Genome-wide screen for deficiencies modifying *Cyclin G*-induced developmental instability in *Drosophila melanogaster*

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ABSTRACT

Despite long-lasting interest and research efforts, the genetic bases of developmental stability

– the robustness to developmental noise – and its most commonly used estimator, fluctuating

asymmetry (FA), remain poorly understood. The *Drosophila melanogaster Cyclin G* gene

(*CycG*) encodes a transcriptional cyclin that regulates growth and the cell cycle. Over-

expression of a potentially more stable isoform of the protein (deleted of a PEST-rich domain,

hereafter called CycG$^{\Delta P}$) induces extreme wing size and shape FA (*i.e.* high developmental

noise), indicating a major disruption of developmental stability. Previous attempts to identify

the genetic bases of FA have been impeded by the constitutively low level of developmental

noise, limiting the power to detect any effect. Here, we leverage the extreme developmental

instability induced by overexpression of *CycG$^{\Delta P}$* to explore the genetic bases of FA: we

perform a genome-wide screen for deficiencies that enhance or reduce *CycG$^{\Delta P}$*-induced wing

FA. 499 deficiencies uncovering 90% of the euchromatic genome were combined with a

recombinant chromosome expressing *CycG$^{\Delta P}$*. We identified 13 and 16 deficiencies that

respectively enhance and decrease FA. Analysis of mutants for some genes located in these

deficiencies shows that Cyclin G ensures homogeneous growth of organs in synergy with the

major morphogens of the wing, Dpp and Wg, as well as the Hippo and InR/TOR pathways.

They also reveal that *CycG$^{\Delta P}$*-induced FA involves Larp, a potential direct interactor of

Cyclin G, that regulates translation at the mitochondrial membrane. This opens up new

research perspectives for understanding developmental stability, suggesting a significant role

for mitochondrial activity.

INTRODUCTION

Developmental noise results from the inherent variability of biological processes, that
operates independently of genetic or environmental factors (for a review on concepts see
(Debat and David 2002). Developmental stability refers to the buffering of developmental
noise. In bilaterians, as both sides are influenced by the same environmental conditions and
have the same genome, an estimate of developmental noise is provided by fluctuating
asymmetry (FA), the slight, random deviations from perfect symmetry in paired structures.
The genetic bases of developmental stability remain largely unknown. Investigation of
mandible size and shape FA in a population of mice has identified a few single-locus
Quantitative Loci Traits (QTLs) (Leamy et al. 2015). In *Drosophila*, the wings, which have a
highly stereotyped organisation, have been commonly used to measure FA (*e.g.* Breuker et
al. 2006; Takahashi, Okada, Teramura, et al. 2011; Gomez and Norry 2012; see Debat and
Peronnet 2013 for a review). Genome-wide deficiency mapping of regions responsible for
developmental noise has identified deficiencies associated with increased centroid size or
shape FA (Takahashi, Okada, Teramura, et al. 2011; Takahashi, Okada, and Teramura
2011). A few individual mutants have been reported to exhibit high FA, suggesting that they
may encode genes crucial for maintaining developmental stability. These include insertional
mutants for several members of the BMP signaling pathway (Debat et al. 2009), mutants for
the proapoptotic gene *hid* (Neto-Silva et al. 2009), mutants for the *Drosophila insulin-like*
peptide 8 (*Dilp8*) gene and mutants for *Lgr3* that encodes its neuronal receptor (Colombani
et al. 2012; Garelli et al. 2012; Colombani et al. 2015; Garelli 2015), mutants for genes
encoding small Hsp proteins (Takahashi et al. 2010), mutant for the transcription factor Yorkie
(Srivastava et al. 2020) and mutants for the *Tsp1* gene, which encodes the trehalose-6-
synthase phosphate (Matsushita and Nishimura 2020). Strikingly, these genes are involved
in a wide range of biological processes — including growth, signaling, stress response, and
metabolism — indicating that developmental stability is unlikely to be controlled by a single
master regulatory mechanism. Instead, it appears to be a multifactorial trait arising from the
integration of multiple physiological pathways.

We have previously reported that the *Cyclin G* gene (*CycG*) of *Drosophila*
melanogaster, which encodes a transcriptional cyclin, is implicated in developmental noise
(Debat et al. 2011; Debat and Peronnet 2013). Indeed, overexpression of *CycG^{ΔP}*, a modified
version of Cyclin G that lacks the C-terminal PEST domain and is therefore potentially more

stable, induces an unprecedented high level of size and shape FA (40-fold increase compared

to control). The strongly destabilized system induced by $CycG^{\Delta P}$ overexpression offers a

unique opportunity to investigate the genetic bases of developmental stability. In this study

we used $CycG^{\Delta P}$ overexpression to perform a genome-wide screen for deficiencies that

enhance or reduce $CycG^{\Delta P}$-induced wing size FA. 495 deficiencies uncovering about 90% of

the euchromatic genome were combined with a recombinant chromosome expressing

$CycG^{\Delta P}$.

Development robustness includes both developmental stability – *i.e.* the robustness to

developmental noise – and canalization – the robustness to genetic and environmental effects

(Debat and David 2002). As the relationship between these two components of robustness

has long been debated (see Klingenberg 2019 for a review), we also measured the variation

among individuals within genotypes as a measure of canalization, and tested its association

with FA.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Genetics

Flies were raised in yeast-cornflour broth (yeast extract 75 g/L, cornflour 90 g/L, agar-

agar 10.7 g/L, methyl 4-hydroxybenzoate 5.5 g/L) at 25°C. Lines carrying deficiencies (*Df*)

were from the Bloomington deficiency kit which combines deficiencies from different sources

(BSC, Exelixis and DrosDel) (Cook et al. 2012) (Supplementary Table 1). The BSC

deficiencies numbered greater that 99 and the Exelixis deficiencies were generated in the

same isogenic background (BL-6326 stock) (Hoskins et al. 2001; Cook et al. 2012; Roote and

Russell 2012). The DrosDel deficiencies were generated in a different isogenic background

(BL-5905 stock) (Ryder et al. 2004). These stocks were used as negative controls for the

corresponding lines. The genetic backgrounds are referred to as w^{5905} or w^{6326}. For the other

59 lines, for which the genetic background is unknown, either w^{5905} or w^{6326} were used

interchangeably.

The mutant alleles used in this study are listed in Supplementary Table 2. The *da-*

Gal4,UAS-CycG$^{\Delta P}$ third chromosome, obtained by genetic recombination (Debat et al. 2011),

was used as a positive control. Due to high lethality and low fertility, this chromosome was

maintained against the *TM6c,Sb* balancer, in males, at 18°C.

In order to address the genetic interactions between *CycG* and each deficiency, 5

replicate crosses containing 6 deficiency or control females and 5 *da-Gal4*, *UAS-*

CycG$^{\Delta P}$/TM6c,Sb or *da-Gal4* males were performed. Series of experiments with up to 25

deficiencies were performed, each series including the appropriate positive and negative

controls. Care was taken to keep the crosses in standardized conditions: tubes used for a

given series were from the same batch, they were maintained at 25°C on the same incubator

floor, parents were transferred into new tubes each 48 h, three times, then discarded. The

offspring was counted and kept in 70 % ethanol. Thirty females of the desired genotype

(*Df/da-Gal4*, *UAS-CycG$^{\Delta P}$*, *+/da-Gal4*, *UAS-CycG$^{\Delta P}$*, *Df/da-Gal4* or *+/da-Gal4*) were

randomly sampled (Supplementary Figure 1).

Measurements and statistical analysis

The wings were mounted on slides and scanned as described in Debat et al. (2011).

The distance between landmarks 3 and 13 was used to estimate wing length (Supplementary

Figure 1). FA was analyzed following the recommendations of Palmer, A. R. and Strobeck,

C. (2003). As measurement error statistically behaves in a similar way as genuine FA (i.e.

non directional random variation), each measurement was taken twice and FA was estimated

using the FA10a index, as it allows to partition out measurement error from true FA (Palmer

& Strobeck 2003). Briefly, a two-way mixed model ANOVA was applied to the data,

considering "Individual" as a random effect and "side" as a fixed effect, repetitions being

included in the residuals of the model. FA10a was computed as the interaction "individual x

side" MS minus the residual MS, divided by the number of replicates (here two replicates).

FA10a is thus analogous to a variance and as such is expressed in squared units of length.

Differences in FA were then tested using standard F tests.

The nortest R package was used to test normality of the difference between left- and

right-wing size (Shapiro-Wilk and Lilliefors tests) as well as skewness and kurtosis. Indeed,

normality is a crucial aspect of FA distribution, as a lack thereof is often associated with

phenomena interfering with FA (*e.g.* bimodality might indicate antisymmetry; see Palmer 1994

and Palmer & Strobeck 2003 for details). The rare outliers that perturbated normality,

skewness (< -0.5 or > +0.5) or kurtosis (< -3 or > +3) were eliminated from the sample (see

number of individuals in Supplementary Table 3), as they were identified as obvious errors in

the measurements. When size varies among groups, differences in asymmetry might stem

from positive allometric effects (*i.e.* larger size genotypes might present larger asymmetries).

Results were thus checked for any size-dependence of FA. F-tests were performed to
compare FA of the assays to the one of the series internal controls (*Df/da-Gal4*, *UAS-CycG^{ΔP}*
compared to *+/da-Gal4*, *UAS-CycG^{ΔP}*, *Df/da-Gal4* compared to *+/da-Gal4*). Holm correction
was applied within each series to account for multiple testing. Inter-individual variance of wing
length represented the variance of the individual mean wing length in the same group.
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RESULTS
Genome-wide screen for deficiencies that modify *CycG*-induced fluctuating
asymmetry
To scan the whole genome for modification of *CycG^{ΔP}*-induced FA, we used a set of 499
deficiencies uncovering approximately 90% of the euchromatic genome (Supplementary
Table 1). Of these, 4 deficiencies were too weak to be crossed (Supplementary Table 1). A
primary screen was performed by crossing females of the remaining 499 deficiencies with *da-*
Gal4, *UAS-CycG^{ΔP}/TM6c,Sb* males (Supplementary Figure 1). As the FA values varied from
experiment to experiment, a positive control (*w* females of the same genetic background
crossed with *da-Gal4*, *UAS-CycG^{ΔP}/TM6c,Sb* males) and a negative control (*w* females of the
same genetic background crossed with *da-Gal4/TM6c,Sb* males) were systematically
included in each experimental series to serve as intrinsic standards. Of note, a number of
deficiencies (59 out of 499) were generated in an unknown genetic background (indicated as
w in Supplementary Figure 1). In these cases, the results may reflect not only the hemizygous
allelic effects revealed by the deficiencies but also potential influences of the genetic
background. Forty-one deficiencies were lethal or sub-lethal when combined with the *da-*
Gal4, *UAS-CycG^{ΔP}* chromosome, preventing FA analyses (Supplementary Table 1). Two
deficiencies produced damaged wings when combined with *da-Gal4*, *UAS-CycG^{ΔP}*, rendered
them unmeasurable (Supplementary Table 1). A total of 16,200 fly wings were mounted and
analysed in this primary screen. Of the 452 deficiencies whose combination with *da-*
Gal4, *UAS-CycG^{ΔP}* produced viable flies with usable wings, most did not modify *CycG^{ΔP}*-
induced FA (neutral deficiencies) (Supplementary Figure 2). However, 39 deficiencies and 21
significantly decreased or increased *CycG^{ΔP}*-induced FA, respectively. We then performed a
secondary screen by crossing females of these 60 deficiencies with *da-Gal4*, *UAS-*
CycG^{ΔP}/TM6c,Sb or *da-Gal4* males in order to replicate the primary screen while measuring
the FA of the deficiencies independently of *CycG^{ΔP}* overexpression. In addition, 8 neutral
deficiencies were randomly selected to confirm the absence of an effect. The results of this

secondary screen – a total of 4640 fly wings were mounted and analysed – are shown in

Supplementary Table 3. Of the 68 deficiencies tested, only three, *Df(2L)BSC17*,

Df(1)BSC582, and *Df(3L)BSC419*, increased FA when combined with *da-Gal4* in absence of

CycG^{ΔP} expression. None decreased it. Nevertheless, the increase was rather modest

compared to that observed in context of *CycG^{ΔP}* expression (FA fold-changes of 3.3, 3.4, and

4.8 when comparing *Df/+; +/da-Gal4* to *+/da-Gal4* of the same series, *versus* FA fold-changes

of 28.5, 73.4, and 73.4 when comparing *+/UAS-CyG^{ΔP},da-Gal4 to +/da-Gal4* of the same

series). Interestingly, *Df(3L)BSC419* partially overlaps *Df(3L)ED4978*, which has already

been shown to increase wing shape FA (Takahashi, Okada, Teramura, et al. 2011).

The absence of *CycG^{ΔP}*-induced FA modification was verified for the 8 neutral

deficiencies. However, the secondary screen eliminated some deficiencies whose effect on

CycG^{ΔP}-induced FA was no longer significant, probably due to the variability of the internal

control. Thus, the screen ended up with 29 modifier deficiencies: 16 that reproducibly

decreased *CycG^{ΔP}*-induced FA and 13 that reproducibly enhanced it, further referred to as

decreasing and enhancing deficiencies, respectively (Table 1 and Figure 1). Surprisingly, the

13 enhancing deficiencies clustered on the second chromosome and the left arm of the third

chromosome whereas the 16 decreasing deficiencies clustered on the X chromosome and

the right arm of the third chromosome (Table 1). We did not observe any significant correlation

between the length of these deficiencies and the amplitude of their effect on *CycG^{ΔP}*-induced

FA (Figure 2A). A comparison of the secondary screen with a previous screen covering

approximately 65% of the *Drosophila melanogaster* genome (Takahashi, Okada, Teramura,

et al. 2011) revealed that, among the 9 decreasing and 16 increasing deficiencies that are

shared, none showed any alteration in wing centroid size FA, highlighting the power of the

CycG^{ΔP} genetic background to detect developmental noise (Supplementary Table 4).

The mean wing size of all *Df; da-Gal4*, *UAS-CycG^{ΔP}* flies was smaller than that of *Df;*

da-Gal4 flies, indicating that *CycG^{ΔP}* expression had a dominant effect on size reduction

(Figure 2B and Supplementary Figure 3). These differences in asymmetry were not due to a

size-dependent effect, as wing size was smaller (and not larger) in the most asymmetric

genotypes, and thus reflected genuine differences in developmental stability (Palmer, A. R.

and Strobeck, C. 2003).

Lastly, we observed a positive correlation between FA and inter-individual variance

mostly driven by a joint difference among broad categories of genotypes, *i.e.* deficiencies

alone, with low levels of both FA and individual variance, and high levels in the enhancing

deficiencies combined with $CycG^\Delta$, the decreasing deficiencies showing intermediate values

when combined to $CycG^\Delta$ (Figure 2C), As environmental conditions cannot be fully controlled

and individuals are not genetically perfectly identical due to potential segregating variation in

the parental lines, this inter-individual variance thus reflects minute genetic and environmental

differences, and indirectly, canalization (*e.g.* Klingenberg 2019). This positive correlation

between FA and inter-individual variance suggests that developmental stability and

canalization of *Drosophila* wing can be jointly affected by the combination of the deficiencies

and $CycG^\Delta$.

Taken together, these results confirmed that $CycG^{\Delta P}$ expression strongly perturbs

developmental stability. In addition, we identified 29 deficiencies among the 452 analysed

that enhanced or decreased $CycG^{\Delta P}$-induced FA and could thus contain genes important for

developmental stability. These genes could therefore be partners of *CycG* in the mechanisms

that maintain developmental stability.

Identification of genes that modify $CycG^{\Delta P}$-induced fluctuating asymmetry

We next set out to identify partners of *CycG* in developmental stability within these

deficiencies. Interestingly, *Df(3R)ED6361*, which uncovers *CycG*, reduced the FA induced by

$CycG^{\Delta P}$ expression, suggesting that expression of $CycG^{\Delta P}$ behaved as a dominant negative

mutant and that the deviation from symmetry it induced was dose-dependent. Taken together,

the enhancing deficiencies contained 736 genes (576 protein-coding genes and 160 non-

protein-coding genes), and the decreasing deficiencies 865 genes (715 protein-coding genes

and 150 non-protein-coding genes), making it impossible to test mutants of these genes

individually. To select which mutants to test, we focused on genes encoding direct protein

partners of Cyclin G or genes involved in the control of growth (Supplementary Table 2).

Although located in decreasing deficiencies (Supplementary Table 3), mutants or RNAi

lines for *Aladin* (Carvalhal et al. 2015), *CG9426* (FBgn0032485)*, E5* (Dalton et al. 1989),

eEF2 (Marygold et al. 2017), and *SAK* (Bettencourt-Dias et al. 2004) which encode direct

Cyclin G physical interactors, significantly increased $CycG^{\Delta P}$-induced FA (Figure 3). Other

genes, or combinations of genes, in these deficiencies may be responsible for the observed

effects. On the other hand, two RNAi lines for *larp*, which is located in a decreasing deficiency

(*Df(3R)BSC322*) and also encodes a direct Cyclin G physical interactor (11), significantly

reduced $CycG^{\Delta P}$-induced FA (Figure 3). Larp and Cyclin G may thus be direct partners in a

process important for developmental stability.

The Hippo signalling pathway plays a key role in controlling organ size (10). *Merlin*

(*Mer*), which encodes a positive regulator of this pathway that interacts directly with Cyclin G

(11), is located in the decreasing deficiency *Df(1)BSC871*. Additionally, *hippo* (*hpo*), which

encodes the kinase of the pathway, is located in *Df(2R)ED3728*, which increased *CycG^{ΔP}*-

induced FA. This prompted us to investigate the impact of other members of the Hippo

pathway on *CycG^{ΔP}*-induced FA. Mutants for *Mer, hpo, ft*, *exp*, *wts* and *ban*, significantly

increased it (Figure 4A). Furthermore, *Mer* inactivation also increased FA independently of

CycG deregulation (Figure 4A). These results suggest that the Hippo pathway plays a role in

developmental stability.

The *mTor* gene, which encodes the central member of another key regulator of growth

(Grewal 2009), the InsulinR/TOR signalling pathway (InR/TOR) belongs to a deficiency that

reduced *CycG^{ΔP}*-induced FA [*Df(2L)BSC277*]. Furthermore, Cyclin G interacts directly with

three actors of this pathway: Akt1, PP2A and Wdb (Fischer et al. 2016; Oughtred et al. 2021).

We thus tested the effect of *mTor* and other members of the pathway for their effect on

CycG^{ΔP}-induced FA. Most of these, particularly mutants for *Akt1*, *S6K*, *foxo*, *PTEN*, *mTor* and

wdb, increased *CycG^{ΔP}*-induced FA. This suggests that the interaction between Cyclin G and

the InR/TOR pathway is crucial for developmental stability (Figure 4B).

Finally, two major morphogens of the wing, *dpp* and *wg* [for a review see (Tabata and

Takei 2004)], belonged to deficiencies that enhanced *CycG^{ΔP}*-induced FA [*Df(2L)Exel7011*

and *Df(2L)BSC291*, respectively]. Mutants for both genes also increased *CycG^{ΔP}*-induced

FA, indicating that we had identified at least one gene responsible for this effect within each

deficiency (Figure 4C).

DISCUSSION

In our efforts to identify deficiencies that modify *CycG^{ΔP}*-induced FA, we found that 13

deficiencies out of 452 enhanced it (enhancing deficiencies) while 16 deficiencies decreased

it (decreasing deficiencies). Notably, these deficiencies were not evenly distributed across all

chromosomes. The decreasing deficiencies were enriched on chromosomes X and 3R,

whereas the enhancing deficiencies were concentrated on chromosomes 2 and 3L. This

pattern suggests that chromosomes 2 and 3L may have a general positive effect on

developmental stability. In addition, we observed that the vast majority of modifier deficiencies

(65 out of the 68 tested) does not affect FA on their own. Finally, the 13 deficiencies that

enhance $CycG^{\Delta P}$-induced FA represent only 4.1 % of the *Drosophila melanogaster* genome.

Collectively, these results indicate that under normal rearing conditions the control of growth

is highly robust.

Overexpression of $CycG^{\Delta P}$ using the Gal4/UAS system provides an entry point to

discover genes and gene networks that are essential for growth homeostasis. Unsurprisingly,

our results confirm that key morphogens, Dpp and Wg, are crucial for maintaining

developmental stability. A previous study had shown that insertional mutants of two BMP

pathway components, *tkv*, encoding a receptor of *dpp*, and *Mad*, encoding the principal

transcription factor, affect shape fluctuating asymmetry (Debat et al. 2009). Consistently, we

found that both a deficiency encompassing *dpp* and *dpp* mutant alleles enhance $CycG^{\Delta P}$-

induced FA, highlighting the central role of the BMP pathway in developmental stability. We

further show that the InR/Tor and Hippo growth pathways are essential for developmental

stability. In line with our findings, alternative splicing of *yki*, which encodes the transcription

factor Yorkie, a target of the Hippo pathway, has previously been shown to contribute to

developmental stability (Srivastava et al. 2020). Furthermore, Merlin that promotes assembly

of a functional Hippo signaling complex at the apical cell cortex has been shown to directly

interact with Cyclin G (Oughtred et al. 2021). With regard to the *Dilp8/Lgr3* axis (Colombani

et al. 2012; Garelli et al. 2012; Colombani et al. 2015; Garelli 2015), neither *Dilp8* nor *Lgr3*

were found in deficiencies that modify $CycG^{\Delta P}$-induced FA (*Df(3L)ED4685* and *Df(3L)ED4674*

for *Dilp8; Df(3R)BSC321* for *Lgr3*). These results are consistent with our previous findings

that expressing $CycG^{\Delta P}$ in the neuronal circuitry relaying information from the *Dilp8*

expression site to the brain does not modify FA. This led to conclude that $CycG^{\Delta P}$-induced

wing FA is an intrinsic response of the growing wing tissue (Dardalhon-Cuménal et al. 2018).

Lastly, mutants of the *Tps1* gene, which is involved in trehalose metabolism, exhibit high FA

that is exacerbated under dietary stress, suggesting an important role for trehalose

metabolism in developmental stability (Matsushita and Nishimura 2020). *Tps1* is located

within the *Df(2L)M24F-B* deficiency, which does not affect $CycG^{\Delta P}$-induced developmental

stability. Nevertheless, a more in-depth analysis of the interaction between *CycG* and *Tps1*,

particularly under dietary stress conditions, remains to be carried out.

Beyond its specific role, Cyclin G may be unique in that it sits at the crossroads of

many signalling pathways. Our previous systems biology approach has indeed shown that

CycG is linked to many genes in the wing imaginal disc (Dardalhon-Cuménal et al. 2018).

These new findings confirm that *CycG* may be a hub within a complex genetic network

important for the robustness of organ growth.

We have previously shown that expression of $CycG^{\Delta P}$ abolishes the strong negative

correlation between cell size and cell number observed in wild-type fly wings (Debat et al.

2011). Cyclin G may orchestrate growth homeostasis by ensuring the proper coordination of

growth and the cell cycle, which would be critical for developmental stability. This central role

may explain the spectacular effects of its deregulation on fluctuating asymmetry.

Some potential direct Cyclin G partners are included in the deficiencies that modify

$CycG^{\Delta P}$-induced FA. Strikingly, these partners belong to different gene ontology categories,

ranging from the aforementioned Merlin to transcription factors (*e.g.* E5), translation

regulators (*e.g.* Larp) and proteins involved in protein degradation (*e.g.* Cul2), reinforcing the

idea that Cyclin G may be involved in diverse cellular processes. Among the genes encoding

these potential direct partners, *larp* is the only one whose inactivation strongly reduces

$CycG^{\Delta P}$-induced FA, suggesting that the effect of Cyclin G on FA requires this direct

interaction. *Larp* encodes an evolutionarily conserved RNA-binding protein that forms a

complex with the Poly(A) binding protein (PABP), a translation regulator (Blagden et al. 2009;

Deragon and Bousquet-Antonelli 2015). In addition, Larp recognises mRNAs with a 5'

Terminal OligoPyrimidine (5' TOP) motif, *i.e.* mRNAs encoding proteins essential for protein

synthesis such as ribosomal proteins or translation factors (Cockman et al. 2020). More

recently, Larp has been shown to play a dual role as a translational repressor and a stabiliser

of 5' TOP mRNAs (20). In particular, when phosphorylated by Pink1, Larp inhibits translation

at the mitochondrial outer membrane suggesting that it may have an effect on the production

of new mitochondria (Zhang et al. 2019). Interestingly, in wing imaginal discs expressing

$CycG^{\Delta P}$, genes involved in translation are up-regulated and those involved in metabolism and

mitochondrial activity are down-regulated (Dardalhon-Cuménal et al. 2018). Taken together,

these data support the idea that there may be a link between developmental stability and the

regulation of mitochondrial activity.

FIGURES

Figure 1: Secondary screen – Analysis of the 60 candidate deficiencies isolated from

the primary screen.

a – FA of 39 deficiencies that decreased $CycG^{\Delta P}$-induced FA in the primary screen normalised

to the FA of *da-Gal4, UAS-CycG$^{\Delta P}$* (red line). 16 of them reproduced the results of the primary

screen (orange).

b – FA of 21 deficiencies that enhanced $CycG^{\Delta P}$-induced FA in the primary screen normalised

to the FA of *da-Gal4, UAS-CycG$^{\Delta P}$* (red line). 13 of them reproduced the results of the primary

screen (green).

*p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001

Figure 2: Secondary screen - Relationship between fluctuating asymmetry and

deficiency length, mean wing size and inter-individual variance.

a – FA (fold change) of the 16 decreasing (D) deficiencies (orange), the 13 enhancing (E)

deficiencies (green) and 8 neutral deficiencies (grey) versus deficiency length. No significant

correlation was observed between the two parameters (Pearson coefficient, R= -0.15).

b - FA of the 16 decreasing (D) deficiencies (orange) and the 13 enhancing (E) deficiencies

(green) combined with *da-Gal4, UAS-CycG$^{\Delta P}$* (filled circles) or not (empty circles) versus

mean wing size. Filled grey square: *+/da-Gal4, UAS-CycG$^{\Delta P}$*; empty grey square: *+/da-Gal4*.

A strong negative correlation was observed between these parameters (R= -0.65).

c – FA (log10) of the 16 decreasing (D) deficiencies (orange) and the 13 enhancing (E)

deficiencies (green) combined with *da-Gal4, UAS-CycG$^{\Delta P}$* (filled circles) or not (empty circles)

versus inter-individual variance (log10). Filled grey square: *+/da-Gal4, UAS-CycG$^{\Delta P}$*; empty

grey square: *+/da-Gal4*. A strong positive correlation was observed between the two

parameters (R= +0.67).

Figure 3: Candidate gene analyses – Genes encoding direct protein partners of

Cyclin G located in deficiencies that modify $CycG^{\Delta P}$-induced FA.

In green, alleles that significantly increased $CycG^{\Delta P}$-induced FA**.** In orange, alleles that

significantly decreased $CycG^{\Delta P}$-induced FA. In light grey, positive control *(+/da-Gal4, UAS-*

CycG$^{\Delta P}$). In dark grey, alleles that did not modify $CycG^{\Delta P}$-induced FA. Several alleles were

lethal (†) when combined to *+/da-Gal4* or *+/da-Gal4, UAS-CycG$^{\Delta P}$*.

*p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001

Figure 4: Candidate gene analyses – Genes encoding members of the Hippo pathway

(a), the InR/TOR pathway (b) and the Dpp and Wg morphogens (c).

In green, alleles that significantly increased $CycG^{\Delta P}$-induced FA**.** In grey, alleles that did not

modify $CycG^{\Delta P}$-induced FA.

*p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001

Supplementary Figure 1:

a - Position of the 15 landmarks on the wing. Landmarks 3 and 13 (red) were used to measure

wing length.

b – Diagrams of primary and secondary screens.

Df: deficiency; w^n: w^{5905} or w^{6326}; *Bal*: balancer chromosome; N: neutral deficiencies; D:

deficiency that decreased $CycG^{\Delta P}$-induced fluctuating asymmetry; E: deficiency that

increased $CycG^{\Delta P}$-induced fluctuating asymmetry.

Supplementary Figure 2: Distributions of the FA fold-changes in the primary and

secondary screens.

a – FA fold-changes for the 452 deficiencies that produced measurable wings when combined

with *da-Gal4*, *UAS-CycG$^{\Delta P}$*. Orange: FA fold-changes for the 39 deficiencies that significantly

decreased $CycG^{\Delta P}$-induced FA. Green: FA of the 21 deficiencies that significantly increased

$CycG^{\Delta P}$-induced FA. Grey: FA fold-changes for deficiencies that do not significantly modify

$CycG^{\Delta P}$-induced FA. Black line: FA of the *da-Gal4*, *UAS-CycG$^{\Delta P}$* positive control.

b – FA fold-changes for the 68 deficiencies selected for the secondary screen. Green: three

deficiencies showed a significantly higher FA compared to the genetic background. Grey: FA

fold-changes for the remaining deficiencies. Black line: FA of the *w;+/da-Gal4* genetic

background.

c – FA fold-changes of the 68 deficiencies selected for the secondary screen combined with

w; UAS-CycG$^{\Delta P}$/da-Gal4. Orange: FA fold-changes of the 16 deficiencies that significantly

decreased $CycG^{\Delta P}$-induced FA. Green: FA fold-changes for the 13 deficiencies that

significantly increased $CycG^{\Delta P}$-induced FA. Grey: FA fold-changes for deficiencies that did

not significantly modify $CycG^{\Delta P}$-induced FA. Black line: FA of the *da-Gal4*, *UAS-CycG$^{\Delta P}$*

positive control.

Supplementary Figure 3: Secondary screen – Mean wing size of flies heterozygous for

the deficiencies associated with *da-Gal4* (top) or *da-Gal4, UAS-CycG$^{\Delta P}$* (down).

Box-plots showing mean wing size. In grey, mean wing size of *+/da-Gal4* (**a**) or *+/da-*

Gal4, UAS-CycG$^{\Delta P}$ flies. In orange, mean wing size of deficiencies that decreased *CycG$^{\Delta P}$*-

induced FA combined with *da-Gal4* (top) or *da-Gal4, UAS-CycG$^{\Delta P}$* (down). In green, mean

wing size of deficiencies that increased *CycG$^{\Delta P}$*-induced FA combined with *da-Gal4* (top) *or*

da-Gal4, UAS-CycG$^{\Delta P}$ (**b**).

The two red lines correspond to the mean wing size of *+/da-Gal4* (1161) and *+/da-Gal4, UAS-*

CycG$^{\Delta P}$ (1014) flies.

*$p<0.05$, **$p<0.01$, ***$p<0.001$

Table 1: Deficiencies modifying *CycG^{ΔP}*-induced FA.

The fluctuating asymmetry fold-change corresponds to the ratio between fluctuating

asymmetry of the deficiency combined to *da-Gal4, UAS-CycG^{ΔP}* and fluctuating asymmetry

of *da-Gal4, UAS-CycG^{ΔP}*.

Chromosome arm	Deficiency name	Cytological location	Fluctuating asymmetry fold-change	Adjusted p-value
X	*Df(1)BSC530*	1A5;1B12	0.37329	4.68E-02
	Df(1)M38-C5	8B;8E	0.24024	2.86E-03
	Df(1)BSC722	10B3;10E1	0.25570	6.72E-03
	Df(1)FDD-0024486	14C4;14D1	0.12722	2.58E-06
	Df(1)BSC643	15F9;16F1	0.28609	7.33E-03
	Df(1)BSC405	16D5;16F6	0.37682	4.68E-02
	Df(1)BSC871	18D7;18F2	0.32513	2.55E-02
2L	*Df(2L)Exel7011*	22E1;22F3	3.67005	4.34E-03
	Df(2L)BSC354	26D7;26E3	4.32949	1.32E-03
	Df(2L)BSC291	27D6;27F2	2.69177	3.96E-02
	Df(2L)Exel7034	28E1;28F1	3.92670	2.69E-03
	Df(2L)ED629	29B4;29E4	6.02764	5.81E-05
	Df(2L)BSC277	34A1;34B2	0.39515	2.82E-02
	Df(2L)ED1473	39B4;40A5	3.37401	7.77E-03
	Df(2L)lt109	h35;h35	2.87894	2.34E-02
2R	*Df(2R)BSC880*	49A9;49E1	3.36810	9.85E-04
	Df(2R)ED3728	56D10;56E2	2.79286	2.50E-02
3L	*Df(3L)ED201*	61B1;61C1	9.14411	6.11E-07
	Df(3L)ED4457	67E2;68A7	3.77715	3.03E-03
	Df(3L)BSC12	69F6;70A2	7.46921	5.43E-06
	Df(3L)ED4710	74D1;75B11	5.14760	1.95E-04
	Df(3L)BSC419	78C2;78D8	0.20077	5.30E-04
3R	*Df(3R)BSC549*	83A6;83B6	0.28288	9.98E-03
	Df(3R)ED5623	87E3;88A4	0.32086	1.65E-02
	Df(3R)ED5705	88E12;89A5	0.33282	1.69E-02
	Df(3R)ED6255	97D2;97F1	0.27386	5.53E-03
	Df(3R)BSC322	98C3;98D7	0.33719	3.21E-02
	Df(3R)BSC749	100B1;100C1	0.39540	9.04E-03
	Df3R)ED6361	100C7;100E3	0.40559	1.17E-02

Supplementary Table 1: Deficiencies used in this study.

Supplementary Table 2: Alleles used in this study to identify genes that modify $CycG^{\Delta P}$-

induced fluctuating asymmetry in the decreasing and enhancing deficiencies.

Supplementary Table 3: Secondary screen for deficiencies which modify $CycG^{\Delta P}$-

induced FA.

Supplementary Table 4: Deficiencies used in Takahashi, Okada, Teramura, et al. (2011)

that are shared or overlap with those used in the secondary screen.

Data availability statement

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Figure 1

a

Decreasing deficiencies
da-Gal4,UAS-CycG^{ΔP}

b

Enhancing deficiencies
da-Gal4,UAS-CycG^{ΔP}

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4