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Cloning, expression and relationship of zebrafish *gbx1* and *gbx2* genes to Fgf signaling

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Abstract

The organizer at the midbrain-hindbrain boundary (MHB) forms at the interface between Otx2 and Gbx2 expressing cell populations, but how these gene expression domains are set up and integrated with the remaining machinery controlling MHB development is unclear. Here we report the isolation, mapping, chromosomal synteny and spatiotemporal expression of gbx1 and gbx2 in zebrafish. We focus in particular on the expression of these genes during development of the midbrain-hindbrain territory. Our results suggest that these genes function in this area in a complex fashion, as evidenced by their highly dynamic expression patterns and relation to Fgf signaling. Analysis of gbx1 and gbx2expression during formation of the MHB in mutant embryos for pax2.1, fgf8 and pou2 (noi, ace, spg), as well as Fgf-inhibition experiments, show that gbx1 acts upstream of these genes in MHB development. In contrast, gbx2 activation requires ace (fgf8) function, and in the hindbrain primordium, also spg (pou2). We propose that in zebrafish, gbx genes act repeatedly in MHB development, with gbx1 acting during the positioning period of the MHB at gastrula stages, and gbx2 functioning after initial formation of the MHB, from late gastrulation stages onwards. Transplantation studies furthermore reveal that at the gastrula stage, Fgf8 signals from the hindbrain primordium into the underlying mesendoderm. Apart from the general involvement of gbx genes in MHB development reported also in other vertebrates, these results emphasize that early MHB development can be divided into multiple steps with different genetic requirements with respect to gbxgene function and Fgf signaling. Moreover, our results provide an example for switching of a specific gene function of gbx1 versus gbx2between orthologous genes in zebrafish and mammals.

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1. Introduction

Generation of cell diversity along the antero-posterior axis in the neuroectoderm is a highly complex process, in which several developmental programs that underlie brain patterning are activated in parallel. Gene expression in the primitive neuroectoderm confers positional information that subdivides the neural plate into differently specified territories, which in turn give rise to the anatomical brain subdivisions. Local organizing centers that arise in the neural plate contribute to this process, and produce signaling molecules that further refine the positional information. One of these organizing centers is established already prior to neural plate stages at the boundary between the mesencephalon and the metencephalon (Martinez et al., 1991; Marin and Puelles, 1994; reviewed by Puelles et al., 1996; Joyner et al., 2000; Rhinn and Brand, 2001; Wurst and Bally-Cuif, 2001). This midbrain–hindbrain boundary (MHB) organizer is later localised at the morphologically visible constriction between the midbrain and hindbrain, called the isthmus rhombencephali, and is thus also known as the isthmic organizer.

The MHB organizer produces secreted signaling molecules that influence patterning in the adjacent tissue along the rostro-caudal axis of the brain. Among the secreted proteins, the vertebrate homologue of the *Drosophila*

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wingless gene, Wnt1 (McMahon et al., 1992) and Fgf8 play key roles during MHB development and function in mice (Crossley et al., 1996; Meyers et al., 1998) and zebrafish (Reifers et al., 1998; Picker et al., 1999). Ectopic application of FGF8 protein by means of acrylic beads can induce isthmic-like structures in chicken, mice and zebrafish with a gene expression profile characteristic for the MHB (Crossley et al., 1996; Martinez et al., 1999; Liu et al., 1999; M.B., unpublished). Among those genes are several transcription factors that are required during development of the MHB, such as En1 and En2 (Wurst et al., 1994; Millen et al., 1994; Scholpp and Brand, 2001), Pax2, Pax5 and Pax8 (Urbanek et al., 1994; Favor et al., 1996; Brand et al., 1996; Lun and Brand, 1998; Pfeffer et al., 1998), Otx1 and Otx2 (Ang et al., 1996; Acampora et al., 1996) and Gbx2 (Wassarman et al., 1997; Shamim and Mason, 1998; Millet et al., 1999). In order of their appearance, Otx2 is expressed first (Ang et al., 1994; Li et al., 1994), followed by the onset of Gbx2 expression in the posterior part of the embryo adjacent to the Otx2 domain (Wassarman et al., 1997; Martinez-Barbera et al., 2001; Li and Joyner, 2001). Pax2 is activated at E7-7.5, En1 and Wnt1 at E7.75 at the future MHB (Rowitch and McMahon, 1995) and Fgf8 is activated at E8 in the neuroectoderm (Crossley and Martin, 1995; Shamim et al., 1999). All genes are activated around the Otx2/Gbx2 boundary and this order of expression already suggested that the region where Otx2 and Gbx2 abut might demarcate the primordium of the MHB. Recent studies in mouse and chicken showed, that indeed ectopic juxtaposition of Gbx2 and Otx2 expression domains can induce MHB marker expression (Hidalgo-Sanchez et al., 1999; Katahira et al., 2000). Misexpression of Gbx2 in the caudal midbrain represses Otx2 expression and induces MHB markers (Millet et al., 1999; Tour et al., 2002); similarly, Otx2 misexpression in the rostral hindbrain repressed Gbx2 expression and causes a posterior shift of the MHB (Broccoli et al., 1999). These observations suggest that an early event in formation of the MHB organizer is the establishment of the Otx2 and Gbx2 territories, followed by the activation of the other pathways (Fgf8, Pax2, Wnt1). The above described property of FGF8 protein to induce isthmus-like structures therefore probably reflects an Fgf8 function during a later, maintenance phase via a feedback loop involving Otx2 and Gbx2, rather than a mechanism for early specification of the MHB primordium (Reifers et al., 1998; Lun and Brand, 1998; Liu et al., 1999; Martinez et al., 1999; Millet et al., 1999).

Mutants affecting the formation of the MHB in zebrafish showed that different pathways are involved in the early specification of the MHB primordium (reviewed in Rhinn and Brand, 2001). In the *acerebellar* (*ace*) mutant, which affects formation of the MHB and cerebellum, the *fgf8* gene is mutated (Reifers et al., 1998). In the *no isthmus* (*noi*) mutant, which affects formation of the midbrain, MHB and cerebellum, the *pax2.1* gene is mutated (Brand et al., 1996; Lun and

Brand, 1998). Analysis of these two mutants showed that both genes are required during gastrulation stages for establishment of gene expression around the MHB, but that they are activated independently from each other in separate, adjacent stripes in the neural plate primordium for the anterior hindbrain (fgf8) and midbrain (pax2.1), respectively. From early somitogenesis-stages onwards, the expression domains of these genes overlap at the forming MHB territory and their expression becomes dependent on each other (Reifers et al., 1998; Lun and Brand, 1998). Neither in mouse nor in chick has fgf8 expression been described at this early stage in the anterior hindbrain primordium; tentatively we suggest that another member of the Fgf family can perform the equivalent function in these species (see Section 3), such as Fgf4, which is expressed at the open neural plate stage in the chick neuroectoderm (Shamim et al., 1999).

To understand whether positioning of pax2.1 and fgf8 expression in their respective subdomains in the forming neural plate in zebrafish might depend on the interface between otx and gbx genes, we isolated and analyzed the zebrafish gbx1 and gbx2 genes and their interaction with otx2 in zebrafish. Gbx genes are related to the Drosophila unplugged gene, which functions in development of the tracheal system and perhaps specific neuroblast sublineages (Chiang et al., 1995; Cui and Doe, 1995). In vertebrates, two subgroups can be distinguished by their aminoacid sequence (see also Fig. 1), the Gbx1 and Gbx2 subgroups (Chapman and Rathjen, 1995). Gbx2 genes have been isolated from Xenopus (von Bubnoff et al., 1996), mouse (Bouillet et al., 1995), human (Lin et al., 1996) and chicken (Shamim and Mason, 1998; Niss and Leutz, 1998); furthermore, PCR analysis detected gbx genes in Australian lungfish (Longhurst and Joss, 1999) and sea urchins (Morris et al., 1997). Common to all vertebrate Gbx2 genes studied so far is the expression at the MHB, suggesting that gbx2's role in MHB formation is conserved in evolution. In contrast, little is known about *gbx1* genes; potential *gbx1* homologues have been cloned only as partial sequences in mouse (Frohman et al., 1993), chicken (Fainsod and Greunbaum, 1989), human (Matsui et al., 1993) and carp (Stroband et al., 1998), but so far no complete description of the temporal and spatial expression patterns is available.

Here we analyze the spatiotemporal expression patterns of the zebrafish ghx2 and ghx1 genes, and show that both genes are expressed at the MHB from early stages onwards. Our results extend a partial account of the ghx2 expression pattern (Su and Meng, 2002). Furthermore, the analysis in *ace* (fgf8) mutants revealed that in zebrafish the activation of ghx2 is strictly dependent on fgf8 function, whereas the earlier activation of ghx1 requires neither fgf8 nor pax2.1. Thus, the highly dynamic spatiotemporal expression of the ghx genes, as well as the genetic dependence, both argue that this group of genes performs multiple distinct functions during development of the brain and other tissues.



Fig. 1. Sequence comparison of the *Gbx1* and *Gbx2* genes. (A) Percentage sequence identity between different Gbx family members. (B) Sequence alignment of full length *Gbx2* genes; the black box outlines the N-terminal conserved region, which is enriched in prolines (yellow). The red bar marks the homeodomain. Stars show conserved aminoacids in all sequences; two points indicate chemically highly related aminoacids, one point chemically related aminoacids. (C) Sequence alignment of Gbx homeodomains; the green box marks the aminoacids of the homeodomain. Gbx proteins can be subdivided into class 1 and class 2 genes, depending upon their homeodomain sequence. A serine (S) or a arginine (N) at position 1 and an isoleucine (I) or a valin (V) at position 59 codes for Gbx1 and Gbx2, respectively. In-between the sequence of a putative ancestor, the *Drosophila unplugged* gene is shown, which contains a serine at position 1 and a valin at position 59. (D) *gbx1* and *gbx2* occup syntenic map positions between zebrafish linkage groups 24 and 6 and human Hsa7 and Hsa2 chromosomes. Markers in support of synteny are shown in blue, and to the right of the human chromosomes. (E) Sequence alignments show that the zebrafish *gbx* genes are members of the two larger clades of vertebrate *Gbx* genes (see Section 4 for details).

2. Results

2.1. Cloning of the zebrafish gbx1 and gbx2 homologues

We isolated two putative gbx related cDNAs. One clone was identified during an in-situ hybridisation screen for genes with embryonic expression patterns. The other clone was isolated by screening a cosmid library for novel homeobox genes, and amplifying the cDNA for the predicted open reading frame by PCR. The predicted aminoacid sequence of both clones showed high homology to Gbx proteins (Fig. 1A). Alignments of the available Gbx sequences showed that the Gbx proteins can be subdivided into two classes based on diagnostic aminoacid substitutions at positions 1 and 59 within the Gbx homeodomain (Fig. 1B, C). Residue 1 is either a serine or an asparagine and residue 59 is either an isoleucine or valine (Chapman and Rathjen, 1995), in the Gbx1 and Gbx2 class, respectively. The homeodomain sequence of one clone contains a serine in position 1 and an isoleucine at position 59, identifying it as a Gbx1 class gene, which we hence named gbx1. This is supported by a comparison of *gbx1* with all known *Gbx2* genes sequences: the aminoacid identity between the zebrafish Gbx1 protein and the Gbx2 protein from other species is around 52%, whereas the identity to various Gbx2 proteins is higher, ranging from 57 to 77% (Fig. 1A). We observed a conserved N-terminal portion between the zebrafish Gbx1 protein and the Gbx2 proteins (Fig. 1B, boxed region). We used blast search in order to check if this conserved N-terminal portion of the zebrafish Gbx1 and Gbx2 proteins can be found in either the mouse or human genome. We have identified a human aminoacid sequence showing 84% identity to the zebrafish Gbx-Box. This homologous region localises to the position on chromosome 7, where the human Gbx1 gene maps. We have also identified a mouse aminoacid sequence showing 81% identity to the zebrafish Gbx-Box and this homologous region localises at the position on chromosome 5, where the mouse Gbx1 gene maps. These findings suggest that gbxgenes might generally share a distinctive N-terminal Gbx-Box that is conserved between the two family members.

The gbx2 cDNA clone shows more than 64% aminoacid similarity with Gbx2 proteins in other species (Fig. 1A). The diagnostic aminoacids present in the homeodomain clearly assign the gbx2 clone to the Gbx2 class genes (Fig. 1C). We have so far not found additional members of the Gbx family. To further examine the relation between zebrafish and mammalian gbx genes, we have mapped the zebrafish gbx1and gbx2 genes using a radiation hybrid panel and compared their position to that in mammals (Fig. 1D). The analysis reveals that both genes occupy areas of long-range synteny between the zebrafish and mammalian genomes, thus supporting the assignment of the gbx1 and gbx2 orthologies. A substantial portion of the long arm of human chromosome 2 (Hsa2q) is present in duplicate copies on zebrafish LG6 and LG9 (Amores et al., 1998; Postlethwait et al., 1998). LG6 contains at least eleven orthologues of Hsa2q genes including gbx2/Gbx2. Likewise, at least three genes occupying a very small portion of Hsa7 are linked on LG24 (Fig. 1D). The syntenic area is very extensive for gbx2, and slightly less so for gbx1. We suggest that a small inversion may have occurred in the vicinity of gbx1 in either the teleost or mammalian lineage (Fig. 1D), as is frequently seen in overall syntenic regions between teleost and tetrapod genomes (Postlethwait et al., 2000). We conclude that conserved syntenies provide independent evidence for orthology assignments of these gbx sequences. The phylogenetic tree (Fig. 1E) shows that the vertebrate Gbxgene family has two main clades, Gbx1 and Gbx2, and that each of the two zebrafish sequences falls into one of the two clades with high bootstrap support.

2.2. Embryonic expression of zebrafish gbx1

We investigated the temporal and spatial distribution of gbx1 RNA by whole mount in-situ hybridisation (ISH). Expression of gbx1 is first detected after the mid-blastula transition in a circular domain within the yolk syncytial layer (YSL), a cellular syncytium underlying the blastoderm (Fig. 2A–D). At 50% of epiboly, gbx1 is activated in the upper blastoderm margin (Fig. 2C,D), but is downregulated in the shield of the embryo, a region which later gives rise to the zebrafish equivalent of Spemann's organizer. At the shield stage, prior to gastrulation, *gbx1* is downregulated in the YSL (Fig. 2E,F). The gbx1 expression domain abuts the ntl/T expression domain, with an overlap of the two domains of around 2-3 cells (Fig. 2G) showing that gbx1 is expressed in the upper part of the blastoderm margin. At the onset of gastrulation, the circular *gbx1* domain becomes progressively restricted to the dorsal part of the embryo, marking the caudal part of the neural plate (Fig. 2H,I). At 80% of epiboly, gbx1 is expressed in a broad stripe in the caudal neural plate, and shows also a patchy expression in more posterior regions that later will give rise to the spinal cord (Fig. 2J). Between tailbud-stage and the 5-somite stage the broad gbx1 stripe is subdivided into several smaller domains (Fig. 2K). The most anterior domain directly abuts with the *otx2* expression, demarcating the future MHB (see Fig. 3). This MHB domain becomes restricted to the dorsal part of the neural tube and starts to fade away at the 6-7somite stage (Fig. 2M). Expression of gbx1 is downregulated in the medial cells of the MHB domain (Fig. 2M, arrow), and persists in a group of unidentified cells (Fig. 2M). At the 13-somite stage these unidentified cells are located in two stripes near the neural tube (Fig. 20,P) adjacent to the position of the future MHB (Fig. 3H); this expression domain may correspond to the forming trigeminal placode. The expression persists in these cells up to 20 h of development and is then down regulated.

gbx1 is expressed very dynamically during hindbrain development. At 80% of epiboly it is expressed throughout the hindbrain primordium, but with the onset of



Fig. 2. Expression pattern of the gbx1 gene by ISH. (A) Animal pole view at 40% of epiboly; gbx1 is expressed in the yolk syncytial layer (YSL). (B) Crosssection showing gbx1 expression in the YSL. (C) Cross-section, right is dorsal; at 50% of epiboly gbx1 is downregulated in the most dorsal part of the embryo and is expressed also in the marginal blastoderm (arrow). (D) Close-up view of the embryo shown in (C). (E) Animal pole view with dorsal to the right, at shield stage; gbx1 is not expressed in the future shield and the expression is downregulated in the YSL (F), arrow. (G) Close-up view of the marginal blastoderm showing the gbx1 expression (ISH, blue) and the ntl/T protein (immunostaining, brown). An overlap of the two domains of around 2–3 cells is observed (clamp). (H) Dorsal view; after the onset of gastrulation gbx1 is expressed in the prospective posterior neural plate and the cross-section (ect, ectoderm) (I) shows no expression in the newly involuting endomesoderm (en) (animal pole towards top). (J) Dorsal view; gbx1 is expressed in a broad stripe in the hindbrain. The compact domain falls apart in the domains seen at the 5-somite stage (K) (sc, spinal cord; r4, rhombomere 4). (L) Double ISH of gbx1 and krox20, which clearly identifies the strong hindbrain domain as r4. (M) Cross-section through the MHB domain at the 7-somite stage: (0) Cross-section through the dorsal MHB (arrows). (N) Lateral view; gbx1 is expressed throughout the hindbrain and spinal cord at 13-somite stage. (0) Cross-section through the dorsal and ventral neural tube. (Q) Expression at 24 h in the hindbrain; expression is weaker in r4 (arrow). (R) Tail section at 24 h; gbx1 is not expressed in the dorsal and ventral neural tube. (D) Expression in the hindbrain is seen in the basal telencephalon above the optic recess. (U) Expression in putative hindbrain branchiomotor neurons in the hindbrain at 48 h, (V) cross-section at the level of nX; gbx1 is strongly expressed in nascent neural cells, probably

somitogenesis expression is strongly upregulated in rhombomere 4 (r4), as shown by double ISH with krox20 (Oxtoby and Jowett, 1993), a marker for r3 and r5 (Fig. 2L). At 9-somite stage expression in the other rhombomeres is also upregulated and from 16 h of development onwards expression in r4 is weaker relative to the other rhombomeres. At 24 h *gbx1* is downregulated in r4 (Fig. 2Q arrow). Optical cross-sections through r3 (Fig. 2P) and the spinal cord (Fig. 2R) show that in the hindbrain/spinal cord *gbx1* expression is restricted to the intermediary part and excluded from the dorsal and ventral neural tube. At the13-somite stage two lateral domains can be detected near the neural tube at the level of r3 which may be head placodes (Fig. 2P). These cells are first detected at the 8-somite stage. At 48 h expression in the hindbrain is seen in two medial and two lateral groups of cells (Fig. 2U, asterisk) that probably correspond to branchiomotor neurons (compare Isl-1 staining in Chandrasekhar et al., 1997); the cross-section at the level of the nucleus of the Xth nerve (Fig. 2V) shows that expression is not located at the ventricular surface, and therefore probably in nascent neurons of the forming mantle layer. Expression of gbx1 in this area is already detected at 24 h, visible as two small lateral domains arising at a level posterior to the ear vesicle (Fig. 2Q, asterisk). At 30 h of development, gbx1 is expressed also in the basal telencephalon in the area of the forming anterior commissure (Fig. 2S,T), just dorsal to the optic recess.

2.3. Relation of the gbx1/otx2 interface to MHB formation

Expression of *gbx1* begins much earlier in the developing neural primordium than gbx^2 and we therefore sought to determine in double ISH the relationship between gbx1 and otx2 expressing cells. From the onset of gastrulation onwards, otx2 is expressed in the anterior neural plate, forming a posterior expression border at the MHB (Li et al., 1994; Mercier et al., 1995; Millet et al., 1996). At 60% of epiboly, the anterior border of gbx1 expression directly abuts the otx2 expression, with an overlap of the two domains of around 3-4 cells (Fig. 3A,B). This area of overlap has disappeared by 80% of epiboly, resulting in two sharply defined, directly adjacent domains (Fig. 3C-E). These observations suggest an early phase of establishment, with overlapping gbx1 and otx2 expression, followed by a later phase, where they may mutually repress each other. This boundary is maintained at later stages of development (Fig. 3F,G), until eventually gbx1 is down-regulated at the MHB at the 6-somite stage; concommitant with downregulation of gbx1, the boundary appears less sharp, in particular in the dorsal midline (Fig. 3H arrowhead).

Next we examined the position of the gbx1/otx2 interface relative to MHB formation by comparing the expression of otx2 and gbx1 with that of pax2.1. Activation of pax2.1 at the MHB is initially slightly patchy, and interestingly, activation occurs initially only within the otx2 domain (Fig. 4A,B). The patches of expression then fuse to the typical wing-shaped pax2.1 domain seen around 80-90% of epiboly which now stretches across the *otx2/gbx1* border (Fig. 4C,D). This observation is confirmed when the onset of *pax2.1* is studied relative to *gbx1* expression; *pax2.1* is clearly activated outside the gbx1 expression domain (Fig. 4E). At 80% of epiboly gbx1 is expressed posterior to pax2.1, with a few cells of overlap (Fig. 4G,H). Fig. 4I shows how subsequently the gbx1 domain is split up into the subdomains seen at the 4-somite stage (Fig. 2K), but also how the overlap between gbx1 and pax2.1 continuously increases (Fig. 4H,J) from 1 to 2 cells at 80% of epiboly (Fig. 4H) to about 4–5 cells at the 3-somite stage (Fig. 4J). These results show that *pax2.1* is activated exclusively within the otx2 domain, but becomes quickly expressed in the rostral gbx1 domain. These double ISH of pax2.1/gbx1 and otx2/gbx1 indicate that the otx2/gbx1 interface demarcates the region of the future MHB. The mechanism by



Fig. 3. gbx1 expression relative to otx2 expression. Shown are dorsal views, with anterior to the top; gbx1 is stained in blue, otx2 in red. (A,B) At 60% of epiboly the expression domains of gbx1/otx2 overlap in a small row of 3 cells (clamp) (the white dashed line shows the limit of the gbx1 expression domain (blue) in A and the limit of the otx2 expression domain (red) in B). (C–E) At 80% of epiboly the border of the two domains is defined sharply; the higher magnification in (D,E) shows that there is no overlap between the gbx1 and otx2 domain (the white dashed line shows the limit of the gbx1 expression domain (red) in D. and the limit of the otx2 expression domain (red) in E). (F) The sharp otx2/gbx1 border is unchanged at the 5-somite stage, and (G,H, arrowhead) the sharp posterior otx2 expression is also kept up after the gbx1 expression is downregulated at the MHB. (I) and (J) From mid-somitogenesis stages onwards a gap between the rostral gbx1 and caudal otx2 expression can be observed (arrowheads), that defines exactly the region where the morphological visible MHB fold will form.

which on the one hand the expression border between otx2 and gbx1 is maintained up to the 6-somite stage, and on the other hand overlap of pax2.1 and gbx1 increases between 80% to the 5-somite stage is unclear, but is likely to involve a mix of cell migration, proliferation and changes in gene expression.

The expression pattern of gbx1 suggests that the primordium of the MHB, the area that later will form the morphologically visible fold, arises from an early gbx1 positive field of cells that later becomes gbx1 negative. The expression pattern at the 5-somite stage shows a defined gbx1 positive band at the MHB, followed posteriorly by a gap of non-expressing cells, and then by the expression in r4 (Fig. 2K). At later stages, when the MHB domain starts to fade away (Fig. 2M), gbx1 expression is upregulated also in more anterior rhombomeres, but expression does not touch the otx2 domain (not shown). Double ISH with otx2 and gbx1 clearly shows that at mid-somitogenesis stages, there



Fig. 4. Expression of *pax2.1* relative to *gbx1* and *otx2*. All embryos are shown from dorsal, with anterior to the top. (A) Onset of *pax2.1* expression (blue) in the *otx2* domain (red); the close-up in (B) shows, that *pax2.1* is activated in small patches (white arrowheads) within the *otx2* domain. (C) From 80% onwards, *pax2.1* becomes activated also posterior to the *otx2* domain (arrow), and at 90% (D) already a large *pax2.1* domain outside the *otx2* territory can be detected. (E,F) At 70–80% of epiboly *pax2.1* (blue) is activated outside the *gbx1* (red) domain (arrowhead); shown is a close-up view of the MHB domain of *gbx1*. (G–J) Double ISH of *pax2.1* (red) and *gbx1* (blue). At 80% a small overlap of *pax2.1* and *gbx1* clearly overlap (clamp), whereas the *gbx1/otx2* border is maintained (Fig. 3).

is a prominent gap between the caudal limit of otx2 expression and the rostral margin of the gbx1 expression domain in the hindbrain (Fig. 3I), that is neither midbrain (otx2 negative) nor completely hindbrain (gbx1 negative). Double ISH with krox20 shows that the gbx1 expression anterior to r3 includes at least r2, and comparison with EphA4, a marker expressed in r1, r3 and r5 (Xu et al., 1994) at 24 h, revealed that very likely r1 is not expressing gbx1 (data not shown). Observation of the MHB primordium in

double-stained embryos throughout development shows that this is exactly the region where the MHB fold, including the cerebellum will form (Fig. 3I,J). This is particularly evident at 24 h in a double stained embryo with otx2 and gbx1, where the fold occupies the otx2/gbx1 negative territory (Fig. 3J). Therefore we propose that at least from midsomitogenesis stages onwards, the MHB or isthmocerebellar primordium forms a distinct embryonic field giving rise to a separate brain subdivision sandwiched in between the midbrain and the hindbrain. This distinct embryonic field or brain subdivision is characterised by expressing neither otx2 nor gbx1, and by expressing MHB specific markers such as pax2.1 (and pax5 and pax8, Pfeffer et al., 1998) and the zinc finger transcription factor Bts1 (Tallafuss et al., 2001). This is consistent with r1 being a part of the isthmocerebellar primordium in zebrafish, and with studies in chick that suggested a contribution of r1 to formation of the cerebellum (Martinez and Alvarado-Mallart, 1989). It is from this region that the future morphologically visible MHB fold, including the cerebellum, will form, and we therefore speculate that these genes serve to outline the isthmocerebellar primordium.

2.4. Differential activation of gbx2 in distinct germ layers

Unlike *gbx1* in zebrafish and *Gbx2* in mouse, expression of zebrafish gbx2 is initially not complementary to otx2. In zebrafish, gbx2 transcripts are first detectable at 90% of epiboly as a patchy expression domain in two stripes at the level of the prospective hindbrain (Fig. 5A), thus at a distinctly later stage than gbx1. Optical cross-section through this area reveals that gbx^2 at its onset is only expressed in the endomesoderm (Fig. 5B). Shortly afterwards, at 90–100% of epiboly, gbx^2 then becomes activated also in the overlying neural ectoderm (Fig. 5D,H). The ectodermal domain is shifted anteriorly by several cell diameters relative to the endomesodermal domain (Fig. 5D, H). At 100% of epiboly, gbx2 transcripts are in addition detected at the border of the neural plate in two longitudinal stripes, which are still connected to the medial neuroectodermal domain; several head placodes, including the otic placode, are thought arise from this area (Fig. 5C). Thus both endomesoderm and ectoderm activate gbx^2 in a position-specific manner.

2.5. Expression pattern of gbx2 in whole mount embryos

Double ISH of gbx2 with krox20 showed that at the 1-somite stage, the endomesodermal gbx2 domain extends posteriorly up to the level of r5, whereas the ectodermal domain extends up to r3 (Fig. 5I,J). Comparison with otx2 shows that anteriorly gbx2 is adjacent to otx2, similar to gbx1, albeit at a much later stage (Fig. 5E). During the beginning of the segmentation period, the ectodermal gbx2 domain sharpens and becomes more restricted to the region of the future MHB. Double ISH with pax2.1 clearly showed



Fig. 5. Expression pattern of the gbx2 gene by ISH. (A–D) Gastrula stage embryos, dorsal views and cross-sections, animal pole towards top. (A) At 90% gbx2 is first expressed in two stripes in the endomesoderm (en), not in the ectoderm (ect), as shown in the cross-section in (B). (C) At 100% of epiboly the expression in the lateral neural plate can be detected (arrow). (D) The cross-section shows the ectodermal expression. (E) Double ISH with otx2; both domains are expressed adjacent to each other. (F) Tailbud stage all gbx2 domains are visible. (G) Transverse cross-section showing the expression in the ectoderm, lateral ectoderm (lect) and endomesoderm and (H) cross-section. (I,J) Double ISH with krox20; the endomesodermal gbx2 domains extends posteriorly up to r5. (K) pax2.1 (red) overlaps with gbx2 expression; (L) at the 5-somite stage the overlap is clearly visible, as shown in the close-up in (M, clamp). (N) Transverse cross-section through the tail of a 5-somite stage embryo. Expression in the spinal cord is marked with an arrowhead, the arrows mark the expression in the intermediate mesoderm. (O) Dorsal view of a 10-somite stage embryo (dc, diencephalon; op, otic placode; im, intermediate mesoderm) (P) Dorsal view at 20 h, with anterior to the left (dc, diencephalon; ov, otic vesicle). (Q) Cross-section through the MHB at 24 h; gbx2 is expressed in a D/V gradient (R) Dorsal view of the MHB at 36 h, anterior to the top. (S) Dorsal view of the MHB at 48 h. The MHB expression is now restricted to the dorsal medial part.

that the gbx2 expression is located in the posterior part of the MHB, overlapping with the pax2.1 expression (Fig. 5K,L) similar to gbx1/pax2.1 in Fig. 4. At 24 h of development, gbx2 is expressed differentially along the dorso-ventral (DV) axis at the MHB (Fig. 5Q) and the dorsal views in Fig. 5R show that the expression is restricted to the medial part of the fold, extending ventroposteriorly into the cerebellar primordium. At 48 h the MHB domain is confined to the dorsal part of the fold express gbx2, excluding the cerebellum.

During segmentation stages, gbx2 is also expressed in the caudal spinal cord, in two lateral patches close to the tailbud (Fig. 5N) that later fuse at the dorsal midline (Fig. 5O); At the 10-somite stage, a new domain in the dorsal forebrain can be detected (Fig. 5O). We also observed gbx2 positive cells located outside the neural tube in cells in/or near the otic vesicle (Fig. 5P).

At 5-somites, gbx2 starts to be expressed in two lines in the lateral plate mesoderm (Fig. 5N,O) in a pattern very similar to genes that are known to be involved in hematopoesis, such as SCL or GATA1 (Liao et al., 1998; Thomson et al., 1998). Around the 18-somite stage, this expression domain is restricted to the area that will give rise to the intermediate cell mass, ICM, where the future blood cells will be formed. Interestingly, the expression persists in the dorsal and ventral most trunk surface ectoderm, that will give rise to the apical ectodermal ridge (AER) of dorsal caudal and anal fins (data not shown). Expression of gbx2 is also found in the developing retinal ganglion cells and in the ectodermal cells surrounding the developing lens (data not shown). Our data also confirm gbx2 expression in the otic primordium/vesicle, as shown in tetrapods (Bouillet et al., 1995; von Bubnoff et al., 1996; Niss and Leutz, 1998). At the 2–3-somite stage, the lateral ectodermal domain separates from the medial domain (compare Fig. 5K and L) and increases dramatically in size. The domain splits into a posterior expression at the position of the ear placode and into an anterior domain near the neural tube. In the otic vesicle gbx2 is expressed along the medial inner side, where the otic epithelium abuts the rhombencephalon (data not shown).

2.6. Onset and early expression of gbx1 is not affected in noi, ace and spg mutants

To determine where the gbx genes act in the genetic hierarchy controlling MHB development, we examined their expression in mutants affecting the formation of the MHB. Alleles of *no isthmus* (*noi*) are mutations in the zebrafish *pax2.1* gene (Brand et al., 1996; Lun and Brand, 1998), and the onset of gbx1 expression is normal in homozygous *noi* mutants. From 80% of epiboly onwards, after the onset of *pax2.1* expression, no significant difference in gbx1 expression is detected between wildtype (WT) and *noi* mutants up to the 5-somite stage (not shown). The gbx1 expression at the MHB is downregulated in WT embryos at the 6–7-somite stage (Fig. 2M); in the *noi* mutant this dorsal MHB domain disappears somewhat earlier, at the 5–6-somite stage (Fig. 6B) and also the two gbx1 positive cell clusters (Fig. 2N,O) could not be detected

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Fig. 6. Expression of gbx1 and gbx2 in *noi*, *ace* and *spg* mutants. (A,B) Dorsal views, anterior to the left, (C,D) lateral view, anterior to the left. (A) pax2.1 (red) overlaps with the gbx1 (blue) MHB expression; in (B) *noi* mutants the gbx1 expression at the MHB is gone at 5 somites. (C,D) The lateral patches (arrow in C), which arise from the gbx1 MHB domain, do not form in *ace* mutants (asterisk). (E,J) Shown are dorsal views, anterior to the top. (E–G) At 100% of epiboly gbx2 is not expressed in the ectoderm (ect) in *spg* (F, arrows; en, endomesoderm) and *ace* mutants (G, arrowhead). (H–J) From 1 somite onwards, gbx2 is reexpressed in the ectoderm, in three patches: in the medial neuroectoderm (yellow arrowhead) and in the lateral domains (red arrowheads). (K–M) show the cross-section through the embryo shown in (H–J), respectively; the lateral domains are migrating towards the dorsal midline.

at the 13-somite stage. At 24 h the hindbrain domain of gbx1 is shifted a bit anterior in noi mutants, concommittant with the lack of MHB tissue (data not shown), similar to acerebellar (ace) mutant embryos, which lack fgf8 function (Reifers et al., 1998). The onset and early expression of gbx1 is normal in ace mutants, but at midsomitogenesis, the dorsal MHB domain and later also the two patches lateral to the MHB are absent (Fig. 6C,D, asterisk). At 24 h, due to the lack of MHB tissue, gbx1 expression in the hindbrain is shifted anteriorly also in ace mutants (data not shown). The observation that in *noi* and *ace*, two mutations that affect MHB formation at early somitogenesis stages, the gbx1 domain lateral to the MHB (see Fig. 2M) is never seen, is consistent with our suggestion that cells in this domain might derive from the MHB expression domain seen at the 5–7-somite stage. Alternatively, proper specification of the MHB domain might be a prerequisite to induce this population of cells in neighboring placodal ectoderm. In contrast, in mutations, in the *pou2* gene (Schier et al., 1996; Belting et al., 2001; Burgess et al., 2002; Reim and Brand, 2002) cause no significant difference in gbx1 expression between WT and mutant embryos at early stages.

In summary, expression of *gbx1* is not affected in *noi*, *ace* or *spg* mutants at early stages when the MHB is established, suggesting that *gbx1* acts upstream of these genes.

2.7. Onset of gbx2 expression is dependent on fgf8 signaling

In contrast to gbx1, our analysis of gbx2 expression in the MHB mutants shows that gbx2 is dependent on spg (pou2) and ace (fgf8) function. At 100% of epiboly, gbx2 expression is seen only in the endomesodermal and in the presumptive otic domains of spg mutants (Fig. 6E,F) (see also Reim and Brand, 2002). At the 3-somite stage, the gbx2 positive ectodermal patches are visible more clearly and are shifted towards the dorsal midline, presumably due to the neural keel condensation movements taking place at this time (Fig. 3H,I). Around the 10-somites, the gbx2 domain at the MHB is absent. At 24 h of development the MHB domain is still lacking, whereas the other domains are unchanged compared to WT embryos (data not shown).

Onset of *gbx2* expression is also affected in the *ace* mutant, albeit in a different way (see also Reim and Brand, 2002). In *ace* mutants, expression is already absent at 90% of epiboly

(Fig. 6E, G), and does not appear until the 2-somite stage, when weak expression becomes detectable in the mutants in the presumptive otic primordium and in dorsal midline; both the expression in the MHB and in the presumptive otic primordium are strongly decreased at the 2-somite stage (Fig. 6H,J). The cross-section in Fig. 6M shows that gbx2 is reexpressed in *ace* only weakly in the ectoderm, and not at all in the endomesoderm. Also at 24 h, no gbx2 expression can be detected at the MHB in *ace* mutants, whereas the other gbx2domains are not or only mildly affected in *ace* mutants (data not shown). Therefore we conclude that fgf8 signaling is required for the onset of gbx2 expression in the MHB, in the underlying endomesoderm and in the presumptive otic placode, whereas for expression in other gbx2 domains fgf8is less crucial. In *noi* mutant embryos the onset of gbx2 expression is not affected, and it is expressed essentially as we have described for fg/8 in *noi* mutants at later stages (Lun and Brand, 1998, and not shown). These observations suggest, together with the results in *ace* mutants, that Fgf8 is intimately involved in regulating gbx2.

The observation that gbx2 is expressed both in the endomesoderm and the overlying ectoderm raised the question where fgf8 is needed to activate gbx2 expression. We therefore examined if fgf8 itself is expressed in the endomesoderm underlying the forming MHB. Crosssections show that at 70% of epiboly, fgf8 is expressed in both the endomesoderm and the overlying ectoderm, but expression is extinguished in the endomesoderm by the 90%-tailbud stage (Fig. 7A–D, arrows). Endomesodermal cells derive by involution from the blastoderm margin, and



Fig. 7. gbx2 expression in the ectoderm and endomesoderm requires ectodermal Fgf8. (A-D) Expression of fgf8 at late gastrula stages in the ectoderm (ect) and underlying endomesoderm (en). (A) At 70% of epiboly, fgf8 is expressed in the prospective hindbrain neuroectoderm, abutting posteriorly to the prospective MHB. (B) The cross-section of the embryo in (A) shows, that fgf8 at its onset is also expressed in the underlying endomesoderm (en, arrow). (C) Dorsal view, anterior to the top; at 90% the fgf8 domain looks very similar to the gbx2 domain (compare to Fig. 5), which reflects the dependency of gbx2 on fgf8 expression. (D) Cross-section through the fgf8 domain at 90% of epiboly, at the onset of gbx2 expression; fgf8 is no longer expressed in the endomesoderm, but remains on in the ectoderm. (E,E',F,F') gbx2 expression in SU5402 treated embryos. (E) gbx2 expression at tailbud stage in non-treated embryos. (E') In embryos treated with SU5402 from 70% of epiboly to tailbud, the gbx2 expression is abolished. (F) sprouty4 expression at tailbud in non-treated embryos. (F') In embryos treated with SU5402, the expression of sprouty4, an Fgf target, is abolished showing that the inhibition of Fgf signaling was efficient. (G,G',H,H',I,I') gbx2, fgf8 and pape expression in MZoep embryos. (G,G',I,I') posterior view, (H,H') lateral view. (G) gbx2 expression in WT embryos at tailbud-stage (G') gbx2 is expressed in the ectoderm in MZoep embryos where the underlying endomesoderm is absent (I'). (H) fgf8 expression in a WT embryo at tailbud-stage and in MZoep embryos (H'). (I) pape is expressed in lateral mesoderm (blue) is completely absent from axial mesoderm where ntl/T immunostaining is detected (brown) in a WT embryo at tailbud stage. (I') In MZoep embryos no pape staining is detected showing the absence of the underlying endomesoderm. Only ntl immunostaining is detected in the tailbud. (J) Regulation of gbx genes in zebrafish. During gastrula stages, three parallel pathways (Pax, Wnt and Fgf) are activated around the otx2/gbx1 interface in response to patterning signals. Towards the end of gastrulation, spg (pou2) expression refines to the MHB territory. At the end of gastrulation, ace (fgf8) and spg (pou2) in turn are required to activate gbx2. (K) Schematic drawing of the transplantation procedure. Transplantations of biotin-labeled WT donor cells into ace host embryos were done at shield stage. (L,M) Dorsal view, anterior to the top. gbx2 expression can be rescued in a host embryo (ace) transplanted with WT cells and processed for ISH and for detection of the biotin lineage tracer in the transplanted WT cells (brown). The line marks the level of the cross-section shown in (N,O) and (P,Q). (N,O) Cross-section of the embryo shown in (L) and (P,Q) cross-section of a second chimaeric embryo shown in (M) with a similar clone. gbx2 expression is rescued in the transplanted cells, but also in the host mutant cells (white arrowhead in Q') situated close to the transplanted cells. Other cells that are only brown lie outside the normal gbx^2 expression domain. (N',O') Higher magnification of the sections shown in (N,O). (P',Q') Higher magnification of the sections shown in (P,Q). Importantly, gbx2 expression is also rescued in the endomesoderm (N',Q') (arrowhead) where no transplanted WT cells are detected. (O) cross-section of the contralateral (control) side of the embryo shown in (L) and (P) cross-section of the contralateral (control) side of the embryo shown in (M). No expression of gbx2 is detected in the ectoderm and endomesoderm in the absence of WT cells in the host ace embryo.

therefore express *fgf8* also at earlier stages (e.g. shield stage). To test whether their previous location in the blastoderm margin allows them to somehow 'remember' to activate *gbx2* expression at 90% epiboly, we treated wild-type embryos from 70% epiboly onwards, i.e. shortly before activation in the endomesoderm occurs, with SU5402, an inhibitor of Fgf signaling (Mohammadi et al., 1997). We find that this treatment abolishes the onset of *gbx2* expression in all treated embryos in both germlayers (Fig. 7E,E'). Control ISH with the Fgf8-target gene *sprouty4* (Fürthauer et al., 2001) shows that the inhibition was complete (Fig. 7F,F'). These findings show that Fgf8 signaling is necessary specifically between 70 and 90% of epiboly for activation of *gbx2* expression in both the endomesoderm.

To examine in which germlayer fgf8 expression is needed for gbx2 activation, we transplanted WT cells at the shield stage into the prospective hindbrain ectoderm of acerebellar (fgf8) mutants which normally lack gbx2 expression, and allowed the resulting chimaeric embryos to develop until the tailbud stage, the time when gbx2 would normally be activated in wild-type embryos (Fig. 7K). As expected, the WT cells were able to express gbx2 in the ace mutant ectoderm (Fig. 7L,M). gbx2 is also induced in immediately neighboring ace cells that lie within the normally gbx2-positive band (Fig. 7Q'). These cells are not far away from the Fgf8 source, an observation which is in agreement with the data that Fgf8 target genes, like sprouty4 and gbx2, have their expression domain closely overlapping with the fgf8 expression domain (compare Fig. 7E,F,H; Fürthauer et al., 2001). In such chimaeric embryos, WT cells located in the ectoderm, labeled in brown, were also able to rescue the mesendodermal expression of gbx2 in unlabeled homozygous mutant host cells, as confirmed by cross-sections at the level of the primordial hindbrain (Fig. 7N'-Q'). Thus, normal fgf8 function is required in the ectoderm to allow gbx2expression in the underlying endomesoderm of late gastrula-stage embryos, revealing a novel Fgf8-dependent signaling event. Note, however, that this signaling event is not necessarily direct, because Fgf8 might activate another signaling protein in the ectoderm which in turn would activate endomesodermal gbx2 expression.

We next examined the role of the endomesoderm, which transiently expresses *fgf*8, on the onset of *gbx2* in the overlying ectoderm. Maternal Zygotic one-eyed-pinhead (MZ*oep*) mutants are unresponsive to Nodal signaling and show severe disruption of endomesodermal development (Gritsman et al., 1999). Markers for endoderm, notochord, prechordal plate, paraxial mesoderm intermediate mesoderm and lateral mesoderm are not expressed in the head and trunk of MZ*oep* mutants (one example Fig. 7I,I'; Gritsman et al., 1999). Thus the ectoderm of MZ*oep* mutants is never exposed to the transient *fgf*8 expression observed in the endomesoderm at 70% of epiboly (Fig. 7B) and is only exposed to the ectodermal *fgf*8 expression which

is normal in MZ*oep* embryos (Fig. 7H,H'). gbx2 is expressed in MZ*oep* mutants although signaling from the endomesoderm is absent (Fig. 7G,G'). We conclude that Fgf8 expression in the endomesoderm is not required for the expression of gbx2 in the ectoderm.

Together our findings demonstrate that Fgf8 signaling is required within the ectoderm for ectodermal gbx2expression, and that Fgf8 signaling or secreted targets of Fgf8 can signal vertically to the endomesoderm to activate and/or maintain gbx2 in this layer. Our analysis does not support an involvement of the transient fgf8 expression in the endomesoderm in the onset of gbx2 expression in the ectoderm. The function of gbx2 in the mesendoderm remains to be addressed.

3. Discussion

We have isolated and described the spatiotemporal activity of gbx1 and gbx2 and presented a detailed account of the expression of these genes and their functional context in particular during development of the midbrain-hindbrain territory; additional expression data are deposited in the ZFIN database (www.zfin.org). These genes are likely to function in this area in a complex fashion, as evidenced by their highly dynamic expression patterns. Our functional studies using the noi, spg, and ace mutants, as well as Fgf inhibition and transplantation experiments, clearly distinguish a likely gbx1 function upstream of the genetic cascade acting in MHB development, from that of gbx2acting downstream of Fgf8 signaling and of spg (pou2) (Fig. 7J). Our data also suggest additional gbx gene functions at later stages of MHB development. Studies in acerebellar (fgf8) mutants and, in embryos after Fgf signaling has been blocked pharmacologically and transplantation studies reveal a novel requirement for Fgf8 signaling from the ectoderm to activate gbx2 expression in the underlying mesendoderm. Apart from the general involvement of gbx genes in MHB development reported also in other vertebrates, these results stress that there are some important differences in the likely function of these genes in zebrafish, presumably reflecting the differential evolution of this gene family among vertebrates.

3.1. The zebrafish contains two members of the gbx gene family

Gbx2 genes have been isolated from different vertebrates, including chicken, human, mouse and *Xenopus* (Chapman and Rathjen, 1995; Lin et al., 1996; von Bubnoff et al., 1996; Niss and Leutz, 1998; Shamim and Mason, 1998), and all genes, including the zebrafish *gbx2*, show an overall high sequence similarity of more than 68% (see Fig. 1A). All Gbx2 proteins in addition show the diagnostic aminoacids in the homeodomain (Chapman and Rathjen, 1995), which clearly puts zebrafish *gbx2* into the *Gbx2* subgroup. This notion is further supported by the conserved genomic organisation of zebrafish gbx2 compared to the cognate mouse (Chapman et al., 1997) and human (Lin et al., 1996) Gbx2 genes, including synteny of the chromosomal regions, and the results of our cladistic analysis. The expression patterns of gbx^2 in zebrafish and other vertebrates are overall conserved, with some important differences. Similar to zebrafish gbx2, the Xenopus, mouse and chicken Gbx2 homologues are first detected during gastrulation and are later expressed in the anterior hindbrain, at the prospective MHB, the most prominent expression domain common to all Gbx2 genes. In addition, the expression in the otic vesicle is present in all species. Similar to the mouse and chicken Gbx2 gene, zebrafish gbx2 is expressed at its onset in the endomesoderm and ectoderm, while Xgbx2 expression was found only in the ectoderm (von Bubnoff et al., 1996). Both Xgbx2 and zebrafish gbx2 are expressed in the epidermal ectoderm, whereas in mouse and chicken no such expression could be observed (Shamim and Mason, 1998; Bouillet et al., 1995). Zebrafish gbx2 is also expressed in regions not described so far in other species, for instance the transient expression in the lens ectoderm, which suggests an involvement in lens formation.

Gbx1 genes have been cloned in carp, human, mouse and chicken (Stroband et al., 1998; Fainsod and Gruenbaum, 1989; Matsui et al., 1993; Frohman et al., 1993), but so far only partial sequences have been reported, and a complete description of the spatiotemporal expression pattern was lacking in vertebrates. Based on sequence comparison, chromosomal synteny and cladistic analysis, zebrafish gbx1 is clearly a member of the Gbx1-class of genes. Nevertheless, the early zebrafish gbx1 expression pattern shares an important feature with the early Gbx2 expression in mouse: both genes are expressed at the onset of gastrulation in the forming posterior neural plate, and directly abut the Otx2 expression at the region of the prospective MHB. We have recently isolated a mouse Gbx1 gene that is expressed similar to the zebrafish gene, but not in the forming posterior neural plate (Rhinn et al., 2003). At later stages, zebrafish gbx1 is expressed predominantly in the hindbrain and spinal cord, whereas the mouse Gbx2 is expressed in a highly dynamic pattern in various tissues, more similar to the zebrafish gbx2. It will be interesting to determine whether mouse or other vertebrate Gbx1 homologues are activated in a similar way as in zebrafish. The carp gbx1 homologue, called ovx1 (Stroband et al., 1998), is indeed expressed similarly to zebrafish gbx1, but because zebrafish and carp are closely related as cyprinids, this must not necessarily reflect the situation in other vertebrates.

3.2. N-terminal conserved sequences within the Gbx genes may be required for transcriptional activation

Unexpectedly, the sequence comparison between the Gbx proteins revealed a stretch of 50 aminoacids in the N-terminal part that is highly conserved among the Gbx2

proteins (95% of identity), but also when compared with the zebrafish Gbx1 sequence (90% identity). This suggests that in addition to the conserved homeodomain an additional, conserved 'Gbx-box' is present at the N-terminus of Gbx proteins; indeed this sequence is also present in the human and mouse *Gbx1* genes (not shown). The Gbx-box sequence is highly enriched in proline residues (30% proline); such regions have been implicated as transcriptional activators (Gerber et al., 1994), raising the possibility that the N-terminal Gbx-box functions similarly in transcriptional activation. An attractive possibility is that the conserved Gbx-box might allow a Gbx specific, conserved interaction with the transcriptional machinery. Interestingly, a polymeric repeat of 4-9 prolines is present in all Gbx2 proteins (Fig. 1); apart from its suggested function in transcriptional regulation, expansion or contraction of such homomeric repeats is often associated with functional 'disease' mutations, similar to trinucleotide expansions seen in Huntington's disease (Lin et al., 1996); however, so far no specific mutations affecting this proline repeat have been reported. This proline stretch is reduced to one aminoacid in zebrafish Gbx1, which may reflect a functional difference to Gbx2 proteins in terms of transcriptional activation and regulation.

3.3. Expression of gbx1 during early development

The first transcripts of gbx1 RNA are detected in the yolk syncytial layer (YSL, Kimmel et al., 1995). The YSL may function as the fish equivalent of the Nieuwkoop center, in that translocation of activated maternal determinants into the dorsal YSL may lead to the formation of an 'organizerinducing-center' (Koos and Ho, 1998). Consistent with this function, various organizer-related genes are expressed in the dorsal YSL, including zebrafish nodal related 2, bozozok and mixer (Erter et al., 1998; Yamanaka et al., 1998; Fekany et al., 1999; Alexander et al., 1999). Increasing evidence suggests that the YSL and its mouse cognate structure, the visceral endoderm, are involved in D/V and antero-posterior (A/P) patterning of the overlying epiblast, as suggested by the zebrafish hex or nieuwkoid/dharma expression (Beddington and Robertson, 1998; Ho et al., 1999; Koos and Ho, 1998; Yamanaka et al., 1998). Zebrafish gbx1 is exclusively expressed in the marginal YSL and becomes excluded from the most dorsal part at 40-50% of epiboly, which makes a function for gbx1 in organizer function itself less likely. More likely, *gbx1* could be involved in correct specification of posterior fates in the overlying marginal blastoderm (the future endomesoderm), possibly via wnt8, a molecule expressed in the YSL and known to be required for mesoderm formation and posteriorisation of the neural plate (Kelly et al., 1995; Erter et al., 2001; Levken et al., 2001). However, gain- and loss-of-function analysis of gbx1 specifically in the YSL does not cause a detectable phenotype (M.R. and M.B., manuscript in preparation),

leaving the function of gbx1 expression in the YSL so far unclear.

3.4. The role of gbx genes in the development of the midbrain-hindbrain boundary region

The function of Gbx2 in MHB development has been studied in mouse and other vertebrates (Wassarman et al., 1997; King et al., 1998; Tour et al., 2002; Martinez-Barbera et al., 2001; Li and Joyner, 2001; Li et al., 2002). Loss-offunction analysis of Gbx^2 in mice showed that Gbx^2 is required for proper development of the MHB (Wassarman et al., 1997; Li et al., 2002). Expression at the MHB in Xenopus (von Bubnoff et al., 1996) and chicken (Shamim and Mason, 1998) also suggests an important role for Gbx2 in MHB formation. Our results show that in zebrafish gbx1 and gbx^2 are expressed at the MHB from early stages onwards as well, albeit with an unexpected complexity that suggests an involvement at multiple regulatory steps. Previous analysis of MHB formation in zebrafish showed that the pax2.1 (Lun and Brand, 1998) and fgf8 (Reifers et al., 1998) genes are required for proper MHB formation. The onset of expression of these genes at the MHB occurs during gastrulation, at 80 and 70% of epiboly, respectively. Unlike in mice, gbx2 is expressed only later, at 90% of epiboly, after the onset of pax2.1 and fgf8 in the anterior hindbrain. This later onset of expression relative to pax2.1 and fgf8 suggests a later function for zebrafish gbx2 than for pax2.1 and fgf8. Such a downstream function is consistent with our observation that already at its onset, gbx^2 expression in zebrafish completely depends on fgf8 function in the MHB and the otic primordium (Fig. 7), and on the activity of spg (pou2) that is required to mediate competence to respond to Fgf8 (Fig. 6; Reim and Brand, 2002; Burgess et al., 2002). Work in mice and chick suggests a similar, but not identical hierarchy: in these species, Gbx2 expression precedes Fgf8 expression in the neuroectoderm, suggesting that for the activation of Gbx2genes other than fgf8 must be involved. However, Fgf8 is activated in chick and mice at a later stage relative to other MHB genes, and not throughout the anterior hindbrain. Nevertheless, Fgf8 can activate Gbx2 expression when beads are implanted ectopically (Liu et al., 1999; Martinez et al., 1999), suggesting that Fgf8 or an Fgf8-like factor acts, directly or indirectly, upstream of Gbx2 in mice and chick as well. Interestingly, the Drosophila homologue of Gbx2, unplugged, is required for formation of the tracheal branches that penetrate the fly CNS (Chiang et al., 1995), a process that also depends on Fgf gene function (Sutherland et al., 1996). These observations provide evidence for an evolutionarily conserved relationship between fgf8 and abx2.

Following up on the observation that gbx^2 is activated both in the endomesodermal and in the overlying ectodermal germ layer, we discovered a novel signaling event between these germ layers that involves Fgf8. At the stage

when gbx2 is activated, fgf8 is expressed in both germ layers, and gbx2 expression fully depends on Fgf8. Consistent with this notion, we find that blocking of Fgfsignal reception with SU5402 inhibitor shortly before the onset of expression abolishes expression of gbx2 and sprouty4, erm and pea3, as Fgf8 target genes (Fürthauer et al., 2001; Raible and Brand, 2001). In such embryos, both germlayers lack gbx2 expression, because Fgf8 is required in the ectoderm at this stage (Fig. 7; Reim and Brand, 2002). Theoretically, either vertical signaling between the ectoderm to the underlying endomesoderm, or signaling within each germ layer could account for the onset of gbx2 expression. Based on the analysis of MZoep mutant embryos, which lack the underlying endomesoderm, we conclude that fgf8 expression in the endomesoderm at 70% is not required for ectodermal gbx2 expression. Furthermore, our transplantation experiments argue that Fgf8 is required in the ectoderm for activation of gbx2 in the underlying endomesoderm, although it is still unclear if this is a direct signaling event. Onset of gbx2 expression occurs slightly earlier in the underlying endomesoderm, and the ectodermal and endomesodermal gbx2 domain do not overlap exactly, raising the possibility that both domains might even be independently activated by other signals during a brief period that we have not detected. The analysis of spg (pou2) mutants has provided support for a direct influence of Fgf8 from the ectoderm, because in these mutant embryos, expression of only the ectodermal gbx2expression is affected, whereas expression in the endomesoderm is activated normally. The gene that is inactivated in spg mutants, pou2, is specifically expressed in the ectoderm at this stage, and is required to endow cells with the ability to respond to Fgf8 specifically in the neuroectoderm (Reim and Brand, 2002). Although the spg mutants eventually loose ectodermal fgf8 expression, they express fgf8 transiently in the ectoderm (Reim and Brand, 2002), which could explain their ability to activate endomesodermal gbx2 expression.

In mouse, the onset of Gbx2 expression occurs when gastrulation starts, at E6.5-E7, before the onset of Fgf8, Pax2 and other genes that are expressed at the MHB (Bouillet et al., 1995; Wassarman et al., 1997; Millet et al., 1999; Martinez-Barbera et al., 2001; Li and Joyner, 2001). In zebrafish, *gbx2* is apparently expressed too late to fulfill the same early function as Gbx2 does in mouse. This difference in the temporal activation of gbx2 between zebrafish and mouse or chicken suggests that in zebrafish, gbx1 may perform the equivalent function to mammalian Gbx2 upstream of the MHB genetic cascade. So far, no complete expression pattern of gbx1 has been described in other species; in mouse, the expression has been reported to occur in restricted regions of the forebrain at E11,5 (Frohman et al., 1993), whereas we have found that murine Gbx1 is expressed in other part of the CNS and outside, we have not observed any expression in the early neural plate (Rhinn et al., 2003). The chicken Gbx1 homologue, CHox7

(Fainsod and Gruenbaum, 1989), is expressed from blastoderm stages onwards, but its spatial and temporal localisation is unknown, as is true for human Gbx1. In zebrafish, gbx1 is expressed already at the beginning of gastrulation in the prospective posterior neural plate, and fate mapping (Woo and Fraser, 1995) indicates that this area gives rise to the primordia of hindbrain and spinal cord. Anteriorly, *gbx1* expression initially overlaps with *otx2* by about 3-4 cells, and then sharply abuts the otx2 domain, long before the onset of pax2.1 or fgf8. As shown in Fig. 3, this sharp boundary between gbx1/otx2 forms between about 60 and 80% of epiboly, which therefore most likely corresponds to the time when mutually repressive interactions between otx2 and gbx1 could sharpen the boundary. In mice, misexpression of Otx2 and Gbx2 during later segmentation stages can result in shifting of the MHB organizer (Broccoli et al., 1999; Millet et al., 1999), but these genes have a common expression boundary already during gastrulation stages, and if mutually repressive interactions are important in normal development, they should take place already during the gastrulation period (see also Rhinn and Brand, 2001, for further discussion). Our observations on the sharpening of otx2 and gbx1 between 60 and 80% epiboly identify the relevant period during which mutually repressive interactions are likely to contribute to MHB development in zebrafish. Consistent with a gbx1 function upstream of the MHB cascade, we find that gbx1 expression at this stage is not affected in noi, ace or spg mutants. Moreover, loss- and gain-of-function experiments with gbx1 support the importance of this regulatory event (M.R., K.L. and M.B., manuscript in preparation).

3.5. A paralogue shift between zebrafish and mouse

Because of the high similarity of the early expression pattern of zebrafish gbx1 with the early Gbx2 expression in other species, and the relatively late activation of the zebrafish gbx^2 homologue at the MHB, we propose that the functional requirement may be distributed differently in zebrafish as compared to mammals, in that gbxl, instead of gbx2, may be required early in zebrafish development for the correct specification of the MHB primordium, similar to the early Gbx2 expression in mice. Another possible example of such an evolutionary switch, or orthologue-shift, between fish and mouse, may be the requirement for early engrailed gene function: in fish, eng2a and eng2b (formerly eng2 and eng3) are the key early genes involved in MHB development. They are the orthologues of En2, which performs a later function in mice than En1 (Scholpp and Brand, 2001; Force et al., 1999). Such paralogue shifts may more generally contribute to the evolution of gene functions in vertebrates.

4. Experimental procedures

4.1. Cloning, mapping and synteny of zebrafish gbx1 and gbx2

A partial *gbx1* cDNA clone was isolated in a large scale in-situ hybridisation screen of random cDNA clones for spatially restricted expression patterns (Thisse et al., 2001); a full length clone was obtained by screening a gastrula stage cDNA library. The *gbx2* clone has been isolated in a screen for homeobox genes from a cosmid library (Amores et al., 1998). Genbank accession numbers: *gbx2*: AF288762, *gbx1*: AF288763.

We mapped the *gbx2* gene on the MOP meiotic mapping cross by single strand conformation polymorphism (Postlethwait et al., 1998) using primers F-GGTCTCTGC TGAAGCACA; R-TGAGCCCTATAGCCAACAGAT. The position of gbx^2 was then intercalated into the HS meiotic mapping panel (Woods et al., 2000) from its position relative to closely linked flanking markers positioned on the MOP and HS panels. We mapped gbx1 on the LN54 and Goofellow radiation hybrid panels (Hukriede et al., 1999, 2001; Geisler et al., 1999) using the primers F-GCGGTGCGGAGTCAACATCA and R-AACACGGGGAAATCAGACAACAAA, and the resulting position was intercalated into the HS panel using closely linked flanking markers held in common. The loci ercc3, sarcosin, ssb, chrna1, nop5, ndufs1, ehh, hdlbp, cul1, and erp70 were mapped on the HS panel by Woods et al. (2000). Positions of mcm6 (fb30d05, T51 panel Y. Zhou) and sdpr (fb39c08, LN54 panel, I. Dawid) were obtained from ZFIN (http://zfin.org/) and intercalated into the HS panel.

To determine the phylogenetic affinities, we used the blastx algorithm (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/BLAST/) to identify sequences similar to zebrafish gbx coding domains. The aligned portion of the Drosophila unplugged was chosen as the outgroup. This portion of the Drosophila gene was then used in a tblastn search, and sequences showing the highest levels of sequence similarity were imported into CLUSTALX (Julie Thompson and Francois Jeanmougin, ftp://ftp-igbmc.u-strasbg.fr/pub/ClustalX). The fully trimmed unambiguous sequence alignments are available on request. Neighbor-joining trees were drawn with NJPlot (http://pbil.univ-lyon1.fr/software/njplot.html). The statistical robustness of each node was estimated by bootstrapping analysis with 1000 runs (Efron and Gong, 1983; Felsenstein, 1985; Swofford et al., 1996). Sequences used are: Fly Drosophila melanogaster (Dme) NM_057798 unpg; Chicken Gallus gallus (Gga) AB050015 Gbx-1 and AF022151 Gbx-2; Mouse Mus musculus (Mmu) XM_144233 Gbx1 and L39770 Gbx2; Frog Xenopus laevis (Xla) L47990 XELXGBX2R and AF395825 GBX-2b; Human Homo sapiens (Hsa) XM_069853 GBX1 and AF118452 GBX2; Zebrafish Danio rerio (Dre) AF288763 gbx1 and AF288762 gbx2; and Carp Cyprinus carpio (Cca) X99910 ovx1.

4.2. Whole mount in-situ hybridisation and immunostaining

Digoxigenin or Fluorescein labeled RNA probes were prepared from linearised templates using an RNA labeling and detection kit (Roche Biochemicals); hybridisation and detection with anti-Digoxigenin or anti-Fluorescein antibodies coupled to alkaline phosphatase (Boehringer) is described in Reifers et al. (1998). To determine overlap in double ISH with BM purple and FastRed fluorescent substrate (Roche), the BM purple reaction was allowed to proceed until it quenched but did not obliterate the fluorescent FastRed signal. Stained embryos were dissected and thick sections were prepared with sharpened tungsten needles, mounted in glycerol, and photographed on a Zeiss axiophot. Probes and wildtype expression patterns are described in: krox20: Oxtoby and Jowett (1993); otx2: Mercier et al. (1995); pax2.1: Krauss et al. (1991); EphA4: Xu et al. (1994), papc: Yamamoto et al. (1998).

For antibody staining against EN 4D9 (ntl/T), embryos were blocked 1 h in (PBS 1×, Triton 0.1%, DMSO 1%, Normal Goat Serum 10%). After blocking, the embryos were incubated in the blocking solution containing 1:500 EN 4D9 antibody for overnight at 4 °C. They were then washed in PBS 1×, Triton 0.1%, DMSO 1%, three times for 20 min and incubated with the second antibody (1:200 anti-rubbit IgG peroxydase conjugated antibody, Sigma) for overnight at 4 °C. After the washing, the signals were detected with DAB (Sigma).

4.3. Zebrafish strains and SU5402 treatment

Zebrafish were raised and kept under standard laboratory conditions at about 28 °C (Westerfield, 1994). To obtain mutant embryos, two heterozygous carriers for the respective mutation were crossed to one another. SU5402 inhibitor (Mohammadi et al., 1997; Calbiochem) treatments were done at 8 uM as described (Reifers et al., 2000). Maternal Zygotic *Oep* (MZoep) fish where generated as described in Gristman et al. (1999).

4.4. Transplantation

WT embryos were labeled by injecting a mixture of 7.5% tetramethylrhodamine and biotin conjugated lysine fixable dextran, 10.000 MW (mini-ruby, Molecular Probes D-3312). WT donor cells were transplanted into unlabeled host embryos derived from an incross of heterozyous *ace* carriers. Transplantations were done at shield stage using a beveled borosilicate capillary. Transplanted cells are visualised with the Vectastain ABC system (VectorsLabs) and DAB (Sigma).

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