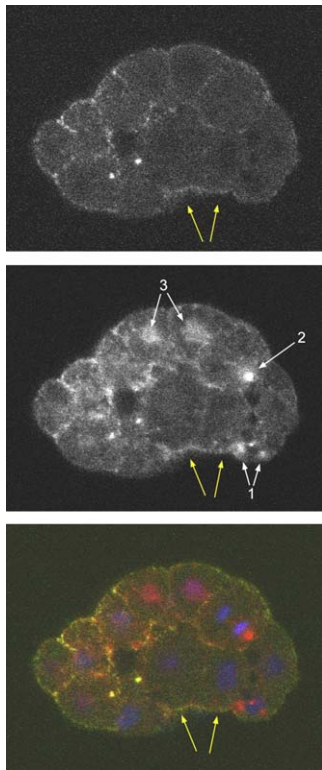


Figure S6. Anti-Phospho-rMLC Staining

NMY-2::GFP (top panel) colocalizes with p-rMLC (middle panel) at the cell cortex and at the apical surfaces of the E cells during gastrulation (yellow arrows). The P granule staining (1), centrosomal staining (2) and nuclear staining (3) detected with the p-rMLC antibody do not colocalize with NMY-2::GFP. Bottom panel shows merged image; NMY-2::GFP is shown in green, p-rMLC is shown in red, and DAPI is shown in blue.