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Scaling between cell cycle duration and wing growth is regulated by Fat-Dachsous

signaling in *Drosophila*

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Abstract

The atypical cadherins Fat and Dachsous (Ds) signal through the Hippo pathway to

regulate growth of numerous organs, including the *Drosophila* wing. Here, we find that Ds-Fat

signaling tunes a unique feature of cell proliferation found to control the rate of wing growth. The

duration of the cell cycle increases in direct proportion to the size of the wing, leading to linear

rather than exponential growth. Ds-Fat signaling enhances the rate at which the cell cycle

lengthens with wing size, thus diminishing the linear rate of wing growth. We show that this

results in a complex but stereotyped relative scaling of wing growth with body growth in

Drosophila. Finally, we examine the dynamics of Fat and Ds protein distribution in the wing,

observing graded distributions that change during growth. However, the significance of these

dynamics is unclear since perturbations in expression have negligible impact on wing growth.

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Introduction

A fundamental aspect of animal development is growth. At the organismal level, growth is coupled with morphogenesis and development, and can also be separated into stages with physical constraints (e.g., molting events). At the organ level, growth is coupled with body growth to ensure relative scaling for proper form and function. At the cellular level, growth is interpreted as the decision to divide or not and to increase in size or not. These three levels of growth are integrated with one another to ensure that cells make appropriate growth choices based on feedback from the other two levels.

Growth of the body and its organs are controlled in two ways. The rate of growth over time is internally regulated with an upper limit set independent of such environmental factors as nutrition (Conlon and Raff, 1999). The size setpoint when growth ceases is also internally controlled (Leevers and McNeill, 2005). Typically, the setpoint is reached when the animal transitions to adulthood. The two control processes are linked with one another. For example, *Drosophila* that are deficient in insulin signaling grow slowly and their final size setpoint is smaller than normal (Rulifson et al., 2002). However, sometimes the growth-arrest process compensates for an abnormal growth rate to generate a normal size setpoint (Leevers and McNeill, 2005; Penzo-Mendez and Stanger, 2015).

The wing of *Drosophila* is a well-established model system to study organ growth control. In *Drosophila* larvae, the anlage fated to form the adult wing blade is composed of an epithelial domain embedded within a larger epithelial sheet named the wing imaginal disc or wing disc (Fig. 1A). The anlage, called a wing pouch, is surrounded by wing disc cells that will form the wing hinge and notum, which is the dorsal thorax. Two wing discs reside within the body cavity of a larva (Fig. 1A), and they grow in size as the larva undergoes three successive molts. Wing discs uniformly grow by asynchronous cell division until the animal undergoes the final molt at the end of its third larval instar stage and pupates (Bryant and Levinson, 1985;

Neto-Silva et al., 2009). During pupation, each wing pouch develops into a single adult wing

blade.

Growth control of the wing disc operates through several mechanisms (Nijhout and

Callier, 2015). Hormones such as insulin-like peptides and ecdysone coordinate wing growth

with environmental inputs such as nutrition and molting events (Colombani et al., 2005).

Paracrine growth factors are secreted from a subset of wing disc cells and are transported

through the disc tissue to stimulate cell proliferation (Baena-Lopez et al., 2012). The BMP

morphogen Decapentaplegic (Dpp) and Wnt morphogen Wingless (Wg) are two such growth

factors.

Another signal transduction pathway - the Hippo pathway - also operates to regulate

growth of the wing disc (Pan, 2010; Boggiano and Fehon, 2012). The Hippo pathway is

controlled by two different signals, both of which are locally transmitted. Mechanical stress from

local tissue compression caused by differential growth alters the cytoskeletal tension in wing

disc cells, which in turn regulates the Hippo pathway (Legoff et al., 2013; Rauskolb et al., 2014;

Pan et al., 2016). Increased tension inactivates the Warts kinase, leading to upregulation of the

Yorkie (Yki) transcription factor and growth promotion. A second signal that modulates the

Hippo pathway in wing disc cells is mediated by two atypical cadherin molecules, Fat and

Dachsous (Ds) (Pan, 2010). Ds and Fat are growth inhibitory factors. The two proteins bind to

one another on opposing cell membranes at adherens junctions, and Ds is thought to be a

ligand for Fat in many circumstances (Clark et al., 1995; Ma et al., 2003; Matakatsu and Blair,

2004). However, Ds has receptor-like properties as well (Matakatsu and Blair, 2006). Binding of

Fat and Ds is also modulated by the kinase Four-jointed (Fj) (Ishikawa et al., 2008). When Fat is

activated, it induces the destruction of an unconventional myosin called Dachs (Cho et al., 2006;

Mao et al., 2006; Rogulja et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2016).This derepresses Warts, which then

inhibits Yki from transcribing growth-promoting genes (Cho et al., 2006; Vrabioiu and Struhl,

2015). A prevailing model for Ds signaling to Fat is not via its absolute concentration but by the

steepness of its local concentration gradient (Pan, 2010). Ds is expressed across the wing

pouch in a graded fashion, and if the gradient is steep, growth is stimulated whereas if the

gradient is shallow, growth is inhibited (Rogulja et al., 2008; Willecke et al., 2008).

Various molecular models for wing growth control have been developed in detail.

However, what is unresolved are explanations for how these molecular mechanisms regulate

the macroscopic features of growth. Namely, how do the molecular mechanisms regulate

growth of the different domains of the wing disc: wing pouch, hinge, notum. How do they

regulate the relative scaling of the wing to the body as both are growing in size. How do the

different molecular mechanisms precisely regulate the two key growth control processes: growth

rate and growth arrest.

Here, we focus on Ds-Fat signaling and address these questions with the aim of

connecting the molecular perspective of growth control to a more macroscopic perspective. We

find that Ds-Fat signaling tunes a unique feature of cell proliferation found to control the rate of

wing pouch growth. The duration of the cell cycle increases in direct proportion to the size of the

wing pouch, leading to linear rather than exponential growth. Ds-Fat signaling enhances the rate

at which the cell cycle lengthens with wing size, thus diminishing the linear rate of wing growth.

Duration of the cell cycle is coupled to relative change in Dpp signaling over time (Wartlick et al.,

2011), suggesting that Ds-Fat signaling increases cell sensitivity to fold-changes in Dpp over

time. We show that this results in a complex but stereotyped relative scaling of wing growth with

body growth in *Drosophila*. Finally, we examine the dynamics of Fat and Ds protein distribution

in the wing pouch, observing graded distributions that change during growth. However, the

significance of these dynamics is unclear since perturbations in expression have negligible

impact on wing growth.

Results

Quantitative properties of *Drosophila* larval wing growth

Organ growth in animals is coupled to body growth in complex ways that are specific for both the organ and species (Huxley and Teissier, 1936). We first sought to determine the relationship between growth of the wing and body in *Drosophila melanogaster*. Although previous work has studied this relationship, none have provided a quantitative description of it. Therefore, we measured body size by both wet weight and volume, while we measured wing pouch size by its volume. As expected, measurements of body weight and body volume showed a strong correlation (Fig. 1 - figure supplement 1). To measure wing pouch volume, we generated a 3D stack of confocal microscopic sections of the wing disc and used morphological landmarks (tissue folds) to demarcate the boundary between wing pouch and surrounding notum-hinge. We validated the efficacy of this method by comparing the landmark-defined boundary to the expression boundary of *vestigial*, a selector gene specifically expressed in wing pouch cells (Kim et al., 1996). The landmark method gave wing pouch measurements that were within 95.5% of measurements made by *vestigial* expression (Fig. 1 - figure supplement 2).

We focused our growth study on the third instar larval stage, which occurs over a two-day period. Beginning at 3.0 days after egg laying (AEL), we measured third instar larval bodies and wing discs every 12 hours until the larva-pupa molt. Larval body weight increased linearly from 3.0 to 4.0 days AEL, followed by a 12 hr period of slower growth, and thereafter weight remained constant (Fig. 1B). The time point at which larvae stopped growing (4.5 days AEL) coincided with the time at which they stopped feeding and underwent a 12 hr non-feeding stage (Slaidina et al., 2009). We also monitored weight as larvae underwent their molt into pupae. Weight remained constant during the one-hr white prepupal (WPP) stage and also one hr later at the brown prepupal (BPP) stage (Fig. 1C).

We also measured wing pouch growth. Wing pouch volume increased linearly over time during the early third instar stage and continued to grow during the non-feeding larval stage

(Fig. 1D). This was in contrast to body growth, which ceased at the non-feeding stage.

However, growth of the wing pouch ceased at the larva-pupa molt and its size remained

constant (Fig. 1E). A similar growth trajectory was observed for the notum-hinge although it

stopped growing sometime during the non-feeding stage (Fig. 1 - figure supplement 3A,B). End-

of-growth of the wing pouch was confirmed by phospho-histone H3 (PHH3) staining, which

marks mitotic cells. At larval stages, dividing cells were observed throughout the wing pouch

(Fig. 1 - figure supplement 4A,B), whereas at the WPP stage, dividing cells were only found in a

narrow zone where sensory organ precursor cells undergo two divisions to generate future

sensory organs (Fig. 1 - figure supplement 4C-E).

The scaling of organ growth relative to body growth during development is known as

ontogenetic allometry. For most animal species, allometric growth of organs follows a power law

(Huxley and Teissier, 1936), such that logarithmic transformation of the organ and body size

measurements fits a linear relationship (Fig. 1F). When the organ grows at the same rate as the

body, it exhibits isometric growth (Huxley and Teissier, 1936). When the organ grows at a faster

or slower rate than the body, it has positive or negative allometric growth, respectively (Fig. 1F).

Allometric organ growth in holometabolous insects such as *Drosophila* presents a special

problem arising from the fact that many adult organs derive from the imaginal discs, which are

non-functional in larvae. For this reason, there are fewer constraints on relative scaling, and

allometric growth is freer to deviate from simple scaling laws. For example, in the silkworm, its

wing disc grows linearly with its body while the larva feeds, but then continues its linear growth

after larvae have ceased feeding (Williams, 1980). Thus, its allometric growth has two linear

phases; the first is isometric and the second is positively allometric.

Since ontogenetic allometric growth of the *Drosophila* wing pouch has not been studied,

we plotted wet-weight body measurements versus wing pouch volume measurements taken

from different developmental stages (Fig. 1G). As with silkworms, allometric growth of the wing

pouch had two linear phases, both of which showed positive allometry. The inflection point was

the time when larvae ceased feeding. In contrast, the notum-hinge exhibited simpler linear-like

positive allometric growth (Fig. 1 - figure supplement 3C). Therefore, allometric growth control of

the wing imaginal disc appears to be composed of multiple mechanisms.

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Global gradients of Fat and Ds in the growing wing pouch

One mechanism for growth control of the wing imaginal disc is through the atypical

cadherin proteins Fat and Ds. Both are type I transmembrane proteins with extensive numbers

of extracellular cadherin domains: 34 in Fat and 27 in Ds (Fig. 2A). Qualitative descriptions of *ds*

gene expression in the wing pouch indicate that cells transcribe the gene at different levels

depending upon their position in the pouch (Strutt and Strutt, 2002; Ma et al., 2003). We

confirmed that there is graded transcription across the pouch by using single molecule

fluorescence in situ hybridization (smFISH) (Fig. 2 - figure supplement 1A). A previous model

hypothesized that this generates a Ds protein gradient across the wing pouch, and the gradient

regulates growth by inducing Fat polarization in cells (Pan, 2010). When the Ds gradient

becomes flattened, it leads to growth cessation. If correct, the model suggests that the Ds

protein gradient should become shallow as the wing pouch reaches its final size. To test this, we

used quantitative confocal microscopy to measure endogenous Ds protein tagged with GFP at

its carboxy-terminus (Fig. 2A). Wing discs were co-stained with antibodies directed against

Wingless (Wg) and Engrailed (En) proteins, which mark the wing pouch midlines (Fig. 2 - figure

supplement 2A,B). We measured Ds-GFP across the wing pouch, excluding peripodial signal,

along the two midlines to gain a Cartesian perspective of the 2D expression pattern (Fig. 2 -

figure supplement 2C). We focused our analysis on wing pouches taken from the third instar

larval stage. Beginning at 4.0 days AEL, we measured Ds-GFP in the wing pouch every 12

hours until the larva-pupa molt. We also measured Ds-GFP at the WPP stage of the larva-pupa

molt.

At all timepoints, there was a graded distribution of Ds-GFP along both anterior-posterior

(AP) and dorsal-ventral (DV) axes, high at the margins and low in the center of the pouch (Fig.

2C,D). The gradient was asymmetric along the AP axis, being lower at the A margin than the P

margin. As the pouch grew larger, the Ds gradient appeared to become progressively shallower.

When we normalized all of the Ds-GFP profiles to their corresponding pouch sizes, the profiles

along the AP axis collapsed together (Fig 2E). This occurred because the maximum and

minimum limits of Ds-GFP abundance were conserved as the wing pouch grew. It implies that

dividing cells take up intermediate scalar values from their neighbors during growth, and over

time the steepness of the Ds gradient diminishes. In contrast, along the DV axis the normalized

profiles remained distinct because both maximum and minimum limits of Ds-GFP progressively

diminished as the wing grew (Fig. 2F).

We next turned to quantitative analysis of Fat protein expression. Fat is thought to be

uniformly expressed in the wing pouch, though it has also been described as enriched along the

DV midline (Garoia et al., 2000; Mao et al., 2009). We measured endogenous Fat protein

tagged at its carboxy-terminus with GFP (Fig. 2A and Fig. 2 - figure supplement 2D).

Surprisingly, Fat-GFP had a graded distribution along both the AP and DV axes; low at the

margins and high in the center of the wing pouch (Fig. 2G,H). The gradient profile was opposite

to the one we observed for Ds-GFP. As the pouch grew in size, the Fat gradient appeared to

grow shallower, becoming flat along the AP axis by the WPP stage. When we normalized all of

the Fat-GFP profiles to their corresponding pouch sizes, the profiles did not collapse (Fig

2I,J). The minimum limit of Fat-GFP was conserved but the maximum limit of Fat-GFP

progressively diminished as the wing grew.

The observation of a graded distribution of Fat protein was surprising since it was

reported that *fat* gene transcription is uniform (Garoia et al., 2000). We confirmed this

observation using smFISH (Fig. 2 - figure supplement 1B). We considered the possibility that

the gradient is generated by a post-transcriptional mechanism. To test the idea, we expressed a

fat transgene under the control of a UAS promoter. The transgene's transcription was activated

by Gal4 driven under control of the *daughterless* (*da*) promoter (Fig. 2K). *da-Gal4* is uniformly

expressed in *Drosophila* tissues (Gilbert et al., 2006). The transgenic Fat protein was epitope

tagged for visualization. As a control, cells also expressed Bazooka-mCherry from a second

UAS transgene. We then measured the abundance of tagged Fat and Bazooka across the wing

pouch. Bazooka protein distribution was fairly uniform along the AP axis while Fat protein was

graded in a similar pattern to endogenous Fat (Fig. 2L). Thus, the Fat gradient is generated by a

post-transcriptional mechanism.

Ds is known to physically interact with Fat protein and so it was possible that the Fat

protein gradient was controlled by Ds. To test this, we examined Fat-GFP distribution in a *ds*

mutant background. The magnitude of peak Fat-GFP levels at the wing pouch center was the

same as wildtype but the level of Fat-GFP near the margins was abnormally high (Fig. 2M).

Since Ds levels are highest and most steep near the margins, perhaps Ds inhibits Fat

expression in a dose- or gradient-dependent manner. We also followed Fat-GFP dynamics in

the *ds* mutant. We did not observe the progressive flattening of the Fat-GFP profile to the WPP

wing (Fig. 2 - figure supplement 3A). Instead, the Fat-GFP profile was graded at the WPP stage

and flattened somewhat more by the BPP stage (Fig. 2 - figure supplement 3B). We also tested

whether Fj regulates the Fat expression pattern by examining Fat-GFP in a *fj* mutant. However,

the distribution of Fat-GFP was unchanged in the *fj* mutant (Fig. 2 -figure supplement 3C).

Therefore, Ds regulates the dynamics of Fat protein expression.

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The Ds gradient directly scales with pouch volume

The Ds gradient scales with the size of the wing pouch as measured along the length of

the AP axis of symmetry (Fig. 2E). Since the wing pouch can be approximated as an ellipse, the

scaling we measured was possibly one related to pouch area. However, the wing pouch is a 3D

structure and so Ds gradient scaling might be coupled to wing volume rather than area. To test

this idea, we altered the dimensions of the wing pouch without changing its volume. Perlecan is

a basement membrane proteoglycan required for extracellular matrix functionality across many

tissues (Gubbiotti et al., 2017). Knockdown of perlecan expression by RNAi causes wing disc

cells to become thinner and more elongated due to the altered extracellular matrix in the wing

disc (Kirkland et al., 2020). We used a Gal4 driver under the control of the *actin5C* promoter

(*actin5C-Gal4*) to knock down *trol* gene expression via UAS-RNAi. The *trol* gene encodes

perlecan. We measured the dimensions of the wing pouch at the WPP stage and observed that

actin5C>trol(RNAi) caused a reduction in the area of the wing pouch and an increase in the

thickness of the wing pouch (Fig. 3A,B). The overall change in pouch dimensions had no effect

on wing pouch volume (Fig. 3C). We then measured the Ds-GFP profile at WPP stage and

found *actin5C>trol*(RNAi) had no effect on the gradient (Fig. 3D). Thus, Ds appears to scale

with the volume and not the area of the wing pouch. We also examined Fat-GFP to see if its

dynamics were altered, and found the gradient flattened normally at the WPP stage (Fig. 3E).

Ds gradient might directly scale to wing pouch volume or it might be a consequence of

scaling to another feature such as cell number, which correlates with wing volume. To test this

possibility, we decreased cell number while keeping total volume constant by over-expressing

the cell cycle inhibitor RBF. Using a Gal4 driver under the control of the *engrailed* (*en*) promoter,

a *UAS-RBF* transgene was overexpressed in the posterior (P) compartment of the wing disc.

Previous work had found such overexpression resulted in half the number of cells in the P

compartment but they were two-fold larger in size, such that the P compartment size was

unchanged relative to the anterior (A) compartment (Neufeld et al., 1998). We confirmed that

en>RBF generated fewer and larger P cells, and the ratio of P/A compartment ratio was

unchanged (Fig. 3F,G). Nevertheless, the Ds gradient in the P compartment at WPP stage was

indistinguishable from wildtype (Fig 3H). The Fat gradient also flattened normally at the WPP

stage (Fig. 3I). In summary, the Ds gradient appears to directly scale to wing pouch volume as

the pouch grows in size. Fat gradient flattening also appears to be coupled to pouch volume

rather than cell number or pouch area. Therefore, the dynamics of these atypical cadherins are

coupled to a global physical feature of the wing.

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Fat and Ds regulate allometric wing growth

We next wanted to understand how Fat and Ds regulate growth of the wing pouch. Prior

work had shown that loss-of-function *fat* mutants delay the larva-pupa molt and overgrow the

wing disc (Bryant et al., 1988). We applied our quantitative growth analysis pipeline on loss-of-

function *fat* mutants. Mutant larvae did not stop growing at 4.5 days AEL as wildtype larvae did,

but continued to increase in weight for another day until they entered the non-feeding stage and

pupated (Fig. 4A,B). The mutant larval notum and wing pouch grew at a faster rate than normal,

and at the larva-pupa molt, the wing pouch continued to grow (Fig. 4C,D and Fig. 4 -figure

supplement 1A,B).

Loss-of-function *ds* mutants also delayed the larva-pupa molt but only by 12 hours.

Mutant larvae continued to gain weight past the wildtype plateau, and they only ceased weight

gain at the larva-pupa molt (Fig. 4A,B). The mutant larval notum and wing pouch grew at a rate

comparable to those of wildtype, but their growth period was extended (Fig. 4C and Fig. 4 -

figure supplement 1A). While the mutant notum ceased to grow prior to the larva-pupa molt, the

wing pouch only stopped growing at the BPP stage (Fig. 4D and Fig. 4 - figure supplement 1B).

Allometric growth of the *fat* and *ds* mutant wing pouch was significantly different from

wildtype (Fig. 4E). In wildtype, there are two linear phases to wing allometric growth (Fig. 1G).

Allometric growth of the *ds* and *fat* mutant wing pouches had a first phase that was more

extended than normal and a second phase that was less extended than normal (Fig. 4E).

Similar trends were observed for allometric growth of the notum in these mutants (Fig. 4 -figure

supplement 1C).

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Autonomous effects of Fat and Ds on wing growth

Fat and Ds proteins are extensively expressed throughout the developing *Drosophila*

body, and their loss has clear effects on overall body growth (Mahoney et al., 1991; Clark et al.,

1995). Therefore, we wished to know what the wing-autonomous effects of Fat and Ds are on

allometric growth. We used the *nubbin-Gal4* (*nub-Gal4*) driver, which is expressed in the wing

pouch and distal hinge (Zirin and Mann, 2007), to knock down *fat* and *ds* gene expression via

UAS-RNAi (Fig. 5A). The RNAi resulted in near-complete depletion of Fat and Ds proteins in the

wing pouch (Fig. 5 - figure supplement 1A-D).

As expected, knockdown of either *fat* or *ds* in the wing pouch had no effect on body

growth of larvae, and animals reached a normal final weight setpoint (Fig. 5B,C). The third instar

stage ended at the same time as for wildtype. Knockdown of both *fat* and *ds* together (*nub>fat*

ds(RNAi)) in the wing pouch had a slight effect on larval growth but animals reached their

normal weight setpoint at the normal time (Fig. 5B,C). Thus, *fat* and *ds* are not required in the

wing to limit body growth.

Knockdown of *ds* caused the wing pouch to grow at a faster rate than normal. The wing

pouch was 28% larger at the WPP stage and continued to grow an additional 14% to the BPP

stage (Fig. 5D,E). Knockdown of *fat* had a weak effect; *nub>fat*(RNAi) wings at WPP stage were

approximately 11% larger than controls but were no larger at the BPP stage (Fig. 5D,E). The

weak effect was not due to incomplete knockdown, since increasing the number of *UAS-*

fat(RNAi) transgenes did not lead to more overgrowth (data not shown). Knockdown of both *fat*

and *ds* together resulted in wing growth that resembled growth of *nub>ds*(RNAi), although the

final wing size was slightly larger when both *fat* and *ds* were knocked down (Fig. 5D,E). In

contrast, notum growth in *nub>fat*(RNAi)*, nub>ds*(RNAi)*,* and *nub>fat ds*(RNAi) animals was

similar to controls, which would be expected if the genes were not required in the wing pouch for

notum growth control (Fig. 5 - figure supplement 2). In conclusion, the autonomous effects of *fat*

and *ds* on wing growth were less severe than those of whole-body loss of *fat* and *ds*, suggesting

there are additional, non-autonomous requirements for Fat/Ds in wing growth.

Allometric growth of the wing pouch was also examined (Fig. 5F). Knockdown of *ds*

caused the entire allometric relationship to shift such that *nub>ds*(RNAi) wings were

consistently bigger for their given body size. A similar trend was observed for *nub>fat ds*(RNAi)

wings, although like the *fat* loss-of-function mutant, the first linear phase of allometric growth

was extended (Fig. 5F). In summary, it appears that Ds is required to tune down the allometric

relationship of the wing to the body. Allometric wing growth appears to have little autonomous

need for Fat alone. However, Fat may have some overlapping function with Ds since allometric

growth of *nub>fat ds*(RNAi) wings is slightly different from *nub>ds*(RNAi) wings.

To further explore the autonomous requirements for Fat and Ds, we used *ap-Gal4* to

specifically drive *ds* RNAi in the dorsal (D) compartment of the wing disc (Fig. 5G). This allowed

us to measure growth effects by comparing the affected D compartment to the unaffected

ventral (V) compartment, serving as an internal control. As expected, RNAi resulted in

undetectable Ds protein in the D compartment, though it was detected in the V compartment

(Fig. 5 - figure supplement 1E). We measured the final set-point size of each compartment in

the wing pouch. Knockdown of *ds* caused the D/V ratio of compartment size to increase by 60%

(Fig. 5H). Overall wing pouch size was unaffected by *ap>ds*(RNAi) knockdown (Fig 5I) since

there are mechanisms in which the compartments sense overall pouch size, resulting in

undergrowth of one compartment when there is overgrowth in the other compartment (Diaz-

Benjumea and Cohen, 1993). We also used an *en-Gal4* driver to specifically generate RNAi of

fat or *ds* in the posterior (P) compartment of the wing disc (Fig. 5L). As expected, RNAi resulted

in undetectable Fat and Ds proteins in the P compartment but not the anterior (A) compartment

(Fig. 5 - figure supplement 1F,G). After knockdown, the P/A ratio of compartment size was

increased by 63% and 23% in *en>ds*(RNAi) and *en>fat*(RNAi) wing pouches, respectively (Fig.

5M). This was consistent with wing pouch knockdown of the genes, where *nub>ds*(RNAi) was

more severe than *nub>fat*(RNAi) (Fig. 5D,E). *en>fat ds*(RNAi) showed an increase in the P/A

ratio by 193%, a synergistic effect greater than the sum of effects from knockdown of each

individual gene alone (Fig. 5M). This synergism had not been observed in the *nub-Gal4*

knockdown experiments (Fig. 5D,E). Possibly non-autonomous effects of knockdown in the P

compartment of the notum are influencing wing pouch growth properties. *en>fat*(RNAi),

en>ds(RNAi), and *en>fat ds*(RNAi) affected overall wing pouch size to a lesser extent, with

respective 10%, 19%, and 32% increases (Fig 5N).

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Ds and Fat regulate wing pouch size by affecting cell proliferation

To determine whether Ds regulates cell number, cell size or both, we segmented cells in

the imaged wing pouch of *ap>ds*(RNAi) WPP animals using E-cadherin tagged with mCherry to

outline the apical domains of cells. We used a computational pipeline that segments imaginal

disc cells with >99% accuracy (Gallagher et al., 2022). The number of *ds*(RNAi) cells in the D

compartment was 42% higher than the wildtype control (Fig. 5J). The average size of *ds*(RNAi)

cells in the D compartment, as measured by apical domain area, was unchanged (Fig. 5K).

Thus, the enhanced size of *ds*(RNAi) wing pouches is primarily driven by an increase in cell

number.

Ds might autonomously regulate wing cell number by stimulating apoptosis or by

inhibiting cell proliferation. There is little to no apoptosis reported to occur in the third instar

larval wing pouch (Milan et al., 1997), which we confirmed by anti-caspase 3 staining (data not

shown). To monitor cell proliferation, we developed a method to infer the average cell cycle time

from fixed and stained wing discs. Discs were stained with anti-PHH3, which exclusively marks

cells in M phase of the cell cycle. During the third instar larval stage, sporadic PHH3-positive

cells are uniformly distributed throughout the wing pouch, as expected for uniform asynchronous

proliferation (Fig. 1 - figure supplement 4A,B). Using manual and computational segmentation of

the images, we identified and counted the number of wing cells in M phase and also counted

the total number of wing cells. The ratio of number of M-phase cells to total cells is known as the

mitotic index (*MI*). We found the average time for third instar larval wing pouch cells to transit M

phase to be 20.5 min or 0.34 hr (Fig. 6 - figure supplement 1), which is highly similar to previous

measurements (Wartlick et al., 2011). Therefore, the average cell cycle time T_{cc} can be inferred

as

$$T_{cc} = \frac{0.34\ hr}{MI}$$

We then estimated the average cell cycle time for the wing pouch at various times during

the third instar larval stage. It had been previously reported that there was a progressive

lengthening of the cell cycle over developmental time (Fain and Stevens, 1982; Wartlick et al.,

2011). Our results corroborated these reports but also expanded upon them, finding that the

average cell cycle time linearly scales with wing pouch volume (Fig. 6A). The estimated *scaling*

coefficient (slope of the linear fit) predicts that the cell cycle length increases 16 hr as wing

pouch volume increases by 1 nL.

We then estimated T_{cc} for the wing pouch in which *ds* was knocked down by *nub-Gal4*

driven RNAi. The *nub>ds*(RNAi) cell cycle time linearly scaled with wing pouch volume (Fig.

6B). However, the scaling coefficient for *ds*(RNAi) cells was much smaller than wildtype (*p* = 6.2

x10^{-4}). This meant that cell cycle duration was not lengthening as rapidly as normal and so cell

cycle times were consistently shorter. The shorter cell cycle in *nub>ds*(RNAi) cells would

account for the higher growth rate of the wing pouch size observed for *nub>ds*(RNAi) (Fig. 5D).

We also examined the scaling relationship between cell cycle time and wing pouch

volume when *fat* was knocked down by *nub-Gal4* driven RNAi (Fig. 6C). The scaling coefficient

for *nub>fat*(RNAi) cells was highly similar to the wildtype control. This is consistent with our

observation that wing pouch size in *nub>fat*(RNAi) animals was close to normal (Fig. 5D).

Finally, we examined the scaling between cell cycle time and wing pouch volume when both *ds*

and *fat* were simultaneously knocked down by *nub-Gal4* driven RNAi (Fig. 6D). This resulted in

a much smaller scaling coefficient than normal (*p* = 9.6 x10^{-6}), which was similar to the *ds*(RNAi)

effect on the scaling coefficient (*p* = 0.089 comparing *ds*(RNAi) to *fat ds*(RNAi) (Fig. 6E).

In summary, Fat and Ds regulate a mechanism that couples the duration of the cell cycle

to overall wing pouch size. They are not essential for the coupling mechanism itself but rather

they tune the mechanism so as to ensure the growth rate of the wing is attenuated relative to

the body. This coordinates the relative scaling of the wing to the final body size.

419
The gradients of Fat and Ds protein have little effect on wing pouch growth

Fat and Ds regulate the mechanism by which the cell cycle progressively lengthens as

wing size increases, ensuring a proper allometric growth relationship between wing and body.

As the wing grows in size, the complementary gradients of Fat and Ds protein across the wing

pouch progressively diminish in steepness. These observations suggest a hypothesis that

connects the two; namely, wing growth progressively slows because the Fat and Ds gradients

become shallower, and growth ultimately ceases when the Fat gradient flattens. To test the

hypothesis, we used *nub-Gal4*, which drives graded expression in the larval wing pouch, high in

the center of the pouch and low at the margins (Fig. 7A). Using *nub-Gal4* to express *UAS-ds,*

we were able to reverse the normal Ds protein gradient (Fig. 7B-D and Fig. 7 - figure

supplement 1A). A peak of Ds was centered along the DV axis and skewed towards the anterior

along the AP axis. As larvae reached the end of the third instar, the artificial gradient became

shallower but was still reversed. Interestingly, the reversed Ds gradient caused a change in the

Fat gradient (Fig. 7E). Its peak also became skewed to the anterior and did not normally flatten

at the WPP stage. We then measured growth in the *nub>ds* larvae (Fig. 7 - figure supplement

1B-E). The growth curve of the larval wing pouch was indistinguishable from wildtype, and wing

growth ceased normally at the WPP stage of the larva-pupa molt (Fig. 7 - figure supplement

1D,E). This result suggests that the dynamics of graded Ds expression do not control wing

growth.

The Fat protein profile did not flatten at the WPP stage in *nub>ds* animals, and yet wing

growth ended. It suggests that the flattening of the Fat gradient does not trigger growth

cessation. To further test this idea, we expressed HA-tagged Fat using the *nub-Gal4* driver

without eliminating endogenous Fat (Fig. 7F and Fig. 7 - figure supplement 2A). We monitored

both transgenic and endogenous sources of Fat protein, and found both were distributed across

the wing pouch in a gradient that was highest in the pouch center (Fig 7G,H). Strikingly, both

transgenic and endogenous Fat gradients did not diminish in magnitude as larvae approached

the pupa molt. Moreover, the gradients did not flatten at the WPP stage but only did so at the

later BPP stage. We then examined the growth properties in *nub>fat-HA* animals. The

relationship between the cell cycle time in the *nub>fat-HA* wing pouch and wing pouch size was

indistinguishable from wildtype (Fig. 7I). This was consistent with the observation that final wing

pouch size in *nub>fat-HA* animals was normal (Fig. 7 - figure supplement 2B). In summary, Fat

and Ds gradient dynamics do not appear to play a significant role in wing growth control.

Discussion

Growth control of the *Drosophila* wing utilizes numerous mechanisms, ranging from

systemic mechanisms involving insulin-like peptides and ecdysone secreted from other tissues,

to autonomous mechanisms involving paracrine growth factors (Dpp and Wg), Hippo signaling,

and cadherin molecules such as Fat and Ds. Here, we have focused on the macroscopic

features of Fat and Ds that function in wing growth control. Fat and Ds attenuate the rate of

wing growth so that it properly scales with body growth via a complex allosteric relationship.

They do so by tuning the rate at which the cell cycle progressively lengthens in a linear fashion

as the wing grows in size. This rate of lengthening is enhanced by the actions of Fat and Ds.

It has been long known that the cell cycle in the wing disc slows down, with a cell

doubling time of 6 hr during the second instar increasing to 30 hr by the end of third instar (Fain

and Stevens, 1982; Bryant and Levinson, 1985; Bittig et al., 2009; Martin et al., 2009; Wartlick

et al., 2011). Although this phenomenon is expected to have an impact on the overall rate of

wing growth, the phenomenon has not been extensively studied. It was found that lengthening

of the G2 phase of the cell cycle is primarily responsible for the longer doubling times (Fain and

Stevens, 1982). A more recent study found a link between the cell doubling time and the

morphogen Dpp (Wartlick et al., 2011). Dpp is continually synthesized in a stripe of cells at the

AP midline of the wing disc and is transported to form a stably graded distribution of protein that

is bilaterally symmetric around the midline (Teleman and Cohen, 2000). The Dpp gradient is

maintained over days of larval development, during which its relative size adapts to the

increasing size of the wing disc. The gradient precisely scales to remain proportional to the size

of the growing disc by a mechanism involving the extracellular protein Pentagone and tissue-

scale transport of recycled Dpp after endocytosis (Ben-Zvi et al., 2011; Hamaratoglu et al.,

2011; Wartlick et al., 2011; Wartlick et al., 2014; Zhu et al., 2020; Romanova-Michaelides et al.,

2022). As the gradient scales with the wing, the local concentration of Dpp any wing cell

experiences continuously increases over time (Wartlick et al., 2011).

The doubling time of wing disc cells was found to strongly correlate with this temporal

increase in Dpp concentration, such that an average cell divided when Dpp increased by 40%

relative to its level at the beginning of the division cycle (Wartlick et al., 2011). This correlation

suggests that cell cycle time is defined by a temporal increase in Dpp signaling, a hypothesis

supported by mathematical modeling (Averbukh et al., 2014). The correlation was observed

across larval development, indicating that progressive lengthening of the cell cycle may be

caused by a slowing rate of increase in local Dpp concentration over time.

How then might Fat and Ds tune this relationship? Fat acts through an atypical myosin

named Dachs; loss of the *dachs* gene completely suppresses the overgrowth phenotype of *fat*

mutants (Cho and Irvine, 2004; Mao et al., 2006). Fat signaling inhibits or destabilizes apico-

cortical localization of Dachs protein, consistent with the genetically antagonistic roles played by

fat and *dachs* (Mao et al., 2006; Brittle et al., 2012). Loss of *dachs* also suppresses

overproliferation of wing disc cells when a constitutively-active form of the Dpp receptor protein

is expressed (Rogulja et al., 2008). In contrast, loss of *fat* enhances Dpp signaling within wing

disc cells (Tyler and Baker, 2007). Therefore, it is possible that local Ds and Fat signaling

between cells attenuates their sensitivity to Dpp as a mitogen. It would then require a larger

temporal increase in Dpp concentration to trigger cells to divide. This model is consistent with

our observation that *fat ds* (RNAi) wing cells do not lengthen their cell cycle as rapidly as

normal.

Fat acts through Dachs to regulate the Hippo pathway (Pan, 2010). Dachs physically

binds to Warts when overexpressed in cells and promotes its destruction. It is thought that Fat

signals through Warts to attenuate the nuclear abundance of Yki, thus downregulating

transcription of Yki target genes. What target genes might mediate the effects of Fat and Ds on

cell cycle dynamics in the wing pouch? Target genes such as *myc* and *cycE* regulate the length

of G1 phase (Lee and Orr-Weaver, 2003; Gallant, 2013). However, the length of G2 phase was

found to determine the progressive lengthening of the cell cycle in the wing (Fain and Stevens,

1982). A more likely transcriptional target of Yki might be *bantam*, which indirectly activates

Cdc25, a key regulator of the G2/M transition (Oh and Irvine, 2011; Gerlach et al., 2019).

Hence, Fat signaling could attenuate *bantam* expression and Cdc25 activity, thus expanding the

length of the G2 phase. This mechanism is particularly attractive since the transcriptional

effector of Dpp signaling, Mad, also activates *bantam* transcription (Oh and Irvine, 2011). Yki

and Mad proteins directly bind one another and associate with an enhancer in the *bantam* gene.

Enhancer activity is weaker if Yki is knocked down but Dpp signaling is still present (Oh and

Irvine, 2011). Perhaps Fat and Ds tune the cell cycle time though this common effector gene.

An alternative model is that Fat and Ds control the rate at which Dpp levels increase in

the wing pouch over time. In this model, cells experience a slower rate in the rise of Dpp levels

because of Fat/Ds signaling. Evidence to support the model comes from studies finding that the

dally and *dally-like* (*dlp*) genes are transcriptionally activated by Yki in the wing pouch (Baena-

Lopez et al., 2008). Dally and Dlp are glypicans that contribute to boosting the Dpp morphogen

gradient range, perhaps by ensuring retention of Dpp at the cell surface (Stapornwongkul and

Vincent, 2021). Fat and Ds signaling appears to diminish *dally* and *dlp* expression, and

mutations in *dally* and *dlp* suppress the overgrowth phenotypes of *fat* and *ds* (Baena-Lopez et

al., 2008).

Ds is required in both signal-sending cells as well as signal-responding cells, suggesting

that Ds has both ligand- and receptor-like activities (Casal et al., 2006; Willecke et al., 2008).

We find growth dependence on Ds and Fat is consistent with such complex activities.

Knockdown of Ds alone stimulates growth while knock down of Fat alone does not. Thus, Ds is

not solely acting through Fat to signal cells. Knockdown of both Ds and Fat has a slightly

stronger effect on growth stimulation. Thus, Fat and Ds have overlapping functions in signaling

cells to limit their growth. Absence of both cadherins results in cells having a cell cycle that

lengthens in time at a slower pace than normal.

Ds and Fat have unusual properties for a ligand and receptor. Based on experiments

with clones expressing Ds at different levels than their neighbors, it was suggested that Fat

signaling is regulated by the steepness of a Ds gradient across a field of cells (Rogulja et al.,

2008; Willecke et al., 2008). A steep gradient of Ds inactivates Fat signaling, whereas a shallow

gradient activates Fat signaling. Indeed, we find the natural Ds expression pattern has a graded

distribution with a steep slope in the lateral region of the wing pouch (near the margin) and a

shallow slope in the medial region of the pouch (near the center). This is consistent with

experiments finding Fat primarily inhibits growth in the medial region, where a shallow

distribution of Ds occurs (Schwank et al., 2011). We find that Ds not only regulates Fat activity

but also its abundance. Fat is distributed in a gradient that is complementary to the Ds gradient -

Fat is most abundant in cells where the Ds gradient is lowest and most shallow. Loss of Ds

affects the Fat gradient such that distribution of Fat is uniformly upregulated to peak levels.

Likewise, inversion of the Ds gradient has a similar effect on Fat distribution. These results

suggest that Fat protein levels might be upregulated when cells sense a shallow gradient of Ds.

The graded distribution of Fat protein across the pouch is not stable over time but

becomes progressively flatter as the larva-pupa molt is reached. The significance of these

dynamics is unclear, but the flattening of the Fat gradient is not a trigger for growth cessation.

Since Ds regulates the Fat gradient, perhaps Ds activity is variable over time, leading to these

dynamics.

Materials and Methods

Key Resource Table

Reagent type (species) or resource	Designation	Source or reference	Identifiers	Additional information
Gene (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	*E-cadherin-GFP*	Bloomington *Drosophila* Stock Center	BDSC: 60584 Flybase: FBal0247908	
Gene (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	*E-cadherin-mCherry*	Bloomington *Drosophila* Stock Center	BDSC: 59014 Flybase: FBti0168567	
Gene (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	*sfGFP-sens*	Giri et al., 2020	Flybase: FBal0360102	
Gene (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	*fat^{G-rv}*	Bloomington *Drosophila* Stock Center	BDSC: 1894 Flybase: FBal0004805	
Gene (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	*fat^8*	Bloomington *Drosophila* Stock Center	BDSC: 44257 Flybase: FBal0004794	
Gene (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	*fj^{d1}*	Bloomington *Drosophila* Stock Center	BDSC: 6373 Flybase: FBal0049500	
Gene (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	*fj^{p1}*	Bloomington *Drosophila* Stock Center	BDSC: 44253 Flybase: FBal0049503	
Gene (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	*ds^{UAO71}*	Bloomington *Drosophila* Stock Center	BDSC: 41784 Flybase: FBal0089339	
Gene (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	*ds^{33k}*	Bloomington *Drosophila* Stock Center	BDSC: 1580 Flybase: FBal0028155	
Gene (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	*ds-GFP*	Brittle et al., 2012	Flybase: FBal0344517	Gift from Ken Irvine

Gene (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	*fat-GFP*	Hale et al., 2015	Flybase: FBal0385338	Gift from Helen McNeill
Gene (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	*UAS-fat-HA*	Sopko et al., 2009	Flybase: FBal0239166	Gift from H. McNeill
Gene (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	*UAS-ds*	Matakatsu and Blair, 2004	Flybase: FBal0180099	Gift from Ken Irvine
Gene (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	*UAS-bazooka-mCherry*	Bloomington *Drosophila* Stock Center	BDSC: 65844 Flybase: FBti0183177	
Gene (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	*UAS-fat*(RNAi)	Bloomington *Drosophila* Stock Center	BDSC: 34970 Flybase: FBti0144840	
Gene (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	*UAS-ds*(RNAi)	Bloomington *Drosophila* Stock Center	BDSC: 32964 Flybase: FBti0140473	
Gene (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	*UAS-trol*(RNAi)	Bloomington *Drosophila* Stock Center	BDSC: 29440 Flybase: FBti0129068	
Gene (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	*UAS-RBF*	Bloomington *Drosophila* Stock Center	BDSC: 50747 Flybase: FBti0016888	
Gene (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	*ap-Gal4*	Bloomington *Drosophila* Stock Center	BDSC: 3041 Flybase: FBti0002785	
Gene (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	*nub-Gal4*	Bloomington *Drosophila* Stock Center	BDSC: 42699 Flybase: FBal0277528	
Gene (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	*en-Gal4*	Bloomington *Drosophila* Stock Center	BDSC: 30564 Flybase: FBti0003572	
Gene (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	*da-Gal4*	Bloomington *Drosophila* Stock Center	BDSC: 55850 Flybase: FBti0013991	
Gene (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	*actin5c-Gal4*	Bloomington *Drosophila* Stock Center	BDSC: 3954 Flybase: FBti0012292	
Gene (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	*UAS-GFP-NLS*	Bloomington *Drosophila* Stock Center	BDSC: 4776 Flybase: FBti0012493	
Gene (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	*5xQE-dsRed*	Zecca and Struhl, 2007	Flybase: FBal0219107	Gift from Gary Struhl
Antibody	mouse anti-Wg	Developmental Studies Hybridoma Bank	4D4	IF (1:1000)
Antibody	mouse anti-En	Developmental Studies Hybridoma Bank	4D9	IF (1:15)
Antibody	rat anti-E-cadherin	Developmental Studies Hybridoma Bank	Dcad2	IF (1:10)

				IF (1:1000), Gift from Helen McNeill
Antibody	rat anti-Ds			
Antibody	rat anti-HA	Roche		IF (1:1000)
Antibody	rabbit anti-PHH3	Sigma	H0412	IF (1:400)
Antibody	Goat anti-Rabbit Alexa Fluor 546	Invitrogen	A11035	IF (1:200)
Antibody	Goat anti-Mouse Alexa Fluor 405	Invitrogen	A48255	IF (1:200)
Antibody	Goat anti-Rat Alexa Fluor 647	Invitrogen	A48265	IF (1:200)
Other	18x18 mm number 1.5 coverslip	Zeiss	474030-9000-000	
Other	24x60 mm number 1.5 coverslip	VWR	48393-251	
Chemical compound, drug	Vectashield Plus	Vector Labs	H-1900	
Chemical compound, drug	4′,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI)	Life Technologies	D1306	
Chemical compound, drug	Triton X-100	Sigma Aldrich	T9284-500ML	
Chemical compound, drug	Paraformaldehyde (powder)	Polysciences	00380–1	
Software, algorithm	ImSAnE MATLAB software	Heemskerk and Streichan, 2015	https://github.com/idse/imsane	
Software, algorithm	Trained CNN model for pixel classification of epithelial fluorescence confocal data	Gallagher et al., 2022	https://drive.google.com/drive/folders/1I-nRpn1esRzs5t4ztgbNvkBQuTN2vT7L?usp=sharing	
Software, algorithm	MATLAB pipeline to estimate larval volume	This paper	https://github.com/andrewliu321/LarvaSeg	
Software, algorithm	MATLAB pipeline to measure protein fluorescent intensity in the wing pouch	This paper	https://github.com/andrewliu321/ProteinIntensity	

Experimental model and subject details

Animals were raised at 25°C under standard lab conditions on molasses-cornmeal fly

food. Only males were analyzed in experiments. For staged collections, 100 adult females were

crossed with 50 adult males and allowed to lay eggs for 4 hours (6 pm to 10 pm) in egg-laying

cages with yeast paste. First-instar larvae that hatched between 7 and 9 pm the following day

were collected, thus synchronizing age to a 2-hour hatching window. Approximately 200 - 300

larvae were transferred into a bottle. Third-instar larvae were collected from the bottle every 12

hours at 8 am and 8 pm, from 3.5 days after egg laying (AEL) until pupariation (i.e., 5 days for

wildtype). We also collected animals at the white-prepupae (WPP) stage and the brown-

prepupae (BPP) stage. The BPP stage is 1 hour after the WPP stage, when the pupal case

begins to turn brown (Bainbridge and Bownes, 1981).

Collected animals were weighed in batches of 5 individuals to account for instrument

sensitivity. They were individually photographed using a Nikon SMZ-U dissection scope

equipped with a Nikon DS-Fi3 digital camera at 1920 x 1200 resolution with a 8 μm x-y pixel

size. Length and width were measured in a custom-built Matlab pipeline as follows. The outline

of the body was recorded with manual inputs. The midline was calculated by the Matlab bwskel

function and manually corrected. The midline was recorded as the length. At every pixel along

the midline, a perpendicular line was computed, and the width recorded. The mean width was

then calculated. We approximated the volume of each larva by treating it as a cylinder and using

the measured length and average width of the larva for length and diameter, respectively.

Genetics

fat-GFP (Hale et al., 2015) and *ds-GFP* (Brittle et al., 2012) are tagged at their ORF carboxy-

termini within the respective endogenous genes. This had been done using homologous

recombination and pRK2 targeting vectors. The *vg 5xQE-dsRed* transgenic line expresses

fluorescent protein specifically in wing pouch cells (Kim et al., 1996; Zecca and Struhl, 2007). To

mark proneural cells in the wing pouch, we used *sfGFP-sens* (Giri et al., 2020), which is a N-

terminal tag of GFP in the *senseless* (*sens*) gene. To count cell numbers we used either *E-*

cadherin-GFP, which has GFP fused at the carboxy-terminus of the ORF in the endogenous

shotgun gene, or *E-cadherin-mCherry*, which has mCherry fused at the endogenous carboxy-

terminus (Huang et al., 2009).

583   Loss of function *fat* alleles used were: fat^8, with a premature stop codon inserted at

S981; and $fat^{G\text{-}rv}$, with a premature stop codon at S2929 (Matakatsu and Blair, 2006). Loss of

function *ds* alleles used were: ds^{33k}, derived by X-ray mutagenesis and expected to produce a

truncated protein without function; and ds^{UAO71}, derived by EMS mutagenesis and presumed to

be amorphic (Clark et al., 1995; Adler et al., 1998). Loss of function *fj* alleles used were: fj^{p1}, in

which P{LacW} is inserted into the 5' UTR; and fj^{d1} in which sequences accounting for the N-

terminal 100 amino acids are deleted. For all experiments using loss of function mutants, we

crossed heterozygous mutant parents to generate trans-heterozygous mutant offspring for

study. This minimized the impact of secondary mutations on phenotypes.

592   To measure expression driven by *nub-Gal4* (Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center

BDSC # 42699), we used *UAS-GFP-NLS* (BDSC # 4776). To change Ds expression, *fat-GFP*,

nub-Gal4 flies were crossed to *fat-GFP*; *UAS-ds* flies. *UAS-ds* (Matakatsu and Blair, 2004) was

a gift from Ken Irvine. To change Fat expression, *fat-GFP*, *nub-Gal4* flies were crossed to *fat-*

GFP, *UAS-fat-HA* flies. *UAS-fat-HA* expresses Fat with a C-terminal HA tag (Sopko et al.,

2009). To test whether Fat expression is transcriptionally regulated, *fat-GFP*; *da-Gal4* flies were

crossed to *fat-GFP*, *UAS-fat-HA*; *UAS-Bazooka-mCherry*. *da-Gal4* (BDSC # 55850) and *UAS-*

Bazooka-mCherry (BDSC # 65844) were used.

600   To knockdown Fat in the wing pouch and distal hinge, *fat-GFP*, *nub-Gal4* flies were

crossed to *fat-GFP*; *UAS-fat-RNAi* flies. The RNAi vector is a TRiP Valium 20 (BDSC # 34970).

To knockdown Ds in the wing pouch and distal hinge, *fat-GFP*, *nub-Gal4* flies were crossed to

fat-GFP; *UAS-ds-RNAi* flies. The RNAi vector is a TRiP Valium 20 (BDSC # 32964). To

knockdown both genes, *fat-GFP*; *UAS-fat-RNAi*, *UAS-ds-RNAi* flies were crossed to *fat-GFP*,

nub-Gal4 flies. To knockdown Fat specifically in the posterior compartment, *fat-GFP*, *en-Gal4*

flies were crossed to *fat-GFP*; *UAS-fat-RNA* flies. *en-Gal4* flies were from BDSC # 30564. To

knockdown Ds specifically in the posterior compartment, *ds-GFP*, *en-Gal4* flies were crossed to

ds-GFP; *UAS-ds-RNAi* flies. To knockdown both genes, *fat-GFP*; *UAS-fat-RNAi*, *UAS-ds-RNAi*

were crossed to *fat-GFP*, *en-Gal4* flies. To knockdown Ds specifically in the dorsal

compartment, *ds-gfp, ap-Gal4* flies (BDSC # 3041) were crossed to *E-cadherin-mCherry*; *UAS-*

ds-RNAi flies.

To alter cell number, *en-Gal4* flies were crossed to *UAS-RBF* (BDSC # 50747). The

crosses also carried either *ds-GFP* or *fat-GFP* so that resulting animals had two copies of each

gene. To alter wing disc area and thickness, *actin5c-Gal4* (BDSC # 3954) flies were crossed to

UAS-trol-RNAi flies. The RNAi line is a TRiP Valium 10 (BDSC # 29440). The crosses also

carried either *ds-GFP* or *fat-GFP* so that resulting animals had two copies of each gene.

Immunohistochemistry

Wing discs were fixed in 4% (w/v) paraformaldehyde in PBS at room temperature for 20

min and washed three times for 5-10 min each with PBS containing 0.1% (v/v) Triton X-100

(PBSTx). The following primary antibodies were used: rat anti-Ds (1:1,000, a gift from Helen

McNeill), mouse anti-Wg (1:1000, Developmental Studies Hybridoma Bank DHSB # 4D4),

mouse anti-En (1:15, DHSB # 4D9), rat anti-HA (1:1000, Roche), rat anti-E-cadherin (1:10,

DHSB # Dcad2), and rabbit anti-PHH3 (1:400, Sigma # H0412). All antibodies were diluted in

PBSTx and 5% (v/v) goat serum and incubated overnight at 4°C. After 5 washes in PBSTx,

discs were incubated at room temperature for 90 min with the appropriate Alexa-fluor secondary

antibodies (Invitrogen #'s A11035, A48255, or A48265) diluted 1:200 in PBSTx and 5% goat

serum. After 3 washes in PBSTx, between 5 - 40 wing discs were mounted in 40 µL of

Vectashield Plus between a 18x18 mm number 1.5 coverslip (Zeiss # 474030-9000-000) and a

24x60 mm number 1.5 coverslip (VWR # 48393-251). Mounting between two coverslips allowed

the samples to be imaged from both directions. The volume of mounting media used was critical

so that discs were not overly compressed by the coverslips. Compression led to fluorescent

signals from the peripodial membrane to be too close in z-space to the disc proper, making it

difficult to distinguish the two during image processing.

Single molecule fluorescence in situ hybridization (smFISH)

A set of 45 non-overlapping oligonucleotide probes complementary to the GFP sense sequence

were labeled with Alexa 633. The set is described in Bakker et al. (2020). We used the protocol

of Bakker et al. (2020) to detect *fat-GFP* and *ds-GFP* mRNAs in wing discs. Discs were

counterstained with DAPI to visualize nuclei and mounted in Vectashield.

Live disc imaging

Wing discs were dissected from third instar larvae bearing two copies of *E-cadherin-GFP*.

These were cultured ex-vivo in live imaging chambers following the protocol exactly as

described in Gallagher et al. (2022). The samples were imaged using an inverted microscope

(Leica DMI6000 SD) fitted with a CSU-X1 spinning-disk head (Yokogawa) and a back-thinned

EMCCD camera (Photometrics Evolve 512 Delta). Images were captured every 5 minutes with

a 40x objective (NA = 1.3) at 512 x 512 resolution with a 0.32 μm x-y pixel size.

Image acquisition of fixed samples

All experiments with fixed tissues were imaged using a Leica SP8 confocal microscope.

Whole wing discs were imaged using a 10x air objective (NA = 0.4) and 0.75x internal zoom at

1024 x 1024 resolution, with a 1.52 μm x-y pixel size. Wing pouches were imaged using a 63x

oil objective (NA = 1.4) and 0.75x internal zoom at 1024 x 1024 resolution, with a 0.24 μm x-y

pixel size and 0.35 μm z separation. Scans were collected bidirectionally at 600 MHz and were

3x line averaged in the following channels to detect: anti-PHH3 (blue), Fat-GFP and Ds-GFP

(green), anti-Wg and anti-En (red), and anti-HA or anti-Ds or anti-E-cadherin (far red). Wing

discs of different genotypes and similar age were mounted on the same microscope slide and

imaged in the same session for consistency in data quality.

Image processing

Raw images were processed using a custom-built Matlab pipeline with no prior

preprocessing. The pipeline consists of several modules: 1) surface detection, 2) wing disc,

pouch, and midline segmentation, 3) volume measurement, 4) fluorescence intensity

measurement, 5) cell segmentation, 6) mitotic index measurement.

1) Surface detection. Fat-GFP and Ds-GFP proteins localize to the apical region of cells in the

wing disc proper. These proteins are also localized in cells of the peripodial membrane, which is

positioned near the apical surface of the disc proper. In order to get a 2D projection of the signal

in the wing disc proper excluding the peripodial membrane signal, we used an open-source

software package called ImSAnE – Image Surface Analysis Environment (Heemskerk and

Streichan, 2015). The detailed parameters we used have been previously described (Gallagher

et al., 2022). Briefly, we used the MIPDetector module to find the brightest z-position of every xy

pixel followed by tpsFitter to fit a single layer surface through these identified z-positions. Using

the onionOpts function in ImSAnE, we output a 9-layer z-stack, 4 layers above and below the

computed surface that capture the entire signal from the wing disc proper. However, this

operation still sometimes includes fluorescence signals from the peripodial membrane.

Therefore, we manually masked the residual peripodial signal using FIJI 1.53t. The resulting z-

stack was sum-projected to form a 2D surface projection of the wing disc proper.

2) Wing disc, pouch, and midline segmentation. Wing discs were counterstained for both Wg

and En proteins, which mark the wing pouch dorsal-ventral (DV) midline and anterior-posterior

(AP) midline, respectively. Although both Wg and En proteins were stained with the same Alexa

546 fluorescent antibody, the two signals were readily distinguished by their distinct separation

in z space. Wg is apically localized in cells of the disc proper and En is nuclear localized more

basally in the disc proper. Moreover, the Wg signal was far stronger than En, allowing for

detection of its stripe in the posterior compartment even with a max projection.

We built a semi-automated Matlab script that computationally segments the wing disc

into discrete objects. i) *Wing disc segmentation*. Endogenous Fat-GFP or Ds-GFP signal was

used to segment the wing disc from surrounding media. ii) *Wing pouch segmentation.* The 3D

morphology of the wing disc creates narrow and deep tissue folds that surround the wing pouch

(Fig. 1 - figure supplement 2A). Using these morphological landmarks that were visualized by

the Fat-GFP or Ds-GFP signals, the Matlab script recorded user-derived mouse-clicks that

defined the wing pouch boundary. This method was validated to be 95.5% accurate when

compared to a wing pouch boundary that was defined by the expression boundary of a reporter

for the *vestigial* quadrant enhancer, *5x-QE-DsRed* (Fig. 1 - figure supplement 2B,C). iii) *DV*

midline segmentation. The Wg signal was used to segment the DV midline running through the

segmented wing pouch. Since the Wg and En signals are distinguishable in z space, the upper

third of the z-stack was max projected to segment Wg. An adaptive threshold of 0.6 was used to

binarize the image into Wg-positive pixels. The binarized and raw images were used to inform

manual input of the DV midline. iv) *AP midine segmentation.* The En signal was used to

segment the AP midline running through the segmented wing pouch. The lower two-thirds of the

z-stack was max projected and binarized in En+ pixels. The binarized and raw images were

used to inform manual input of the AP midline.

3) Volume measurement. Areas of each of the segmented objects were calculated by

summing the number of pixels in each object and multiplying by the pixel dimensions in xy

physical space. Notum-hinge area was calculated by subtracting the segmented pouch area

from total segmented wing disc area. The thickness of the wing pouch was measured at the

intersection of the AP and DV midlines using the orthogonal views tool in FIJI. The first layer is

defined by the initial signal of Fat-GFP or Ds-GFP at this xy position. The last layer is defined by

the first appearance of background signal in the composite image. Thickness of the object was

calculated by multiplying the sum of z-slices by the z-separation. To calculate the volume of

segmented objects, we multiplied the thickness of the object (in µm) by the object's surface area

(in $µm^2$). Conversion from $µm^3$ to nL units was performed.

4) Fluorescence intensity measurement of Fat-GFP and Ds-GFP. Fluorescence intensity

values were averaged across a vector of 50 pixels length that was orthogonal to the segmented

boundary of interest and having 25 pixels residing on each side of the segmented line. These

values were then averaged in a sliding window of 100 pixels length that moved along the

segmented boundary of interest. Physical distance along the boundaries were measured using

ImSAnE function Proper_Dist to account for the curvature of the segmented objects. The

intersection of the segmented DV and AP midlines was defined as the center (0,0 µm) of the

wing pouch, with the anterior/dorsal annotated in units of negative µm and the posterior/ventral

annotated in units of positive µm. A minimum of three wing discs of the same age and genotype

were aligned by their (0,0) centers and their fluorescent measurements were averaged along

the AP and DV midlines.

Older third instar, WPP, and BPP wing discs begin to evert such that the ventral

compartment is partially folded underneath the dorsal compartment. However, the ventral

compartment can still be accurately segmented to measure area and thickness even under

these conditions. For GFP measurements, the folded specimen resulted in dimmer fluorescent

signals from the compartment farthest from the objective due to tissue thickness and light

scattering. Thus, measurements were limited to the compartment closest to the objective.

5) Cell boundary segmentation. To count cell numbers and cell sizes in the wing pouch, we analyzed wing discs imaged from *E-cadherin-GFP* or *E-cadherin-mCherry* larvae. We used a machine learning pixel-classification model based on a convolutional neural net to segment cell boundaries in the surface projections. This model was trained on a broad range of image data derived from Cadherin-GFP labeled *Drosophila* imaginal discs (Gallagher et al., 2022). The model is > 99.5% accurate at segmenting cells when compared to ground truth. Cell size (surface area) and number were computed for specific compartments in the wing pouch.

6) Mitotic index measurement. Phospho-histone H3 (PHH3) has been used to estimate mitotic index previously (Wartlick et al., 2011). Wing discs were immunostained for PHH3, which labels nuclei undergoing mitosis. These nuclei were manually recorded by user-defined mouse clicks at or near the center of each nucleus. Their Euclidean distances relative to the segmented AP and DV midlines were calculated as was the number of PHH3+ cells. To estimate the total cell number in a wing pouch, we used E-cadherin to computationally segment cells as described above. Each imaged wing pouch had a subset of cell boundaries segmented in a subdomain of the pouch. This was then used to calculate cell density: number of segmented cells divided by subdomain area. The density value was multiplied by total wing pouch area to estimate the total number of wing pouch cells for that sample. We then derived an averaged conversion factor to apply to each volume measurement in order to estimate total cell number. This was done by plotting the estimated total cell number versus wing pouch volume for all discs of a given genotype. Linear regression of the data produced an equation to convert pouch volume to cell number (Table 1).

Table 1 Summary statistics of linear regressions

	Total Cell Number = β_0 + β_1Pouch Volume			
Genotype	β_0	β_1	R^2	p
nub-Gal4	352.0 ±187.7	7261.3 ± 355.2	0.95	8.43E-16

nub>ds(RNAi)	653.9 ± 191.0	4533.5 ± 221.5	0.95	8.19E-16
nub>fat(RNAi)	1060.1 ±423.6	7219.3 ± 686.0	0.87	1.34E-08
nub>ds fat(RNAi)	1890.1 ± 648.3	5673.6 ± 555.2	0.82	5.07E-10
nub>fat-HA	2321.5 ± 324.4	5212.9 ± 516.4	0.80	2.65E-10

The number of PHH3+ cells in a wing pouch was divided by the estimated cell number in

that wing pouch to obtain the mitotic index, the fraction of cells in M phase at the time of fixation.

Average M phase time, measured by live-imaging, was divided by the mitotic index to obtain the

average cell cycle time.

Statistical analysis

Statistical tests included two-tailed Student's t-tests to compare between genotypes. We

conducted linear regression modeling to fit pouch volume as an independent variable and cell

cycle time as a dependent variable. To statistically test for differences between genotypes, we

used a multiple linear regression model:

$$T_{cc} = \beta_0 + (\beta_1 \; x \; Volume) + (\beta_2 \; x \; Genotype) + (\beta_3 \; x \; Volume \; x \; Genotype)$$

Genotype was entered into the model as a covariate to test for differences in intercepts of the

fits. Interaction of volume x genotype was entered to test for differences in slope of the fits.

Linear regression models were plotted with 95% confidence intervals.

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Figure Legends

Figure 1. Allometric growth of the wing pouch in *Drosophila*.

(A) Schematic depicting relative size of the wing imaginal discs inside a larva starting from 3 days after egg laying (AEL). The wing pouch (blue) begins everting during larva-pupa molt and eventually becomes the adult wing blade. The notum and hinge (red) surrounding the wing pouch becomes the wing hinge and notum of the adult.

(B) Wet-weight of third instar larvae as a function of age measured every 12 hours. Lines connect average weight measurements, and the shaded region denotes the standard error of the mean.

(C) At 5 days AEL, the larva-pupa molt begins. Wet-weight of wildtype animals at early pupariation stages. Lines connect average weight measurements, and the shaded region denotes the standard error of the mean.

(D) Volume of the wing pouch as a function of age. Lines connect average volume measurements and the shaded region denotes the standard error of the mean.

(E) Volume of wing pouch at early pupariation stages. Lines connect average volume measurements and the shaded region denotes the standard error of the mean.

(F) Schematic depicting isometric growth (green arrow) where growth rates of the organ (wing) and the body are the same, positive allometric growth (orange arrow) where the organ is growing faster than the body, and negative allometric growth (magenta arrow) where the organ is growing slower than the body.

(G) Allometric growth relationship of the wing pouch versus body weight. Dashed line depicts the trajectory for an isometric growth curve. Error bars denote standard error of the mean.

Figure 1 - figure supplement 1. Measured volume of individuals correlates with measured weight throughout the third instar larval and WPP stages. Since the weight of 1 µL water is 1 mg, the wet weight predicted by volume measurements is close to the measured weight. The strong correlation is independent of age and genotype of measured individuals. Genotypes listed are described later in the Results.

Figure 1 - figure supplement 2. Validation of method in defining the wing pouch boundary.

(A) Confocal image of E-cadherin-GFP in a wing disc, which displays folds in the epithelium as morphological landmarks that define the wing pouch. In magenta is the marked wing pouch boundary.

(B) Confocal image of wing disc expression of the *vestigial* gene reporter *5x-QE-dsRed*, which is specifically expressed in the wing pouch. In magenta is the marked wing pouch boundary.

(C) Comparison of wing pouch area measured in third instar larval wing discs using the two methods. Dotted line shows outcome if both methods were in perfect agreement (slope = 1.0000). Linear regression of the measurement data shows the two methods are in strong agreement (slope = 0.9554).

Figure 1 - figure supplement 3. Allometric growth of the notum-hinge in *Drosophila*.

(A) Area of the larval notum-hinge as a function of age. Lines connect average area
measurements, and the shaded region denotes the standard error of the mean.

(B) Area of the notum-hinge at early pupariation stages. Lines connect average area
measurements, and the shaded region denotes the standard error of the mean.

(C) Allometric growth relationship of the notum-hinge versus body weight. Dashed line
depicts the trajectory for an isometric growth curve. Error bars denote standard error of
the mean.

Figure 1 - figure supplement 4. Pattern of cell proliferation in the wing pouch as it ages.

(A) Confocal image of a 4-day old larval wing pouch stained with anti-En and anti-Wg on the
left and anti-PHH3 on the right. Wg and En label the AP and DV axes, respectively. The
pouch boundary is highlighted with a magenta dashed line while the AP axis is illustrated
with cyan dashed line. Scale bar is 50 micrometers.

(B) Centroid positions of PHH3-positive nuclei in the 4-day old larval wing pouch are plotted
to show the distribution of cell divisions in the wing pouch. Three wing replicates are
shown in different colors. Magenta dashed line illustrates a typical wing pouch.

(C) Confocal image of a WPP wing pouch stained with anti-En and anti-Wg on the left and
anti-PHH3 on the right. The pouch boundary is highlighted with a magenta dashed line
while the AP axis is illustrated with cyan dashed line. Scale bar is 50 micrometers.

(D) Centroid positions of PHH3-positive nuclei in the WPP wing pouch are plotted to show
the distribution of cell divisions in the wing pouch. Three wing replicates are shown in
different colors. Magenta dashed line illustrates a typical wing pouch. Note the
concentration of dividing cells along the AP axis of symmetry, where sensory organ
precursor cells are dividing.

(E) Confocal images of a wing pouch from a WPP stage animal stained for anti-PHH3 (left),
sfGFP-Senseless (Sens) (center), and the merge (right). Sens is expressed in cells fated
to become sensory organ precursors, each of which undergo two rounds of cell division
to form a sensory bristle. At the WPP stage, the only cells actively dividing are those with
high Sens expression. Scale bar is 50 micrometers.

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Figure 2. Dynamics of Ds and Fat protein distributions across the wing pouch.

(A) Schematic representation of E-cadherin, Fat and Ds protein structures, which are
endogenously tagged with GFP at the C-terminus. Adapted from Tanoue and Takeichi,
2005.

(B) Schematic of the wing disc depicting the anterior-posterior (AP, blue) and dorsal-ventral
(DV, red) axes of symmetry.

(C) Moving line average of Ds-GFP fluorescence as a function of position along the AP axis.
Shown are profiles from wing pouches of different ages, as indicated. Shaded regions
for each profile represent the standard error of the mean.

(D) Moving line average of Ds-GFP fluorescence as a function of position along the DV axis.
Shown are profiles from wing pouches of different ages, as indicated. Shaded regions
for each profile represent the standard error of the mean. In the WPP, the pouch begins
everting and only a portion of the ventral compartment is visible.

(E) Moving line average of Ds-GFP fluorescence as a function of position along the AP axis normalized to the total distance of the axis. Shown are profiles from wing pouches of different ages, each normalized independently.

(F) Moving line average of Ds-GFP fluorescence as a function of position along the DV axis normalized to the total distance of the axis. Shown are profiles from wing pouches of different ages, each normalized independently.

(G) Moving line average of Fat-GFP fluorescence as a function of position along the AP axis. Shown are profiles from wing pouches of different ages, as indicated at right. Shaded regions for each profile represent the standard error of the mean.

(H) Moving line average of Fat-GFP fluorescence as a function of position along the DV axis. Shown are profiles from wing pouches of different ages, as indicated at right. Shaded regions for each profile represent the standard error of the mean.

(I) Moving line average of Fat-GFP fluorescence as a function of position along the AP axis normalized to the total distance of the axis. Shown are profiles from wing pouches of different ages, each normalized independently.

(J) Moving line average of Fat-GFP fluorescence as a function of position along the DV axis normalized to the total distance of the axis. Shown are profiles from wing pouches of different ages, each normalized independently.

(K) Schematic of the *da-Gal4* driver, active everywhere in the wing disc, expressing *UAS-fat-HA* and *UAS-bazooka-mCherry*.

(L) Moving line averages of Fat-HA (red) and Bazooka-mCherry (brown) fluorescence along the normalized AP axis in third instar larval wing pouches. Shaded regions for each profile represent the standard error of the mean.

(M) Moving line average of Fat-GFP fluorescence along the normalized AP axis of wildtype and $ds^{33k/UAO71}$ mutant wing pouches from 4-day old larvae. Shaded regions for each profile represent the standard error of the mean.

Figure 2 - figure supplement 1. smFISH images of *fat* and *ds* expression in the wing pouch.

(A) Confocal images of a *ds-GFP* larval wing pouch stained for GFP mRNAs (left) and DAPI (right). Scale bar is 50 micrometers.

(B) Confocal images of a *fat-GFP* larval wing pouch stained for GFP mRNAs (left) and DAPI (right). Scale bar is 50 micrometers.

Figure 2 - figure supplement 2. Methods to measure distributions of Ds-GFP and Fat-GFP.

(A) Confocal images of a *ds-GFP* larval wing pouch showing GFP fluorescence (left) and staining of En and Wg proteins (right). Blue and red lines are the AP and DV axes of symmetry, respectively. Scale bar is 50 micrometers.

(B) Schematic of the wing disc depicting the AP (blue) and DV (red) axes of symmetry.

(C) Representative Ds-GFP fluorescence image in which fluorescence from cells in the disc proper has been computationally segregated from signal from the peripodial membrane. Left is a max projection of all sections. Middle is the surface projected signal from the disc proper. Right is the projected signal from the peripodial membrane.

(D) Confocal images of a *fat-GFP* larval wing pouch showing GFP fluorescence (left) and staining of En and Wg proteins (right). Blue and red lines are the AP and DV axes of symmetry, respectively. Scale bar is 50 micrometers.

Figure 2 - figure supplement 3. Fat expression in *ds* and *fj* mutants.

(A) Moving line average of Fat-GFP fluorescence along the normalized AP axis. Shown are profiles from different ages (as indicated) of $ds^{33k/UAO71}$ mutants. Shaded regions for each profile represent the standard error of the mean.

(B) Moving line average of Fat-GFP fluorescence along the normalized AP axis of $ds^{33k/UAO71}$ mutant wing pouches from WPP and BPP animals. Shaded regions for each profile represent the standard error of the mean.

(C) Moving line average of Fat-GFP fluorescence along the normalized AP axis of $fj^{d1/p1}$ mutant wing pouches from 4-day old larvae. Shaded regions for each profile represent the standard error of the mean.

Figure 3. Ds and Fat expression dynamics correlate with wing pouch volume.

(A) Wing pouch area of *nub-Gal4* control and *nub>trol*(RNAi) discs from the WPP stage. Shown are replicates and the mean.

(B) Wing pouch thickness of *nub-Gal4* control and *nub>trol*(RNAi) discs from the WPP stage. Shown are replicates and the mean.

(C) Wing pouch volume of *nub-Gal4* control and *nub>trol*(RNAi) discs from the WPP stage. Shown are replicates and the mean.

(D) Moving line average of Ds-GFP fluorescence as a function of position along the AP axis normalized to the total distance of the axis in *nub-Gal4* control and *nub>trol*(RNAi) WPP wing pouches. Shaded regions for each profile represent the standard error of the mean.

(E) Moving line average of Fat-GFP fluorescence as a function of position along the AP axis normalized to the total distance of the axis in *nub-Gal4* control and *nub>trol*(RNAi) WPP wing pouches. Shaded regions for each profile represent the standard error of the mean.

(F) Confocal image of DAPI-stained nuclei in an *en>RBF* wing pouch. Note the lower density of nuclei in the P compartment (to the right of the dashed red line). This is due to the enlarged size of cells in this compartment. Scale bar is 30 micrometers.

(G) The area ratio of P compartment to A compartment in *en-Gal4* control and *en>RBF* wing pouches from WPP animals. Shown are replicates and the mean.

(H) Moving line average of Ds-GFP fluorescence as a function of position along the AP axis normalized to the total distance of the axis in *en-Gal4* control and *en>RBF* WPP wing pouches. Shaded regions for each profile represent the standard error of the mean.

(I) Moving line average of Fat-GFP fluorescence as a function of position along the AP axis normalized to the total distance of the axis in *en-Gal4* control and *en>RBF* WPP wing pouches. Shaded regions for each profile represent the standard error of the mean.

Figure 4. Allometric growth of the wing pouch is altered in *ds* and *fat* mutants.

(A) Wet-weight of wildtype, $ds^{33k/UAO71}$, and $fat^{G-rv/8}$ mutant third instar larvae as a function of age. Shaded regions represent standard error of the mean in this and the other panels.

(B) Wet-weight of wildtype and mutant animals during early pupariation.

(C) Volume of wildtype and mutant wing pouches as a function of larval age.

(D) Volume of wildtype and mutant wing pouches during early pupariation.

(E) Allometric growth relationship of the wing pouch versus body weight in wildtype and mutants.

Figure 4 - figure supplement 1. Allometric growth of the notum-hinge is altered in *ds* and *fat* mutants.

(A) Area of the wildtype, $ds^{33k/UAO71}$, and $fat^{G-rv/8}$ mutant notum-hinge as a function of larval age. Shaded regions represent standard error of the mean in this and the other panels.

(B) Area of the wildtype and mutant notum-hinge during early pupariation.

(C) Allometric growth relationship of the notum-hinge versus body weight in wildtype and mutants.

Figure 5. Autonomous requirements for Fat and Ds in wing pouch growth.

(A) Schematic of the *nub-Gal4* driver inducing RNAi of *fat* or *ds* in the wing pouch by shRNA expression.

(B) Wet-weight of *nub-Gal4* control, *nub>ds*(RNAi), *nub>fat*(RNAi), and *nub>ds fat*(RNAi) third instar larvae as a function of age. Shaded regions represent standard error of the mean.

(C) Wet-weight of control and RNAi-treated animals during early pupariation. Shaded regions represent standard error of the mean.

(D) Volume of control and RNAi-treated wing pouches as a function of larval age. Shaded regions represent standard error of the mean.

(E) Volume of control and RNAi-treated wing pouches during early pupariation. Shaded regions represent standard error of the mean.

(F) Allometric growth relationship of the wing pouch versus body weight in control and RNAi-treated animals.

(G) Schematic of the *ap-Gal4* driver inducing RNAi of *ds* in the D compartment by shRNA expression.

(H) Ratio of D compartment area to V compartment area in *ap-Gal4* control and *ap>ds*(RNAi) wing pouches from WPP animals. Shown are replicate measurements and their mean.

(I) Wing pouch area of *ap-Gal4* control and *ap>ds*(RNAi) WPP animals. Shown are replicate measurements and their mean. The area is normalized to the average of *ap-Gal4* controls.

(J) Cell number in the D compartment of the wing pouch of *ap-Gal4* control and *ap>ds*(RNAi) WPP animals. Shown are replicate measurements and their mean. The cell number is normalized to the average of *ap-Gal4* controls.

(K) Average cell size (apical area) in the D compartment of the wing pouch of *ap-Gal4* control and *ap>ds*(RNAi) WPP animals. Shown are replicate measurements and their mean. The cell size is normalized to the average of *ap-Gal4* controls.

(L) Schematic of the *en-Gal4* driver inducing RNAi of *ds* and fat in the P compartment by shRNA expression.

(M) Ratio of P compartment area to A compartment area in *en-Gal4* control, *en>fat*(RNAi), *en>ds*(RNAi), and *en>fat ds*(RNAi) wing pouches from WPP animals. Shown are replicate measurements and their mean.

(N) Wing pouch area of *en-Gal4* control and RNAi knockdown WPP animals. Shown are replicate measurements and their mean. The area is normalized to the average of *en-Gal4* controls.

Samples that were significantly different are marked with asterisks (*, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$; ****, $p < 0.0001$).

Figure 5 - figure supplement 1. RNAi effectively knocks down *fat* and *ds* expression. All panels show confocal images of third instar larval wing discs. Scale bars are 50 micrometers.

(A) Endogenously expressed Ds-GFP.

(B) Anti-Ds staining of *nub>ds*(RNAi) disc. Ds expression in the peripodial membrane and notum remains unchanged.

(C) Endogenously expressed Fat-GFP.

(D) Fat-GFP expression in a *nub>fat*(RNAi) disc. Fat expression in the peripodial membrane and notum remains unchanged.

(E) Ds-GFP expression in an *ap>ds*(RNAi) disc (left). Ds expression in the ventral compartment remains unchanged. E-cadherin-mCherry is used for cell segmentation (right). The compartment boundary is shown in yellow.

(F) Ds-GFP expression in an *en>ds*(RNAi) disc. Ds expression in the anterior compartment remains unchanged. The compartment boundary is shown in yellow.

(G) Fat-GFP expression in an *en>fat*(RNAi) disc. Fat expression in the anterior compartment remains unchanged. The compartment boundary is shown in yellow.

Figure 5 - figure supplement 2. Growth of the notum-hinge when *fat* and *ds* are knocked down in the wing pouch.

(A) Notum-hinge area of *nub-Gal4* control, *nub>ds*(RNAi), *nub>fat*(RNAi), and *nub>ds fat*(RNAi) as a function of larval age. Shaded regions represent standard error of the mean in this and the other panels.

(B) Notum-hinge area of control and RNAi-treated animals during early pupariation.

(C) Allometric growth relationship of the notum-hinge versus body weight in control and RNAi-treated animals.

Figure 6. Scaling of cell cycle duration with wing size is regulated by Ds and Fat. The average cell cycle time for wing pouch cells is plotted against wing pouch volume for wing discs

sampled over 1.5 days of larval growth. Solid lines show the linear regression model, and dotted
lines show the 95% confidence intervals of the fit.

(A) *nub-gal4* control.

(B) *nub>ds*(RNAi) and *nub-gal4* control.

(C) *nub>fat*(RNAi) and *nub-gal4* control.

(D) *nub>ds fat*(RNAi) and *nub-gal4* control.

(E) *nub>ds*(RNAi) and *nub>ds fat*(RNAi).

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Figure 6 - figure supplement 1. Measurement of length of M phase in wing pouch cells.
Third instar wing discs expressing E-cadherin-GFP were dissected and cultured *ex vivo* as
described by Gallagher et al. (2022). Each disc was successively imaged by microscopy over a
2-hr period, with an image frame time interval of 5 min.

(A) A cell undergoing mitosis starting at t = 5 minutes. Cytokinesis is completed at t = 25
minutes. The beginning of mitosis is marked by the first detectable increase in a cell's
apical area. The cell expands and becomes circular, after which mitosis completes and
the cell contracts in area as it divides. The end of cytokinesis is marked by the last
detectable decrease in daughter cell apical area.

(B) Histogram of M phase times for 33 wing pouch cells. The mean time is 20.5 min.

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1207 **Figure 6 - supplement table 1. Summary statistics of linear regression analysis.**

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Figure 7. The endogenous graded distribution of Fat and Ds is not essential for
controlling growth rate of the wing pouch.

(A) *nub-Gal4* driving expression of *UAS-GFP-NLS* along the AP axis of symmetry in the
wing pouch. This demonstrates the graded expression of genes transcribed by *nub-*
Gal4. Shown are moving line averages for larval and pupal wing pouches. Shaded
regions represent standard error of the mean.

(B) Schematic of the *nub-Gal4* driver expressing *ds* under the UAS promoter.

(C) Moving line average of Ds protein stained with anti-Ds as a function of position along the
AP axis and normalized to the total distance of the axis. Shown are staged larval wing
pouches from *nub>ds* animals. This measurement also detects expression from the
endogenous *ds* gene. Shaded regions for each profile represent the standard error of
the mean.

(D) Moving line average of Ds protein stained with anti-Ds as a function of position along the
DV axis and normalized to the total distance of the axis. Shown are staged larval wing
pouches from *nub>ds* animals. Shaded regions for each profile represent the standard
error of the mean.

(E) Moving line average of Fat-GFP fluorescence as a function of position along the AP axis
and normalized to the total distance of the axis. Shown are staged larval and pupal wing
pouches from *nub>ds* animals. Shaded regions for each profile represent the standard
error of the mean.

(F) Schematic of the *nub-Gal4* driver expressing *fat-HA* under the UAS promoter.

(G) Moving line average of transgenic Fat-HA protein stained with anti-HA as a function of position along the AP axis and normalized to the total distance of the axis. Shown are staged larval and pupal wing pouches from *nub>fat-HA; fat-GFP* animals. This measurement does not detect expression from the endogenous *fat-GFP* gene. Shaded regions for each profile represent the standard error of the mean.

(H) Moving line average of endogenous Fat-GFP fluorescence as a function of position along the AP axis and normalized to the total distance of the axis. Shown are staged larval and pupal wing pouches from *nub>fat-HA; fat-GFP* animals. Shaded regions for each profile represent the standard error of the mean.

(I) The average cell cycle time for wing pouch cells plotted against wing pouch volume for wing discs from *nub-Gal4* control animals and *nub>fat-HA; fat-GFP* animals. Solid lines show the linear regression model, and dotted lines show the 95% confidence intervals for the fit. There is no significant difference between the slopes (p = 0.65).

Figure 7 - figure supplement 1. Reversal of the Ds expression gradient does not affect growth.

(A) Confocal images of a *nub>ds; fat-GFP* third instar larval wing disc showing Fat-GFP fluorescence (left), anti-Ds fluorescence (center), and anti-Wg / anti-En fluorescence (right). The AP (blue) and DV (red) axes are shown. Scale bar is 50 micrometers.

(B) Wet-weight of *nub-Gal4* control and *nub>ds* third instar larvae as a function of age. Shaded regions represent standard error of the mean.

(C) Wet-weight of *nub-Gal4* control and *nub>ds* animals during early pupariation. Shaded regions represent standard error of the mean.

(D) Volume of *nub-Gal4* control and *nub>ds* larval wing pouches as a function of age. Shaded regions represent standard error of the mean.

(E) Volume of *nub-Gal4* control and *nub>ds* wing pouches during early pupariation. Shaded regions represent standard error of the mean.

Figure 7 - figure supplement 2. Disruption of Fat gradient dynamics has no detectable effect on wing pouch growth.

(A) Confocal images of a *nub>fat-HA; fat-GFP* third instar larval wing disc showing Fat-GFP fluorescence (left), anti-HA fluorescence (center), and anti-Wg / anti-En fluorescence (right). The AP (blue) and DV (red) axes are shown. Scale bar is 50 micrometers.

(B) Volume of WPP wing pouches from *nub-Gal4* control and *nub>fat-HA; fat-GFP* animals. There is no significant difference between the two groups as determined by a t-test.

Figure 1

Figure 1 - figure supplement 1

Figure 1 - figure supplement 2

A Ecad-GFP

B *5x-QE-DsRed*

C

R^2 = 0.976

Pouch Area (10^4 μm^2) by *vg*

Pouch Area (10^4 μm^2) by Morphological Landmark

Figure 1 - figure supplement 4

Figure 2

Figure 2 - figure supplement 1

Figure 2 - figure supplement 2

Figure 2 - figure supplement 3

A

ds mutant

Fat-GFP (A.U.)

4 Day Larva
4.5 Day Larva
5 Day Larva
5 Day WPP

A   Normalized Distance   P
from Midline

B

ds mutant

Fat-GFP (A.U.)

5 Day WPP
5 Day BPP

A   Normalized Distance   P
from Midline

C

Fat-GFP (A.U.)

Wildtype
fj mutant

A   Normalized Distance   P
from Midline

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 4 - figure supplement 1

A

Notum Area (10^5 μm^2)

Larval Age (Days)

Wildtype
ds mutant
fat mutant

B

Notum Area (10^5 μm^2)

Late Larva   WPP   BPP

C

Notum Area (10^5 μm^2)

Weight (mg)

Figure 5

Figure 5 - figure supplement 1

Figure 5 - figure supplement 2

Figure 6

Figure 6 - figure supplement 1

A

0 min   5 min   10 min   15 min   20 min   25 min   30 min   35 min

Cell undergoing Mitosis

B

Figure 6 - supplement table 1

Genotype	$Time_{Cell\ Cycle} = \beta_0 + \beta_1$ x Volume				different from control		different from *nub>ds* (RNAi)	
	β_0	β_1	R^2	p	p of intercept	p of slope	p of intercept	p of slope
nub-Gal4	9.480 +- 1.011	15.231 +- 1.913	0.74	6.38E-08				
nub>ds (RNAi)	7.904 +- 0.992	7.060 +- 1.150	0.63	3.50E-06	0.272	0.00062		
nub>fat (RNAi)	8.049 +- 1.540	22.907 +- 2.850	0.75	5.46E-08	0.465	0.0408		
nub>ds fat (RNAi)	12.4780 +- 0.858	4.507 +- 0.833	0.51	9.00E-06	0.0309	9.57E-06	0.00132	0.0887
nub>fat-HA	9.798 +- 1.779	16.425 +- 2.833	0.57	4.81E-06	0.875	0.726		

Figure 7 - figure supplement 2

A

Fat-GFP   Fat-HA   α-En, α-Wg

B

n.s.