

1 A genetic screen of transcription factors in the *Drosophila*
2 *melanogaster* abdomen performed in an undergraduate
3 laboratory course

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12 Data available through FigShare: <https://figshare.com/s/8125ce60a2c3aa2381a9>

Abstract

Gene regulatory networks specify the gene expression patterns needed for traits to develop. Differences in these networks can result in phenotypic differences between organisms. Although loss-of-function genetic screens can identify genes necessary for trait formation, gain-of-function screens can overcome genetic redundancy and identify loci whose expression is sufficient to alter trait formation. Here, we leveraged transgenic lines from the Transgenic RNAi Project at Harvard Medical school to perform both gain- and loss-of-function CRISPR/Cas9 screens for abdominal pigmentation phenotypes. We identified measurable effects on pigmentation patterns in the *Drosophila melanogaster* abdomen for 21 of 55 transcription factors in gain-of-function experiments and 7 of 16 tested by loss-of-function experiments. These included well-characterized pigmentation genes, such as *bab1* and *dsx*, and transcription factors that had no known role in pigmentation, such as *slp2*. Finally, this screen was partially conducted by undergraduate students in a Genetics Laboratory course during the Spring semesters of 2021 and 2022. We found this screen to be a successful model for student engagement in research in an undergraduate laboratory course, that can be readily adapted to evaluate the effect of hundreds of genes on many different *Drosophila* traits, with minimal resources.

Introduction

The evolution of gene regulatory networks (GRNs) is thought to be a frequent mechanism for morphological diversity. These genetic programs underlie developmental processes for cells, tissues, and organs (Davidson 2006). In GRNs, transcription factors regulate their downstream target genes by binding to non-coding DNAs (cis-regulatory elements or CREs) that control the transcriptional activity (enhancers) or repression (silencers) of those targets (Arnone & Davidson 1997). To identify changes within GRNs, a system is needed in which the essential transcription factors involved in a trait's development can be found and, subsequently connected to CREs that control the expression of downstream genes.

The production of transgenic tools for genetic screens provides an avenue through which these essential transcription factors can be investigated. Genetic screens often utilize a loss-of-function (LOF) strategy. Modern techniques, such as RNA interference (RNAi) (Dietzl et al. 2007) and CRISPR/Cas9 (Port et al. 2014), can quickly generate LOF via gene knockdown and gene knockout, respectively. Transgenic RNAi coupled with the Gal4/UAS system (Brand & Perrimon 1993) allows for precise temporal and spatial control of gene knockdown and knockout, and can bypass potential lethality of global knockdown or knockout (Perrimon et al. 2010; Heigwer et al. 2018). These LOF studies have been instrumental in finding components of GRNs, though these screens do not always capture the full impact of a gene's role in a phenotype. Some phenotypes are imperceptible when a gene is knocked down or knocked out (Rorth et al. 1998). In the *Drosophila (D.) melanogaster* genome, roughly 35% of genes with no known gene function have paralogs (Ewen-Campen et al. 2017), and thus redundancy may render some phenotypes indiscernible. To overcome these complications and complement LOF studies, genes can be tested in gain-of-function (GOF) experiments. In GOF experiments, a gene of interest is ectopically expressed, resulting in over- or mis-expression of that gene. GOF experiments can reveal additional nuance to a gene's function when combined with LOF results, and new relationships between genes and phenotypes can be identified that were not detected solely in LOF experiments. Finally, GOF experiments may reveal the potential paths that may exist to evolutionary change in other lineages, that may not be detected in LOF assays.

One model trait that has considerable potential to advance the understanding of GRNs in development and evolution is abdominal pigmentation in *D. melanogaster*. *Drosophila* species have evolved incredibly diverse pigmentation patterns that decorate the tergite plates covering the dorsal surface of the six large abdominal segments (Wittkopp et al. 2003), including phenotypes that are sexually dimorphic and which evolved from a monomorphic ancestor (Jeong et al. 2006, Hughes et al. 2020). Despite the remarkable diversity in abdominal pigmentation among *Drosophila* species, most transcription factors and pigmentation enzymes are highly conserved between *Drosophila* (Clark et al. 2007; Richards et al. 2005). Indeed, many cases of pigment evolution have been connected to mutations in gene regulatory sequences of the pigment network (Rebeiz & Williams 2017), although the binding transcription factors that mediate these mutational effects largely await discovery.

Previously, a LOF genetic screen with transgenic RNAi lines that targeted over 500 unique *D. melanogaster* transcription factors was performed (Rogers et al. 2014), which revealed 20 novel transcription factors whose reduced expression altered the pattern of abdominal pigmentation. For some of the factors, their effects were shown to influence the activity of multiple enhancers in this pigmentation GRN. Relatedly, another study employed a yeast-1-hybrid approach to identify 125 factors that had the ability to bind to the CRE for the pigmentation enzyme gene *yellow* (Kalay et al. 2016). Of these 125 transcription factor genes, RNAi knockdown of 32 resulted in altered tergite pigmentation to some detectable degree.

The Transgenic RNAi Project (TRiP) at Harvard Medical School previously generated transgenic RNAi lines for LOF experiments (Perkins et al. 2015). This project has recently developed a transgenic CRISPR/Cas9 approach that can be used to knockout or overexpress genes in a spatially and temporally controlled manner (Zirin et al. 2020). In this study, we present results from use of the TRiP CRISPR/Cas9 toolkit to knockout and overexpress candidate transcription factors in the abdominal midline, driven by the endogenous regulation of the *pannier* (*pnr*) gene (Calleja et al. 2000). Our screen included candidates identified in the prior RNAi screen (Rogers et al. 2014) and factors that may directly bind the *yellow* body CRE (Kalay et al. 2016). Gene knockouts in the transgenic CRISPR/Cas9 system largely recapitulated prior observations from RNAi knockdowns. By overexpressing these transcription factors in the abdominal midline, we demonstrated the utility of GOF experiments in elucidating gene functions and identified a candidate that, prior to this study, did not have a known role in tergite pigmentation patterning. We utilized these techniques in an undergraduate laboratory course, providing an authentic research experience to undergraduate students, and the positive outcomes demonstrate its utility as an educational tool.

Methods

Overexpression/knockout screen

Fly lines were generated as a part of the Harvard Medical School Transgenic RNAi Project (Zirin et al. 2019). All lines were acquired from the Bloomington Stock Center (see Table S1 for stock numbers and lines). For the knockout crosses, 6-8 virgin females with *UAS-Cas9* and *pnr-Gal4* were crossed to 1-2 males with ubiquitously expressed guide RNA transgenes (Fig. 1C). In the conditional knockout progeny, Cas9 cleaves the target site as directed by the guide RNAs from the male parent that can induce a frameshift mutation upon repair in the protein coding sequence of the first or second exon (Fig. 1C). This results in a functional knockout of the targeted transcription factor in the midline of the abdomen, where *pnr* is expressed. For the

overexpression crosses, 6-8 virgin females from a *pnr-Gal4* driver line that additionally possesses a UAS-regulated deactivated Cas9 fused to the activator domain VP64-p65-Rta (dCas9 VPR) were crossed to 1-2 males possessing a pair of guide RNA transgenes (Fig 1D). In the overexpression progeny, midline-expressed dCas9 VPR recruits transcriptional activation machinery to the promoter region near the transcription start site of the target gene as directed by the guide RNAs (Fig 1D). This results in the ectopic expression of the targeted transcription factor in the midline. Both knockout and overexpression crosses used the same *pnr-Gal4* construct. All crosses were raised at 25°C.

Imaging and analysis

The progeny from the crosses were transferred to new vials after eclosion. After culturing at 25°C for 7-9 days, flies were dissected by removing the wings and the legs, mounted on a slide covered with double-sided sticky tape, and imaged using a Leica M205C Stereo Microscope with a DFC425 camera. For each cross, around 10 male and 10 female abdomens per cross were mounted and imaged. Each abdomen was imaged under the same lighting conditions with an LED ring light. Extended focus brightfield images were generated using the Leica Montage package. The images taken all had a white glare as the result of the ring light used in the imaging process. To avoid the impact of the glare on our calculations, the pixels comprising the glare were not included in our analysis.

We conducted statistical analysis on three traits in female flies only (Figure 1B). For pigmentation intensity measurements, images were converted to greyscale and analyzed using FIJI. The segment of interest was outlined with the freehand tool, and a mean light value (L) in the range of 0-255 was recorded. The segment intensity was calculated in units of percent (%) darkness using the following equation (Pool & Aquadro 2007):

$$(255-L)/255 \times 100\%$$

In addition, the FIJI straight-line tool was used to measure the length of the female A6 stripe and the width of the A4 midline stripe. We did not quantify these two traits for the knockout crosses, as these effects have already been published (Rogers et al. 2014; Kalay et al. 2016).

Two sets of quantitative data were compared using a two-tailed Student's t test. Boxplots were generated in R, and are presented as jittered plots, with the center lines representing the medians, and the borders of the box representing the 25th and 75th percentiles. The P-values were adjusted by a Bonferroni correction to account for multiple testing. This increased the significance threshold from less than 0.05 to less than 0.001. All image analysis was performed on blinded samples to eliminate bias.

TRiP in an undergraduate laboratory course

We had the students in BIOSCI 0351 Genetics Lab, an upper-level university laboratory course, in Spring 2021 and Spring 2022 participate in these experiments at the University of Pittsburgh. 35 students were enrolled in the Spring 2021 course, and 34 were enrolled in the Spring 2022 course. Students were broken up into groups of 4 or 5, with each group having one transcription factor gene and one positive control gene (*bric-a-brac 1* for overexpression crosses and *doublesex* for knockout crosses). The students established two test gene crosses and two control crosses, phenotyped progeny, and analyzed images using ImageJ as described above.

161 The students were asked to organize and maintain a laboratory notebook for this experiment. At
 162 the end of the laboratory course, the students presented their findings to the rest of the class.

163 See Table 1 for the course timeline and materials needed for the course. Student learning
 164 objectives and methods of assessments are outlined in Table 2.

165

166 Table 1. Requirements and timeline for the Genetics Laboratory course.

Personnel & Materials		Timeline	
Professors	1-2	Week 1	Introduction to fly husbandry
Teaching Assistants	1	Week 2	Visualizing CRISPR targets
Students	34	Week 3	Journal club on CRISPR/Cas9
Fly food	4-8 vials per cross per group, plus vials to maintain stocks	Week 4	Primary literature search on gene
Fly stocks	1 sgRNA and 1 driver per group of 4	Week 5	Journal club on CRISPR/Cas9 in <i>Drosophila</i>
Brightfield microscope	Ideal: 1 per student Minimal: 1 per student group	Week 6	Setting up CRISPR cross
Microscope camera	1 per microscope	Week 7	Lab notebook check
Computers with FIJI	Ideal: 1 per student Minimal: 1 per student group	Week 8	Journal club on CRISPR in non-model organisms
		Week 9	Score progeny from CRISPR/Cas9 cross, TA mounts and images flies
		Week 10	Ethics of CRISPR discussion
		Week 11	Analyzing image data, beginning poster presentation
		Week 12	Designing poster, wrapping up image analysis
		Week 13	Poster session, final lab notebook grading

167

168 Table 2. Learning objectives for the Genetics Laboratory course.

	Learning Outcomes	Assessments
Knowledge	Articulate the molecular mechanisms of CRISPR/Cas9 actions	Journal discussions on CRISPR/Cas9 technology, weekly reflection paragraphs
	Frame student results in context of the current literature	Generate a discussion for poster presentation
	Examine ethical concerns regarding genome editing	Journal discussions on genome editing ethical concerns, weekly reflection paragraphs
Technical Skills	Fly husbandry, including identifying virgin females, scoring based on sex and phenotype, and recognizing balancer chromosome phenotypes	Record their findings in a laboratory notebook
	Document lab activities reliably and consistently	Organize and maintain a laboratory notebook
Analytical Skills	Develop hypotheses based on research into primary literature	
	Use ImageJ to measure properties of fly pigmentation, such as darkness and stripe width	Generate a results section for poster presentation
	Conduct statistical tests to determine significance of results	Generate a results section for poster presentation
Communication Skills	Design graphics to convey experimental results	Final poster design
	Relay their experiments orally to their peers and colleagues	Final poster presentation

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170 Results and Discussion

171 A total of 71 gene manipulations were performed, overexpressing 55 target and knocking out 16
172 transcription factor genes known to or suspected to function in the GRN for abdomen tergite
173 pigmentation patterning and development. All transcription factor genes tested in this assay had
174 previously been identified in RNAi screens (Rogers et al. 2014; Kalay et al. 2016). In Rogers et
175 al. 2014, the transcription factor genes were chosen from the Drosophila Transcription Factor
176 Database (Pfreundt et al. 2010, Adryan & Teichmann 2006), while Kalay et al. 2016 surveyed a
177 collection of transcription factors fused to the Gal4 protein (Hens et al. 2011). 21 of the
178 overexpression crosses and 7 of the knockout crosses resulted in a phenotype that differed
179 significantly from the control crosses. Some of the factors tested had detectable effects in more
180 than one trait. For instance, *pdm3* resulted in reduced pigmentation in the A6 segment, the
181 midline stripe, and background coloration (Fig. 2). Of the 8 genes for which we conducted both
182 a GOF and LOF cross, none had detectable effects in both treatments. Representative images of
183 progeny from the 9 knockout crosses and 34 overexpression crosses with no detectable
184 phenotypic difference from the wild-type pigmentation patterns can be found in Figures S1 and
185 S2, respectively.

186 The patterns in the *Drosophila* abdomen are largely determined by the presence or absence of
187 three key enzymes, Yellow, Tan, and Ebony. Yellow is required to produce black melanin from

dopamine that is present in the dark cuticle of the abdomen (Drapeau 2003; Hinaux et al. 2018; Jeong et al. 2008; Nash 1976; Water et al. 1991; Wittkopp et al. 2002; Wright 1987). Tan and Ebony are both involved in catecholamine synthesis, with Ebony converting dopamine to beta-alanyl dopamine (Richardt et al. 2003; Wittkopp et al. 2002; Wittkopp et al. 2003) and Tan reversing this reaction (True et al. 2005). These enzymes are expressed in patterns, with the dark producing enzymes Yellow (Wittkopp et al. 2003) and Tan (Jeong et al. 2008) localized in the stripes, midline, and male A5/A6 tergites, while Ebony is restricted to lighter cuticle patches (Rebeiz et al. 2009). The factors we identified may be involved in patterning the midline, either by repressing Tan and Yellow or promoting the dark pigment producing enzymes.

Transcription factors that affect segment A5/A6 pigmentation

In some *Drosophila* species, the pigmentation in the A5 and A6 segments is sexually dimorphic. This trait is recently evolved (Gompel & Carroll 2003), and is thought to evolve from a monomorphic ancestor (Hughes et al. 2020, Jeong et al. 2006, Kopp et al. 2000). A number of transcription factors have been implicated in shaping the male-specific melanic A5-A6 pigmentation. The Hox genes *abdominal-A* (*abd-A*) and *Abdominal-B* (*Abd-B*) are expressed in the abdominal segments A2-A7 and A5-A7, respectively, and their expression is controlled by the *iab2-8* cis-regulatory elements (Akbari et al. 2006). *Abd-B* promotes the activity of the pigmentation enzymes *yellow* directly via binding sites in its cis-regulatory element, and promotes *tan* indirectly (Liu et al. 2019; Camino et al. 2015; Jeong et al. 2008; Jeong et al. 2006). The transcription factor genes *bric-a-brac 1* (*bab1*) and *bric-a-brac 2* (*bab2*) play a large role in the sexual dimorphism of this trait by regulating *yellow*, a gene that encodes a pigmentation enzyme that produces black melanin (Roeske et al. 2018; Salomone et al. 2013; Couderc et al. 2002; Kopp et al. 2000). In turn, *bab1/2* expression is activated by *Abd-B*, and the sex-specific isoforms (DsxF and DsxM) of the transcription factor gene *doublesex* (*dsx*) regulates *bab1/2* in a sexually dimorphic pattern: DsxF activates *bab1/2* in females, and DsxM represses *bab1/2* in males (Williams et al. 2008). To capture additional genes that affect this sexually dimorphic pattern, we measured the width of the A6 stripe in the female progeny from our crosses.

We identified 18 factors whose altered expression results in a significant effect on pigmentation in the A5 and A6 abdominal segment tergites in either males or females (Fig. 2A). It is important to note that pigmentation in the female A6 segment exhibits temperature-dependent plasticity (Gibert et al. 2000). To minimize the effect of environmental factors on the development of female pigmentation, all crosses were raised at 25°C. All 19 of these factors were significantly different from control flies post Bonferroni correction (Table S1).

Of these 18 transcription factor genes, 12 were identified as melanic pigment promoters, with LOF phenotypes from 2 crosses including reduced melanic pigmentation and GOF phenotypes from 11 crosses including increased melanic pigmentation. 7 of these transcription factor genes were previously identified in an RNAi screen (Rogers et al. 2014): *abdominal A* (*abd-A*), *CG10348*, *Hormone receptor 4* (*Hr4*), *scribbler* (*sbb*), *target of Poxn* (*tap*), and *unplugged* (*unpg*). *CG10348* (Fig. 3B), when knocked out, was consistent with the RNAi knockdown reported in Rogers et al. When overexpressed, *abd-A* (Fig. 4B), *Hr4* (Fig. 4H), *sbb* (Fig. 4I), and *tap* (Fig. 4K) all resulted in increased melanic pigmentation in the female A6 segment, while *unpg* overexpression resulted in melanic pigment that appeared more diffuse yet expanded in area (Fig. 4D). In Rogers et al., when knocked down, the transcription factor genes *abd-A*, *Hr4*, *sbb*, and *unpg* were found to reduce pigmentation in the A5 and A6 segments, and *tap* affected

the thorax. The novel results are therefore consistent with the prior observations, and thereby strengthens the inferred roles for these transcription factors acting as promoters of the melanic pigment patterning and development.

The other 6 transcription factor genes that were shown here to cause increased pigmentation in the female abdomen were previously identified in Kalay et al. (2016) as potential direct regulators of *yellow*: *atonal* (*ato*) (Fig. 4C), *C15* (Fig. 4E), *Ecdysone-induced protein 78C* (*Eip78C*) (Fig. 4G), and *u-shaped* (*ush*) (Fig. 4L). When overexpressed, increased melanic pigmentation formed in the female A5 and A6 segments. This is consistent with the prior study (Kalay et al. 2016), as these factors resulted in reduced pigmentation when knocked down. The transcription factor genes *bigmax* (Fig. 4F) and *Suppressor of variegation 3-7* (*Su(var)3-7*) (Fig. 4J), when overexpressed, increased pigmentation in the female A5 and A6 segments. In the prior study (Kalay et al. 2016), when knocked down, these factors had no effect on pigmentation, despite being identified as potential direct regulators of the pigmentation enzyme *yellow*. This suggests that, although knockdown of these factors has no effect on pigmentation in *D. melanogaster* lab strains, these factors may promote dark pigmentation when expressed in the abdomen, possibly by activating the expression of *yellow*.

The remaining 6 transcription factor genes were implicated as repressors of the melanic pigmentation, including well-characterized transcription factor genes like *bric-à-brac 1* (*bab1*) (Fig. 5B) and *doublesex* (*dsx*) (Fig. 3C). Additional factors with compelling phenotypes were *Hairy/E(spl)-related with YRPW motif* (*Hey*) (Fig. 5C), *Hormone receptor-like in 38* (*Hr38*) (Fig. 5D), *labial* (*lab*) (Fig. 5G), and *pou domain motif 3* (*pdm3*) (Fig. 5E), which, when overexpressed, resulted in reduced melanic pigmentation. The transcription factor genes *bab1*, *dsx*, and *pdm3* have verified roles in the patterning of the A5 and A6 segments. The transcription factors Bab1 and Bab2 repress *yellow* in a dimorphic pattern, due to the notable absence of *bab1/2* expression in the male A5 and A6 abdominal segment epidermis (Couderc et al. 2002; Kopp et al. 2000; Roeske et al. 2018; Salomone et al. 2013). This dimorphic pattern is controlled by Abd-B and Dsx, in which the DsxF splice variant activates Bab in females and the DsxM splice variant represses Bab in males (Williams et al. 2008). The factor *pdm3* has been implicated as a potential indirect repressor of *yellow* (Liu et al. 2019, Yassin et al. 2016). Our results are consistent with prior studies that investigated these three genes as repressors of the endogenous melanic pigment formation.

Transcription factors that affect midline patterning

In *D. melanogaster*, both male and female flies exhibit a darkly pigmented vertical stripe in the dorsal-ventral midline of the abdomen. This pattern is at least partially controlled by Decapentaplegic (Dpp) signaling. Ectopic Dpp activity promotes increased pigmentation in the dorsal-ventral midline of the abdomen (Kopp et al. 1999). To assess the effects of additional factors on the width of the midline stripe, we measured the width of the stripe in the A4 segment.

We identified 6 transcription factor genes that impacted the width of the midline stripe in the A4 segment. When overexpressed, the transcription factor genes *lab* (Fig. 5G), *pdm3* (Fig. 5E), and *sloppy paired 2* (*slp2*) (Fig. 5F) produced a thinner or nonexistent midline stripe. Two of the tested transcription factor genes, *C15* (Fig. 4E) and *unpg* (Fig. 4D), when overexpressed, resulted in faded pigmentation in the midline region, but the boundaries of the midline appear to be wider than wild-type. Notably, *C15* also promotes dark pigment in the female A5 and A6

tergites, indicating that it acts as both a promoter and repressor of melanic pigmentation. Although *unpg* is involved in both A5/A6 pigmentation and midline pigmentation, the pigment in flies overexpressing *unpg* in the dorsal midline appears diffuse compared to the wild-type pattern. Another factor, *CG10348*, resulted in a reduced midline stripe when knocked out.

The *slp2* result is notable because *slp2* previously had no known role in pigmentation. It had been identified in a yeast 1-hybrid screen as capable of binding to the *yellow* wing+body *cis*-regulatory element, but *slp2* LOF experiments did not produce detectable effects on abdominal pigmentation (Kalay et al. 2016). In this GOF assay, we observed that *slp2* could reduce pigmentation in the midline when overexpressed (Fig. 5F). These results indicate that *slp2* either has a redundant function in abdominal pigmentation, which would make detecting its effects difficult in LOF screens, or that *slp2* is not endogenously expressed in the *pnr* domain of the abdominal cuticle in *D. melanogaster*, but can nevertheless repress it. Much of our knowledge on the pigmentation network comes from experiments with *D. melanogaster*, so the identification of new factors like *slp2* may lead to insights in the pigmentation networks of other *Drosophila* species.

Transcription factors that affect background coloration

In addition to the sexual dimorphism in the A5 and A6 segment tergites and the patterning of the midline stripes, we were interested in evaluating the changes to the lighter (yellow-brown) colored cuticle, or background coloration, of the progeny. Background pigmentation has been implicated in adaptation of *D. melanogaster* populations. In African *D. melanogaster* populations, background pigmentation is correlated with altitude, with populations at higher altitudes exhibiting darker background pigmentation (Pool & Aquadro 2007; Bastide et al. 2014). Previously, the gene *ebony* was found to underlie the increased dark background pigment in a Ugandan population (Rebeiz et al. 2009), and single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) in regulatory regions for *tan* and *bab1* have been associated with pigmentation variation in European populations (Bastide et al. 2013). To capture factors that may affect background coloration, we measured the difference in background coloration intensity in our crosses.

We identified 9 transcription factor genes that had subtle effects on the background coloration (Fig. 2C). In many cases, these shifts in coloration are subtle, shifting the background coloration as little as 3-5%. When knocked out, the factors *CG17806* (Fig. 3D), *scalloped* (*sd*) (Fig. 3E), and *space blanket* (*spab*) (Fig. 3F) shifted the background pigmentation slightly lighter, indicating these genes may have normally function as promoters of darker background coloration. When overexpressed, the transcription factor genes *bab1/2*, *CG10348*, *CG30020*, and *crol* shifted the background pigmentation slightly darker, while *pdm3* shifted the background pigmentation lighter. Some of these alterations are counterintuitive. For example, *bab1/2* is characterized as a pigment repressor, while overexpression of *bab1/2* in this cross resulted in darker background pigmentation, rather than lighter. These results might suggest a more complex role for Bab1 and Bab2 in the operation of the pigmentation GRN. However, this counterintuitive outcome might be due to variation in the genetic backgrounds of the guide RNA lines, as the shifts in background pigmentation are subtle, with less than 5% difference in pigment intensity compared to the control.

These screens are useful for generating candidate genes underlying adaptive phenotypes. In other African populations, notably one from Fiche, Ethiopia, genome sequencing data has implicated multiple genomic regions as contributing to differing phenotypes in background

coloration (Bastide et al. 2016). Indeed, many of the genes tested, including *bab1/2*, *CG10348*, *dsx*, *Eip74EF*, *pdm3*, *Su(var)2-10*, and *unpg* among others, fall under QTL peaks associated with pigmentation variation described by Bastide et al. 2016. This screen and future screens may reveal causative genes underlying these adaptive phenotypes. In addition, GOF screens can illuminate additional paths that adaptation can take, as the candidates identified in GOF screens that were not identified in LOF screens of one species may have been important in the evolutionary diversification of related species.

Transcription factors that alter development in the abdomen and thorax

Several factors affected the morphology of the thorax and the abdomen. The transcription factor genes *abd-A* (Fig. 6B), *lab* (Fig. 6D), and *unpg* (Fig. 6E), when overexpressed, produce flies with indented thoraxes. Two of these transcription factor genes, *abd-A* and *lab*, are homeotic genes that are responsible for proper segmentation and development of the abdomen and anterior thorax, respectively. *abd-A*, along with *Abd-B*, is part of the bithorax complex, and are regulated by trithorax in proper development of the abdominal segments (Breen & Harte 1993). *lab* is part of the Antennapedia Complex, which is responsible for the development of the head and anterior thoracic segments (Diedrich et al. 1989).

The factor *ato*, when overexpressed, produces flies with additional bristles on the thorax (Fig. 6C), though it did not produce additional bristles in the abdomen. This may be due to differences in the developmental patterning of the thorax compared to the abdomen. The factor *Su(var)2-10*, when knocked out, results in a slight indentation in the thorax (Fig. 6F). The factor *Motif 1 Binding Protein (M1BP)* (Fig. 6J), when knocked out, produce flies with improperly developed tergites. The factors *Structure specific recognition protein (Ssrp)* and *Su(z)12* impact both the thorax and the abdomen when knocked out: the thoraces develop indentations (Fig. 6G, Fig. 6H), while the abdomens exhibit defects in tergite development (Fig. 6K, Fig. 6L). In addition to the developmental defects, *abd-A*, *ato*, *lab*, and *unpg* have effects on pigmentation when overexpressed, and *Su(var)2-10* affects pigmentation when knocked out.

Efficacy of CRISPR/Cas9 in genetic screens

Prior LOF studies relied on RNAi technology, and we expected the results of our CRISPR/Cas9-mediated knockouts to be consistent with the outcomes of prior RNAi screens (Rogers et al. 2014, Kalay et al. 2016). The progeny from the knockout crosses in this study are largely congruent with the results from prior RNAi studies; however, some genes showed no detectible phenotypic difference from wild-type abdominal pigmentation, despite a measurable phenotypic effect in RNAi studies. Examples of this deviation include *Ecdysone-induced protein 74EF (Eip74EF)*, *Hormone receptor 4 (Hr4)*, and *tango (tgo)* (Rogers et al. 2014).

These discrepancies may be due to the design of the transgenic lines. Transgenic CRISPR/Cas9 mediates gene knockout quite effectively: in the transgenic CRISPR/Cas9 library generated by Port et al. (2020), less than 10% of the generated transgenic lines produce insufficient target mutations, a marked improvement over current *Drosophila* RNAi libraries (Perkins et al. 2015). However, there are also some caveats in experimental design. For example, some transgenic knockout lines will encode one guide RNA sequence, while others encode two guide RNAs. Those encoding two guide RNA sequences may produce more conspicuous phenotypes compared to a line with only one guide RNA sequence (Port & Bullock 2016, Xie et al. 2015, Yin et al. 2015). We imaged 10 males and 10 females for as many crosses as possible to capture subtle phenotypes; however, it is possible that some

transcription factor genes may nevertheless have subtle phenotypes below the threshold of detection in this assay. Finally, it is worth noting that the Kalay et al. study (2016) used flattened cuticle preparations to measure phenotypes, which is likely more sensitive to subtle effects.

Educational value of transgene-based genetic screens

In addition to the scientific value of the TRiP CRISPR/Cas9 system, this technique has much promise as an educational tool. Course-based undergraduate research experiences allow undergraduate students to engage in authentic research projects in a laboratory course setting (Auchincloss et al. 2014). These courses provide an accessible research experience to many students and promote engagement with hypothesis-driven research at all stages of the scientific process. CRISPR/Cas9 has been used for laboratory courses in *Drosophila* (Adame et al. 2016), bacteria (Pieczynski et al. 2019), yeast (Sehgal et al. 2018), frogs (Martin et al. 2020), and butterflies (Martin et al. 2020). Students have responded positively to research-based laboratory courses, compared to traditional laboratory courses (Martin et al. 2020). Incorporating CRISPR/Cas9 into laboratory courses provides scientific and educational value (Wolyniak et al. 2019), and projects designed using the TRiP toolkit can allow students to engage with this technology in most laboratory settings and pursue a wide variety of research questions with relative ease.

This screen was conducted as part of the Genetics Lab course, comprised of primarily sophomore and junior undergraduate students. In groups of 4 to 5, each student group was assigned an experimental transcription factor to either overexpress or knockout, as well as a positive control cross. For groups conducting a knockout assay, the positive control was *dsx*, while the positive control for the overexpression groups was *bab1*. These two controls had been tested prior to the start of the class to ensure that they would be effective positive controls. In Spring 2021, the course had seven student groups of 5. Five of those groups conducted overexpression assays for *CG10348*, *crol*, *Hr4*, *lmd*, and *unpg*, while the other two groups conducted knockout assays for *CG10348* and *Hr4*. In Spring 2022, the course had seven student groups of 4 and one group of 5. Six of those groups conducted overexpression assays for *ato*, *bab2*, *CG10348*, *Hr4*, *osa*, and *slp2*, while the other two groups conducted knockout assays for *CG10348* and *Hr4*.

In this approach, students are highly involved in the discovery process. The students began by searching for articles on their transcription factor, and learned techniques for finding good sources and reading research articles effectively with the guidance of the instructors. The students were able to contribute to most portions of the experiment, even those who attended remotely or asynchronously for some meetings, and all students received data that they could analyze using FIJI.

We found that the results of this genetic screen were more productive than prior attempts to incorporate CRISPR/Cas9 into an educational experience with more laborious approaches involving germline editing. Although we focused on A6 pigmentation, midline patterning, and background coloration in this manuscript, the students were encouraged to measure additional traits, and were not directed by the instructors to measure particular traits. More than half of the student groups identified significant changes from the control in at least one trait, and those that did not nevertheless produced useful negative data. We attribute the relative success of the educational TRiP screen to the ease with which these resources allow students to generate phenotypes and explore gene functions.

Similar projects can be implemented in undergraduate labs to provide an authentic research experience to undergraduate students. The materials needed for the project workflow are minimal, requiring only the fly stocks, fly food, and a way to anesthetize the flies and image body parts. This strategy can be applied to many structures using hundreds of genes.

In addition, this project has been implemented in both virtual and in-person formats. We designed these experiments to provide activities that students could participate in when class could not be fully conducted in person during 2021. Our set-up allowed for 6 students to be in the room safely with the instructor and the teaching assistant. Two students from each of the seven groups were able to attend lab in person for each class period. The virtual students focused on literature searches while the in-person students set up the crosses. Both sets of students could fully participate in image and statistical analysis. When the class was fully in person in 2022, all students had the opportunity to participate in both the in lab and virtual components. In both semesters, the mounting and imaging was carried out by the teaching assistant. Although this screen works better for the students when they are all in person, we found that it was simpler to adapt to a hybrid format than previous iterations of the class.

Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to confirm previous knockdown experiments and survey the effects of pigmentation transcription factors when overexpressed in the abdominal midline. We used a transgenic CRISPR/Cas9 system to overexpress 55 transcription factor genes identified in prior RNAi screens as potential regulators of pigmentation enzymes. We identified 19 factors that affected A5 and A6 tergite pigmentation, 6 that affected midline stripe patterning, 9 that affected background pigmentation, and 8 factors that affected thorax and abdominal morphology (Table 3). While a number of these factors, including *abd-A*, *bab1/2*, and *dsx*, have been well-characterized in prior studies, we were able to observe phenotypes in the abdomen caused by transcription factors that are not as well characterized in this developmental context, such as *C15*, *CG10348*, and *unpg*. We determined a role for new factors that previously had not been implicated in tergite pigmentation, such as *slp2*, and provided new candidates for pigmentation studies. GOF experiments, such as those conducted in this screen, can elucidate potential paths to evolutionary change, as the phenotypes observed in GOF experiments but not LOF experiments in one species may be important in other species. In addition, we used this technique to provide an authentic research experience to undergraduate students in a Genetics Laboratory course, and found that this project workflow could be easily adapted for other university courses.

Table 3. Summary of observed phenotypes. Increases in pigmentation are represented by “+”. Decreases in pigmentation are represented by “-”.

Treatment	Midline Pigment		A6 Pigment		Background Pigment	Defects	
	♂	♀	♂	♀		Thorax	Abdomen
<i>abd-A OE</i>	none	none	none	+	none	✓	none
<i>ato OE</i>	none	none	none	+	none	✓	none
<i>bab1 OE</i>	none	none	-	-	+	none	none
<i>bab2 OE</i>	none	none	none	none	+	none	none

<i>bigmax</i> OE	none	none	none	+	none	none	none
<i>C15</i> OE	-	-	none	+	none	none	none
<i>CG10348</i> OE	none	none	none	none	+	none	none
<i>CG10348</i> KO	-	-	-	-	none	none	none
<i>CG30020</i> OE	none	none	none	none	+	none	none
<i>crol</i> OE	none	none	none	none	+	none	none
<i>dsx</i> KO	none	none	none	+	none	none	none
<i>Hey</i> OE	none	none	none	-	none	none	none
<i>Hr38</i> OE	none	none	none	-	none	none	none
<i>Hr4</i> OE	none	none	none	+	none	none	none
<i>lab</i> OE	-	-	none	-	none	none	none
<i>M1BP</i> KO	none	none	none	none	none	none	✓
<i>pdm3</i> OE	-	-	none	-	-	none	none
<i>sbb</i> OE	none	none	none	+	none	none	none
<i>slp2</i> OE	-	-	none	none	none	none	none
<i>Ssrp</i> KO	none	none	none	none	none	✓	✓
<i>Su(var)2-10</i> KO	none	none	none	none	none	✓	none
<i>Su(var)3-7</i> OE	none	none	none	+	none	none	none
<i>Su(z)12</i> KO	none	none	none	none	none	✓	✓
<i>unpg</i> OE	+	+	-	+	none	+	none
<i>ush</i> OE	none	none	none	+	none	none	none

445 Table S1. Bloomington stock numbers of fly lines used in this study.

Stock Number	Effect	Target Locus/Genotype
67040	overexpression Gal4 driver	<i>pnr</i> -Gal4
67077	knockout Gal4 driver	<i>pnr</i> -Gal4
83608	overexpression sgRNA	<i>ab</i>
79520	overexpression sgRNA	<i>abd-A</i>
79861	overexpression sgRNA	<i>ato</i>
80770	overexpression sgRNA	<i>ato</i>
79801	overexpression sgRNA	<i>bab1</i>
80749	overexpression sgRNA	<i>bab2</i>
80209	overexpression sgRNA	<i>bigmax</i>
80016	overexpression sgRNA	<i>Br140</i>
78645	overexpression sgRNA	<i>brm</i>
79800	overexpression sgRNA	<i>C15</i>
78704	overexpression sgRNA	<i>caup</i>
80012	overexpression sgRNA	<i>CG10348</i>
80782	overexpression sgRNA	<i>CG1233</i>
79996	overexpression sgRNA	<i>CG30020</i>
80264	overexpression sgRNA	<i>CG33695</i>
78744	overexpression sgRNA	<i>CG9650</i>
80002	overexpression sgRNA	<i>chinmo</i>
79921	overexpression sgRNA	<i>crol</i>
79805	overexpression sgRNA	<i>dsx</i>
79883	overexpression sgRNA	<i>Eip78C</i>
80225	overexpression sgRNA	<i>fru</i>
78695	overexpression sgRNA	<i>Gsc</i>
80763	overexpression sgRNA	<i>hb</i>
79948	overexpression sgRNA	<i>Hey</i>
80027	overexpression sgRNA	<i>hng1</i>
81670	overexpression sgRNA	<i>Hr38</i>

82761	overexpression sgRNA	<i>Hr4</i>
79869	overexpression sgRNA	<i>Hr78</i>
79814	overexpression sgRNA	<i>hth</i>
80750	overexpression sgRNA	<i>ind</i>
80271	overexpression sgRNA	<i>jing</i>
80767	overexpression sgRNA	<i>lab</i>
80206	overexpression sgRNA	<i>lmd</i>
80246	overexpression sgRNA	<i>M1BP</i>
78697	overexpression sgRNA	<i>Mad</i>
80175	overexpression sgRNA	<i>MBD-like</i>
78279	overexpression sgRNA	<i>Met</i>
83602	overexpression sgRNA	<i>Mi-2</i>
77302	overexpression sgRNA	<i>nej</i>
83601	overexpression sgRNA	<i>osa</i>
78702	overexpression sgRNA	<i>otp</i>
80207	overexpression sgRNA	<i>p53</i>
83598	overexpression sgRNA	<i>pdm3</i>
80296	overexpression sgRNA	<i>pita</i>
82744	overexpression sgRNA	<i>pnt</i>
79903	overexpression sgRNA	<i>sbb</i>
78710	overexpression sgRNA	<i>scrt</i>
78689	overexpression sgRNA	<i>slp2</i>
79992	overexpression sgRNA	<i>Sox102F</i>
80753	overexpression sgRNA	<i>Ssrp</i>
79823	overexpression sgRNA	<i>Su(var)3-7</i>
78663	overexpression sgRNA	<i>Su(z)12</i>
79915	overexpression sgRNA	<i>tap</i>
79937	overexpression sgRNA	<i>Tip60</i>
85888	overexpression sgRNA	<i>tx</i>
78703	overexpression sgRNA	<i>unpg</i>
78270	overexpression sgRNA	<i>ush</i>
76963	knockout sgRNA	<i>brm</i>
82814	knockout sgRNA	<i>CG10348</i>
84047	knockout sgRNA	<i>CG17806</i>
85841	knockout sgRNA	<i>CG8765</i>
79009	knockout sgRNA	<i>dsx</i>
82781	knockout sgRNA	<i>Eip74EF</i>
82503	knockout sgRNA	<i>Hr4</i>
84062	knockout sgRNA	<i>M1BP</i>
80322	knockout sgRNA	<i>Met</i>
77331	knockout sgRNA	<i>Pfk</i>
77055	knockout sgRNA	<i>sd</i>
91969	knockout sgRNA	<i>sd</i>
80807	knockout sgRNA	<i>spab</i>
80873	knockout sgRNA	<i>Ssrp</i>
83890	knockout sgRNA	<i>Su(var)2-10</i>
77007	knockout sgRNA	<i>Su(z)12</i>
77068	knockout sgRNA	<i>tgo</i>

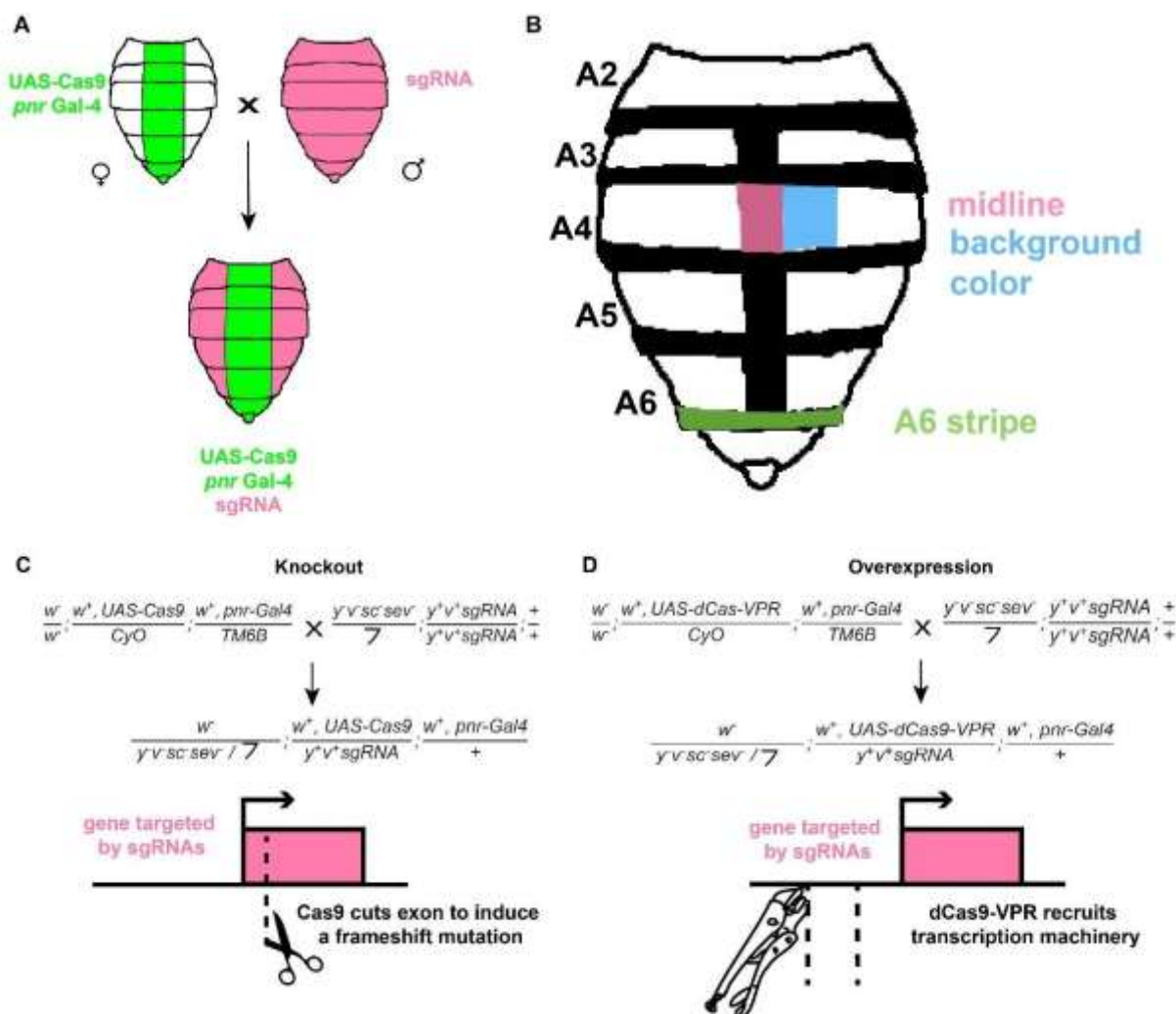
448 Table S2. Summary of T-test results for overexpression crosses, n = 10, p<0.001.

Gene	A6 Stripe Width			Midline Stripe Width			A4 Background Darkness		
	t-value	Degress of Freedom	p-value	t-value	Degrees of Freedom	p-value	t-value	Degrees of Freedom	p-value
<i>ab</i>	1.854	13.548	0.08570	0.536	16.837	0.5992	3.166	15.325	0.006255
<i>abd-A</i>	5.330	14.090	0.0001040	4.299	9.755	0.001655	2.240	14.915	0.04073
<i>ato</i>	8.387	17.868	1.417*10 ⁻⁷	1.523	16.383	0.1469	0.433	13.457	0.6721
<i>bab1</i>	6.671	17.878	3.042*10 ⁻⁶	0.971	17.661	0.3445	4.7128	13.454	0.0003701
<i>bab2</i>	1.868	16.686	0.07948	0.044	16.972	0.9656	5.378	15.975	6.186*10 ⁻⁵
<i>bigmax</i>	4.899	13.148	0.0002815	1.092	16.975	0.2902	1.201	17.419	0.2457
<i>Br140</i>	2.077	16.144	0.05419	0.498	17.068	0.6249	0.273	15.493	0.7884
<i>brm</i>	0.884	17.777	0.3885	3.430	17.987	0.002987	0.672	15.972	0.5115
<i>C15</i>	10.552	16.975	7.112*10 ⁻⁹	0.265	8.363	0.7974	2.013	15.220	0.06215
<i>caup</i>	2.689	10.784	0.02140	1.040	17.028	0.3128	0.616	0.5456	0.5456
<i>CG10348</i>	1.910	11.594	0.08120	1.742	17.813	0.9875	3.957	17.644	0.0009550
<i>CG1233</i>	2.044	14.811	0.05917	0.090	16.933	0.9292	2.044	14.811	0.0592
<i>CG30020</i>	2.892	11.963	0.01357	0.365	17.975	0.7192	6.415	16.991	6.419*10 ⁻⁶
<i>CG33695</i>	3.364	15.234	0.004188	0.558	17.305	0.5841	0.674	16.392	0.5098
<i>CG9650</i>	1.287	8.091	0.2336	1.839	17.973	0.0825	0.341	16.764	0.7371
<i>chinmo</i>	3.442	14.849	0.003675	1.778	13.372	0.09817	0.395	17.486	0.6973
<i>crol</i>	2.992	14.919	0.009168	2.401	17.504	0.02769	7.718	16.690	6.684*10 ⁻⁷
<i>dsx</i>	1.991	13.110	0.06770	2.569	17.738	0.01946	2.357	13.225	0.03445
<i>Eip78C</i>	5.061	12.057	0.0002754	2.673	17.449	0.01579	2.919	13.941	0.01125
<i>fru</i>	1.718	11.877	0.1118	2.198	17.705	0.04148	3.018	12.949	0.009930
<i>Gsc</i>	3.270	11.566	0.007011	3.701	16.152	0.001911	0.656	11.449	0.5248
<i>hb</i>	2.515	12.319	0.02674	1.050	14.361	0.3112	1.806	12.335	0.09542
<i>Hey</i>	4.581	11.612	0.0006867	2.224	14.993	0.04190	0.472	13.142	0.6447
<i>Hr38</i>	4.244	16.793	0.0005610	0.282	16.374	0.7817	0.234	15.615	0.8182
<i>Hr4</i>	4.899	17.233	0.0001304	0.398	17.051	0.6953	3.379	16.863	0.003598
<i>Hr78</i>	1.015	11.902	0.3303	1.749	16.643	0.09872	2.372	13.715	0.03290
<i>hth</i>	2.972	12.493	0.01122	1.341	12.942	0.2030	4.031	15.236	0.001058
<i>ind</i>	2.469	13.579	0.02752	0.217	16.498	0.8312	3.697	17.948	0.001655
<i>jing</i>	3.938	12.538	0.001817	1.810	17.585	0.08718	0.332	11.712	0.7456
<i>lab</i>	5.338	16.491	6.022*10 ⁻⁵	13.654	11.458	1.930*10 ⁻⁸	0.153	13.550	0.8803
<i>lmd</i>	2.510	12.006	0.02739	0.391	16.754	0.7010	0.051	17.212	0.9602
<i>M1BP</i>	1.635	14.131	0.1242	0.717	17.588	0.4827	0.621	12.961	0.5456
<i>Mad</i>	1.709	12.277	0.1127	2.014	17.432	0.05969	0.580	14.608	0.5706
<i>MBD-like</i>	1.667	11.681	0.1221	0.341	17.974	0.7370	1.806	16.747	0.08896
<i>Met</i>	2.407	13.618	0.03088	0.341	17.625	0.7374	0.595	16.232	0.5599
<i>Mi-2</i>	0.853	14.042	0.4079	1.461	14.527	0.1653	0.478	15.748	0.6391
<i>nej</i>	1.178	14.839	0.2576	1.058	17.769	0.3041	1.191	17.708	0.2493
<i>osa</i>	2.693	11.430	0.02031	1.018	7.759	0.3396	4.080	12.502	0.001407
<i>otp</i>	2.410	13.680	0.03066	1.957	18.000	0.06609	0.215	15.490	0.8325
<i>pdm3</i>	16.752	9.000	4.308*10 ⁻⁸	7.652	14.488	1.846*10 ⁻⁶	8.595	12.549	1.303*10 ⁻⁶
<i>pita</i>	1.250	16.872	0.2283	1.850	17.963	0.08090	1.730	17.497	0.1013
<i>sbb</i>	9.589	15.340	7.120*10 ⁻⁸	3.768	15.166	0.001831	0.986	16.579	0.3383
<i>scrt</i>	1.029	13.442	0.3215	0.337	17.644	0.7400	0.208	16.731	0.8374
<i>slp2</i>	1.615	10.594	0.1357	8.090	17.711	2.343*10 ⁻⁷	3.560	14.005	0.003137
<i>Sox102F</i>	3.698	13.784	0.002444	1.862	17.901	0.07910	1.035	15.809	0.3161
<i>Ssrp</i>	2.112	13.311	0.05409	0.038	17.955	0.9702	2.213	16.283	0.04151
<i>Su(var)3-7</i>	8.767	17.783	7.158*10 ⁻⁸	0.652	15.095	0.5240	0.925	15.742	0.3689
<i>Su(z)12</i>	1.230	12.628	0.2237	0.757	16.738	0.4597	1.563	15.983	0.1376
<i>tap</i>	4.159	15.565	0.0007804	0.362	17.963	0.7215	2.563	14.207	0.02236
<i>Tip60</i>	1.234	16.801	0.2340	1.368	17.557	0.1886	0.671	15.555	0.5120
<i>tx</i>	2.787	13.508	0.01495	0.378	17.859	0.7102	1.428	16.827	0.1715

<i>ush</i>	7.382	14.569	2.719*10 ⁻⁶	0.802	16.731	0.4340	-2.051	15.363	0.05777
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Figure 1. The TRiP transgenic gene editing system can be used for both overexpressing and knocking out genes of interest. (A). Virgin females expressing either Cas9 or deactivated Cas9 fused to the VPR activation domain (dCas9 VPR) expressed in the abdominal midline driven by *pannier* (*pnr*) were crossed to males with ubiquitous single guide RNAs. Progeny who received the Cas9 or dCas9-VPR-Gal4 driver and sgRNA were selected on the absence of dominant markers. (B). Genotypes of the parents and progeny in the knockout cross. (C). Genotypes of the parents and progeny in the overexpression cross. (D). In the knockout crosses, Cas9 can induce a frameshift mutation in the gene targeted by guide RNAs. These mutant gene alleles would produce a nonfunctional protein in the *pnr* expression domain. (E). In the overexpression crosses, dCas9-VPR binds the promoter for a gene targeted by guide RNAs, recruiting transcription machinery to the gene of interest and ectopically expressing the gene in the *pnr* expression domain.

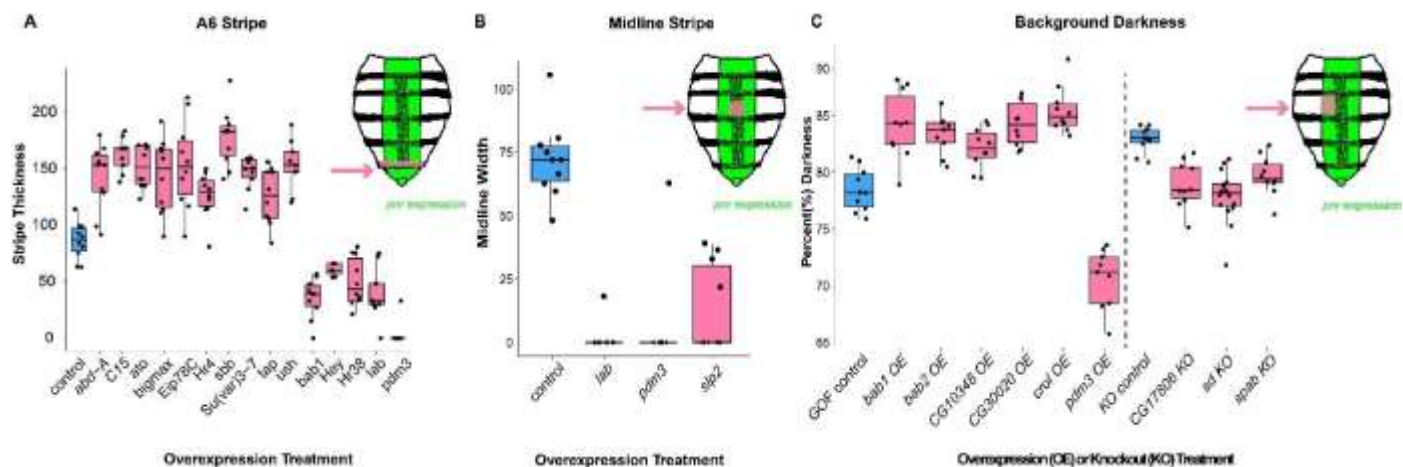


Figure 2. Changes among females to the A6 stripe, midline stripe, and background pigmentation were observed in overexpression and knockout cross progeny. Two-tailed Student's t tests were used to compare targeted to control crosses, $p < .001$. (A). Boxplot showing measurements of the A6 stripe in female flies compared to controls. Cartoon illustrates region of the fly measured (pink) and region affected by gene editing (green). (B). Boxplot showing measurements of the midline stripe, assessed in the A4 segment of female flies, compared to controls. Cartoon illustrates region of the fly measured (pink) and region affected by gene editing (green). (C). Boxplot showing calculated percent darkness of the A4 segment in female flies with a targeted transcription factor gene compared to controls. Cartoon illustrates region of the fly measured (pink) and region experiencing gene editing activity (green).

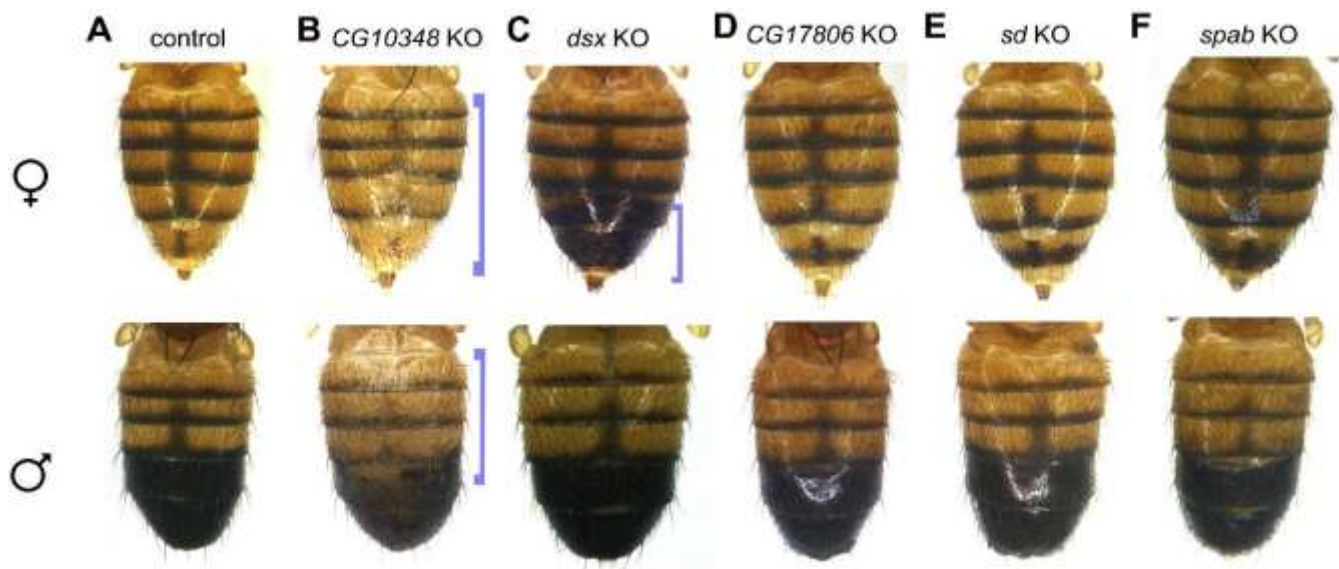


Figure 3. Noteworthy knockout tergite pigmentation phenotypes. Progeny of knockout crosses. Blue brackets highlight some notable phenotypes that were seen after imaging multiple samples, but are not representative of quantitative data. (A). Knockout (KO) control abdomens. (B-G). Gene knockouts featured here are (B) *CG10348*, (C) *doublesex (dsx)*, (D) *Suppressor of variegation 2-10 (Su(var)2-10)*, (E) *CG17806*, (F) *scalloped (sd)*, and (G) *space blanket (spab)*.

Knockouts for *CG10348* and *dsx* demonstrate decreased pigmentation in the midline and increased pigmentation in the female A5/A6 regions, respectively. *CG17806*, *sd*, and *spab* knockouts resulted in shifts in background coloration. All other knockout crosses did not have significant phenotypes in the areas measured.

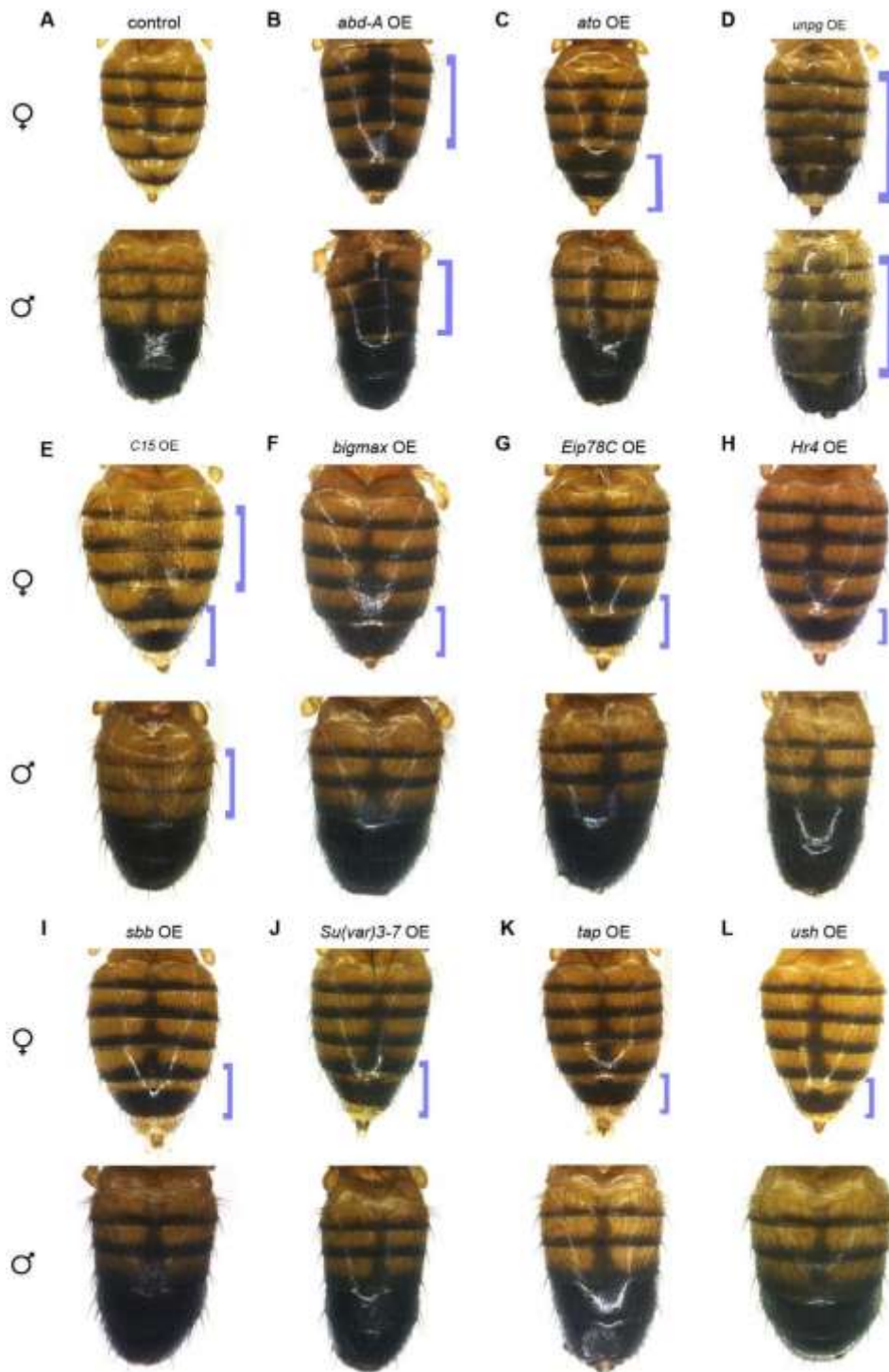
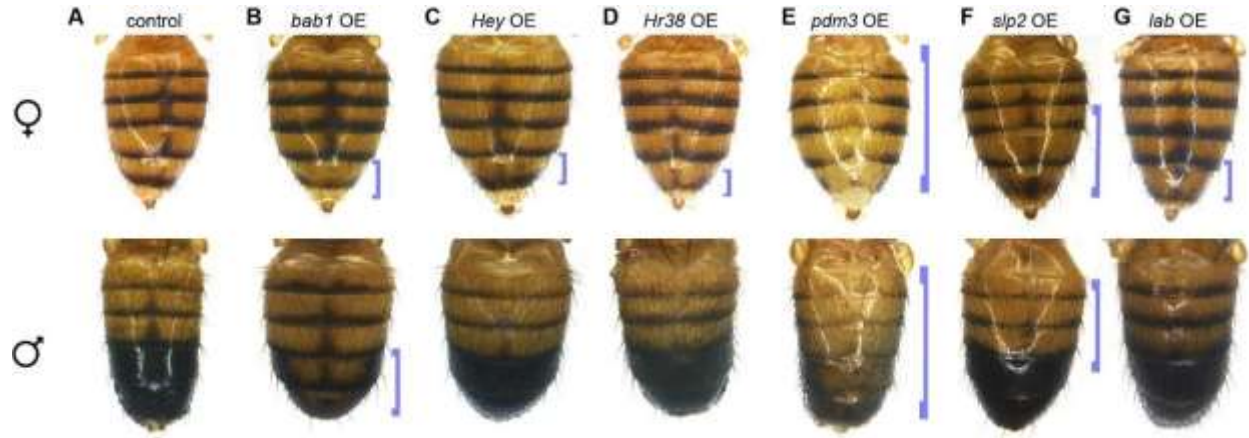


Figure 4. Overexpression phenotypes with an increase of melanic pigmentation. Progeny of overexpression crosses. Blue brackets highlight some notable increases in dark pigmentation

488 that were observed after imaging multiple samples, but are not representative of quantitative
 489 data. (A). Overexpression control abdomens. (B-L). Overexpressed genes featured here are (B)
 490 *abdominal-A (abd-A)*, (C) *atonal (ato)*, (D) *unplugged (unpg)*, (E) *C15*, (F) *bigmax*, (G)
 491 *Ecdysone-induced protein 78C (Eip78C)*, (H) *Hormone receptor 4 (Hr4)*, (I) *scribbler (sbb)*, (J)
 492 *Suppressor of variegation 3-7 (Su(var)3-7)*, (K) *target of Poxn (tap)*, and (L) *u-shaped (ush)*.



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 494 **Figure 5. Overexpression phenotypes with a decrease in melanic pigmentation.** Progeny
 495 of overexpression crosses. Blue brackets highlight some notable decreases in dark
 496 pigmentation that were observed across multiple samples, but are not representative of
 497 quantitative data. (A). Overexpression control abdomens. (B-G). Overexpressed genes featured
 498 here are (B) *bric-a-brac 1 (bab1)*, (C) *Hairy/E(spl)-related with YRPW motif (Hey)*, (D) *Hormone*
 499 *receptor-like in 38 (Hr38)*, (E) *pou domain motif 3 (pdm3)*, (F) *sloppy paired 2 (slp2)*, and (G)
 500 *labial (lab)*.

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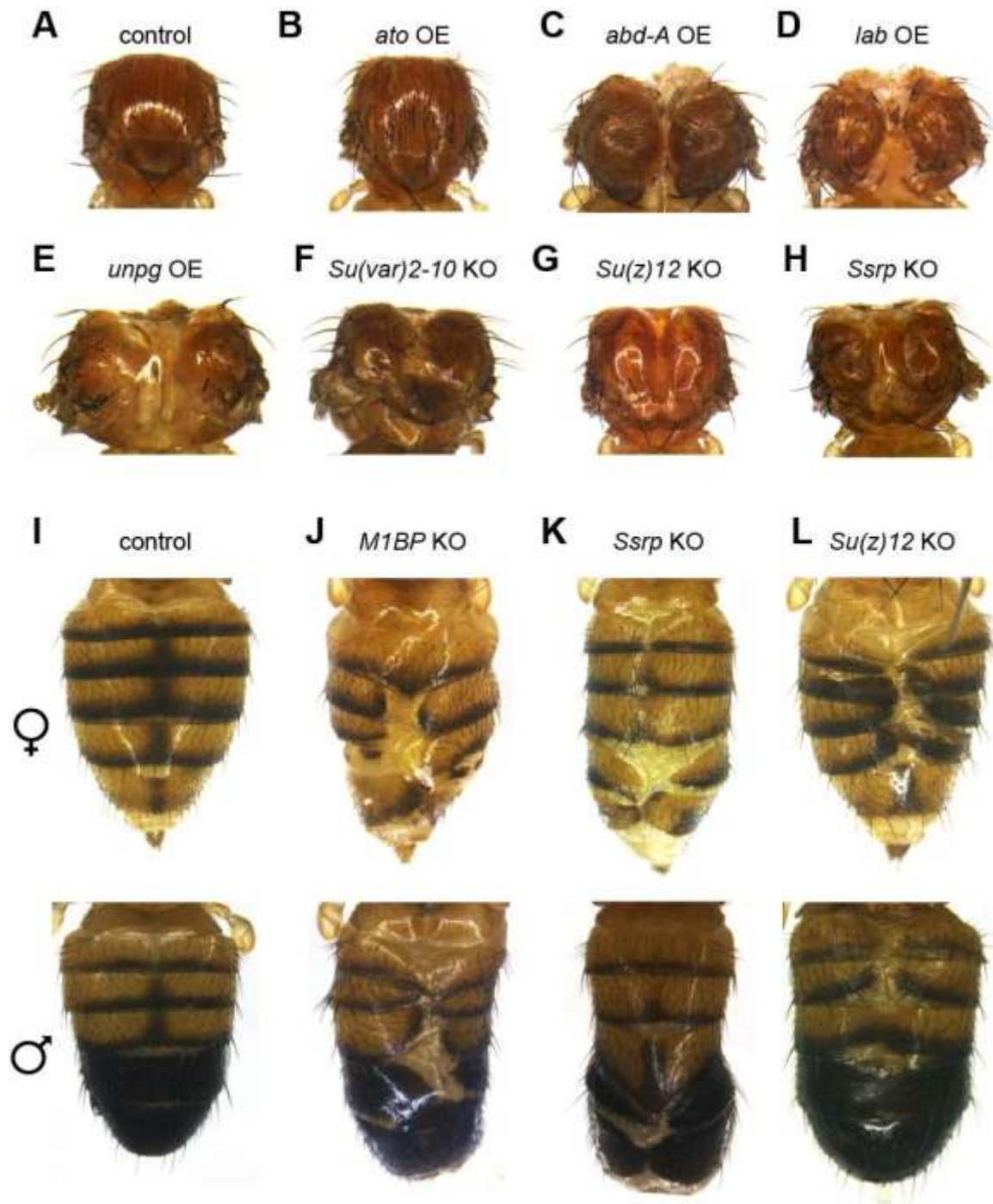


Figure 6. Defects in the development of the thorax and abdomen. (A). Control thorax. (B). The gene *atonal* (*ato*) produces additional bristles on the thorax when overexpressed. (C-E). When overexpressed, the genes (C) *abdominal A* (*abd-A*), (D) *labial* (*lab*), and (E) *unplugged* (*unpg*) produce a defect in the thorax. (F-H). When knocked out, the genes (F) *Suppressor of variegation 2-7* (*Su(var)2-10*), (G) *Su(z)12*, and (H) *Structure specific recognition protein* (*Ssrp*) produce a defect in the thorax. (I). Control abdomens. (J-L). When knocked out, the genes (J) *Motif-1 Binding Protein* (*M1BP*), (K) *Ssrp*, and (L) *Su(z)12* produce a defect in the midline of the abdomen.

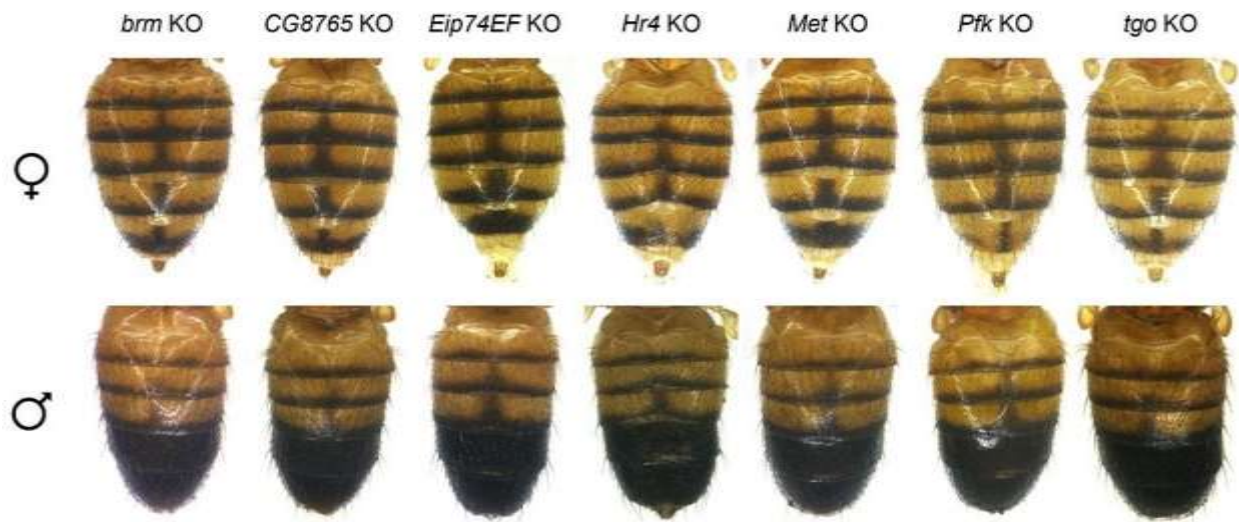


Figure S1. Knockout crosses without a detectable phenotype. Genes shown are *brahma* (*brm*), *CG8765*, *Ecdysone-induced protein 74EF* (*Eip74EF*), *Hormone receptor 4* (*Hr4*), *Methoprene-tolerant* (*Met*), *Phosphofructokinase* (*Pfk*), *Su(var)2-10*, and *tango* (*tgo*).



517 **Figure S2. Overexpression crosses without a detectable phenotype.** Genes shown are
 518 *abrupt (ab)*, *bric-a-brac 2 (bab2)*, *Bromodomain-containing protein 140kD (Br140)*, *brahma*
 519 *(brm)*, *caupolican (caup)*, *CG1233*, *CG9650*, *CG10348*, *CG30020*, *CG33695*, *chronologically*
 520 *inappropriate morphogenesis (chinmo)*, *crooked legs (crol)*, *doublesex (dsx)*, *fruitless (fru)*,
 521 *Goosecoid (Gsc)*, *hunchback (hb)*, *Hormone-receptor-like in 78 (Hr78)*, *homothorax (hth)*,
 522 *intermediate neuroblasts defective (ind)*, *jing*, *lameduck (lmd)*, *Motif-1 Binding Protein (M1BP)*,
 523 *Mothers against dpp (Mad)*, *Methyl-CpG binding protein domain-like (MBD-like)*, *Methoprene-*
 524 *tolerant (Met)*, *Mi-2*, *nejire (nej)*, *osa*, *orthopedia (otp)*, *p53*, *pita*, *pointed (pnt)*, *scratch (scrt)*,
 525 *Sox102F*, *Structure specific recognition protein (Ssrp)*, *Su(z)12*, *Tat interactive protein 60kDa*
 526 *(Tip60)*, and *taxi (tx)*.



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529 **Figure S3. *doublesex (dsx)* knockouts exhibit a variety of phenotypes in female**
 530 **abdomens.** Although all these individuals exhibit phenotypes consistent with our current
 531 knowledge of *dsx*, the effectiveness of the knockout appears quite variable from individual to
 532 individual.

533 **Data Availability Statement**

534 All data analyses and representative images are contained in this manuscript. All raw image
535 files not featured in this manuscript are available via FigShare:
536 <https://figshare.com/s/8125ce60a2c3aa2381a9>

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542 **Conflict of Interest**

543 All authors have no conflicts of interest to disclose.

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1 A genetic screen of transcription factors in the *Drosophila*
2 *melanogaster* abdomen performed in an undergraduate
3 laboratory course

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12 Data available through FigShare: <https://figshare.com/s/8125ce60a2c3aa2381a9>
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32 Abstract

33 Gene regulatory networks specify the gene expression patterns needed for traits to develop.
34 Differences in these networks can result in phenotypic differences between organisms. Although
35 loss-of-function genetic screens can identify genes necessary for trait formation, gain-of-function
36 screens can overcome genetic redundancy and identify loci whose expression is sufficient to
37 alter trait formation. Here, we leveraged transgenic lines from the Transgenic RNAi Project at
38 Harvard Medical school to perform both gain- and loss-of-function CRISPR/Cas9 screens for
39 abdominal pigmentation phenotypes. We identified measurable effects on pigmentation patterns
40 in the *Drosophila melanogaster* abdomen for 21 of 55 transcription factors in gain-of-function
41 experiments and 7 of 16 tested by loss-of-function experiments. These included well-
42 characterized pigmentation genes, such as *bab1* and *dsx*, and transcription factors that had no
43 known role in pigmentation, such as *slp2*. Finally, this screen was partially conducted by
44 undergraduate students in a Genetics Laboratory course during the Spring semesters of 2021
45 and 2022. We found this screen to be a successful model for student engagement in research in
46 an undergraduate laboratory course, that can be readily adapted to evaluate the effect of
47 hundreds of genes on many different *Drosophila* traits, with minimal resources.

48 Introduction

49 The evolution of gene regulatory networks (GRNs) is thought to be a frequent mechanism for
50 morphological diversity. These genetic programs underlie developmental processes for cells,
51 tissues, and organs (Davidson 2006). In GRNs, transcription factors regulate their downstream
52 target genes by binding to non-coding DNAs (cis-regulatory elements or CREs) that control the
53 | the transcriptional activity (enhancers) or repression (silencers) of those targets (Arnone &
54 Davidson 1997). To identify changes within GRNs, a system is needed in which the essential
55 transcription factors involved in a trait's development can be found and, subsequently
56 connected to CREs that control the expression of downstream genes.

57 The production of transgenic tools for genetic screens provides an avenue through which these
58 essential transcription factors can be investigated. Genetic screens often utilize a loss-of-
59 function (LOF) strategy. Modern techniques, such as RNA interference (RNAi) (Dietzl et al.
60 2007) and CRISPR/Cas9 (Port et al. 2014), can quickly generate LOF via gene knockdown and
61 gene knockout, respectively. Transgenic RNAi coupled with the Gal4/UAS system (Brand &
62 Perrimon 1993) allows for precise temporal and spatial control of gene knockdown and
63 knockout, and can bypass potential lethality of global knockdown or knockout (Perrimon et al.
64 2010; Heigwer et al. 2018). These LOF studies have been instrumental in finding components of
65 GRNs, though these screens do not always capture the full impact of a gene's role in a
66 phenotype. Some phenotypes are imperceptible when a gene is knocked down or knocked out
67 (Rorth et al. 1998). In the *Drosophila (D.) melanogaster* genome, roughly 35% of genes with no
68 known gene function have paralogs (Ewen-Campen et al. 2017), and thus redundancy may
69 render some phenotypes indiscernible. To overcome these complications and complement LOF
70 studies, genes can be tested in gain-of-function (GOF) experiments. In GOF experiments, a
71 gene of interest is ectopically expressed, resulting in over- or mis-expression of that gene. GOF
72 experiments can reveal additional nuance to a gene's function when combined with LOF results,
73 and new relationships between genes and phenotypes can be identified that were not detected
74 solely in LOF experiments. Finally, GOF experiments may reveal the potential paths that may
75 | exist to evolutionary change in other lineages, that may not be detected in LOF assays. -

76 One model trait that has considerable potential to advance the understanding of GRNs in
77 development and evolution is abdominal pigmentation in *D. melanogaster*. *Drosophila* species
78 have evolved incredibly diverse pigmentation patterns that decorate the tergite plates covering
79 the dorsal surface of the six large abdominal segments (Wittkopp et al. 2003), including
80 phenotypes that are sexually dimorphic and which evolved from a monomorphic ancestor
81 (Jeong et al. 2006, Hughes et al. 2020). Despite the remarkable diversity in abdominal
82 pigmentation among *Drosophila* species, most transcription factors and pigmentation enzymes
83 are highly conserved between *Drosophila* (Clark et al. 2007; Richards et al. 2005). Indeed,
84 many cases of pigment evolution have been connected to mutations in gene regulatory
85 sequences of the pigment network (Rebeiz & Williams 2017), although the binding transcription
86 factors that mediate these mutational effects largely await discovery.

87 Previously, a LOF genetic screen with transgenic RNAi lines that targeted over 500 unique *D.*
88 *melanogaster* transcription factors was performed (Rogers et al. 2014), which revealed 20 novel
89 transcription factors whose reduced expression altered the pattern of abdominal pigmentation.
90 For some of the factors, their effects were shown to influence the activity of multiple enhancers
91 in this pigmentation GRN. Relatedly, another study employed a yeast-1-hybrid approach to
92 identify 125 factors that had the ability to bind to the CRE for the pigmentation enzyme gene
93 *yellow* (Kalay et al. 2016). Of these 125 transcription factor genes, RNAi knockdown of 32
94 resulted in altered tergite pigmentation to some detectable degree.

95 The Transgenic RNAi Project (TRiP) at Harvard Medical School previously generated
96 transgenic RNAi lines for LOF experiments (Perkins et al. 2015). This project has recently
97 developed a transgenic CRISPR/Cas9 approach that can be used to knockout or overexpress
98 genes in a spatially and temporally controlled manner (Zirin et al. 2020). In this study, we
99 present results from use of the TRiP CRISPR/Cas9 toolkit to knockout and overexpress
100 candidate transcription factors in the abdominal midline, driven by the endogenous regulation of
101 the *pannier* (*pnr*) gene (Calleja et al. 2000). Our screen included candidates identified in the
102 prior RNAi screen (Rogers et al. 2014) and factors that may directly bind the *yellow* body CRE
103 (Kalay et al. 2016). Gene knockouts in the transgenic CRISPR/Cas9 system largely
104 recapitulated prior observations from RNAi knockdowns. By overexpressing these transcription
105 factors in the abdominal midline, we demonstrated the utility of GOF experiments in elucidating
106 gene functions and identified a candidate that, prior to this study, did not have a known role in
107 tergite pigmentation patterning. We utilized these techniques in an undergraduate laboratory
108 course, providing an authentic research experience to undergraduate students, and the positive
109 outcomes demonstrate its utility as an educational tool.

110 **Methods**

111 *Overexpression/knockout screen*

112 Fly lines were generated as a part of the Harvard Medical School Transgenic RNAi Project (Zirin
113 et al. 2019). All lines were acquired from the Bloomington Stock Center (see Table S1 for stock
114 numbers and lines). For the knockout crosses, 6-8 virgin females with *UAS-Cas9* and *pnr-Gal4*
115 | were crossed to 1-2 males with ubiquitously expressed guide RNA transgenes (Fig. 1CB). In the
116 conditional knockout progeny, Cas9 cleaves the target site as directed by the guide RNAs from
117 the male parent that can induce a frameshift mutation upon repair in the protein coding
118 | sequence of the first or second exon (Fig. 1CD). This results in a functional knockout of the
119 targeted transcription factor in the midline of the abdomen, where *pnr* is expressed. For the

overexpression crosses, 6-8 virgin females from a *pnr*-Gal4 driver line that additionally possesses a UAS-regulated deactivated Cas9 fused to the activator domain VP64-p65-Rta (dCas9 VPR) were crossed to 1-2 males possessing a pair of guide RNA transgenes (Fig 1DG). In the overexpression progeny, midline-expressed dCas9 VPR recruits transcriptional activation machinery to the promoter region near the transcription start site of the target gene as directed by the guide RNAs (Fig 1DE). This results in the ectopic expression of the targeted transcription factor in the midline. Both knockout and overexpression crosses used the same *pnr*-Gal4 construct. All crosses were raised at 25°C.

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Imaging and analysis

The progeny from the crosses were transferred to new vials after eclosion. After culturing at 25°C for 7-9 days, flies were dissected by removing the wings and the legs, mounted on a slide covered with double-sided sticky tape, and imaged using a Leica M205C Stereo Microscope with a DFC425 camera. For each cross, around 10 male and 10 female abdomens per cross were mounted and imaged. Each abdomen was imaged under the same lighting conditions with an LED ring light. Extended focus brightfield images were generated using the Leica Montage package. The images taken all had a white glare as the result of the ring light used in the imaging process. To avoid the impact of the glare on our calculations, the pixels comprising the glare were not included in our analysis.

We conducted statistical analysis on three traits in female flies only (Figure 1B). For pigmentation intensity measurements, images were converted to greyscale and analyzed using FIJI. The segment of interest was outlined with the freehand tool, and a mean light value (L) in the range of 0-255 was recorded. The segment intensity was calculated in units of percent (%) darkness using the following equation (Pool & Aquadro 2007):

$$(255-L)/255 \times 100\%$$

In addition, the FIJI straight-line tool was used to measure the length of the female A6 stripe and the width of the A4 midline stripe. We did not quantify these two traits for the knockout crosses, as these results have already been published (Rogers et al. 2014; Kalay et al. 2016).

Two sets of quantitative data were compared using a two-tailed Student's t test. Boxplots were generated in R, and are presented as jittered plots, with the center lines representing the medians, and the borders of the box representing the 25th and 75th percentiles. The P-values were adjusted by a Bonferroni correction to account for multiple testing. This increased the significance threshold from less than 0.05 to less than 0.001. All image analysis was performed on blinded samples to eliminate bias.

TRiP in an undergraduate laboratory course

We had the students in BIOSCI 0351 Genetics Lab, an upper-level university laboratory course, in Spring 2021 and Spring 2022 participate in these experiments at the University of Pittsburgh. 35 students were enrolled in the Spring 2021 course, and 34 were enrolled in the Spring 2022 course. Students were broken up into groups of 4 or 5, with each group having one transcription factor gene and one positive control gene (*bric-a-brac 1* for overexpression crosses and *doublesex* for knockout crosses). The students established two test gene crosses and two control crosses, phenotyped progeny, and analyzed images using ImageJ as described above.

161 The students were asked to organize and maintain a laboratory notebook for this experiment. At
 162 the end of the laboratory course, the students presented their findings to the rest of the class.

163 See Table 1 for the course timeline and materials needed for the course. Student learning
 164 objectives and methods of assessments are outlined in Table 2.

165

166 Table 1. Requirements and timeline for the Genetics Laboratory course.

Personnel & Materials		Timeline	
Professors	1-2	Week 1	Introduction to fly husbandry
Teaching Assistants	1	Week 2	Visualizing CRISPR targets
Students	34	Week 3	Journal club on CRISPR/Cas9
Fly food	4-8 vials per cross per group, plus vials to maintain stocks	Week 4	Primary literature search on gene
Fly stocks	1 sgRNA and 1 driver per group of 4	Week 5	Journal club on CRISPR/Cas9 in <i>Drosophila</i>
Brightfield microscope	Ideal: 1 per student Minimal: 1 per student group	Week 6	Setting up CRISPR cross
Microscope camera	1 per microscope	Week 7	Lab notebook check
Computers with FIJI	Ideal: 1 per student Minimal: 1 per student group	Week 8	Journal club on CRISPR in non-model organisms
		Week 9	Score progeny from CRISPR/Cas9 cross, TA mounts and images flies
		Week 10	Ethics of CRISPR discussion
		Week 11	Analyzing image data, beginning poster presentation
		Week 12	Designing poster, wrapping up image analysis
		Week 13	Poster session, final lab notebook grading

167

168 Table 2. Learning objectives for the Genetics Laboratory course.

	Learning Outcomes	Assessments
Knowledge	Articulate the molecular mechanisms of CRISPR/Cas9 actions	Journal discussions on CRISPR/Cas9 technology, weekly reflection paragraphs
	Frame student results in context of the current literature	Generate a discussion for poster presentation
	Examine ethical concerns regarding genome editing	Journal discussions on genome editing ethical concerns, weekly reflection paragraphs
Technical Skills	Fly husbandry, including identifying virgin females, scoring based on sex and phenotype, and recognizing balancer chromosome phenotypes	Record their findings in a laboratory notebook
	Document lab activities reliably and consistently	Organize and maintain a laboratory notebook
Analytical Skills	Develop hypotheses based on research into primary literature	
	Use ImageJ to measure properties of fly pigmentation, such as darkness and stripe width	Generate a results section for poster presentation
	Conduct statistical tests to determine significance of results	Generate a results section for poster presentation
Communication Skills	Design graphics to convey experimental results	Final poster design
	Relay their experiments orally to their peers and colleagues	Final poster presentation

169

170 Results and Discussion

171 A total of 71 gene manipulations were performed, overexpressing 55 target and knocking out 16
 172 transcription factor genes known to or suspected to function in the GRN for abdomen tergite
 173 pigmentation patterning and development. All transcription factor genes tested in this assay had
 174 previously been identified in RNAi screens (Rogers et al. 2014; Kalay et al. 2016). In Rogers et
 175 al. 2014, the transcription factor genes were chosen from the Drosophila Transcription Factor
 176 Database (Pfreundt et al. 2010, Adryan & Teichmann 2006), while Kalay et al. 2016 pulled
 177 from surveyed a collection of transcription factors fused to the Gal4 protein (Hens et al. 2011).
 178 21 of the overexpression crosses and 7 of the knockout crosses resulted in a phenotype that
 179 differed significantly from the control crosses. Some of the factors tested had detectable effects
 180 in more than one trait. For instance, *pdm3* resulted in reduced pigmentation in the A6 segment,
 181 the midline stripe, and background coloration (Fig. 2). Of the 8 genes for which we conducted
 182 both a GOF and LOF cross, none had detectable effects in both treatments. Representative
 183 images of progeny from the 9 knockout crosses and 34 overexpression crosses with no
 184 detectable phenotypic difference from the wild-type pigmentation patterns can be found in
 185 Figures S1 and S2, respectively.

186 The patterns in the *Drosophila* abdomen are largely determined by the presence or absence of
 187 three key enzymes, Yellow, Tan, and Ebony. Yellow is required to produce black melanin from

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188 dopamine that is present in the dark cuticle of the abdomen (Drapeau 2003; Hinaux et al. 2018;
189 Jeong et al. 2008; Nash 1976; Water et al. 1991; Wittkopp et al. 2002; Wright 1987). Tan and
190 Ebony are both involved in catecholamine synthesis, with Ebony converting dopamine to beta-
191 alanyl dopamine (Richardt et al. 2003; Wittkopp et al. 2002; Wittkopp et al. 2003) and Tan
192 reversing this reaction (True et al. 2005). These enzymes are expressed in patterns, with the
193 dark producing enzymes Yellow (Wittkopp et al. 2003) and Tan (Jeong et al. 2008) localized in
194 the stripes, midline, and male A5/A6 tergites, while Ebony is restricted to lighter cuticle patches
195 (Rebeiz et al. 2009). The factors we identified may be involved in patterning the midline, either
196 by repressing Tan and Yellow or promoting the dark pigment producing enzymes.

197 Transcription factors that affect segment A5/A6 pigmentation

198 In some *Drosophila* species, the pigmentation in the A5 and A6 segments is sexually dimorphic.
199 This trait is recently evolved (Gompel & Carroll 2003), and is thought to evolve from a
200 monomorphic ancestor (Hughes et al. 2020, Jeong et al. 2006, Kopp et al. 2000). A number of
201 transcription factors have been implicated in shaping the male-specific melanic A5-A6
202 pigmentation. The Hox genes *abdominal-A* (*abd-A*) and *Abdominal-B* (*Abd-B*) are expressed in
203 the abdominal segments A2-A7⁴ and A5-A7⁸, respectively, and their expression is controlled by
204 the *jab2-8* cis-regulatory elements (Akbari et al. 2006). *Abd-B* promotes the activity of the
205 pigmentation enzymes *yellow* directly via binding sites in its cis-regulatory element, and
206 promotes *tan* indirectly (Liu et al. 2019; Camino et al. 2015; Jeong et al. 2008; Jeong et al.
207 2006). The transcription factor genes *bric-a-brac 1* (*bab1*) and *bric-a-brac 2* (*bab2*) play a large
208 role in the sexual dimorphism of this trait by regulating *yellow*, a gene that encodes a
209 pigmentation enzyme that produces black melanin (Roeske et al. 2018; Salomone et al. 2013;
210 Couderc et al. 2002; Kopp et al. 2000). In turn, *bab1/2* expression is activated by *Abd-B*, and
211 the sex-specific isoforms (DsxF and DsxM) of the transcription factor gene *doublesex* (*dsx*)
212 regulates *bab1/2* in a sexually dimorphic pattern: DsxF activates *bab1/2* in females, and DsxM
213 represses *bab1/2* in males (Williams et al. 2008). To capture additional genes that affect this
214 sexually dimorphic pattern, we measured the width of the A6 stripe in the female progeny from
215 our crosses.

216 We identified 189 factors whose altered expression results in a significant effect on
217 pigmentation in the A5 and A6 abdominal segment tergites in either males or females (Fig. 2A).
218 It is important to note that pigmentation in the female A6 segment exhibits temperature-
219 dependent plasticity (Gibert et al. 2000). To minimize the effect of environmental factors on the
220 development of female pigmentation, all crosses were raised at 25°C. All 19 of these factors
221 were significantly different from control flies post Bonferroni correction (Table S1).

222 Of these 189 transcription factor genes, 123 were identified as melanic pigment promoters, with
223 LOF phenotypes from 2 crosses including reduced melanic pigmentation and GOF phenotypes
224 from 11 crosses including increased melanic pigmentation. 7 of these transcription factor genes
225 were previously identified in an RNAi screen (Rogers et al. 2014): *abdominal A* (*abd-A*),
226 *CG10348*, *Hormone receptor 4* (*Hr4*), *scribbler* (*sbb*), *Suppressor of variegation 2-10* (*Su(var)2-*
227 *10*), *target of Poxn* (*tap*), and *unplugged* (*unpg*). *CG10348* (Fig. 3B) and *Su(var)2-10* (Fig. 3D),
228 when knocked out, were consistent with the RNAi knockdowns reported in Rogers et al.
229 When overexpressed, *abd-A* (Fig. 4B), *Hr4* (Fig. 4H), *sbb* (Fig. 4I), and *tap* (Fig. 4K) all resulted
230 in increased melanic pigmentation in the female A6 segment, while *unpg* overexpression
231 resulted in melanic pigment that appeared more diffuse yet expanded in area (Fig. 4D). In
232 Rogers et al., when knocked down, the transcription factor genes *abd-A*, *Hr4*, *sbb*, and *unpg*

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233 were found to reduce pigmentation in the A5 and A6 segments, and *tap* affected the thorax. The
234 novel results are therefore consistent with the prior observations, and thereby strengthens the
235 inferred roles for these transcription factors acting as promoters of the melanin pigment
236 patterning and development.

237 The other 6 transcription factor genes that were shown here to cause increased pigmentation in
238 the female abdomen were previously identified in Kalay et al. (2016) as potential direct
239 regulators of *yellow*: *atonal* (*ato*) (Fig. 4C), *C15* (Fig. 4E), *Ecdysone-induced protein 78C*
240 (*Eip78C*) (Fig. 4G), and *u-shaped* (*ush*) (Fig. 4L). When overexpressed, increased melanin
241 pigmentation formed in the female A5 and A6 segments. This is consistent with the prior study
242 (Kalay et al. 2016), as these factors resulted in reduced pigmentation when knocked down. The
243 transcription factor genes *bigmax* (Fig. 4F) and *Suppressor of variegation 3-7* (*Su(var)3-7*) (Fig.
244 4J), when overexpressed, increased pigmentation in the female A5 and A6 segments. In the
245 prior study (Kalay et al. 2016), when knocked down, these factors had no effect on
246 pigmentation, despite being identified as potential direct regulators of the pigmentation enzyme
247 *yellow*. This suggests that, although knockdown of these factors has no effect on pigmentation
248 in *D. melanogaster* lab strains, these factors may promote dark pigmentation when expressed in
249 the abdomen, possibly by activating the expression of *yellow*.

250 The remaining 6 transcription factor genes were implicated as repressors of the melanin
251 pigmentation, including well-characterized transcription factor genes like *bric-à-brac 1* (*bab1*)
252 (Fig. 5B) and *doublesex* (*dsx*) (Fig. 3C). Additional factors with compelling phenotypes were
253 *Hairy/E(spl)-related with YRPW motif* (*Hey*) (Fig. 5C), *Hormone receptor-like in 38* (*Hr38*) (Fig.
254 5D), *labial* (*lab*) (Fig. 5G), and *pou domain motif 3* (*pdm3*) (Fig. 5E), which, when
255 overexpressed, resulted in reduced melanin pigmentation. The transcription factor genes *bab1*,
256 *dsx*, and *pdm3* have verified roles in the patterning of the A5 and A6 segments. The
257 transcription factors Bab1 and Bab2 repress *yellow* in a dimorphic pattern, due to the notable
258 absence of *bab1/2* expression in the male A5 and A6 abdominal segment epidermis (Couderc
259 et al. 2002; Kopp et al. 2000; Roeske et al. 2018; Salomone et al. 2013). This dimorphic pattern
260 is controlled by Abd-B and Dsx, in which the DsxF splice variant activates Bab in females and
261 the DsxM splice variant represses Bab in males (Williams et al. 2008). The factor *pdm3* has
262 been implicated as a potential indirect repressor of *yellow* (Liu et al. 2019, Yassin et al. 2016).
263 Our results are consistent with prior studies that investigated these three genes as repressors of
264 the endogenous melanin pigment formation.

265 **Transcription factors that affect midline patterning**

266 In *D. melanogaster*, both male and female flies exhibit a darkly pigmented vertical stripe in the
267 dorsal-ventral midline of the abdomen. This pattern is at least partially controlled by
268 Decapentaplegic (Dpp) signaling. Ectopic Dpp activity promotes increased pigmentation in the
269 dorsal-ventral midline of the abdomen (Kopp et al. 1999). To assess the effects of additional
270 factors on the width of the midline stripe, we measured the width of the stripe in the A4
271 segment.

272 We identified 6 transcription factor genes that impacted the width of the midline stripe in the A4
273 segment. When overexpressed, the transcription factor genes *lab* (Fig. 5G), *pdm3* (Fig. 5E), and
274 *sloppy paired 2* (*slp2*) (Fig. 5F) produced a thinner or nonexistent midline stripe. Two of the
275 tested transcription factor genes, *C15* (Fig. 4E) and *unpg* (Fig. 4D), when overexpressed,
276 resulted in faded pigmentation in the midline region, but the boundaries of the midline appear to

277 be wider than wild-type. Notably, *C15* also promotes dark pigment in the female A5 and A6
278 tergites, indicating that it acts as both a promoter and repressor of melanic pigmentation.
279 Although *unpg* is involved in both A5/A6 pigmentation and midline pigmentation, the pigment in
280 flies overexpressing *unpg* in the dorsal midline appears diffuse compared to the wild-type
281 pattern. Another factor, *CG10348*, resulted in a reduced midline stripe when knocked out.

282 The *slp2* result is notable because *slp2* previously had no known role in pigmentation. It had
283 been identified in a yeast 1-hybrid screen as capable of binding to the *yellow* wing+body *cis*-
284 regulatory element, but *slp2* LOF experiments did not produce detectable effects on abdominal
285 pigmentation (Kalay et al. 2016). In this GOF assay, we observed that *slp2* could reduce
286 pigmentation in the midline when overexpressed (Fig. 5F). These results indicate that *slp2*
287 either has a redundant function in abdominal pigmentation, which would make detecting its
288 effects difficult in LOF screens, or that *slp2* is not endogenously expressed in the *pnr* domain of
289 the abdominal cuticle in *D. melanogaster*, but can nevertheless repress it. Much of our
290 knowledge on the pigmentation network comes from experiments with *D. melanogaster*, so the
291 identification of new factors like *slp2* may lead to insights in the pigmentation networks of other
292 *Drosophila* species.

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293 Transcription factors that affect background coloration

294 In addition to the sexual dimorphism in the A5 and A6 segment tergites and the patterning of the
295 midline stripes, we were interested in evaluating the changes to the lighter (yellow-brown)
296 colored cuticle, or background coloration, of the progeny. Background pigmentation has been
297 implicated in adaptation of *D. melanogaster* populations. In African *D. melanogaster*
298 populations, background pigmentation is correlated with altitude, with populations at higher
299 altitudes exhibiting darker background pigmentation (Pool & Aquadro 2007; Bastide et al. 2014).
300 Previously, the gene *ebony* was found to underlie the increased dark background pigment in a
301 Ugandan population (Rebeiz et al. 2009), and single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) in
302 regulatory regions for *tan* and *bab1* have been associated with pigmentation variation in
303 European populations (Bastide et al. 2013). To capture factors that may affect background
304 coloration, we measured the difference in background coloration intensity in our crosses.

305 We identified 9 transcription factor genes that had subtle effects on the background coloration
306 (Fig. 2C). In many cases, these shifts in coloration are subtle, shifting the background coloration
307 as little as 3-5%. When knocked out, the factors *CG17806* (Fig. 3D), *scalloped* (*sd*) (Fig. 3E),
308 and *space blanket* (*spab*) (Fig. 3F) shifted the background pigmentation slightly lighter,
309 indicating these genes may have normally function as promoters of darker background
310 coloration. When overexpressed, the transcription factor genes *bab1/2*, *CG10348*, *CG30020*,
311 and *crol* shifted the background pigmentation slightly darker, while *pdm3* shifted the background
312 pigmentation lighter. Some of these alterations are counterintuitive. For example, *bab1/2* is
313 characterized as a pigment repressor, while overexpression of *bab1/2* in this cross resulted in
314 darker background pigmentation, rather than lighter. These results might suggest a more
315 complex role for Bab1 and Bab2 in the operation of the pigmentation GRN. However, this
316 counterintuitive outcome might be due to variation in the genetic backgrounds of the guide RNA
317 lines, as the shifts in background pigmentation are subtle, with less than 5% difference in
318 pigment intensity compared to the control.

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319 These screens are useful for generating candidate genes underlying adaptive phenotypes. In
320 other African populations, notably one from Fiche, Ethiopia, genome sequencing data has

321 implicated multiple genomic regions as contributing to differing phenotypes in background
322 coloration (Bastide et al. 2016). Indeed, many of the genes tested, including *bab 1/2*, *CG10348*,
323 *dsx*, *Eip74EF*, *pdm3*, *Su(var)2-10*, and *unpg* among others, fall under QTL peaks associated
324 with pigmentation variation described by Bastide et al. 2016. This screen and future screens
325 may reveal causative genes underlying these adaptive phenotypes. In addition, GOF screens
326 can illuminate additional paths that adaptation can take, as the candidates identified in GOF
327 screens that were not identified in LOF screens of one species may have been important in the
328 evolutionary diversification of related species.

329 Transcription factors that alter development in the abdomen and thorax

330 Several factors affected the morphology of the thorax and the abdomen. The transcription factor
331 genes *abd-A* (Fig. 6B), *lab* (Fig. 6D), and *unpg* (Fig. 6E), when overexpressed, produce flies
332 with indented thoraxes. Two of these transcription factor genes, *abd-A* and *lab*, are homeotic
333 genes that are responsible for proper segmentation and development of the abdomen and
334 anterior thorax, respectively. *abd-A*, along with *Abd-B*, is part of the bithorax complex, and are
335 regulated by trithorax in proper development of the abdominal segments (Breen & Harte 1993).
336 *lab* is part of the Antennapedia Complex, which is responsible for the development of the head
337 and anterior thoracic segments (Diedrich et al. 1989).

338 The factor *ato*, when overexpressed, produces flies with additional bristles on the thorax (Fig.
339 6C), though it did not produce additional bristles in the abdomen. This may be due to
340 differences in the developmental patterning of the thorax compared to the abdomen. The factor
341 *Su(var)2-10*, when knocked out, results in a slight indentation in the thorax (Fig. 6F). The factor
342 *Motif 1 Binding Protein (M1BP)* (Fig. 6J), when knocked out, produce flies with improperly
343 developed tergites. The factors *Structure specific recognition protein (Ssrp)* and *Su(z)12* impact
344 both the thorax and the abdomen when knocked out: the thoraces develop indentations (Fig.
345 6G, Fig. 6H), while the abdomens exhibit defects in tergite development (Fig. 6K, Fig. 6L). In
346 addition to the developmental defects, *abd-A*, *ato*, *lab*, and *unpg* have effects on pigmentation
347 when overexpressed, and *Su(var)2-10* affects pigmentation when knocked out.

348 Efficacy of CRISPR/Cas9 in genetic screens

349 Prior LOF studies relied on RNAi technology, and we expected the results of our CRISPR/Cas9-
350 mediated knockouts to be consistent with the outcomes of prior RNAi screens (Rogers et al.
351 2014, Kalay et al. 2016). The progeny from the knockout crosses in this study are largely
352 congruent with the results from prior RNAi studies; however, some genes showed no detectible
353 phenotypic difference from wild-type abdominal pigmentation, despite a measurable phenotypic
354 effect in RNAi studies. Examples of this deviation include *Ecdysone-induced protein 74EF*
355 (*Eip74EF*), *Hormone receptor 4 (Hr4)*, and *tango (tgo)* (Rogers et al. 2014).

356 These discrepancies may be due to the design of the transgenic lines. Transgenic
357 CRISPR/Cas9 mediates gene knockout quite effectively: in the transgenic CRISPR/Cas9 library
358 generated by Port et al. (2020), less than 10% of the generated transgenic lines produce
359 insufficient target mutations, a marked improvement over current *Drosophila* RNAi libraries
360 (Perkins et al. 2015). However, there are also some caveats in experimental design. For
361 example, some transgenic knockout lines will encode one guide RNA sequence, while others
362 encode two guide RNAs. Those encoding two guide RNA sequences may produce more
363 conspicuous phenotypes compared to a line with only one guide RNA sequence (Port & Bullock
364 2016, Xie et al. 2015, Yin et al. 2015). We imaged 10 males and 10 females for as many

crosses as possible to capture subtle phenotypes; however, it is possible that some transcription factor genes may nevertheless have subtle phenotypes below the threshold of detection in this assay. Finally, it is worth noting that the Kalay et al. study (2016) used flattened cuticle preparations to measure phenotypes, which is likely more sensitive to subtle effects.

Educational value of transgene-based genetic screens

In addition to the scientific value of the TRiP CRISPR/Cas9 system, this technique has much promise as an educational tool. Course-based undergraduate research experiences allow undergraduate students to engage in authentic research projects in a laboratory course setting (Auchincloss et al. 2014). These courses provide an accessible research experience to many students and promote engagement with hypothesis-driven research at all stages of the scientific process. CRISPR/Cas9 has been used for laboratory courses in *Drosophila* (Adame et al. 2016), bacteria (Pieczynski et al. 2019), yeast (Sehgal et al. 2018), frogs (Martin et al. 2020), and butterflies (Martin et al. 2020). Students have responded positively to research-based laboratory courses, compared to traditional laboratory courses (Martin et al. 2020). Incorporating CRISPR/Cas9 into laboratory courses provides scientific and educational value (Wolyniak et al. 2019), and projects designed using the TRiP toolkit can allow students to engage with this technology in most laboratory settings and pursue a wide variety of research questions with relative ease.

This screen was conducted as part of the Genetics Lab course, comprised of primarily sophomore and junior undergraduate students. In groups of 4 to 5, each student group was assigned an experimental transcription factor to either overexpress or knockout, as well as a positive control cross. For groups conducting a knockout assay, the positive control was *dsx*, while the positive control for the overexpression groups was *bab1*. These two controls had been tested prior to the start of the class to ensure that they would be effective positive controls. In Spring 2021, the course had seven student groups of 5. Five of those groups conducted overexpression assays for *CG10348*, *crol*, *Hr4*, *lmd*, and *unpg*, while the other two groups conducted knockout assays for *CG10348* and *Hr4*. In Spring 2022, the course had seven student groups of 4 and one group of 5. Six of those groups conducted overexpression assays for *ato*, *bab2*, *CG10348*, *Hr4*, *osa*, and *slp2*, while the other two groups conducted knockout assays for *CG10348* and *Hr4*.

In this approach, students are highly involved in the discovery process. The students began by searching for articles on their transcription factor, and learned techniques for finding good sources and reading research articles effectively with the guidance of the instructors. The students were able to contribute to most portions of the experiment, even those who attended remotely or asynchronously for some meetings, and all students received data that they could analyze using FIJI.

We found that the results of this genetic screen were more productive than prior attempts to incorporate CRISPR/Cas9 into an educational experience with more laborious approaches involving germline editing. Although we focused on A6 pigmentation, midline patterning, and background coloration [in this manuscript](#), the students were encouraged to measure additional traits, and were not directed by the instructors to measure particular traits. More than half of the student groups identified significant changes from the control in at least one trait, and those that did not nevertheless produced useful negative data. We attribute the relative success of the

408 educational TRiP screen to the ease with which these resources allow students to generate
409 phenotypes and explore gene functions.

410 Similar projects can be implemented in undergraduate labs to provide an authentic research
411 experience to undergraduate students. The materials needed for the project workflow are
412 minimal, requiring only the fly stocks, fly food, and a way to anesthetize the flies and image
413 body parts. This strategy can be applied to many structures using hundreds of genes.

414 In addition, this project has been implemented in both virtual and in-person formats. We
415 designed these experiments to provide activities that students could participate in when class
416 could not be fully conducted in person during 2021. Our set-up allowed for 6 students to be in
417 the room safely with the instructor and the teaching assistant. Two students from each of the
418 seven groups were able to attend lab in person for each class period. The virtual students
419 focused on literature searches while the in-person students set up the crosses. Both sets of
420 students could fully participate in image and statistical analysis. When the class was fully in
421 person in 2022, all students had the opportunity to participate in both the in lab and virtual
422 components. In both semesters, the mounting and imaging was carried out by the teaching
423 assistant. Although this screen works better for the students when they are all in person, we
424 found that it was simpler to adapt to a hybrid format than previous iterations of the class.

425 **Conclusions**

426 The purpose of this study was to confirm previous knockdown experiments and survey the
427 effects of pigmentation transcription factors when overexpressed in the abdominal midline. We
428 used a transgenic CRISPR/Cas9 system to overexpress 55 transcription factor genes identified
429 in prior RNAi screens as potential regulators of pigmentation enzymes. We identified 19 factors
430 that affected A5 and A6 tergite pigmentation, 6 that affected midline stripe patterning, 9 that
431 affected background pigmentation, and 8 factors that affected thorax and abdominal
432 morphology (Table 3). While a number of these factors, including *abd-A*, *bab1/2*, and *dsx*, have
433 been well-characterized in prior studies, we were able to observe phenotypes in the abdomen
434 caused by transcription factors that are not as well characterized in this developmental context,
435 such as *C15*, *CG10348*, and *unpg*. We determined a role for new factors that previously had not
436 been implicated in tergite pigmentation, such as *slp2*, and provided new candidates for
437 pigmentation studies. GOF experiments, such as those conducted in this screen, can elucidate
438 potential paths to evolutionary change, as the phenotypes observed in GOF experiments but not
439 LOF experiments in one species may be important in other species. In addition, we used this
440 technique to provide an authentic research experience to undergraduate students in a Genetics
441 Laboratory course, and found that this project workflow could be easily adapted for other
442 university courses.

443

444 Table 3. Summary of observed phenotypes. Increases in pigmentation are represented by "+".
445 Decreases in pigmentation are represented by "-".

Treatment	Midline Pigment		A6 Pigment		Background Pigment	Defects	
	♂	♀	♂	♀		Thorax	Abdomen
<i>abd-A OE</i>	none	none	none	+	none	✓	none
<i>ato OE</i>	none	none	none	+	none	✓	none

<i>bab1 OE</i>	none	none	-	-	+	none	none
<i>bab2 OE</i>	none	none	none	none	+	none	none
<i>bigmax OE</i>	none	none	none	+	none	none	none
<i>C15 OE</i>	-	-	none	+	none	none	none
<i>CG10348 OE</i>	none	none	none	none	+	none	none
<i>CG10348 KO</i>	-	-	-	-	none	none	none
<i>CG30020 OE</i>	none	none	none	none	+	none	none
<i>crol OE</i>	none	none	none	none	+	none	none
<i>dsx KO</i>	none	none	none	+	none	none	none
<i>Hey OE</i>	none	none	none	-	none	none	none
<i>Hr38 OE</i>	none	none	none	-	none	none	none
<i>Hr4 OE</i>	none	none	none	+	none	none	none
<i>lab OE</i>	-	-	none	-	none	none	none
<i>M1BP KO</i>	none	none	none	none	none	none	✓
<i>pdm3 OE</i>	-	-	none	-	-	none	none
<i>sbb OE</i>	none	none	none	+	none	none	none
<i>slp2 OE</i>	-	-	none	none	none	none	none
<i>Ssrp KO</i>	none	none	none	none	none	✓	✓
<i>Su(var)2-10 KO</i>	none	none	none	none	none	✓	none
<i>Su(var)3-7 OE</i>	none	none	none	+	none	none	none
<i>Su(z)12 KO</i>	none	none	none	none	none	✓	✓
<i>unpg OE</i>	+	+	-	+	none	+	none
<i>ush OE</i>	none	none	none	+	none	none	none

446 Table S1. Bloomington stock numbers of fly lines used in this study.

Stock Number	Effect	Target Locus/Genotype
67040	overexpression Gal4 driver	<i>pnr-Gal4</i>
67077	knockout Gal4 driver	<i>pnr-Gal4</i>
83608	overexpression sgRNA	<i>ab</i>
79520	overexpression sgRNA	<i>abd-A</i>
79861	overexpression sgRNA	<i>ato</i>
80770	overexpression sgRNA	<i>ato</i>
79801	overexpression sgRNA	<i>bab1</i>
80749	overexpression sgRNA	<i>bab2</i>
80209	overexpression sgRNA	<i>bigmax</i>
80016	overexpression sgRNA	<i>Br140</i>
78645	overexpression sgRNA	<i>brm</i>
79800	overexpression sgRNA	<i>C15</i>
78704	overexpression sgRNA	<i>caup</i>
80012	overexpression sgRNA	<i>CG10348</i>
80782	overexpression sgRNA	<i>CG1233</i>
79996	overexpression sgRNA	<i>CG30020</i>
80264	overexpression sgRNA	<i>CG33695</i>
78744	overexpression sgRNA	<i>CG9650</i>
80002	overexpression sgRNA	<i>chinmo</i>
79921	overexpression sgRNA	<i>crol</i>
79805	overexpression sgRNA	<i>dsx</i>
79883	overexpression sgRNA	<i>Eip78C</i>
80225	overexpression sgRNA	<i>fru</i>

78695	overexpression sgRNA	<i>Gsc</i>
80763	overexpression sgRNA	<i>hb</i>
79948	overexpression sgRNA	<i>Hey</i>
80027	overexpression sgRNA	<i>hng1</i>
81670	overexpression sgRNA	<i>Hr38</i>
82761	overexpression sgRNA	<i>Hr4</i>
79869	overexpression sgRNA	<i>Hr78</i>
79814	overexpression sgRNA	<i>hth</i>
80750	overexpression sgRNA	<i>ind</i>
80271	overexpression sgRNA	<i>jing</i>
80767	overexpression sgRNA	<i>lab</i>
80206	overexpression sgRNA	<i>lmd</i>
80246	overexpression sgRNA	<i>M1BP</i>
78697	overexpression sgRNA	<i>Mad</i>
80175	overexpression sgRNA	<i>MBD-like</i>
78279	overexpression sgRNA	<i>Met</i>
83602	overexpression sgRNA	<i>Mi-2</i>
77302	overexpression sgRNA	<i>nej</i>
83601	overexpression sgRNA	<i>osa</i>
78702	overexpression sgRNA	<i>otp</i>
80207	overexpression sgRNA	<i>p53</i>
83598	overexpression sgRNA	<i>pdm3</i>
80296	overexpression sgRNA	<i>pita</i>
82744	overexpression sgRNA	<i>pnt</i>
79903	overexpression sgRNA	<i>sbb</i>
78710	overexpression sgRNA	<i>scrt</i>
78689	overexpression sgRNA	<i>slp2</i>
79992	overexpression sgRNA	<i>Sox102F</i>
80753	overexpression sgRNA	<i>Ssrp</i>
79823	overexpression sgRNA	<i>Su(var)3-7</i>
78663	overexpression sgRNA	<i>Su(z)12</i>
79915	overexpression sgRNA	<i>tap</i>
79937	overexpression sgRNA	<i>Tip60</i>
85888	overexpression sgRNA	<i>tx</i>
78703	overexpression sgRNA	<i>unpg</i>
78270	overexpression sgRNA	<i>ush</i>
76963	knockout sgRNA	<i>brm</i>
82814	knockout sgRNA	<i>CG10348</i>
84047	knockout sgRNA	<i>CG17806</i>
85841	knockout sgRNA	<i>CG8765</i>
79009	knockout sgRNA	<i>dsx</i>
82781	knockout sgRNA	<i>Eip74EF</i>
82503	knockout sgRNA	<i>Hr4</i>
84062	knockout sgRNA	<i>M1BP</i>
80322	knockout sgRNA	<i>Met</i>
77331	knockout sgRNA	<i>Pfk</i>
77055	knockout sgRNA	<i>sd</i>
91969	knockout sgRNA	<i>sd</i>
80807	knockout sgRNA	<i>spab</i>
80873	knockout sgRNA	<i>Ssrp</i>

83890	knockout sgRNA	<i>Su(var)2-10</i>
77007	knockout sgRNA	<i>Su(z)12</i>
77068	knockout sgRNA	<i>tgo</i>

Table S2. Summary of T-test results for overexpression crosses, n = 10, p<0.001.

Gene	A6 Stripe Width			Midline Stripe Width			A4 Background Darkness		
	t-value	Degress of Freedom	p-value	t-value	Degrees of Freedom	p-value	t-value	Degrees of Freedom	p-value
<i>ab</i>	1.854	13.548	0.08570	0.536	16.837	0.5992	3.166	15.325	0.006255
<i>abd-A</i>	5.330	14.090	0.0001040	4.299	9.755	0.001655	2.240	14.915	0.04073
<i>ato</i>	8.387	17.868	1.417*10 ⁻⁷	1.523	16.383	0.1469	0.433	13.457	0.6721
<i>bab1</i>	6.671	17.878	3.042*10 ⁻⁶	0.971	17.661	0.3445	4.7128	13.454	0.0003701
<i>bab2</i>	1.868	16.686	0.07948	0.044	16.972	0.9656	5.378	15.975	6.186*10 ⁻⁵
<i>bigmax</i>	4.899	13.148	0.0002815	1.092	16.975	0.2902	1.201	17.419	0.2457
<i>Br140</i>	2.077	16.144	0.05419	0.498	17.068	0.6249	0.273	15.493	0.7884
<i>bzm</i>	0.884	17.777	0.3885	3.430	17.987	0.002987	0.672	15.972	0.5115
<i>C15</i>	10.552	16.975	7.112*10 ⁻⁹	0.265	8.363	0.7974	2.013	15.220	0.06215
<i>caup</i>	2.689	10.784	0.02140	1.040	17.028	0.3128	0.616	0.5456	0.5456
<i>CG10348</i>	1.910	11.594	0.08120	1.742	17.813	0.9875	3.957	17.644	0.0009550
<i>CG1233</i>	2.044	14.811	0.05917	0.090	16.933	0.9292	2.044	14.811	0.0592
<i>CG30020</i>	2.892	11.963	0.01357	0.365	17.975	0.7192	6.415	16.991	6.419*10 ⁻⁶
<i>CG33695</i>	3.364	15.234	0.004188	0.558	17.305	0.5841	0.674	16.392	0.5098
<i>CG9650</i>	1.287	8.091	0.2336	1.839	17.973	0.0825	0.341	16.764	0.7371
<i>chinmo</i>	3.442	14.849	0.003675	1.778	13.372	0.09817	0.395	17.486	0.6973
<i>crol</i>	2.992	14.919	0.009168	2.401	17.504	0.02769	7.718	16.690	6.684*10 ⁻⁷
<i>dsx</i>	1.991	13.110	0.06770	2.569	17.738	0.01946	2.357	13.225	0.03445
<i>Eip78C</i>	5.061	12.057	0.0002754	2.673	17.449	0.01579	2.919	13.941	0.01125
<i>fru</i>	1.718	11.877	0.1118	2.198	17.705	0.04148	3.018	12.949	0.009930
<i>Gsc</i>	3.270	11.566	0.007011	3.701	16.152	0.001911	0.656	11.449	0.5248
<i>hb</i>	2.515	12.319	0.02674	1.050	14.361	0.3112	1.806	12.335	0.09542
<i>Hey</i>	4.581	11.612	0.0006867	2.224	14.993	0.04190	0.472	13.142	0.6447
<i>Hr38</i>	4.244	16.793	0.0005610	0.282	16.374	0.7817	0.234	15.615	0.8182
<i>Hr4</i>	4.899	17.233	0.0001304	0.398	17.051	0.6953	3.379	16.863	0.003598
<i>Hr78</i>	1.015	11.902	0.3303	1.749	16.643	0.09872	2.372	13.715	0.03290
<i>hth</i>	2.972	12.493	0.01122	1.341	12.942	0.2030	4.031	15.236	0.001058
<i>ind</i>	2.469	13.579	0.02752	0.217	16.498	0.8312	3.697	17.948	0.001655
<i>jing</i>	3.938	12.538	0.001817	1.810	17.585	0.08718	0.332	11.712	0.7456
<i>lab</i>	5.338	16.491	6.022*10 ⁻⁵	13.654	11.458	1.930*10 ⁻⁸	0.153	13.550	0.8803
<i>lmd</i>	2.510	12.006	0.02739	0.391	16.754	0.7010	0.051	17.212	0.9602
<i>M1BP</i>	1.635	14.131	0.1242	0.717	17.588	0.4827	0.621	12.961	0.5456
<i>Mad</i>	1.709	12.277	0.1127	2.014	17.432	0.05969	0.580	14.608	0.5706
<i>MBD-like</i>	1.667	11.681	0.1221	0.341	17.974	0.7370	1.806	16.747	0.08896
<i>Met</i>	2.407	13.618	0.03088	0.341	17.625	0.7374	0.595	16.232	0.5599
<i>Mi-2</i>	0.853	14.042	0.4079	1.461	14.527	0.1653	0.478	15.748	0.6391
<i>nej</i>	1.178	14.839	0.2576	1.058	17.769	0.3041	1.191	17.708	0.2493
<i>osa</i>	2.693	11.430	0.02031	1.018	7.759	0.3396	4.080	12.502	0.001407
<i>otp</i>	2.410	13.680	0.03066	1.957	18.000	0.06609	0.215	15.490	0.8325
<i>pdm3</i>	16.752	9.000	4.308*10 ⁻⁸	7.652	14.488	1.846*10 ⁻⁶	8.595	12.549	1.303*10 ⁻⁶
<i>pita</i>	1.250	16.872	0.2283	1.850	17.963	0.08090	1.730	17.497	0.1013
<i>sbb</i>	9.589	15.340	7.120*10 ⁻⁸	3.768	15.166	0.001831	0.986	16.579	0.3383
<i>scrt</i>	1.029	13.442	0.3215	0.337	17.644	0.7400	0.208	16.731	0.8374
<i>slp2</i>	1.615	10.594	0.1357	8.090	17.711	2.343*10 ⁻⁷	3.560	14.005	0.003137
<i>Sox102F</i>	3.698	13.784	0.002444	1.862	17.901	0.07910	1.035	15.809	0.3161
<i>Ssrp</i>	2.112	13.311	0.05409	0.038	17.955	0.9702	2.213	16.283	0.04151

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<i>Su(var)3-7</i>	8.767	17.783	7.158×10^{-8}	0.652	15.095	0.5240	0.925	15.742	0.3689
<i>Su(z)12</i>	1.230	12.628	0.2237	0.757	16.738	0.4597	1.563	15.983	0.1376
<i>tap</i>	4.159	15.565	0.0007804	0.362	17.963	0.7215	2.563	14.207	0.02236
<i>Tip60</i>	1.234	16.801	0.2340	1.368	17.557	0.1886	0.671	15.555	0.5120
<i>tx</i>	2.787	13.508	0.01495	0.378	17.859	0.7102	1.428	16.827	0.1715
<i>ush</i>	7.382	14.569	2.719×10^{-6}	0.802	16.731	0.4340	-2.051	15.363	0.05777

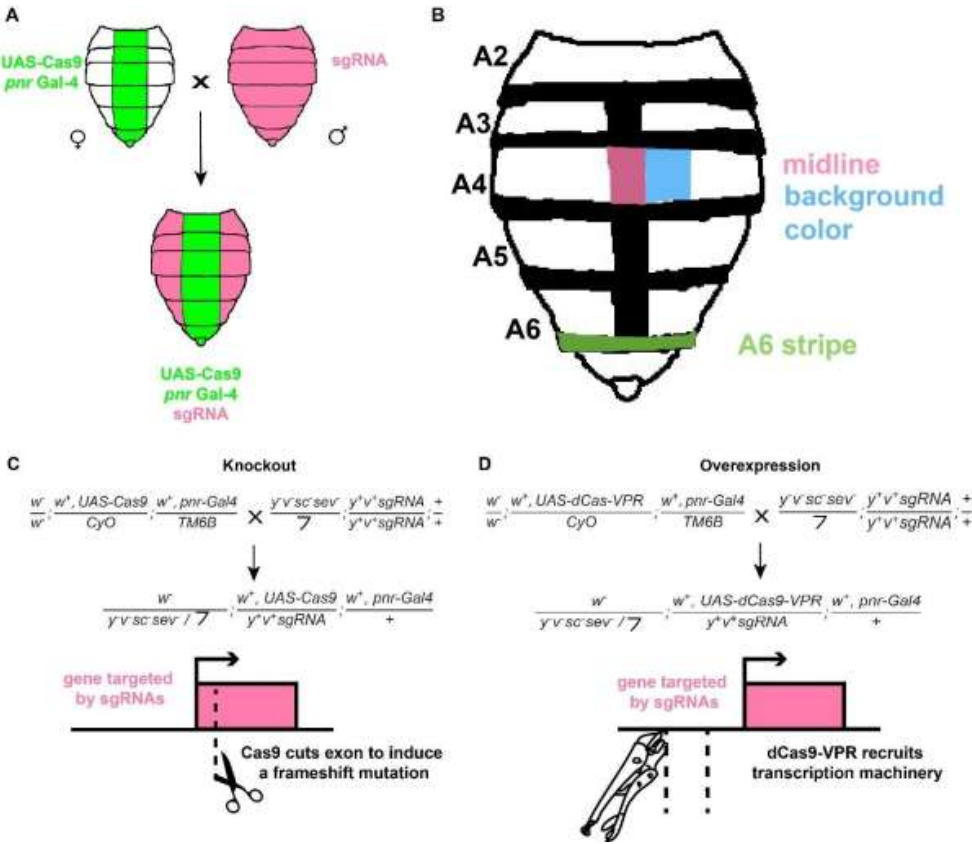
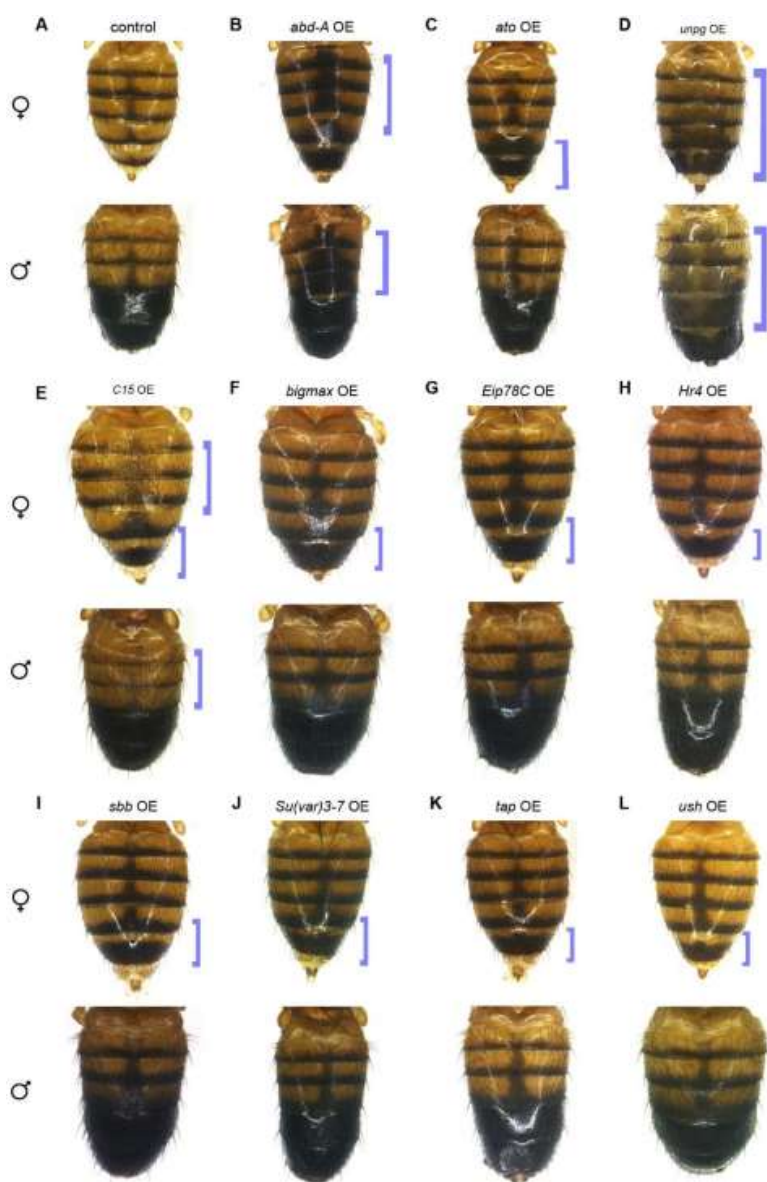


Figure 1. The TRiP transgenic gene editing system can be used for both overexpressing and knocking out genes of interest. (A). Virgin females expressing either Cas9 or deactivated Cas9 fused to the VPR activation domain (dCas9 VPR) expressed in the abdominal midline driven by *pannier* (*pnr*) were crossed to males with ubiquitous single guide RNAs. Progeny who received the Cas9 or dCas9-VPR-Gal4 driver and sgRNA were selected on the absence of dominant markers. (B). Genotypes of the parents and progeny in the knockout cross. (C). Genotypes of the parents and progeny in the overexpression cross. (D). In the knockout crosses, Cas9 can induce a frameshift mutation in the gene targeted by guide RNAs. These mutant gene alleles would produce a nonfunctional protein in the *pnr* expression domain. (E). In the overexpression crosses, dCas9-VPR binds the promoter for a gene targeted by guide

480 (B-G). Gene knockouts featured here are (B) *CG10348*, (C) *doublesex (dsx)*, (D) *Suppressor of*
481 *variegation 2-10 (Su(var)2-10)*, (E) *CG17806*, (F) *scalloped (sd)*, and (G) *space blanket (spab)*.
482 Knockouts for *CG10348* and *dsx* demonstrate decreased pigmentation in the midline and
483 increased pigmentation in the female A5/A6 regions, respectively. *CG17806*, *sd*, and *spab*
484 knockouts resulted in shifts in background coloration. All other knockout crosses did not have
485 significant phenotypes in the areas measured.

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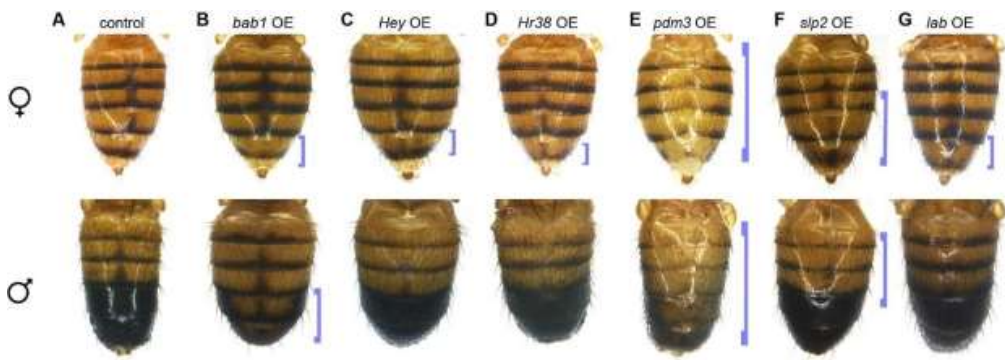
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Figure 4. Overexpression phenotypes with an increase of melanic pigmentation. Progeny of overexpression crosses. Blue brackets highlight some notable increases in dark pigmentation that were observed after imaging multiple samples, but are not representative of quantitative data. (A). Overexpression control abdomens. (B-L). Overexpressed genes featured here are (B) *abdominal-A* (*abd-A*), (C) *atonal* (*ato*), (D) *unplugged* (*unpg*), (E) *C15*, (F) *bigmax*, (G)

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Ecdysone-induced protein 78C (Eip78C), (H) *Hormone receptor 4 (Hr4)*, (I) *scribbler (sbb)*, (J) *Suppressor of variegation 3-7 (Su(var)3-7)*, (K) *target of Poxn (tap)*, and (L) *u-shaped (ush)*.

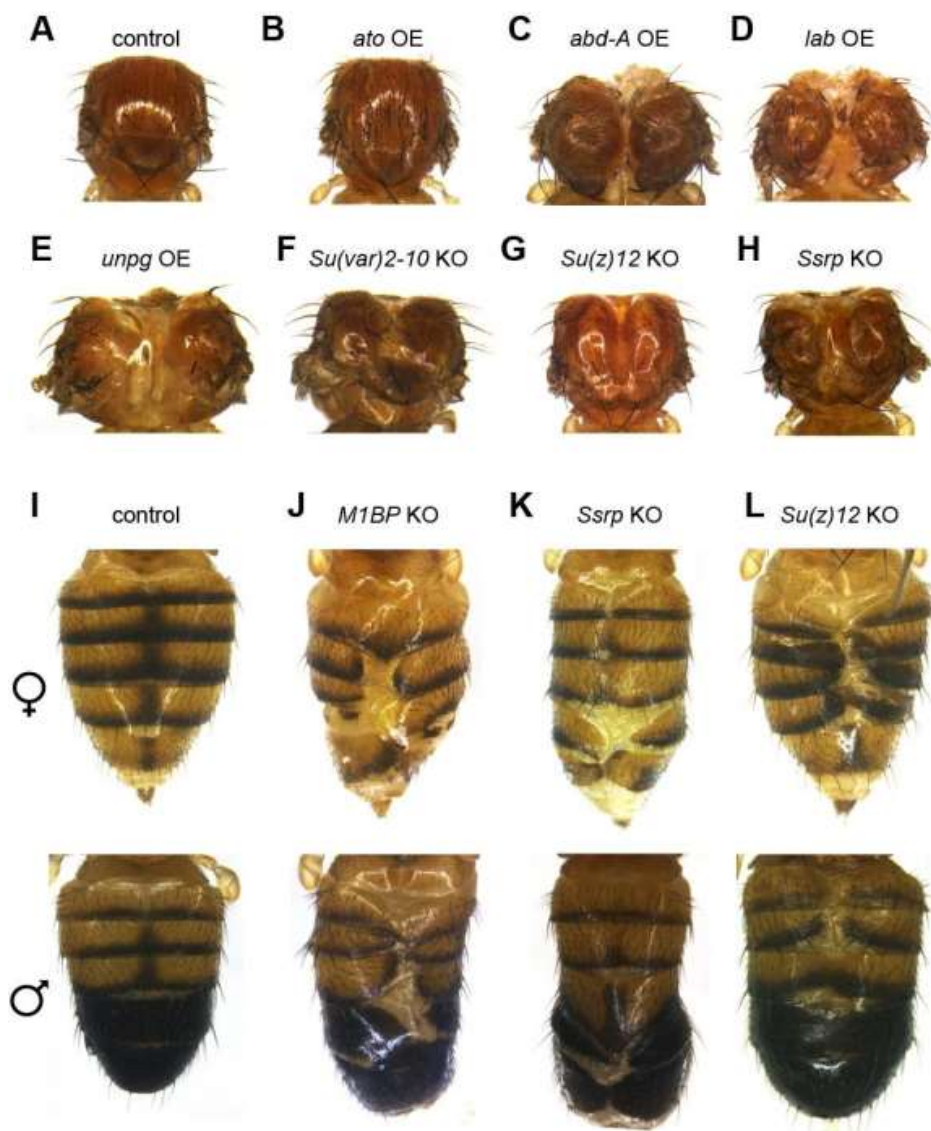


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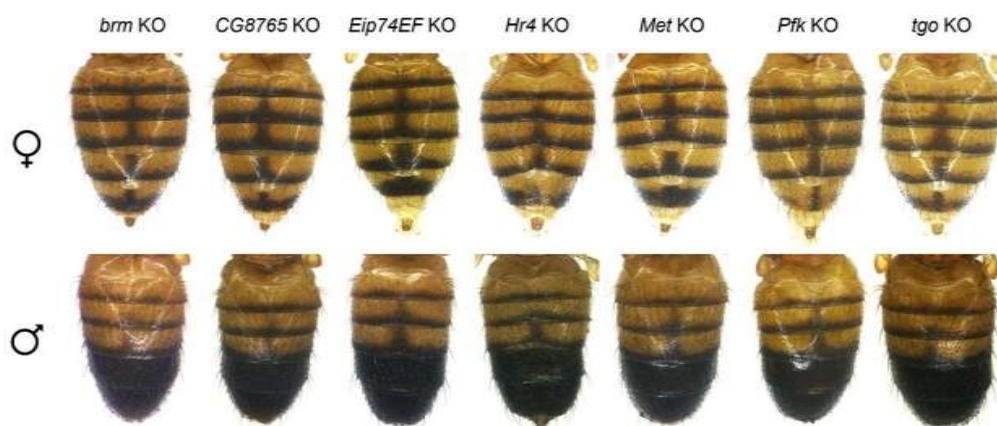
Figure 5. Overexpression phenotypes with a decrease in melanic pigmentation. Progeny of overexpression crosses. Blue brackets highlight some notable decreases in dark pigmentation that were observed after imaging across multiple samples, but are not representative of quantitative data. (A). Overexpression control abdomens. (B-G). Overexpressed genes featured here are (B) *bric-a-brac 1 (bab1)*, (C) *Hairy/E(spl)-related with YRPW motif (Hey)*, (D) *Hormone receptor-like in 38 (Hr38)*, (E) *pou domain motif 3 (pdm3)*, (F) *sloppy paired 2 (slp2)*, and (G) *labial (lab)*.

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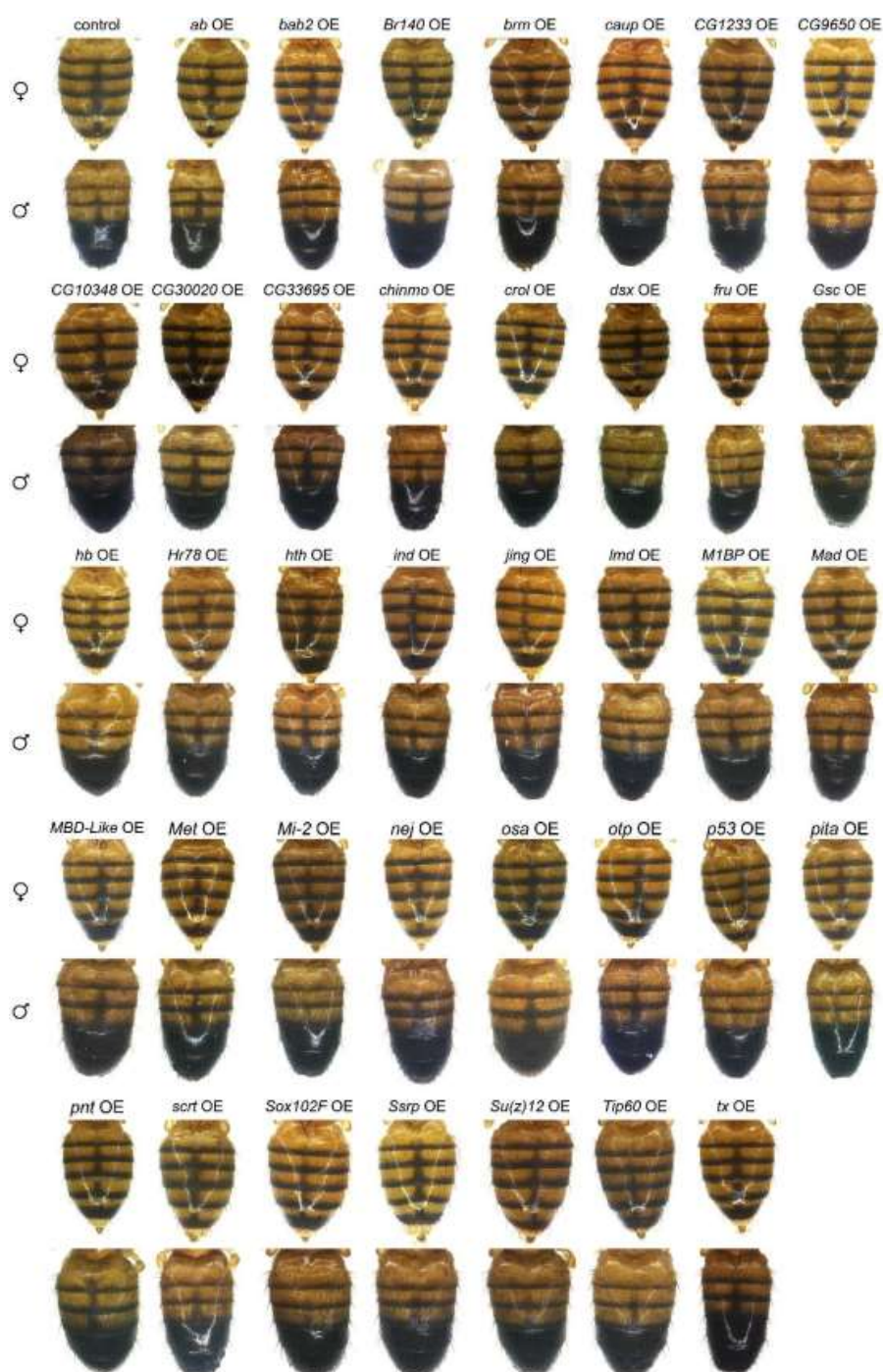
505 **Figure 6. Defects in the development of the thorax and abdomen.** (A). Control thorax. (B).
 506 The gene *atonal* (*ato*) produces additional bristles on the thorax when overexpressed. (C-E).
 507 When overexpressed, the genes (C) *abdominal A* (*abd-A*), (D) *labial* (*lab*), and (E) *unplugged*
 508 (*unpg*) produce a defect in the thorax. (F-H). When knocked out, the genes (F) *Suppressor of*
 509 *variegation 2-7* (*Su(var)2-10*), (G) *Su(z)12*, and (H) *Structure specific recognition protein* (*Ssrp*)
 510 produce a defect in the thorax. (I). Control abdomens. (J-L). When knocked out, the genes (J)
 511 *Motif-1 Binding Protein* (*M1BP*), (K) *Ssrp*, and (L) *Su(z)12* produce a defect in the midline of the
 512 abdomen.



513

514 **Figure S1. Knockout crosses without a detectable phenotype.** Genes shown are *brahma*
 515 (*brm*), *CG8765*, *Ecdysone-induced protein 74EF* (*Eip74EF*), *Hormone receptor 4* (*Hr4*),
 516 *Methoprene-tolerant* (*Met*), *Phosphofructokinase* (*Pfk*), *Su(var)2-10*, and *tango* (*tgo*).

517



519 **Figure S2. Overexpression crosses without a detectable phenotype.** Genes shown are
520 *abrupt (ab)*, *bric-a-brac 2 (bab2)*, *Bromodomain-containing protein 140kD (Br140)*, *brahma*
521 *(brm)*, *caupolican (caup)*, *CG1233*, *CG9650*, *CG10348*, *CG30020*, *CG33695*, *chronologically*
522 *inappropriate morphogenesis (chinmo)*, *crooked legs (crol)*, *doublesex (dsx)*, *fruitless (fru)*,
523 *Goosecoid (Gsc)*, *hunchback (hb)*, *Hormone-receptor-like in 78 (Hr78)*, *homothorax (hth)*,
524 *intermediate neuroblasts defective (ind)*, *jing*, *lameduck (lmd)*, *Motif-1 Binding Protein (M1BP)*,
525 *Mothers against dpp (Mad)*, *Methyl-CpG binding protein domain-like (MBD-like)*, *Methoprene-*
526 *tolerant (Met)*, *Mi-2*, *nejire (nej)*, *osa*, *orthopedia (otp)*, *p53*, *pita*, *pointed (pnt)*, *scratch (scrt)*,
527 *Sox102F*, *Structure specific recognition protein (Ssrp)*, *Su(z)12*, *Tat interactive protein 60kDa*
528 *(Tip60)*, and *taxi (tx)*.



529

530

531 **Figure S3. *doublesex (dsx)* knockouts exhibit a variety of phenotypes in female**
532 **abdomens.** Although all these individuals exhibit phenotypes consistent with our current
533 knowledge of *dsx*, the effectiveness of the knockout appears quite variable from individual to
534 individual.

535 **Data Availability Statement**

536 All data analyses and representative images are contained in this manuscript. All raw image
537 files not featured in this manuscript ~~will be~~ available via FigShare: https://figshare.com/s/8125ce60a2c3aa2381a9_-
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542 and active engagement in class. We would also like to thank the members of the Rebeiz lab for
543 feedback on figures.

544 **Conflict of Interest**

545 All authors have no conflicts of interest to disclose.

546 **Funder Information**

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