Control of mitochondrial dynamics by dPGC1 limits Yorkie-induced oncogenic growth in *Drosophila*

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Abstract

Mitochondrial function and dynamics are crucial for maintaining cellular homeostasis and overall health. Disruptions in these processes can lead to various diseases, including cancer. The Hippo signaling pathway, a universal growth regulator, plays central roles in cancer through its main effector, the Yes-associated protein (YAP), known as Yorkie (Yki) in *Drosophila*. Yki upregulation drives benign tissue overgrowth in *Drosophila* imaginal discs. Our research demonstrates that the conserved metabolic regulator dPGC1 limits Yki-driven tissue hyperplasia and maintains tissue homeostasis in vivo. Yki upregulation and dPGC1 depletion lead to tumors characterized by enlarged and hyperfused mitochondria, a condition both necessary and sufficient for Yki-driven oncogenic growth. Our findings demonstrate that mitochondrial hyperfusion elevates the levels of the cell cycle regulator Cyclin E, which is crucial for tumor development. Our findings identify dPGC1 as a context-dependent tumor suppressor that coordinates mitochondrial dynamics and cell cycle regulation in response to oncogene activation. Defects in these processes are commonly found in cancer cells, highlighting major implications for cancer development in humans.

Introduction

Cancer is a multistep process that involves the accumulation of mutations affecting different cellular functions known as the hallmarks of cancer. Those include central cellular processes such cell proliferation, apoptosis, and cellular energetics. The different hallmarks, collectively, promote the transformation of normal cells into malignant entities (Hanahan, 2022; Hanahan & Weinberg, 2011). Tumors frequently undergo major changes in their metabolism, which is required to fulfil the high energetic demands of cancer cells. Mitochondria are cytoplasmic organelles playing central roles in cellular energetics. Alterations to these functions can provide plasticity and adaptability to tumor cells growing in harsh environments such as hypoxia, reduced nutrient availability, and cancer treatments (Vyas *et al*, 2016). Alterations in mitochondria hence influence different aspects related to tumor initiation and disease progression, and genetic alterations affecting mitochondria can result in an increased risk of cancer (Pavlova & Thompson, 2016; Sullivan *et al*, 2016).

Mitochondria are highly dynamics organelles. Continuous fusion and fission events are crucial to maintain mitochondrial integrity and function. Mitochondrial fission mediates the division of one mitochondrion into two mitochondria and is central for processes such as mitosis or quality control. Mitochondrial fusion is the process by which two original mitochondria merge in one. This process allows the transfer of cellular products between mitochondria and is thus crucial for proper mitochondrial function, especially under different kinds of cellular stress (Adebayo *et al*, 2021; Mishra & Chan, 2014). Besides maintaining mitochondrial integrity and function, the balance between fission and fusion is crucial for regulating the cell cycle (Antico Arciuch *et al*, 2012; Qian *et al*, 2012). The cell cycle ensures that a cell replicates and segregates its genome faithfully before it divides into two identical daughter cells. Errors in this process could lead to genomic instability, which is a cancer driver (Tubbs & Nussenzweig, 2017). Defective mitochondrial dynamics can lead to unbalanced fusion/fission that has been associated with human diseases such as cancer. Thus, mitochondrial dynamics must be tightly regulated to ensure proper cellular functions and tissue homeostasis (Archer, 2013; Dai & Jiang, 2019; Liao *et al*, 2024; Picard *et al*, 2013; Senft & Ronai, 2016; Yu *et al*, 2023).

The Peroxisome Proliferator Activated Receptor Gamma Co-activator-1 (PGC1) family of transcriptional regulators plays central roles controlling mitochondrial biogenesis and function. In mammals, it includes PGC1α, PGC1β, and PGC1-related coactivator (PRC) (Scarpulla, 2011;

Villena, 2015). These family members share structural and functional similarities. Among them, PGC1α is particularly significant in cancer, where it influences mitochondrial dynamics, metabolic reprogramming, and tumor progression. In contrast, PGC1β and PRC are primarily involved in cellular metabolism and energy homeostasis, with less pronounced roles in cancer. This distinction underscores the unique and critical role of PGC1α in oncogenesis (Qian *et al*, 2024). PGC1α levels can be either upregulated or downregulated in different cancer types, highlighting its dual role as a tumor suppressor and an oncogene, depending on the context (Bhalla *et al*, 2011; Girnun, 2012; Jones *et al*, 2012; Tan *et al*, 2016; Torrano *et al*, 2016; Wang *et al*, 2024). Therefore, understanding the specific functions of PGC1α in different contexts will help to identify tumor-specific vulnerabilities that can be targeted in clinical treatments. *Drosophila* is emerging as a valuable *in vivo* model to study various aspects of cancer (Gonzalez, 2013). Notably, *Drosophila* possesses a sole PGC1 orthologue (dPGC1), that has also been involved in the regulation of energy metabolism and mitochondrial function (Gershman *et al*, 2007; Mukherjee *et al*, 2014). The functional homology between dPGC1 and mammalian PGC1 members facilitates the study of PGC1 functions in *Drosophila* without the complications of redundancy.

The Hippo signaling pathway is a conserved regulator for normal and oncogenic growth. The central elements of this pathway comprise a regulatory kinase cascade that, when active, limits tissue growth by phosphorylating and inhibiting the activity of Transcriptional co-Activator with PDZ-binding motif (TAZ) and Yes-associated protein (YAP), Yorkie (Yki) in *Drosophila* (Zheng & Pan, 2019). Deregulation in the activity of the Hippo pathway affects tumor development and has been associated with traits of oncogenesis such as cell proliferation and survival, cancer metabolism, invasion, and metastasis (Barron & Kagey, 2014; Moon *et al*, 2018). Consistently with their growth regulatory roles, YAP and TAZ are frequently amplified, while upstream elements in the pathway are mutated in different cancer types (Calses *et al*, 2019).

In this study, we find that although depletion of the transcriptional coactivator *dPGC1* does not affect the normal development of *Drosophila* wing imaginal discs, it drives tumor growth and cellular transformation in imaginal discs over-expressing *Yki*. These results provide *in vivo* evidence supporting that dPGC1 is a context dependent tumor suppressor. We show dPGC1 limits tumorigenesis and maintains tissue homeostasis by regulating mitochondrial dynamics. We show that tumors driven by Yki upregulation and dPGC1 depletion exhibit large mitochondria. We find that hyperfused mitochondria promote oncogenesis by upregulating the oncogene Cyclin E, which

induces tumor growth and causes DNA damage, two well-known hallmarks of cancer. This study connects aberrant mitochondrial dynamics with defective cell cycle regulation and DNA damage, in oncogenic processes *in vivo*.

Results

Normal Wing Development is not Affected by *dPGC1* Depletion

The systemic functions of dPGC1 have been extensively studied and has been shown to control central physiological processes such as early development, tissue homeostasis, obesity, and aging (Chen *et al*, 2012; Diop *et al*, 2015; George & Jacobs, 2019; Mukherjee *et al.*, 2014; Mukherjee & Duttaroy, 2013; Rera *et al*, 2011; Rogers & Rogina, 2014). However, the roles played by this transcriptional regulator in proliferating tissues such as developing organs or tumors have not been elucidated yet. Here, we have used the wing imaginal disc of *Drosophila* to study the functions of dPGC1 in proliferating epithelia. The wing disc of *Drosophila* is composed of a proliferative epithelium that, after metamorphosis, gives rise to the wing and thorax of the adult fly. This organ is a common *in vivo* model to study development, growth control, and tumor formation (Herranz *et al*, 2016).

The Gal4-UAS binary system allows to manipulate gene activity in a time- and tissue-specific manner (Brand & Perrimon, 1993). We used this genetic tool to differentiate the systemic functions of dPGC1 from its cell autonomous role in the proliferating imaginal epithelia. The MS1096-Gal4 line is expressed in the wing disc (Fig 1A). It allows us to manipulate gene activity during the development of this organ and analyze the resulting phenotypic outcomes in the adult wing. Consistent with previous observations (Tiefenböck *et al*, 2010), depletion of *dPGC1* by the expression of UAS-RNAi transgenes under the control of MS1096-Gal4 did not have a major impact on adult wing size and shape (Fig 1B, C). We obtained comparable results using an independent UAS-dPGC1-shRNA line (Fig S1). The efficiency of the transgenes used to deplete *dPGC1* is shown in Fig S1. These observations are consistent with studies in mice showing that PGC1α and PGC1β are nonessential for normal development (Lelliott *et al*, 2006; Leone *et al*, 2005; Lin *et al*, 2004; Sonoda *et al*, 2007; Vianna *et al*, 2006). As observed in wings downregulating *dPGC1*, overexpression of *dPGC1* did not affect wing size (Fig 1B, C; Fig S1). These results indicate that changes in dPGC1 levels do not have a major impact on the normal growth and development of the *Drosophila* wing.

dPGC1 Dampens Yki-Induced Tissue Over-Growth

Transcriptional coregulators such as the members of the PGC1 family have been proposed to fine-tune and optimize mitochondrial function to adapt cell metabolism in response to environmental cues (Mouchiroud *et al*, 2014; Scarpulla, 2011). A central element mediating cellular responses to extracellular stimulus is the Hippo signaling pathway. The activity of this signaling module is controlled by extracellular cues such as mechanical tension, hypoxia, or nutritional conditions (Koo & Guan, 2018; Varelas, 2014; Yu *et al*, 2015). The protooncogene Yki is the main effector of the Hippo pathway in *Drosophila*. Yki drives growth by controlling cell cycle progression and inhibiting apoptosis (Gerlach *et al*, 2018; Gerlach *et al*, 2019; Huang *et al*, 2005; Nolo *et al*, 2006; Thompson & Cohen, 2006). Additionally, Yki modulates mitochondrial structure and function, which is also a central aspect in the growth-promoting role of this protooncogene (Nagaraj *et al*, 2012).

The results showing that Yki induces mitochondrial changes to support tissue growth, together with the notion that transcriptional regulators could refine these kind of processes (Mouchiroud *et al.*, 2014; Nagaraj *et al.*, 2012), led us to study whether dPGC1 influences the response to Yki upregulation. To evaluate this, we analyzed the consequences of depleting *dPGC1* in discs overexpressing *Yki*. For this analysis, we used the apterous-Gal4 (ap-Gal4) driver, which is expressed in the dorsal compartment of the wing disc (Fig 2A). The use of this Gal4 driver allows to manipulate gene activity in the dorsal cells of the wing disc and use the otherwise normal ventral compartment as an internal control. As shown in previous analyses, expression of *Yki* in the wing imaginal disc led to a robust increase in tissue size (Fig 2A, C, E) (Huang *et al.*, 2005). Although *dPGC1* downregulation did not affect normal wing disc growth (Fig 2A, B, E), depletion of *dPGC1* in a context of *Yki* upregulation enhanced the Yki-induced growth response (Fig 2A-E). These results indicate that, although dispensable for normal wing development, dPGC1 is required to limit Yki-driven tissue overgrowth.

Oncogenic Features in Tumors Driven by *Yki* Overexpression and *dPGC1* Depletion

To gain better insights about the tumor suppressive roles of dPGC1, we investigated whether other oncogenic properties were present in those tumorous discs, in addition to the observed increase in

tissue size. Malignant fly tumors express the secreted matrix metalloproteinase 1 (Mmp1), which contributes to cell migration and subsequent invasion by mediating the degradation of the basement membrane (Beaucher *et al*, 2007; Uhlirova & Bohmann, 2006). While we did not detect Mmp1 expression in control discs (ap>GFP), Mmp1 was observed in discrete patches of cells in discs over-expressing *Yki* (Fig 2F, G). Notably, discs coexpressing *Yki* and *dPGC1-RNAi* displayed a robust increase in Mmp1 (Fig 2G, H). Mmp1 is a target gene of the c-Jun N-terminal kinase (JNK) pathway. This signaling cascade is activated by internal and external stressors and control different biological processes such as proliferation, apoptosis, and cell migration (La Marca & Richardson, 2020; Pinal *et al*, 2019). JNK is an oncogenic partner of pro-tumorigenic elements such as RasV12 and Yki (Igaki *et al*, 2006; Uhlirova & Bohmann, 2006). In these contexts, JNK induces the accumulation of F-actin, which is observed in cells undergoing malignant transformation (Enomoto *et al*, 2015; Fernandez *et al*, 2011; Fernandez *et al*, 2014; George & Jacobs, 2019; Khoo *et al*, 2013; Uhlirova & Bohmann, 2006). In good agreement with those results, we detected an increase in F-actin levels in Yki + dPGC1-RNAi tumorous discs. This correlated with the presence of JNK-target gene Mmp1 (Fig 2G, H). Similar results were obtained by an independent UAS-dPGC1-shRNA line (Fig S2).

In sum, our results show that *dPGC1* knockdown enhances Yki-induced overgrowth, leading to the formation of tumorous discs that exhibit markers of malignancy. Although *dPGC1* depletion does not have a major impact on normal growth, it is required to maintain controlled growth and tissue homeostasis in a context of Yki upregulation.

Aberrant Mitochondrial Dynamics in Tumorous Discs Driven by Yki Over-expression and dPGC1 Downregulation

PGC1 proteins regulate the expression of genes involved in mitochondrial biogenesis and function (Villena, 2015). Previous analyses have shown that Yki modulates mitochondrial dynamics to support tissue growth (Nagaraj *et al.*, 2012). We analyzed whether *dPGC1* downregulation in a context of Yki activation affected the expression of genes involved in these processes. By using quantitative PCR (qPCR), we compared the mRNA levels of genes involved in different aspects of mitochondrial dynamics such as mitochondrial biogenesis, mitochondrial fusion and fission, mitophagy, and mitochondrial transport (Archer, 2013). Among genes controlling mitochondrial biogenesis, we quantified the expression of *estrogen-related receptor* (*dERR*), *Ets at 97D* (*Ets97D*), and *erect wing*

(*ewg*) (Baltzer et al, 2009; Chen et al, 2008; Misra et al, *2017*; Rai et al, 2014; Takata et al, 2001).

We also assessed the expression of the genes *Mitofusin* (*dMfn*, also known as *Marf*) and *Optic Atrophy*

1 (*Opa1*), which control fusion between outer and inner membranes, respectively; and *Drp1* that

mediates mitochondrial fission (Deng et al, 2008). Additionally, we quantified the expression of

genes involved in mitophagy including *PTEN-induced putative kinase 1* (*Pink1*), *parkin* (*park*), and

Autophagy-related 7 (*Atg7*) (Narendra et al, 2010; Vincow et al, 2013). Finally, we measured the

levels of genes involved in mitochondrial transport such as *milton* (*milt*) and *mitochondrial Rho*

(*miro*) (Guo et al, 2005; Stowers et al, 2002). We analyzed four independent biological replicates

where we compared mRNA levels between Yki-upregulating discs (control) and Yki + dPGC1-RNAi

tumorous discs (experimental condition). We found that discs coexpressing Yki and dPGC1-RNAi

showed a significant increase in the expression of *dMfn* and *Opa1*, GTPases promoting mitochondrial

fusion (Fig 3A). Interestingly, *milt* and *miro* were also upregulated in Yki + dPGC1-RNAi tumorous

discs (Fig 3A). Although miro and milt play central roles in mitochondrial axonal transport, previous

reports have suggested that they can also promote mitochondrial fusion (Ding *et al*, 2016; Liu &

Hajnoczky, 2009; Panchal & Tiwari, 2020; Tang, 2015). For instance, *miro* overexpression in

Drosophila models of Alzheimer's disease have been reported to cause an increased in mitochondrial

average length (Panchal & Tiwari, 2020).

The functions of *dMfn, OPA1, milt*, and *miro* (genes upregulated in Yki + dPGC1-RNAi tumorous

discs) have been studied and determined in different models (Archer, 2013; Chan, 2020; Lee & Lu,

2014; Zorzano *et al*, 2010). However, the effects of altering the expression of those elements in

mitochondria of the wing imaginal disc have not been established yet. This led us to analyze the

consequences of manipulating those genes during the development of the wing imaginal disc. To

visualize mitochondria, we drove the expression of mitochondrial-targeted GFP (Mito-GFP). This

transgene contains mitochondrial localization sequences that target GFP to the mitochondria (Rizzuto

et al, 1995). We performed this analysis in the peripodial membrane of the wing imaginal disc. The

imaginal discs have a sac-like anatomy with two opposing epithelial surfaces composed by a

columnar epithelium on one side, known as main epithelium, and a flat squamous epithelium on the

other side, known as peripodial membrane (Gibson & Schubiger, 2001). The main epithelium is

formed by small cells densely packed. Consequently, mitochondria were difficult to visualize in that

epithelium (Fig 3B). In contrast, the peripodial membrane contains flat cells with a large cytoplasm.

Mitochondria appeared as clear and well-defined structures in the peripodial membrane (Fig 3C). The

peripodial membrane hence provides an amenable *in vivo* context to analyze changes in mitochondrial morphology.

The Grunge-Gal4 (Gug-Gal4) driver can be used to drive transgene expression in peripodial membrane cells (Gibson *et al*, 2002). We used this driver to visualize potential mitochondrial changes when the genes deregulated in the Yki + dPGC1-RNAi context were experimentally manipulated. dMfn and Opa1 are central factors promoting mitochondrial fusion. To confirm that this axis has a similar function in the proliferating wing primordia, we expressed a UAS-dMfn transgene under the control of Gug-Gal4. We observed that *dMfn* upregulation led to a connected mitochondrial network indicative of an increase in fusion (Fig 3D; quantified in Fig S3). Reciprocally, depletion of *dMfn* in those cells led to fragmented mitochondria (Fig 3E; quantified in Fig S3). Miro and milt form part of a complex controlling mitochondrial transport, but recent studies involved them in fusion/fission dynamics (Ding *et al.*, 2016; Liu & Hajnoczky, 2009; Panchal & Tiwari, 2020; Tang, 2015). In agreement with the latter, overexpression of *miro* led to increased fusion and *miro* depletion resulted in fragmented mitochondria in the peripodial epithelium (Fig 3F, G; quantified in Fig S3). Together, these results show that dMfn/Opa1 and miro/milt promote mitochondrial fusion in the wing imaginal disc.

Mitochondrial morphology and function are controlled by a dynamic balance between fusion and fission. Changes in the activity of factors controlling those processes can lead to an imbalance in mitochondrial dynamics affecting mitochondria function and cellular homeostasis (Adebayo *et al.*, 2021). The changes in gene expression in tumors driven by *Yki* expression and *dPGC1* depletion (Fig 3A) should favor an increase in mitochondrial fusion. We used electron microscopy to visualize and evaluate mitochondrial size. We observed that mitochondria in Yki + dPGC1-RNAi tumorous discs were larger in size as compared to mitochondria present in *Yki*-expressing discs (Fig 3H-K). These observations suggest that, consistently with an upregulation in the expression of *dMfn, OPA1*, *milt*, and *miro,* depletion of *dPGC1* in a context of *Yki* overexpression results in hyperfused mitochondria.

Increased Mitochondrial Fusion Drives Tumor Formation in the Wing Disc

Previous observations showed that Yki induces the expression of genes involved in mitochondrial fusion, which is central for the growth-promoting role of this protooncogene (Nagaraj *et al.*, 2012).

Here, we have shown that *dPGC1* depletion enhances Yki-induced tissue growth and the resulting tumorous discs present larger mitochondria (Fig 3). Those results, collectively, led us to speculate that increased fusion could contribute to tumor formation when Yki was upregulated and *dPGC1* knocked down. We reasoned that, if increased in fusion contributes to tumor formation, downregulating the genes promoting fusion should limit tumor growth. We performed functional analyses to test our hypothesis and observed that expression of UAS-RNAi transgenes targeting *dMfn* or *Opa1* in Yki + dPGC1-RNAi tumors caused a reduction in growth as compared to Yki + dPGC1-RNAi discs (Fig 4A-D, G). This suggests that mitochondrial fusion supports tissue growth in Yki + dPGC1-RNAi tumors. Next, we asked whether increased fusion was sufficient to drive tumorigenesis in concert with the protooncogene Yki. We found that coexpression of *Yki* and *dMfn* or *Opa1* resulted in increased disc size (Fig 4A, E, F, G), suggesting that an increase in mitochondrial fusion is sufficient to enhance Yki-driven tissue over-growth. Notably, those tumors upregulated markers of malignancy and presented epithelial disorganization as revealed by Mmp1 and F-acting labeling, respectively (Fig 4H, I). Knockdown or upregulation of those factors in otherwise normal discs led to minor defects in tissue size, far in magnitude to the effect they had in a tumor context (Fig S4). These results show that 1) an increase in mitochondrial fusion contributes to oncogenic cooperation between Yki and dPGC1 knockdown, and 2) increase in mitochondrial fusion is sufficient to synergize with Yki in tumorigenesis.

Upregulation of Cyclin E in Tumors Caused by *Yki* upregulation and *dPGC1* Depletion

Next, we studied the mechanisms by which increased mitochondrial fusion promote tumorigenesis. Mounting evidence is establishing a connection between mitochondrial dynamics and the cell cycle (Ma *et al*, 2020). The cell cycle must be tightly regulated to ensure that proliferating cells transmit an intact copy of their genome to the progeny. Defects in cell cycle regulation can result in genomic instability and the accumulation of mutations, which is a central hallmark of cancer (Hanahan, 2022; Hanahan & Weinberg, 2011). Central regulators of the cell cycle are cyclin-dependent kinases (CDKs) and their regulator partners, cyclins, which control CDK activity and cell cycle progression (Besson *et al*, 2008; Satyanarayana & Kaldis, 2009). In addition to CDKs and cyclins, mitochondria are emerging as important regulators of the cell cycle, and mitochondrial dynamics influence cell cycle progression and hence the maintenance of genomic stability (Horbay & Bilyy, 2016; Lopez-Mejia & Fajas, 2015; Mandal *et al*, 2005; Owusu-Ansah *et al*, 2008). Previous studies performed in

mammalian cells (*in vitro*) and in *Drosophila* (*in vivo*), have shown that cells with highly fused mitochondria present an elevation in the levels of the oncogene Cyclin E (Finkel & Hwang, 2009; Mitra, 2013; Mitra *et al*, 2012; Mitra *et al*, 2009; Qian *et al.*, 2012). Cyclin E levels peak during G1-S transition activating CDK2 and inducing entry in S phase (Siu *et al*, 2012). Abnormal Cyclin E levels can lead to premature entry into S phase and replicative stress, which is a central factor leading to genomic instability in cancer (Gaillard *et al*, 2015; Molano-Fernandez *et al*, 2022; Saxena & Zou, 2022). We have shown that *dPGC1* depletion in epithelial cells with increased Yki signaling results in mitochondrial hyper-fusion and, consequently, tumor formation. Those observations led us to investigate whether Yki + dPGC1-RNAi tumors showed abnormal Cyclin E levels. Yki upregulation on its own resulted in an increase in Cyclin E mRNA and protein levels, as compared to control discs (Fig 5A, B). This is consistent with previous reports showing that Cyclin E is a Yki target gene (Shu & Deng, 2017; Tapon *et al*, 2002). Notably, depletion of *dPGC1* in that context led to a further increase in Cyclin E protein levels (Fig 5A). Interestingly, the increase in Cyclin E protein was not accompanied by an upregulation in *cyclin E* mRNA (Fig 5B) suggesting that Cyclin E protein upregulation was not due to an increase in *cyclin E* transcription. Consistently, previous reports linking mitochondrial activity with Cyclin E control suggested that this regulation occurred post-transcriptionally (Mandal *et al.*, 2005; Owusu-Ansah *et al.*, 2008). Together, these results suggest that the increase of Cyclin E in Yki + dPGC1-RNAi tumors cannot be explained by changes in gene expression and, instead, should be a consequence of an increase in protein translation, stability, or both.

Aberrant Cyclin E levels can lead to replicative stress and DNA damage in human cells and *Drosophila* (Ekholm-Reed *et al*, 2004; Molano-Fernandez *et al.*, 2022; Spruck *et al*, 1999). In response to DNA damage, checkpoint proteins phosphorylate the histone H2AX (H2Av in *Drosophila*) to mark the sites with damage (Blackford & Jackson, 2017; Fernandez-Capetillo *et al*, 2003). Antibodies recognizing the phosphorylated H2Av (pH2Av) can serve to detect DNA damage. As expected, Yki overexpression led to an increase in pH2Av-positive foci (Fig 5 C, D, G). Notably, this effect was enhanced when *dPGC1* was knocked down (Fic 5D, E, G), which is consistent with an increase in Cyclin E. These observations revealed that *dPGC1* depletion in discs activating the Yki protooncogene leads to an increase in Cyclin E levels and DNA damage. Oncogene-induced DNA damage is a mutagenic source in cancer and DNA damage can promote tumorigenesis in *Drosophila* (Dekanty *et al*, 2015; Gerlach & Herranz, 2020; Halazonetis *et al*, 2008). We then analyzed whether Cyclin E upregulation contributed to the formation of Yki + dPGC1-RNAi tumors.

To study that, we removed one copy of *cyclin E* in Yki + dPGC1-RNAi tumors and analyzed if tumor growth was affected. We observed that, while *cyclin E* heterozygous discs do not show growth defects in otherwise normal discs (Fig 5H, I, N), reduction of Cyclin E in discs expressing Yki and depleting *dPGC1* led to a dramatic reduction in tumor size (Fig 5J, L, M, N). This suggests that Cyclin E upregulation is a central factor driving tumorigenesis in Yki + dPGC1-RNAi tumors. Next, we asked whether Cyclin E upregulation was sufficient to enhance Yki-driven growth. The Cyclin E-dependent kinase inhibitor p21/dacapo (dap) represses Cyclin E/CDK2. Consequently, reduced dap leads to an increase in Cyclin E/CDK2 activity (de Nooij *et al*, 1996; Lane *et al*, 1996). We observed that *dap* depletion was sufficient to enhance Yki-driven tumor growth (Fig 5 J, K, N). Interestingly, as observed in the Yki + dPGC1-RNAi context, Yki + dap-RNAi tumors exhibited an increase in DNA damage (Fig 5D-G). In sum, these results reveal that that *dPGC1* downregulation in a context of Yki activation results in an increase in Cyclin E, the accumulation of DNA damage, and increased tumor growth.

Discussion

The results presented here reveal that dPGC1 modulates the response to Yki upregulation in the wing imaginal disc of *Drosophila*. Evidence supporting this includes functional analyses showing that dPGC1 depletion leads to an enhanced growth response to Yki upregulation *in vivo.* Contrasting to that, *dPGC1* depletion (or upregulation) in normal proliferating cells during wing development does not result in overt phenotypes indicating that dPGC1 is mostly dispensable during the normal development of this organ. Similar results emerged from analyses in mice demonstrating that PGC1α is nonessential for normal mouse development (Leone *et al.*, 2005). Notably, PGC1α knock out mice present various defects under stress, suggesting that PGC1α is an important factor in response to stress (Arany *et al*, 2005; Lin *et al.*, 2004). A recent study by the Halder group has provided new evidence that suggests that the Yki/YAP transcriptional input is not essential for normal growth. This work shows that hyperactivation of Yki/YAP promotes ectopic tissue overgrowth through the induction of an aberrant genetic program (Kowalczyk *et al*, 2022). We show that dPGC1 limits Yki hyperactivation-induced tissue growth and is essential to maintain tissue homeostasis in that context. These results provide evidence suggesting that dPGC1 plays central roles in response to stress driven by an aberrant genetic program.

Our results find that dPGC1 limits tissue growth in a context of Yki overexpression. This contrasts with previous analyses showing that dPGC1 has a growth-promoting role downstream of insulin signaling in the *Drosophila* fat body, an organ functionally similar to the mammalian liver (Tiefenböck *et al.*, 2010). Together, these results reveal a context-depended growth regulatory function of this transcriptional regulator. Previous studies presented similar context-dependency in the roles of these transcriptional regulators. For instance, PGC1α expression is reduced in prostate, colon, breast, and ovary cancer, suggesting it suppresses cancer (Feilchenfeldt *et al*, 2004; Torrano *et al.*, 2016; Watkins *et al*, 2004; Zhang *et al*, 2007). Other studies report the opposite behavior and show that PGC1α can, in some contexts, promote tumorigenesis and metastasis hence acting as an oncogenic factor (Bhalla *et al.*, 2011; LeBleu *et al*, 2014). Our observations, combined with these results, highlight that the pro- or antitumorigenic functions of these transcriptional regulators depend on the cellular context. This underscores the importance of identifying the specific conditions under which they exhibit either role.

Yki drives tissue overgrowth by controlling gene expression. Yki, by interacting with the TEAD transcription factor Scalloped (Sd), binds regulatory sequences and induce the expression of growth-promoting genes including the cell cycle regulator Cyclin E and genes controlling mitochondrial fusion such as dMfn and Opa1 (Bandura & Edgar, 2008; Nagaraj *et al.*, 2012; Shu & Deng, 2017; Tapon *et al.*, 2002). Our results show that a major consequence of *dPGC1* depletion when Yki is hyperactivated is the upregulation of various genes promoting mitochondrial fusion, which ultimately results in larger mitochondria and tumorigenesis. We find that *dPGC1* depletion in otherwise normal discs does not affect the expression of genes controlling fusion/fission mechanisms (Fig S4). This insinuates that dPGC1 does not control the expression of those genes during the normal growth of the wing imaginal disc. Instead, our data suggest that dPGC1 dampens the ability of Yki to induce the expression of genes mediating mitochondrial fusion. Additional experiments will be required to determine the specific molecular mechanisms underlying this function.

Unbalanced fusion/fission dynamics affect mitochondrial function and have central consequences disrupting cellular homeostasis. Those defects have major pathological implications and have been associated with human diseases including cardiovascular disorders, neurogenerative diseases, and cancer (Archer, 2013; Dai & Jiang, 2019; Liao *et al.*, 2024; Picard *et al.*, 2013; Senft & Ronai, 2016). How defects in mitochondrial dynamics influence tumor cells appear to depend on the cellular context. The results presented here indicate that increased fusion is required to support tumor

proliferation. These observations agree with a previous analysis in mouse fibroblasts. This study shows that fibroblasts transformed by the oncogene Ras present fused mitochondria, and cell proliferation in those cells is sensitive to Mfn2 levels (Yao *et al*, 2019). A similar phenomenon has been reported in *Drosophila* neuroblasts, the neural stem cells of the developing fly brain, in which downregulation of dMfn and Opa1 causes defects in cell proliferation (Dubal *et al*, 2022). Similarly, depletion of genes controlling fusion and fission events in *Drosophila* germ line stem cells leads to stem cell loss and reduced fecundity (Garcez *et al*, 2020). Together with our work, those reports provide evidence linking increased fusion and cell proliferation, which are central factors affecting tumor initiation and disease progression.

Mitochondrial dynamics and the cell cycle are intimately coordinated. Changes in mitochondrial dynamics influence cell cycle progression and vice versa (Lopez-Mejia & Fajas, 2015; Mandal *et al.*, 2005; Mitra, 2013; Mitra *et al.*, 2009; Owusu-Ansah *et al.*, 2008). Mitochondrial fusion has been shown to stabilize and increase Cyclin E favoring G1-S progression in the cell cycle (Finkel & Hwang, 2009; Mitra, 2013). Our results show that the ultimate consequence of *dPGC1* depletion in the Yki-upregulation context is an increase in Cyclin E. This correlates with an increase in DNA damage, which is a source of genomic instability typically present in tumors (Tubbs & Nussenzweig, 2017). We provide experimental evidence demonstrating that increased Cyclin E is crucial for tumor growth and is a central oncogenic element in tumors driven by Yki upregulation and *dPGC1* knockdown. In sum, our results find that *dPGC1* deregulation in cells with oncogenic activation leads to aberrant mitochondrial dynamics and DNA damage, which are factors that contribute to known hallmarks of cancer such as cancer metabolism and genomic instability.

Materials and Methods

Drosophila strains

The following stocks used in this paper were obtained from Bloomington *Drosophila* Stock Centre: *Gug-Gal4* (BDSC 6773), Mito-GFP (BDSC 8443), yw (BDSC1495), *UAS-lacZ* (BDSC3956), *UAS-dPGC1^{RNAi}* (BDSC 33914), *UAS-dPGC1* (BDSC 20009), *UAS-dMfn* (BDSC 67157), *UAS-dMfn^{RNAi}* (BDSC 55189), *UAS-Opa1* (BDSC 20054), *UAS-Opa1^{RNAi}* (BDSC 32358), *UAS-miro* (BDSC 51646) and *UAS-dap^{RNAi}* (BDSC 64026). *UAS-dPGC1^{shRNA}* (v330271) and *miro^{RNAi}* (v106683) stocks were obtained from The Vienna *Drosophila* Stock Centre. The *Cyclin E-05306* stock was a kind gift from Helena Richardson. The following stocks used in this study are described in the following references: *MS1096-Gal4* (Capdevila & Guerrero, 1994), *ap-Gal4, (Calleja et al, 1996)*, and *UAS-Yki (Huang et al., 2005)*.

Our *Drosophila* strains were raised on food that was made in-house containing agar (8g/L), brewer's yeast (23.6g/L), dextrose (50.8g/L) and corn meal (58g/L). Depending on the experiment, flies were housed in humidity-controlled incubators set at either 18°C or 25°C with a 12/12-hour light dark cycle.

List of Genotypes

Figure 1

(A) MS1096-Gal4, UAS-RFP/+; +/+; UAS-LacZ/+.

(B-C) Control corresponds to *MS1096-Gal4, UAS-RFP/+; +/+; UAS-LacZ/+, MS1096>dPGC1^{RNAi}* corresponds to *MS1096-Gal4, UAS-RFP/+; +/+; UAS-dPGC1^{RNAi}/+* and *MS1096>dPGC1* corresponds to *MS1096-Gal4, UAS-RFP/+; +/+; EP-dPGC1/+.*

Figure 2

(A-H) Control corresponds to *ap-Gal4, UAS-CD8-GFP/+; tub-Gal80ts/UAS-LacZ, ap>dPGC1^{RNAi}* corresponds to *ap-Gal4, UAS-CD8-GFP/+; tub-Gal80ts/UAS-dPGC1^{RNAi}, ap>Yki* corresponds to *ap-Gal4, UAS-CD8-GFP/+; UAS-Yki, tub-Gal80ts/UAS-LacZ* and *ap>Yki+dPGC1^{RNAi}* corresponds to *ap-Gal4, UAS-CD8-GFP/+; UAS-Yki, tub-Gal80ts/UAS-dPGC1^{RNAi}.*

Figure 3

(A) The experimental condition corresponds to *ap-Gal4, UAS-CD8-GFP/+; UAS-Yki, tub-Gal80ts/UAS-dPGC1^{RNAi}* and the control used for normalization corresponds to *ap-Gal4, UAS-CD8-GFP/+; UAS-Yki, tub-Gal80ts/UAS-LacZ.*

(B) *ap-Gal4/+; UAS-Mito-GFP/+*

(C) *YW/+; +/+; Gug-Gal4, UAS-Mito-GFP/+*

(D) *Gug-Gal4, UAS-Mito-GFP/UAS-dMfn*

(E) *UAS-dMfn^{RNAi}/+; Gug-Gal4, UAS-Mito-GFP/+*

(F) *UAS-miro/+; Gug-Gal4, UAS-Mito-GFP/+*

(G) *UAS-miro^{RNAi}/+; Gug-Gal4, UAS-Mito-GFP/+*

(H-K) *ap>Yki* corresponds to *ap-Gal4, UAS-CD8-GFP/+; UAS-Yki, tub-Gal80ts/UAS-LacZ* and *ap>Yki+dPGC1^{RNAi}* corresponds to *ap-Gal4, UAS-CD8-GFP/+; UAS-Yki, tub-Gal80ts/UAS-dPGC1^{RNAi}.*

Figure 4

(A-I) Control corresponds to *ap-Gal4, UAS-CD8-GFP/+; tub-Gal80ts/UAS-LacZ, ap>Yki* corresponds to *ap-Gal4, UAS-CD8-GFP/+; UAS-Yki, tub-Gal80ts/UAS-LacZ, ap>Yki+dPGC1^{RNAi}* corresponds to *ap-Gal4, UAS-CD8-GFP/+; UAS-Yki, tub-Gal80ts/UAS-dPGC1^{RNAi}, ap>Yki+dPGC1^{RNAi}+dMfn^{RNAi}* corresponds to *ap-Gal4, UAS-CD8-GFP/UAS-dMfn^{RNAi}; UAS-Yki, tub-Gal80ts/UAS-dPGC1^{RNAi}, ap>Yki+dPGC1^{RNAi}+Opa1^{RNAi}* corresponds to *ap-Gal4, UAS-CD8-GFP/UAS-dPGC1^{shRNA}; UAS-Yki, tub-Gal80ts/UAS-Opa1^{RNAi}, ap>Yki+dMfn* corresponds to *ap-Gal4, UAS-CD8-GFP/+; UAS-Yki, tub-Gal80ts/UAS-dMfn* and *ap>Yki+Opa1* corresponds to *ap-Gal4, UAS-CD8-GFP/EP-Opa1; UAS-Yki, tub-Gal80ts/+*

Figure 5

(A-B) Control corresponds to *ap-Gal4, UAS-CD8-GFP/+; tub-Gal80ts/UAS-LacZ, ap>Yki* corresponds to *ap-Gal4, UAS-CD8-GFP/+; UAS-Yki, tub-Gal80ts/UAS-LacZ* and *ap>Yki+dPGC1^{RNAi}* corresponds to *ap-Gal4, UAS-CD8-GFP/+; UAS-Yki, tub-Gal80ts/UAS-dPGC1^{RNAi}.*

(C-N) Control corresponds to *ap-Gal4, UAS-CD8-GFP/+; tub-Gal80ts/UAS-LacZ, ap>cycE^{mutant}* corresponds to *ap-Gal4, UAS-CD8-GFP/cycE^{05306}; tub-Gal80ts/+, ap>Yki* corresponds to *ap-Gal4, UAS-CD8-GFP/+; UAS-Yki, tub-Gal80ts/UAS-LacZ, ap>Yki+dap^{RNAi}* corresponds to *ap-Gal4, UAS-CD8-GFP/UAS- dap^{RNAi}; UAS-Yki, tub-Gal80ts/+, ap>Yki+dPGC1^{RNAi}* corresponds

to *ap-Gal4, UAS-CD8-GFP/+; UAS-Yki, tub-Gal80ts/UAS-dPGC1^{RNAi}* and

ap>Yki+dPGC1^{RNAi}+cycE^{mutant} corresponds to *ap-Gal4, UAS-CD8-GFP/cycE^{05306}; UAS-Yki,*

tub-Gal80ts/UAS-dPGC1^{RNAi}

Figure S1

(A-B) Control corresponds to *MS1096-Gal4, UAS-RFP/+; +/+; UAS-LacZ/+* and

MS1096>dPGC1^{shRNA} corresponds to *MS1096-Gal4, UAS-RFP/+; UAS-dPGC1^{shRNA}/+*.

(B) MS1096>dPGC1^{RNAi} corresponds to *MS1096-Gal4, UAS-RFP/+; +/+; UAS-dPGC1^{RNAi}/+,*

MS1096>dPGC1^{shRNA} corresponds to *MS1096-Gal4, UAS-RFP/+; UAS-dPGC1^{shRNA}/+* and

MS1096>dPGC1 corresponds to *MS1096-Gal4, UAS-RFP/+; +/+; EP-dPGC-1/+*

Figure S2

(A-B) *ap-Gal4, UAS-CD8-GFP/UAS-dPGC1^{shRNA}; UAS-Yki, tub-Gal80ts/+*.

(C) Control corresponds to *ap-Gal4, UAS-CD8-GFP/+; tub-Gal80ts/UAS-LacZ, ap>dPGC1^{shRNA}*

corresponds to *ap-Gal4, UAS-CD8-GFP/ UAS-dPGC1^{shRNA}; tub-Gal80ts/+, ap>Yki*

corresponds to *ap-Gal4, UAS-CD8-GFP/+; UAS-Yki, tub-Gal80ts/UAS-LacZ* and

ap>Yki+dPGC1^{shRNA} corresponds to *ap-Gal4, UAS-CD8-GFP/UAS-dPGC1^{shRNA}; UAS-Yki,*

tub-Gal80ts/+

Figure S3

(A) Control corresponds to *YW/+; +/+; Gug-Gal4, UAS-Mito-GFP/+, Gug>dMfn* corresponds

to *Gug-Gal4, UAS-Mito-GFP/UAS-dMfn, Gug>Mfn^{RNAi}* corresponds to *UAS-dMfn^{RNAi}/+;*

Gug-Gal4, UAS-Mito-GFP/+, Gug>miro corresponds to *UAS-miro/+; Gug-Gal4, UAS-*

Mito-GFP/+ and *Gug>miro^{RNAi}* corresponds to *UAS-miro^{RNAi}/+; Gug-Gal4, UAS-Mito-*

GFP/+

Figure S4

(A-F) Control corresponds to *ap-Gal4, UAS-CD8-GFP/+; tub-Gal80ts/UAS-LacZ, ap>Mfn*

corresponds to *ap-Gal4, UAS-CD8-GFP/+; tub-Gal80ts/ UAS-dMfn, ap>Mfn^{RNAi}* corresponds to

ap-Gal4, UAS-CD8-GFP/ UAS-dMfn^{RNAi}; tub-Gal80ts/+, ap>Opa1 corresponds to *ap-Gal4,*

UAS-CD8-GFP/EP-Opa1; tub-Gal80ts/+ and *ap>Opa1^{RNAi}* corresponds to *ap-Gal4, UAS-CD8-*

GFP/+; tub-Gal80ts/ UAS-Opa1^{RNAi}.

Temporal control of transgene expression by Gal80^{TS}

For experiments requiring the use of ap>Yki, the Gal4/Gal80^{TS} system was used to prevent lethality during early development. This system allowed UAS-driven transgenes to be controlled in a temperature-dependent manner. *Drosophila* crosses were kept for 2 days at 18°C to lay eggs. After 2 days, crosses were flipped into new vials and the old vials containing eggs were kept for 2 additional days at 18°C before being transferred to a 29°C incubator for transgene expression to be induced. To ensure that wing disc were analyzed at the same developmental stage, larvae with hyperplastic tumors were dissected after 5 days at 29°C, whereas giant larvae containing neoplastic tumors were dissected after 7 days at 29°C

Immunohistochemistry

Larvae were dissected in PBS and fixed in 3.7% formaldehyde / PBS for 20 mins at room temperature. Samples were then washed in 0.2% triton / PBS (PBT) and blocked for an hour at room temperature in blocking buffer (BBT) made of 0.2% triton, 5mM NaCl and 3% BSA diluted in PBS. Primary antibodies were diluted in BBT, and the samples were left in primary antibody solution overnight at room temperature. Longer primary antibody incubations were done at 4°C. After removing the primary antibody and performing washes with BBT, samples were incubated for 2 hours at room temperature with the relevant fluorescent secondary antibodies and DAPI that was diluted in BBT. After removing the secondary antibody and performing washes with PBT. Samples were mounted in 90% glycerol / PBS containing 0.4% N-propyl gallate. BBT and PBT recipes were changed to 0.1% tween instead of 0.1% triton for all stainings that were done for mitochondrial analysis.

The following primary antibodies were used: Anti-MMP1 (3A6B4/ 5H7B11/3B8D12 from Developmental Studies Hybridoma Bank were mixed in equal volumes), Anti-pH2Av (Rockland 600-401-914, dilution 1:500). Secondary antibodies: DAPI (Invitrogen D1306, 60nM), Alexa Fluor 635 phalloidin was used to stain F-actin (Invitrogen A34054, dilution 1:200), Anti-mouse Alexa Fluor 555 (Invitrogen A21425, dilution 1:200), Anti-rabbit Alexa Fluor 555 (Invitrogen A21430, dilution 1:200).

RNA extraction, cDNA synthesis, and Quantitative Polymerase Chain reaction (qPCR)

Wing discs were dissected from *Drosophila* larvae and total RNA extracted by Trizol reagent (Life Technologies, Ref: 15596026). RNA was treated with RQ1 DNase I (Promega, Ref: M6101) and converted to cDNA using the SuperScript III Reverse Transcriptase kit (Life technologies, Ref:

522 18080-044). Real-time PCR quantification was performed using 5x HOT FIREpol EvaGreen qPCR
523 Mix Plus (Solis BiodDyne, Ref: 08-24-00001) on the QuantStudio 6 Flex Real-Time PCR machine
524 (Applied Biosystem). Table 1 contains the sequence of all the primers used for our experiments.
525

List of primers

Gene	Forward primer sequence:	Reverse primer sequence:
dPGC1	GCTGACTTGGATAATGCTGGCA	TGAACCTACCGGTGACTTGC
TFAM	AACAAAGTCAGGCCCCTAGC	CCGCATGAAGCGAAAGTAGG
dERR	GGAATTGGTCAGCGTCATTGG	GAACTCCGTGTAACCGCACT
Ets97D	GGTGCCCTGGAAGAAGTGATT	ACGCATTGGTCCACGAGATT
ewg	CGATGTTGATTACACCACGCA	TTTGAATGGTAGCACCGCCT
dMfn	AGCAGTATTGGACACAGCGT	ACGCCAGCCGATAGTTTTCA
Opa1	CCCATGAAGGCTTTGGGCTA	ACCCCTCGACGATGGAAAAG
Drp1	AGATGCTGCGCTTTCCCAAA	AGTAGGGATCGCTGTCCGTT
Pink1	TACCGACAGGACCAATTGCC	CCACTGTAGGATCTCCGGACT
Park	CGGATGTGAGTGATACCGTGT	TACTCCTCGCGTGTCAACAG
Atg7	GTGACACGACCCGGAGTATC	ATTTAGGACGGCCGCTGAAC
milt	AAGGACCTAGAGCTGACCGT	GGAGTGTCAGTATCTGTGCCA
miro	TATTCCACCATGGACAGCGT	CGGATGTGAGCTCCTGTTCTTC
Cyclin E	TTCTACCAGCAGCACTGAGC	TGGAAGGATAGCGATTGGGC
Rp49	AAGCGGCGACGCACTCTGTT	GCCCAGCATACAGGCCCAAG

qPCR statistics

All qPCR experiments to check gene expression were performed a minimum of three times
(independent experiments) on several wing discs for Figs. 3A, 5B and S1C (total number are indicated
in the figures legends). Statistical analysis was done using GraphPad Prism, values were checked if
they were normally distributed using the Shapiro-Wilk test. If normally distributed, statistical
significance was determined using Unpaired t-test with Welch's correction, if not, statistical
significance was determined by Mann-Whitney test.
535

Western blot

Wing discs were dissected from *Drosophila* larvae and transferred into RIPA protein extraction and
immunoprecipitation buffer (Sigma-Aldrich, Ref: R0278) containing cOmplete Protease Inhibitor
Cocktail (Merck, Ref: 04693124001), PhosSTOP (Merck, Ref: 04906837001) and 100mM PMSF
stock (Sigma-Aldrich, Ref: 93482). The wing discs were homogenized by pipetting the sample up
and down and then leaving the sample on ice for 30 mins. After 30 mins, the samples were sonicated

3 times for 3 cycles with the following settings: 100% amplitude, 1 cycle. The samples were then

centrifuged for 20 mins, 15000g at 4°C to obtain the supernatant that was used for our western blots.

Protein quantification was performed using The Pierce BCA protein assay kit (Thermo Fisher

Scientific, Ref: 23227). 15 μg of protein was loaded for each sample for the Western blots. Western

blot membranes were blocked for an hour at room temperature with 5% skimmed milk (Fluka, Ref:

70166-500G) dissolved in TBST. After washing with TBST, the membranes were incubated

overnight at 4°C with primary antibodies that were diluted in TBST. After removing the primary

antibody and performing washes with TBST, samples were incubated for 1 hours at room temperature

with the relevant secondary HRP antibodies. After removing the secondary antibodies and performing

washes with TBST. The Pierce ECL Western Blotting Substrate kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Ref:

32106) was used to visualize protein levels on the Amersham Imager 600 (GE healthcare).

The following primary antibodies were used: Anti cyclin E (sc-33748, dilution 1:1000) and 12G10

anti-alpha-tubulin (DSHB AB_1157911, dilution 1:1000). HRP Secondary antibodies: Polyclonal

goat anti rabbit HRP (Dako P0448, dilution 1:5000) and Polyclonal goat anti mouse HRP (Dako

P0447, dilution 1:5000)

Electron microscopy

Larval wing disc and tumors were dissected in PBS and fixed in 2% glutaraldehyde / 0.1M sodium

cacodylate buffer at room temperature. Samples were then passed to staff of the Core Facility for

Integrative Microscopy at The University of Copenhagen, so that thin sections of tissue could be cut

and prepared for imaging. All specimens were imaged by either our collaborators or staff at the Core

Facility for Integrative Microscopy. Images were acquired with a Transmission Electron Microscope

Philips CM100, FEL.

Imaging and quantification of *Drosophila* wing imaginal disc size

Confocal images of *Drosophila* wing imaginal disc were acquired with a Leica SP8 confocal laser-

scanning microscope and processed with ImageJ software. The area of the wing disc expressing our

transgenes of interest was determined using ImageJ. Using the 'threshold' function, we set the

threshold to only the GFP-positive area of the wing disc. Next, we used the 'Analyze particles' option

to quantify the area size. For every genotype, a minimum of 10 discs were quantified. Using GraphPad

Prism, values were checked if they were normally distributed using the D'Agostino and Pearson test.

If normally distributed, statistical significance was determined using Unpaired t-test with Welch's
correction, if not, statistical significance was determined by Mann-Whitney test.
575

Imaging and quantification of *Drosophila* adult wing size
Images of adult *Drosophila* wings were taken with a Leica M165 stereomicroscope and processed
with ImageJ software. Crosses were allowed to lay eggs on apple agar plates with yeast paste at 25°C
for 10 to 14 hours. Once eggs hatch and L1 larvae emerge, 20 larvae were transferred to vials
containing standard *Drosophila* food, these vials were kept at 29°C until adult flies eclose. To fix the
wings, adult flies were soaked in a 25% glycerol, 75% ethanol mixture for at least 24 hours, after that,
the wings were plucked and mounted in glycerol for imaging. To measure the wing area, the polygon
selection tool in ImageJ was used to draw a boarder around the edges of the wing. Next the 'measure'
option was used to quantify the area size. For every genotype, 20 wings were quantified. Using
GraphPad Prism, values were checked if they were normally distributed using the D'Agostino and
Pearson test and statistical significance was determined using Unpaired t-test with Welch's
correction.
588

Quantification of mitochondria size in peripodial membrane
The Gug-Gal4 driver was used to drive the expression of the Mito-GFP mitochondria marker in the
peripodial membrane. Two filters were applied to the images: unsharp mask (radius = 10.0 pixels,
mask strength = 0.9) and median filtering (radius = 3) to enhance and smooth the Mito-GFP signal
respectively (Terriente-Felix, A. et al, 2020). Next, the 'threshold' function was used to create a
binary mask and the Mitochondrial analyzer 2D analysis plugin from ImageJ (Chaudhry, A., 2019)
was used to calculate the mean form factor. For every genotype, mitochondria from a minimum of
15 images were quantified. Using GraphPad Prism, values were checked if they were normally
distributed using the D'Agostino and Pearson test. If normally distributed, statistical significance was
determined using Unpaired t-test with Welch's correction, if not, statistical significance was
determined by Mann-Whitney test.

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Conflict of interest

The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

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FIGURES

Figure 1. dPGC1 in Normal Wing Development.

(A) Confocal micrograph showing a *MS1096-Gal4, UAS-RFP* third instar wing imaginal disc. RFP
labels the region of the disc expressing this Gal4 line and is shown in red and grey. DAPI labels the
DNA and is shown in blue and grey. Scale bar: 100 μm.

(B) Cuticle preparations of adult wings from *MS1096-Gal4, UAS-lacZ* control flies; *MS1096-Gal4,*
UAS-dPGC1-RNAi flies*;* and *MS1096-Gal4, EP-dPGC1* flies*.*

(C) Quantification of wing size of the genotypes shown in B. Wing area is normalized to the mean of
the control. Statistical significance was determined by unpaired t test with Welch's correction (n = 20
[MS1096>lacZ], n = 20 [MS1096>dPGC1-RNAi], n = 20 [MS1096>UAS-dPGC1]; *P < 0.05).

910

911 **Figure 2. Oncogenic Growth in Discs Over-Expressing Yki and Downregulating dPGC1.**

912 **(A-D)** Confocal micrographs showing discs of the following genotypes: *ap-Gal4, UAS-GFP, UAS-*
913 *LacZ* (A); *ap-Gal4, UAS-GFP, UAS-dPGC1-RNAi* (B); *ap-Gal4, UAS-GFP, UAS-Yki, UAS-LacZ* (C);
914 and *ap-Gal4, UAS-GFP, UAS-Yki, UAS-dPGC1-RNAi* (D). GFP is shown in green and DAPI labels
915 the DNA and is shown in blue. Scale bar: 100 µm.

916 **(E)** Quantification of GFP-positive area in third-instar wing imaginal discs of the genotypes shown in
917 A-D. GFP-positive area is normalized to the mean of the control. Statistical significance was
918 determined by unpaired t test with Welch's correction (n = 18 [ap>LacZ], n = 19 [ap> dPGC1-RNAi],
919 n = 20 [ap> Yki], n = 20 [ap> Yki, dPGC1-RNAi]; ****P < 0.0001.

920 **(F-H)** Confocal micrographs of imaginal discs of the following genotypes: *ap-Gal4, UAS-GFP, UAS-*
921 *LacZ* (F); *ap-Gal4, UAS-GFP, UAS-Yki, UAS-LacZ* (G); and *ap-Gal4, UAS-GFP, UAS-Yki, UAS-*
922 *dPGC1-RNAi* (H). F-actin marks cell polarity and is shown in grey. Mmp1 is shown in red and grey.
923 GFP is shown in green. DAPI labels the DNA and is shown in blue. Scale bar: 100 µm. Note the
924 increase in Mmp1 signal and F-actin disorganization in the tumorous disc shown in H, as compared
925 with F and G.

Figure 3. Aberrant Mitochondrial Dynamics in Yki + dPGC1-RNAi Tumorous Discs.

(A) mRNA quantification by qPCR of the genes indicated on the X axis. We separated those genes in different categories: mitochondria biogenesis - blue, mitochondrial dynamics - black, mitophagy - pink, and mitochondrial transport - green. Those genes were quantified in *ap-Gal4, UAS-GFP, UAS-Yki, UAS-dPGC1-RNAi*. Control is *ap-Gal4, UAS-GFP, UAS-Yki, UAS-LacZ*. The data show mean ± SD from five to six biological replicates. Data were normalized to RP49. Statistical significance was determined by unpaired t test with Welch's correction for parametric data and by Mann-Whitney test for non-parametric data (*$P < 0.05$, **$P < 0.01$, ***$P < 0.001$, ****$P < 0.0001$).

(B) Confocal micrograph of an *ap-Gal4, UAS-mito-GFP* disc showing a XY section of the wing disc main epithelium. Mitochondria are labeled with mito-GFP and are shown in green and grey. DAPI is shown in blue. Scale bar 10 µm.

(C) Confocal micrograph of a *Gug-Gal4, UAS-mito-GFP, YW* disc showing a XY section of the wing disc peripodial epithelium. Mitochondria are labeled with mito-GFP and are shown in green and grey. DAPI is shown in blue. Scale bar 10 µm.

(D-G) Confocal micrographs showing XY sections of wing disc peripodial epithelia in the following genotypes: *Gug-Gal4, UAS-mito-GFP, UAS-dMfn* (D); *Gug-Gal4, UAS-mito-GFP, UAS-dMfn-RNAi* (E); *Gug-Gal4, UAS-mito-GFP, UAS-miro* (F); and *Gug-Gal4, UAS-mito-GFP, UAS-miro-RNAi* (G). Mitochondria are labeled with mito-GFP and are shown in green and grey. DAPI is shown in blue. Scale bar 10 µm.

(H, I) Electron microscopy micrographs obtained from discs of the following genotypes: *ap-Gal4, UAS-GFP, UAS-Yki, UAS-LacZ* (H); and *ap-Gal4, UAS-GFP, UAS-Yki, UAS-dPGC1-RNAi* (I). Red arrows point to examples of individual mitochondria. Note the mitochondria size difference between the two conditions analyzed. Scale bar 1 µm.

(J, K) Quantification of mitochondrial length and mitochondrial area from electron microscopy micrographs obtained from discs of the following genotypes: *ap-Gal4, UAS-GFP, UAS-Yki, UAS-LacZ* (control); and *ap-Gal4, UAS-GFP, UAS-Yki, UAS-dPGC1-RNAi* (experimental condition). Statistical significance was determined by unpaired t test with Welch's correction for parametric data and by Mann-Whitney test for non-parametric data (n = 150 [ap> Yki], n = 150 [ap> Yki, dPGC-1-RNAi]; ****$P < 0.0001$).

Figure 4. Changes in mitochondrial fusion and fission and tumor formation.

(A-F) Confocal micrographs showing discs of the following genotypes: *ap-Gal4, UAS-GFP, UAS-*
Yki, UAS-LacZ (A); *ap-Gal4, UAS-GFP, UAS-Yki, UAS-dPGC1-RNAi* (B); *ap-Gal4, UAS-GFP, UAS-*
Yki, UAS-dPGC1-RNAi, UAS-dMfn-RNAi (C); *ap-Gal4, UAS-GFP, UAS-Yki, UAS-dPGC1-shRNA,*
UAS-Opa1-RNAi (D); *ap-Gal4, UAS-GFP, UAS-Yki, UAS-dMfn* (E); *ap-Gal4, UAS-GFP, UAS-Yki,*
UAS-Opa1 (F). GFP is shown in green and DAPI labels the DNA and is shown in blue. Scale bar:
100 μm.

(G) Quantification of GFP-positive area in third-instar wing imaginal discs of the genotypes shown in
(A-F). GFP-positive areas are normalized to the mean of the control. Statistical significance was
determined by unpaired t test with Welch's correction (n = 18 [ap>LacZ], n = 20 [ap>Yki], n = 20
[ap>Yki, dPGC1-RNAi], n = 20 [ap>Yki, dPGC1-RNAi, UAS-dMfn-RNAi], n = 20 [ap>Yki, dPGC1-
shRNA], n = 20 [ap>Yki, dPGC1-shRNA, UAS-Opa1-RNAi], n = 13 [ap>Yki, UAS-dMfn], n = 12
[ap>Yki, UAS-Opa1]; ***P < 0.001, ****P < 0.0001).

(H, I) Confocal micrographs of imaginal discs of the following genotypes: *ap-Gal4, UAS-GFP, UAS-*
Yki, UAS-dMfn (H); and *ap-Gal4, UAS-GFP, UAS-Yki, UAS-Opa1* (I). F-actin can be used to
visualize cell polarity and epithelial organization, and it is shown in grey. Mmp1 is shown in red and
grey. GFP is shown in green. DAPI labels the DNA and is shown in blue. Scale bars: 100 μm.

Figure 5. Cyclin E in Yki + dPGC1-RNAi Tumors.

(A) Western blot showing Cyclin E protein in third-instar wing imaginal discs of the genotypes indicated. Alpha-tubulin was used as a loading control.

(B) Quantification of Cyclin E mRNA by qPCR in imaginal discs of the genotypes indicated. The data show mean ± SD for four to five biological replicates. Data were normalized to RP49. Statistical significance was determined by unpaired t test with Welch's (*P < 0.05, N.S indicates not significant).

(C-F) Maximum projection of confocal micrographs of imaginal discs showing phospho-H2Av in red and grey, and DAPI in blue. The genotypes shown are *ap-Gal4, UAS-GFP, UAS-LacZ* (C); *ap-Gal4,*

UAS-GFP, UAS-Yki, UAS-LacZ (D); *ap-Gal4, UAS-GFP, UAS-Yki, UAS-dPGC1-RNAi* (E) and *ap-Gal4, UAS-GFP, UAS-Yki, UAS-dap-RNAi* (F).

(G) Quantification of pH2Av-positive foci in the genotypes shown in C-F. The data were normalized to the mean of the control. Statistical significance was determined by unpaired t test with Welch's correction (n = 12 [ap>LacZ], n = 12 [ap>Yki], n = 12 [ap>Yki, dPGC1-RNAi], n = 20 [ap>Yki, dap-RNAi], ** P<0.01, *** P<0.001, **** P < 0.0001).

(H-M) Confocal micrographs showing discs of the following genotypes: *ap-Gal4, UAS-GFP, UAS-LacZ* (H); *ap-Gal4, UAS-GFP/Cyclin E-05306* (I); *ap-Gal4, UAS-GFP, UAS-Yki, UAS-LacZ* (J); *ap-Gal4, UAS-GFP, UAS-Yki, UAS-dap-RNAi* (K) *ap-Gal4, UAS-GFP, UAS-Yki, UAS-dPGC1-RNAi* (L); *ap-Gal4, UAS-GFP, UAS-Yki, UAS-dPGC1-RNAi/Cyclin E-05306* (M). GFP is shown in green and DAPI labels the DNA and is shown in blue. Scale bar: 100 µm.

(N) Quantification of GFP-positive area in third-instar wing imaginal discs of the genotypes shown in H-M. GFP-positive area is normalized to the mean of the control. Statistical significance was determined by unpaired t test with Welch's correction (n = 18 [ap>LacZ], n = 20 [ap>cyclin E-05306], n = 20 [ap>Yki], n = 20 [ap>Yki, dap-RNAi] n = 20 [ap>Yki, dPGC1-RNAi], n = 20 [ap>Yki, dPGC1-RNAi, cyclin E-05306]; ****P < 0.0001).