Ratio-based sensing of two transcription factors regulates the transit to differentiation

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ABSTRACT

Cell state transitions are usually thought to be triggered by changes in the absolute

concentrations of relevant transcription factors. In the *Drosophila* eye, the transcription factor Yan

maintains cells in a progenitor state by repressing gene expression, while the Pointed transcription factor

activates gene expression programs that promote photoreceptor specification. In this study we

investigate how retinal cell state transitions are resolved by quantifying the expression dynamics of Yan

and Pointed proteins. Despite extensive cell-to-cell variation in absolute concentrations of Yan and

Pointed, progenitor cells maintain a relatively constant ratio of Pointed-to-Yan protein. A sustained

change in the Pointed-to-Yan ratio accompanies the transition to photoreceptor fates. Genetic

perturbations that disrupt the ratio produce photoreceptor specification defects, suggesting that

transitions depend upon a sustained change in the ratio. A model based on the statistical physics of

protein-DNA binding illustrates how ratiometric sensing could produce the changes in gene expression

that underlie these cell state transitions. We propose that ratiometric control mechanisms facilitate

regulation of developmental transitions by multiple transcription factors, and thereby make the transitions

robust to fluctuations in absolute protein levels.

INTRODUCTION

Organismal development proceeds through a sequence of transitions that yield increasingly specific cellular states. Conceptually, cell state transitions are often modeled as dynamical systems with bistability, with transitions viewed as irreversible switches between two stable but molecularly distinct cell states. Developmental transitions must be both accurate and robust so that the correct types and numbers of cells needed to pattern each tissue are generated reliably at the right time and place.

Transcription factors play central roles in defining each state and in orchestrating the transition between them. Genetic studies of numerous cell state transitions in metazoans have identified the relevant transcription factors, organized them into networks and defined the activating or repressive inputs that promote or prevent the transition. Network topology, namely the regulatory relationships between the transcription factors that define the network, can produce systems with mono-, bi- or multi-stability. For example, a simple mutually repressive circuit between two transcription factors can produce switch-like transitions between two stable states (Edgar et al., 1989; Gardner et al., 2000; Graham et al., 2010; Jacob and Monod, 1961). Networks with more elaborate circuits of positive and negative feedback render such state transitions more robust and irreversible (Melen et al., 2005; Schröter et al., 2015; Yao et al., 2008). While these network views provide useful abstract frameworks to define the states and the transitions between them, achieving quantitative understanding of how transcription factor expression and activity levels are modulated before, during and after a transition and how these dynamics contribute to the specificity, robustness and stability of cell state transitions remains challenging.

There are potentially two different strategies for how changes in transcription factor abundance might orchestrate specific transitions. First, studies of several networks, for example those regulating hematopoietic cell fate specification and the embryonic stem cell pluripotency-differentiation transition, have shown that transcription factors can provide ultrasensitive regulation such that small changes in their absolute concentrations trigger distinct differentiative transitions (Gillespie et al., 2020; Kopp et al., 2008; Laslo et al., 2006; Niwa et al., 2000). A second possible strategy might involve the response being sensitive to fold-change in transcription factor concentrations. This hypothesis is inspired by the finding that cells appear capable of sensing relative levels of signaling molecules. For example, in cultured cell models, changes in gene expression downstream of the TGF-β or Wnt signaling pathways occur in response to fold-changes rather than to absolute levels of the transcriptional effectors(Frick et al., 2017; Goentoro and Kirschner, 2009). Whether cells in a developing multicellular animal can similarly gauge and interpret relative concentrations of different transcription factors to execute state transitions is not known.

In this study we investigate how state transitions in the *Drosophila* eye imaginal disc are resolved from a starting point of concurrent expression of two ETS-domain transcription factors, the activator Pointed (Pnt) and the repressor Yan (also known as Anterior open, Aop). These transcriptional effectors operate downstream of the receptor tyrosine kinase (RTK) – MAP kinase (MAPK) pathway in *Drosophila*, providing essential regulation to numerous cell fate transitions (O'Neill et al., 1994; Vivekanand and Rebay, 2006). Across a variety of developmental contexts, loss of *yan* results in too many progenitors transiting to a particular fate whereas loss of *pnt* prevents the transition, leading to loss of that fate (Brunner et al., 1994; Flores et al., 2000; Gabay et al., 1996; Halfon et al., 2000; O'Neill et al., 1994; Xu et al., 2000). Conversely, excess Yan repressive activity can prevent transitions while excess Pnt activity can trigger ectopic fate specification (Brunner et al., 1994; Lachance et al., 2018; Rebay and Rubin, 1995; Shwartz et al., 2013; Wu et al., 2020).

These opposing phenotypes, together with elucidation of the extensive feedback circuitry that defines the Pnt-Yan network, inspired development of a bistable model for cell fate specification in which the progenitor state is defined by high absolute Yan concentrations and the differentiated state is defined by high absolute Pnt concentrations (Brunner et al., 1994; Gabay et al., 1996; Graham et al., 2010; Li et al., 2009; Melen et al., 2005; Qiao et al., 2004b; Tootle et al., 2003; Vivekanand et al., 2004; Yamada et al., 2003). The transition between the two states occurs when RTK-MAPK signaling triggers concomitant downregulation of Yan activity and expression, and upregulation of Pnt activity and expression.

While this model readily explains transitions where mutually exclusive Pnt and Yan expression define distinct cell states (Gabay et al., 1996; Melen et al., 2005), other well-studied transitions, such as those occurring in the embryonic mesoderm and in the eye imaginal disc, begin with extensive Pnt and Yan co-expression in the progenitor pool (Lachance et al., 2014). Qualitative comparison of Pnt and Yan protein expression in the developing eye suggest that Pnt and Yan levels also decay on comparable timescales in transitioning cells (Lachance et al., 2014). Reconciling these transitions with the bistable model has proven difficult because the quantitative features that define them are not well-characterized.

In an earlier study, we developed a quantitative approach to study Yan dynamics in the developing eye disc (Peláez et al., 2015). We found that Yan exhibits monostable patterns of expression in both progenitor cells and differentiating photoreceptors, and that cell state transitions occur independent of absolute Yan concentration. These results motivated us to consider whether the molecular events that drive and accompany cell state transitions might be more clearly reflected by the collective Pnt and Yan expression dynamics than by the expression of either Yan or Pnt alone.

Here we report the results of quantifying Pnt and Yan expression in thousands of individual eye

cells. We find that cell state transitions are marked by changes in the relative abundance of these two

transcription factors, rather than by their absolute concentrations. Multipotent progenitor cells maintain an

approximately constant ratio of Pnt-to-Yan protein over time despite extensive cell-to-cell variation in

absolute concentrations. Cells that transition to photoreceptor fates rapidly increase their Pnt-to-Yan ratio

at the time of specification. As differentiation proceeds, the ratio decays but remains stably elevated

above the progenitor ratio. Manipulations of *pnt* or *yan* gene dose showed that the Pnt-to-Yan protein

ratio is remarkably robust to changes in absolute transcription factor concentration, revealing the

existence of a ratio control strategy that may buffer the system against variable abundance of either

transcription factor. Genetic perturbations designed to circumvent this compensatory mechanism caused

abnormally high or low Pnt-to-Yan ratios, resulting in respective gain or loss of cell state transitions and

defects in retinal patterning. We propose that developing eye cells rely on a ratiometric sensing

mechanism in which a sustained increase in Pnt-to-Yan ratio initiates and accompanies differentiative

transitions.

RESULTS

Cell state transitions coincide with two pulses of increased Pnt protein levels

The stereotyped, repetitive events that pattern the developing *Drosophila* compound eye provide

a tractable context in which to quantify and compare transcription factor expression dynamics at single

cell resolution during cell state transitions. Photoreceptor cell fate specification is initiated and

coordinated across hundreds of identical ommatidial units by passage of the morphogenetic furrow (MF)

(Figure 1A; Voas and Rebay, 2004; Wolff and Ready, 1993). As the MF traverses the eye disc from

posterior to anterior over about two days of late larval and early pupal development, progenitor cells

immediately anterior to the MF turn on expression of the transcription factor Atonal. Refinement of Atonal

expression defines a column of future ommatidial units by specifying individual R8-type photoreceptors in

a periodic pattern immediately posterior and parallel to the MF (Jarman et al., 1994; Zhang et al., 2006).

Each R8 cell secretes the protein Spitz, which locally binds and activates Epidermal Growth Factor

Receptor (EGFR) in neighboring progenitor cells. Signals transduced via the Ras-MAPK cascade and

interpreted by Pnt and Yan, trigger the sequential recruitment of the R2/R5, R3/R4, R1/R6, and R7

photoreceptor types to each ommatidium (Figure 1B; Freeman, 1996; Voas and Rebay, 2004). Many

multipotent progenitors remain after all R cell fates have been specified and adopt other fates at later

stages of eye development, with any final surplus eliminated by apoptosis (Wolff and Ready, 1991).

Figure 1: Dynamics of Pnt and Yan expression during eye development. See figure supplements 1-3

(A) Schematic of an eye imaginal disc dissected from an animal ~100 hours post fertilization (25°C). Differentiation is initiated by passage of the morphogenetic furrow (MF), which moves across the eye epithelium from posterior to anterior (white arrow). Anterior progenitors (dark blue) proliferate asynchronously, while progenitor cells posterior to the furrow (light blue) arrest in G1 and then undergo a stereotyped sequence of state transitions. Specification of regularly spaced R8 cells (red dots) marks the start of ommatidial assembly and is followed by recruitment of additional R cell types (yellow dots). Adapted from Peláez et al. (2015).

(B) Top, cartoon of an apical view of the sequential differentiation of eight R cell types from multipotent progenitor cells (grey) and their relative positions within a single ommatidium. Arrows denote signals transmitted from the R8 to nearby cells. Bottom, a cross-section view through an eye disc, showing the epithelial constriction that marks the MF (boxed region) and then the relative nuclear positions of progenitors (grey) and specified R cells (various colors). Together, the stereotyped features depicted in this schematic enable unambiguous identification of each cell type as ommatidial assembly proceeds. Adapted from Peláez et al. (2015).

(C) Maximum intensity projection of Pnt-GFP fluorescence in an imaginal disc fixed ~100 h after fertilization. Right panel corresponds to the region enclosed by dashed white lines in the left panel. Morphogenetic furrow (orange arrow) precedes the first and second stripes of strong Pnt-GFP expression (black lines, labeled 1 and 2).

(D) Pnt-GFP abundance in progenitor cells. Grey points are individual nuclei, solid line is the smoothed moving average. Orange shading indicates the two regions of peak Pnt-GFP expression.

(E,F) R cell recruitment from the **(E)** first and **(F)** second peaks of Pnt-GFP expression in progenitors (grey). Solid lines and shaded regions denote moving averages and their 95% confidence intervals.

(G) Patterns of R cell recruitment relative to peak of Yan expression in progenitors (grey). Solid lines and shaded regions denote moving averages and their 95% confidence intervals. See also Pelaez et al., 2015.

(H, I) Measured **(H)** Yan abundance and **(I)** log2-transformed Pnt-to-Yan ratios in progenitor cells. Grey points are individual cells, solid line is a smoothed moving average.

Because the MF moves across the eye field with approximately constant velocity, initiating a new

column of R8 cells every two hours (Basler and Hafen, 1989; Campos-Ortega and Hofbauer, 1977) the

distance between the MF and any cell posterior to it is linearly proportional to the time elapsed since the

MF passed. This allows each cell's position along the anterior-posterior axis of the eye disc to be

mapped to a point in developmental time. Further, the highly stereotyped morphogenesis accompanying

each cell fate transition allows unambiguous identification of progenitor and differentiated photoreceptor

(R1-R8) states using only nuclear morphology and apical-basal position (Figure 1B; Peláez et al., 2015;

Tomlinson and Ready, 1987; Wolff and Ready, 1993). Using these same features, newly specified or

"young" R cells can be readily distinguished from both the concurrent progenitors and the "older" mature

R cells (Ready et al., 1976; Tomlinson, 1985). Cross-referencing with cell-specific markers has confirmed

we can make cell state assigments with >95% accuracy (Peláez et al., 2015). Although our approach

cannot measure the developmental progression of an individual cell, it provides a dynamic view of

thousands of cells across a developing eye. From this macroscopic view of dynamics, average cell

behaviors can be reconstructed and modeled.

Using this system together with a fully-functional genomic transgene in which all *pnt* isoforms are

C-terminally tagged with GFP (Lachance et al., 2014; and Figure 1 - figure supplement 1A,B), we

quantified Pnt expression dynamics in thousands of individual retinal cells as they navigated the

progenitor to photoreceptor fate transition. Confocal z-stacks of fixed 100h eye imaginal discs from *pnt-*

GFP;pnt$^{-/-}$ animals were processed using our published automated nuclear segmentation pipeline (Peláez

et al., 2015) that measures average Pnt-GFP fluorescence levels and exact 3D positions for all nuclei

(Figure 1 – figure supplement 2). Normalizing Pnt-GFP fluorescence levels to levels of Histone-RFP or to

DAPI provided control over measurement noise and differences in nuclear volume (Figure 1 – figure

supplement 2).

Focusing first on the progenitor cells, we found Pnt-GFP exhibited a steady-state basal level of

expression in cells anterior to the MF, but then increased dramatically in cells immediately anterior to the

MF (Figure 1C,D). This increase culminated in two successive peaks where Pnt-GFP expression

reached maximal amplitude. Each of these two pulses results from unique combinations of three different

Pnt isoforms (Wu et al., 2020). After the second peak, Pnt-GFP decayed to a low basal level. These

patterns matched the previously described qualitative features of Pnt-GFP expression (Lachance et al.,

2014).

The two peaks of Pnt-GFP in progenitor cells coincided with the two periods when some

progenitors transition to R cell states (Figure 1E,F; Wu et al., 2020). Transitions to R8, R2/R5, and R3/R4

Figure 1 - figure supplement 1: Characterization of Pnt-GFP
Adult eyes of flies carrying **(A)** one or **(B)** two copies of the recombineered *pnt-gfp* transgene under a *pnt* null mutant background. Note the wildtype retina patterning under both rescue conditions.

Figure 1 - figure supplement 2: Quantitative analysis pipeline

(A-D) Microscopy and segmentation of an example eye disc. **(A)** Partial cross-section of a confocal z-stack, with separate fluorescence channels for **(B)** Histone-RFP, **(C)** Pnt-GFP, and **(D)** Yan antibody. Yellow lines depict nuclear contours identified by FlyEye Silhouette.

(E) Manual annotation of R cell types without fate-specific markers. Image shows a maximum intensity projection of His-RFP fluorescence across four layers spanning early R cells. R cell types are readily distinguished by their morphological positions within each ommatidium.

states occurred during the first pulse, while transitions to R1/R6, and R7 states occurred during the

second. All cell state transitions coincided with a rapid increase in Pnt-GFP. The earliest identified R

cells, which we refer to as "young" R cells, were distinguished from the concurrent progenitors by 25-

50% higher Pnt-GFP levels on average. Immediately following the high expression peaks that marked

photoreceptor fate acquisition, Pnt-GFP expression decayed in all differentiating R cells, with all but R7

exhibiting faster decay kinetics than measured for the progenitor cells.

An increase in Pnt-to-Yan ratio accompanies cell state transitions

Overall, Pnt-GFP expression dynamics appeared remarkably similar to those we previously

reported for Yan (Figure 1 D-G; Peláez et al., 2015). At the population level, average levels of both

transcription factors increase in the progenitor pool as the MF passes, peak during R cell fate

specification, and then slowly decay. Similarly in transitioning R cells, instead of the stable high Pnt state

predicted by the traditional bistable model (Graham et al., 2010), both Pnt and Yan show rapid decay.

Because side-by-side population-wide views of Yan and Pnt-GFP expression dynamics in separate

samples does not allow simultaneous assessment of Yan and Pnt levels in individual cells, we measured

both Pnt-GFP and Yan in each nucleus using an anti-Yan monoclonal antibody. Although indirect

immunofluorescence risks non-linear amplification, we previously showed that Yan dynamics measured

with the antibody were almost identical to those measured directly with a fully-functional YFP tagged

version of Yan (Peláez et al., 2015), validating the approach.

Focusing first on the progenitor cells, we found that Pnt-GFP and Yan were induced at the same

time but peaked at different times (Figure 1D,H and Figure 1 - figure supplement 3A). Yan levels reached

a maximum amplitude between the two peaks of Pnt-GFP and then decayed back to a basal steady-

state level, interrupted by a transient plateau during the second pulse of Pnt-GFP. Despite their

alternating maxima, the overall induction and decay of Pnt-GFP and Yan were concurrent. Heat mapping

Yan levels onto each progenitor cell nucleus in the Pnt plot and vice versa emphasized the expression

heterogeneity within the two transition zones relative to the flanking regions (Figure 1 - figure supplement

3B,C).

The combination of similar population-level dynamics and regional heterogeneity prompted us to

consider whether the relative levels of Pnt and Yan might be coordinated in individual cells across the

progenitor population. To define these patterns more explicitly, we calculated the ratio of Pnt-to-Yan in

each progenitor cell. At the population level, the average Pnt-to-Yan ratio remained dynamically stable

about a constant value over time (Figure 1I). However, from 0 to 15 hours, there was considerable cell-

to-cell heterogeneity in the ratio. Coincident with the two peaks of Pnt-GFP, some cells had well above-

Figure 1 - figure supplement 3: Pnt-GFP and Yan expression in progenitor cells.
(A) Simultaneous Pnt-GFP (green) and Yan (magenta) expression dynamics in progenitor cells. Lines are smoothed moving averages across 500 sequential progenitors, shaded regions are bootstrapped 95% confidence intervals for the mean. Arrows indicate the times at which local maxima occur.
(B, C) Expression levels of **(B)** Pnt-GFP and **(C)** Yan in progenitor cells, color-coded in accordance with the expression level of the complementary transcription factor. In both panels, markers are arranged such that nuclei with higher levels of the complementary transcription factor are displayed in front. Lines are smoothed moving averages across 500 sequential progenitors.

average ratios, while in between the two Pnt-GFP peaks and coincident with the peak of Yan, many cells had well below-average ratios. After the second pulse of Pnt-GFP expression, the remaining progenitor cells, which remain multipotent and later differentiate into other cell types, acquired a slight bias towards Yan.

The coincidence between the two positive spikes in the Pnt-to-Yan ratio and the two periods of cell state transition suggested that dynamic changes in the ratio rather than in the absolute Yan or Pnt levels might regulate the transit to differentiation. As a first test of this hypothesis, we quantified the levels of Pnt-GFP and Yan in cells that had undergone R cell state transitions. We focused on R2/R5 and R1/R6 cells, since they are representative of transitions of cells derived from progenitors in the first and second Pnt-GFP peaks, respectively. As previously noted (Figure 1E,F), Pnt-GFP levels were elevated in both sets of "young" R cells as soon as we could confidently distinguish them from the concurrent progenitors (Figure 2A,B). In contrast, Yan levels were lower in these young R cells than in progenitor cells of comparable age (Figure 2C,D). As a result, the average ratio of Pnt-to-Yan was elevated 1.5- to 2-fold in young R cells (Figure 2E,F). The elevation was more modest in young R2/R5 cells than in young R1/R6 cells, but all increases were significant (P<.001, KS 2-sample test). The elevated ratio persisted as differentiation proceeded and Yan and Pnt levels decayed, always remaining above that of the progenitor pool. Analogous ratio trends were evident with the other R cell types (Figure 2G and Figure 2 - figure supplement 1). We conclude that state transitions leading to the acquisition of photoreceptor fate are defined by a sustained increase in the Pnt-to-Yan ratio relative to progenitor cells.

If high Pnt-to-Yan ratios initiate R cell fate transitions, then elevated ratios should precede the onset of R cell states, resulting in overlap in ratios between young R cells and concurrent progenitors. Alternatively, if Pnt-to-Yan ratios become elevated as a consequence of the transition, then the temporal delay between onset of the fate and elevation of the ratio would result in less overlap. When we compared the distribution of Pnt-to-Yan ratios in young R cells versus concurrent progenitor cells we found extensive overlap between the two populations (Figure 2H,I). The high degree of overlap also implies that if ratio elevation marks the onset of R cell state transitions, then some cells with high Pnt-to-Yan ratios that we morphologically classified as progenitors at slightly earlier time points might actually be in the very initial stages of transitioning to R cell fates. Many progenitors also adopted low Pnt-to-Yan ratios that did not overlap with the early R cell population. Assuming these progenitors were not viable candidates for effecting a state transition, then the extent of variation in the ratio among progenitors may constrain competence for differentiation.

Figure 2: Pnt-to-Yan ratios differ between cellular states. See figure supplements 1 and 2.
(A-F) Measured **(A, B)** Pnt-GFP abundance, **(C, D)** Yan abundance, and **(E, F)** Pnt-GFP-to-Yan ratio dynamics in R2/R5 (blue) and R1/R6 (red) cells. Progenitor cells are grey. Solid lines are smoothed moving averages across 250 and 50 samples for progenitor and R cells, respectively. Shaded vertical stripes indicate time spanned by young R cells.
(G) Comparison of Pnt-to-Yan ratio levels between young R cells (color filled boxes) and their concurrent progenitors (grey filled boxes). Colors denote R cell types. For each R cell type, the ten earliest identifiable R cells in each disc were designated as young R cells. Progenitor cells that fall within the time window spanned by these young R cells were designated as concurrent progenitors. Asterisks indicate significant differences (P<.001, KS 2-sample test).
(H, I) Joint distributions of Pnt-GFP and Yan protein levels for young **(H)** R2/R5 and **(I)** R1/R6 cells. Progenitor cells concurrent with the corresponding young R cells are shown in grey. Black line denotes the median Pnt-to-Yan ratio among the progenitor cells shown.

Figure 2 - figure supplement 1: Yan and Pnt expression dynamics.
(A) Measured Pnt-GFP-to-Yan ratio dynamics for all annotated cell types. Solid lines are moving averages across 250 and 75 sequential cells for progenitors and differentiating cells, respectively. Shading denotes bootstrapped 95% confidence interval for the moving average. Colors denote cell type.
(B-D) Expression dynamics and joint Pnt-Yan distributions for differentiating R8, R3/R4, and R7 cells. Joint distributions are limited to progenitor and R cells drawn from the vertically shaded region spanning the first ten R cells of the specified type in each disc. Solid lines are smoothed moving averages across 250 and 50 samples for progenitor and R cells, respectively.

If cell-to-cell variation in the Pnt-to-Yan ratio contributes to differentiative competence within the

progenitor population, then variability should rise to a maximum within the pool of progenitors from which

R cells are recruited, and then subside as fates are resolved. To test this, we adapted our reported

method (Peláez et al., 2015) to quantify simultaneously the dynamic cell-to-cell heterogeneity of Pnt

levels, Yan levels, and the Pnt-to-Yan ratio among both progenitors and R cells (Figure 2 - figure

supplement 2). Within the progenitor pool, a broad increase in cell-to-cell variation, quantified by the

coefficient of variation of the ratio, coincided with the time periods in which state transitions occurred.

Ratio variation was predominantly attributed to Yan and Pnt variability during the first and second waves

of R cell state transitions, respectively. Heterogeneity among progenitor cells decreased back to basal

levels after all R cell fate transitions were complete. Similar trends were evident among transitioning R

cells, but with a more rapid approach toward a consensus ratio following fate specification. We conclude

that an increase in the Pnt-to-Yan ratio marks, and perhaps initiates, the transition from progenitor to R

cell state, and that increased Pnt and Yan expression variability within the progenitor pool may ensure

adequate differentiative competence.

Increasing or decreasing the Pnt-to-Yan ratio perturbs cell state transitions

If cell state transitions in the developing retina rely on ratiometric sensing of relative Pnt and Yan

levels, then either increasing or decreasing the Pnt-to-Yan ratio should compromise photoreceptor

specification. We first tested this hypothesis by varying the genetic dosage of the *pnt* gene from one to

four copies. Animals with only one copy of *pnt* should have two-fold lower than normal Pnt-to-Yan ratios

while those with four copies of the gene should have two-fold higher than normal ratios. If such ratio

deviations are sufficient to compromise cell state transitions, then the respective photoreceptor loss and

ectopic specification should disrupt adult external eye morphology.

However, the eyes of the adult flies were morphologically indistinguishable from wild type across

this *pnt* dosage range (Figure 1 - figure supplement 1A,B). To confirm Pnt protein concentration was

indeed proportional to gene copy number, as it is for most *Drosophila* genes (Lucchesi and Rawls, 1973),

we quantified Pnt-GFP levels in eye cells containing one versus two copies of the *pnt-gfp* transgene in a

pnt mutant background. As expected, Pnt-GFP protein concentration varied proportionally to *pnt-gfp*

gene copy number (Figure 3A,B). Therefore, the absence of overt phenotypes suggested that either cell

state transitions are not sensitive to two-fold differences in ratio or that there are feedback mechanisms

that drive cells back to the ideal ratio.

We distinguished between these possibilities by measuring the Pnt-to-Yan ratio. We found that

average Yan protein concentration scaled with *pnt-gfp* gene copy number (Figure 3C,D) such that the

Figure 2 - figure supplement 2: Dynamics of expression variability in progenitor, R8, R2/R5, and R1/R6 cells.
Heterogeneities of **(A)** Pnt expression, **(B)** Yan expression, and **(C)** the log2-transformed ratio are estimated by de-trending fluctuations about a moving average of 250 sequential cells. Lines are moving averages of 250 sequential fluctuations. Shaded regions are bootstrapped 95% confidence intervals for the moving average. Colors denote cell type.

Figure 3: The Pnt-to-Yan ratio is stabilized against varying Pnt and Yan concentrations in progenitor cells.
(A-D) Moving averages of **(A, B)** Pnt-GFP and **(C, D)** Yan levels in progenitor and differentiating cells with one **(A, C)** versus two **(B, D)** copies of the *pnt-gfp* gene. Measurements used DAPI to mark nuclei. Colors denote cell type. Shaded regions are bootstrapped 95% confidence intervals for the moving average.
(E) Comparison of Pnt-to-Yan ratios between progenitor cells with one versus two copies of *pnt-gfp* during cell fate transitions. Colors denote cell fate transition periods for each R cell type. These time periods are defined in each disc by the times spanned by the first ten identifiable R cells. The concurrent progenitor cell populations are selected from these time windows. Light grey filled boxes denote 1x *pnt-gfp*, dark grey filled boxes denote 2x *pnt-gfp*. Pnt-to-Yan ratios in progenitor cells are indistinguishable between gene dosages during R8, R2/R5, and R1/R6 cell fate transitions (P>.1, KS 2-sample test).

Pnt-to-Yan protein ratio was not significantly changed (Figure 3E). This suggests that the network

compensates for variation in the abundance of Pnt by adjusting Yan protein levels, driving cells back

toward a set Pnt-to-Yan ratio. As a result, cell fate transitions are not perturbed. We imagine that

effective control of the Pnt-to-Yan ratio would require a similar dependence of Pnt protein levels on the

concentration of Yan. Consistent with this idea, prior studies reported that wild type eye development is

robust to either change in *yan* gene copy number (Peláez et al., 2015) or to overexpression of wild type

yan cDNA (Rebay and Rubin, 1995)

To test the functional significance of the ratio to cell fate transitions, we therefore needed to

introduce genetic perturbations that would both perturb the ratio and circumvent the system's ability to

compensate. Induced expression of constitutively active forms of either Ras or Yan provided appealing

strategies. Constitutively active Ras, Ras^{V12}, is stabilized in an active GTP-bound state and so

constitutively activates the downstream MAPK cascade to drive ectopic photoreceptor fate transitions

(Fortini et al., 1992; Karim et al., 1996; Rebay and Rubin, 1995). Constitutively active Yan, Yan^{ACT}, is

insensitive to MAPK phosphorylation induced degradation and blocks photoreceptor fate transitions

(Fortini et al., 1992; Karim et al., 1996; Rebay and Rubin, 1995). We hypothesized that these two fate

transition phenotypes would be associated with respective increases or decreases in Pnt-to-Yan ratios.

For our experiments we expressed *Ras^{V12}* and *Yan^{ACT}* as cDNA transgenes under direct control

of the enhancer/promoter of the *sevenless* (*sev*) gene (Fortini et al., 1992; Rebay and Rubin, 1995;

Simon et al., 1991). The *sev* gene is transiently expressed in a subset of progenitor cells posterior to the

MF and during the transitions that lead to R7, R3 and R4 fates (Banerjee et al., 1987; Raabe, 2000;

Tomlinson et al., 1987). A major advantage of using *sev*-driven overexpression of Ras^{V12} and Yan^{ACT} is

that events that establish R8 spacing and initiate other R cell transitions are not disrupted, allowing us to

identify individual cell types. Crossing to a UAS-mCherryNLS reporter line confirmed *sev-Gal4* drives

expression in the expected pattern (Figure 4 - figure supplement 1).

When we compared Yan and Pnt-GFP expression dynamics in progenitor cells of wild type

versus *sev-Ras^{V12}* eye discs, we found that constitutive Ras activity dramatically increased the amplitude

and duration of the second peak of Pnt-GFP expression (Figure 4A) but did not significantly alter Yan

expression dynamics (Figure 4B). The lack of change in Yan levels suggests that if the system "tried" to

compensate for the increase in Pnt levels by increasing Yan production, the sustained MAPK activation

induced by Ras^{V12} prevented excess Yan accumulation. The end result was a sustained increase in Pnt-

to-Yan ratio in progenitors during and after the second wave of state transitions (Figure 4C). Ectopic

specification of R cells was also noted, though their identities could not be discerned due to their

Figure 4 - figure supplement 1: Strong but not weak Sev>Gal4 drives expression in progenitors.
(A, B) Maximal projection of mCherry signal in apical z-slices containing R cell nuclei (left) and basal z-slices containing progenitor cells (right) of **(A)** weak sev-Gal4>UAS-NLS-mCherry and **(B)** strong sev>Gal4>UAS-NLS-mCherry. Scale bar denotes 20 µm. When driven by the weak promoter, mCherry expression is predominantly limited to R7, R3, and R4 cells. When driven by the strong promoter, mCherry is also expressed among some progenitor cells.

Figure 4: Ras signaling elevates the Pnt-to-Yan ratio in progenitor cells. See figure supplements 1 and 2.
(A-C) Effects of constitutive Ras^{V12} signaling on **(A)** Pnt-GFP, **(B)** Yan, and **(C)** the Pnt-to-Yan ratio in progenitor cells. Lines are moving averages across 250 sequential cells. Shaded regions are bootstrapped 95% confidence intervals for the mean. Solid lines and grey shading denote wildtype controls. Dashed lines and red shading denote constitutive Ras signaling by sev>Ras^{V12}. Black bars denote periods of elevated Pnt-GFP expression. We previously reported a modest increase in the duration of Yan-YFP expression in sev>Ras^{V12} mutant progenitor cells (Peláez et al. 2015), but this difference was not detected using the Yan antibody.
(D) Comparison of Pnt-to-Yan ratios between wildtype and sev>Ras^{V12} progenitor cells concurrent with the ectopic differentiation of unidentified R cells in sev>Ras^{V12} discs. Light blue markers denote the first 25 supernumerary R cells. Purple markers denote the concurrent R7 cells.

aberrant positions (Figure 4 - figure supplement 2A,B), consistent with prior descriptions of the

sev>Ras^V12 phenotype (Fortini et al., 1992; Karim et al., 1996). As a result of the excessive

photoreceptor recruitment, the progenitor pool in the most posterior region of the eye disc was noticeably

depleted relative to wild type.

If the measured ratiometric imbalance was responsible for the ectopic fate transitions, then the

supernumerary R cells should emerge from a pool of progenitors with abnormally high Pnt-to-Yan ratios.

Focusing our analysis on progenitor cells that were temporally concurrent with the induction of ectopic R

cells, we found that their ratios were higher than those of wildtype progenitor cells at comparable times

(Figure 4D grey boxes). Many young supernumerary R cells had ratios that were within the range of

mutant progenitor cells (Fig. 4D blue dots). Similar to the concurrent populations of wildtype and mutant

R7 cells (Fig. 4D purple dots), nearly all supernumerary R cells were above the range observed in

wildtype progenitors. This suggests that abnormally high Pnt-to-Yan ratios in progenitor cells accompany,

and perhaps drive, ectopic R cell state transitions.

Just as high ratios trigger state transitions, abnormally low Pnt-to-Yan ratios should prevent them.

To test this, we quantified Yan and Pnt-GFP expression dynamics in *sev-Yan^ACT* eye discs. In contrast to

the results with the *sev>Ras^V12* experiment, no changes in Pnt or Yan levels were detected in the

progenitor pool (Figure 5A-C). Concerned that the level of overexpression might be insufficient to

perform the intended experiment, we increased Yan levels further using *sev-Gal4>UAS*-Yan *^ACT*

expression. Although elevated Yan levels were now readily detected in the progenitor pool, the

disruptions to ommatidial patterning that resulted from the ensuing R cell loss were too severe to permit

quantitative analysis.

Returning to the milder *sev-Yan^ACT* background, although average Yan levels in the progenitor

pool were not detectably elevated, a striking reduction in R7 fates was noted, with 85% of ommatidia

failing to specify R7 cells (Figure 5D,E). To explain the R7 loss, we focused on cells five to ten hours

after the initial onset of R7 specification, reasoning that this should allow sufficient time for ectopic Yan

accumulation. The few remaining R7s in this region showed comparable Pnt-to-Yan ratios to the

concurrent population of progenitor cells, in stark contrast to the elevated ratios among R7s in the wild

type control (Figure 5F and Figure 5 - figure supplement 1A,B). Comparison of Yan and Pnt-GFP

expression confirmed that the reduced ratio during the attempted R7 transition was driven primarily by

increased Yan levels in *sev-Yan^ACT* cells relative to wild type (Figure 5 - figure supplement 1C). Scoring

mature photoreceptor cell fates in the adult retina revealed almost complete loss of R7s (Figure 4 - figure

Figure 4 - figure supplement 2. R7 phenotype in sev>Ras^{V12} and sev>Yan^{ACT}.
Antibody staining of Prospero in 9-10 ommatidia in the equivalent posterior region of the eye disc in **(A)** wildtype, **(B)** sev>Ras^{V12}, and **(C)** sev>Yan^{ACT} animals. R7 cell is marked based on stereotypical nuclear position. Extra R cells on each side of the R7 are marked as "R" in the sev>Ras^{V12} disc.

Figure 5: Constitutive Yan expression decreases the Pnt-to-Yan ratio in R7, R3, and R4 cells. See figure supplements 1 and 2.

(A-C) Effects of constitutive Yan expression on **(A)** Pnt-GFP, **(B)** Yan, and **(C)** the Pnt-to-Yan ratio in progenitor cells. Lines are moving averages across 250 sequential cells. Shaded regions are bootstrapped 95% confidence intervals for the mean. Solid lines and grey shading denote wildtype controls. Dashed lines and red shading denote constitutive Yan expression by *sev>Yan*^{ACT}.

(D, E) Cumulative abundance of each annotated R cell type as a function of developmental time in **(D)** wildtype and **(E)** *sev>Yan*^{ACT} discs. Contours are normalized by the total number of R8 cells detected across the time-course, and R2, R5, R3, R4, R1, and R6 cells are each tallied separately. Colors denote R cell type. Shading denotes bootstrapped 95% confidence intervals for each contour. R7 cells were not detected in approximately 85% of *sev>Yan*^{ACT} ommatidia.

(F) Comparison of Pnt-to-Yan ratios between wildtype and *sev>Yan*^{ACT} progenitor cells concurrent with remaining R7 cells in *sev>Yan*^{ACT} discs. Plot includes all multipotent and R7 cells between 15 and 20 h of developmental time. Purple markers denote the R7 cells for each genotype.

(G, H) Measured Pnt-GFP-to-Yan ratio dynamics among multipotent and R3/R4 cells in **(G)** wildtype and **(H)** *sev>Yan*^{ACT} discs. Solid lines are moving averages across 250 and 75 sequential cells for progenitors and R3/R4 cells, respectively. Grey markers represent multipotent cells.

Figure 5 - figure supplement 1: Elevated Yan^ACT levels suppress the Pnt-to-Yan ratio in R7 cells.
(A, B) Measured Pnt-GFP-to-Yan ratio dynamics among multipotent and R7 cells in **(A)** wildtype and **(B)** *sev>yan^ACT* discs. Solid lines are moving averages across 250 and 75 sequential cells for progenitors and R7 cells, respectively. Grey markers represent multipotent cells.
(C) Joint distribution of measured Pnt and Yan levels among R7 cells sampled from the region spanning 15 to 20 h of developmental time. The *sev>yan^ACT* R7 cells showed higher Yan levels (P<.001, KS 2-sample test), while Pnt levels were indistinguishable from wildtype (P=.4, KS 2-sample test).

supplement 2C), firmly connecting the failed fate transition to the inability of Yan[ACT] expressing R7 cells

to elevate the Pnt-to-Yan ratio.

When we looked at the other photoreceptor fates, R8, R2/R5 and R1/R6 fate transitions appeared

normal and were marked by wild type Pnt-to-Yan expression and ratio dynamics (Figure 5 - figure

supplement 2). However, perturbed ratio dynamics were apparent in young R3/R4 cells. In wild type

discs, young R3/R4 cells with ratios equivalent to those of concurrent progenitors were identified just

before the second peak of Pnt-GFP expression, but immediately posterior almost all R3/R4 cells had

ratios that were significantly elevated relative to those of their concurrent progenitors (Figure 5G). In

contrast, in *sev-Yan*[ACT] eye discs, there was a delay in elevating Pnt-to-Yan ratios in the R3/R4

population relative to the concurrent progenitor pool (Figure 5H). However, in older ommatidia of *sev-*

Yan[ACT] eye discs, mature R3/R4 cells were present and had stable elevated Pnt-to-Yan ratios, similar to

wild type. Examination of adult *sev-Yan*[ACT] eyes confirmed only a slight loss of R3/R4 fates. This

suggests that the delay in elevating the Pnt-to-Yan ratio in the R3/R4 progenitor pooled delayed but did

not block the fate transition.

Cooperative DNA-binding sensitizes enhancer occupancy to changes in Pnt-to-Yan ratio

How could cells reprogram transcription in response to a change in the Pnt-to-Yan ratio across a

wide range of absolute protein concentrations? Since both Pnt and Yan are ETS family transcription

factors with overlapping sequence specificity for DNA binding (Flores et al., 2000; Halfon et al., 2000;

Lachance et al., 2018; Nitta et al., 2015; Webber et al., 2013a, 2013b; Wei et al., 2010; Xu et al., 2000;

Zhu et al., 2011), the underlying mechanism may reflect competition for binding sites in target gene

enhancers. Illustrating this point, a simple model in which two transcription factors compete for

occupancy shows that if the sites are saturated, then equilibrium occupancy by either factor is more

sensitive to the relative concentration of the two factors than to the absolute concentration of both

species (Figure 6 - figure supplement 1).

However, the situation is more complex for Pnt and Yan. While there are several well-

documented target genes that contain enhancers with common binding sites for Pnt and Yan (Flores et

al., 2000; Halfon et al., 2000; Xu et al., 2000), Yan binds these sequences with higher affinity than Pnt

(Xu et al., 2000). Moreover, recent experiments suggest Yan and Pnt differentially interpret the structural

syntax of cis-regulatory modules (Lachance et al., 2018). This complex phenomenon is a consequence

of cooperative interactions between DNA-bound Yan molecules. Specifically, Yan monomers are able to

self-associate via their sterile alpha motifs (SAM), enabling DNA-bound Yan monomers to stabilize the

recruitment of additional Yan monomers to adjacent sites (Lachance et al., 2018; Qiao et al., 2004a;

Figure 5 - figure supplement 2: Yan^ACT has little effect on Pnt-to-Yan ratio dynamics in R8, R2, R5, R1, or R6 cells.
(A-F) Measured Pnt-GFP-to-Yan ratio dynamics among differentiating R cells in wildtype (top row) and *sev>yan^ACT* (bottom row) eye discs. Solid black and yellow lines are moving averages across 250 and 75 sequential cells for progenitors and R7 cells, respectively. Colors denote R cell type.

Figure 6 - figure supplement 1: A simple competitive binding model.
(A) Schematic of a simple two-species competitive binding model.
(B) Theoretical Pnt site occupancy as a function of transcription factor abundance. Equivalent binding affinities are used for illustrative purposes. Simultaneous proportional increases in absolute abundance of both species have minimal impact on Pnt occupancy, while varying ratio confers maximal change.

Zhang et al., 2010) Because Pnt does not self-associate (Mackereth et al., 2004; Meruelo and Bowie,

2009), Yan-Yan cooperativity could bias the competition.

To consider this possibility, we adapted a modeling framework developed to probe the effects of

cis-regulatory syntax on Yan binding site occupancy (Hope et al., 2017). The model considers an

ensemble of microstates, each defined by a unique configuration of vacant or Yan-bound sites. Each

microstate is assigned a thermodynamic potential based on the cumulative influence of strong sequence-

specific binding to consensus ETS sites, weak non-specific DNA binding, and SAM-SAM polymerization.

We augmented this model by incorporating Pnt as a second transcription factor that competes for

occupancy of the same binding sites but does not self-associate (Figure 6 - figure supplement 2A,B).

Using this model, we explored how Yan-Yan cooperativity might impact the sensitivity of Pnt binding site

occupancy to changes in the Pnt-to-Yan ratio.

We first considered a scenario in which neither Yan nor Pnt exhibit cooperativity (Figure 6A). In

the absence of stabilizing SAM-SAM interactions, the landscape of overall binding site occupancy was

identical to that obtained with the simple binding model described above (Figure 6 and Figure 6 - figure

supplement 1). Increasing the Pnt-to-Yan ratio resulted in a gradual increase in Pnt occupancy for all

individual binding sites, producing a titration contour closely resembling a Michaelis-Menten saturation

curve (Figure 6C).

Introducing a stabilizing SAM-SAM interaction for Yan (Figure 6D) sharpened the transition from

Yan to Pnt occupancy dominance (Figure 6E). Weighting the energetic contributions of binding strength

and polymerization by the statistical frequency of each microstate revealed that the transition was driven

by an abrupt change in the dominant binding mechanism. Polymerization-associated cooperativity effects

dominate binding site occupancy when the Pnt-to-Yan ratio is low, while binding strength dominates

when the ratio is high (Figure 6 - figure supplement 2C).

Increasing the Pnt-to-Yan ratio revealed nonlinear transitions from low to high Pnt occupancy for

each individual binding site (Figure 6F). These transitions resembled Hill function forms, with sharp

thresholds delimiting distinct transcriptional outputs. At low Pnt-to-Yan ratios, Yan occupancy dominated,

while at some critical Pnt-to-Yan ratio, Pnt-bound molecules prevented Yan-Yan interactions, ultimately

allowing Pnt to outcompete Yan as the ratio increased further. Assuming binding sites are saturated,

then relative occupancy by Pnt and Yan should be agnostic to changes in the absolute abundance of

either factor, as long as the Pnt-to-Yan ratio remains constant. This mechanism, coupled with

cooperativity, would enable modest changes in the Pnt-to-Yan ratio to elicit large changes in DNA

Figure 6: Cooperative DNA-binding sensitizes transcriptional output to the Pnt-to-Yan ratio. See figure supplements 1 and 2.
(A) Cartoon of competition between Pnt and Yan for occupancy of mutual binding sites in the absence of Yan polymerization. Also see figure supplement 1.
(B) Overall binding site occupancy as a function of transcription factor abundance in the absence of Yan polymerization. Color scale reflects overall Pnt site occupancy. A diverging scale was used because all sites are fully saturated at total transcription factor concentrations above 1 nM. Under the range of conditions shown, this implies that Yan occupies all sites left vacant by Pnt. Simultaneous proportional increases in absolute abundance of both species have minimal impact on Pnt occupancy (dashed arrow), while varying ratio confers gradual change (solid arrow).
(C) Pnt occupancy of individual binding sites as a function of Pnt-to-Yan ratio in the absence of Yan polymerization. Contours correspond to a vertical path traversed across panel B at a fixed Yan concentration of 50 nM. All binding sites behave similarly.
(D) Cartoon of competition between Pnt and Yan for occupancy of mutual binding sites when Yan polymerizes via its SAM domain.
(E) Overall binding site occupancy as a function of transcription factor abundance when Yan polymerizes via its SAM domain. Color scale and arrows retain their meaning from panel B.
(F) Pnt occupancy of individual binding sites as a function of Pnt-to-Yan ratio when Yan polymerizes via its SAM domain. Contours correspond to a vertical path traversed across panel E at a fixed Yan concentration of 50 nM. Line colors reflect binding site positions within the cis-regulatory element. Sites at intermediate distances from the strong ETS site (green lines) transition at higher ratios than those nearest and furthest from the strong ETS site (blue and yellow lines).

Figure 6 - figure supplement 2: A statistical physics model for Yan / Pnt binding.
(A) Summary of thermodynamic interactions within one microstate of a cis-regulatory element containing one ETS site and two non-ETS sites. Solid black lines represent individual binding sites. Green and magenta rectangles denote Pnt and Yan molecules. Example thermodynamic potentials of strong ETS-binding, weak non-ETS binding, and polymerization interactions are denoted by α_{Pnt}, β_{Yan}, and γ_{Yan}, respectively. For this microstate, $a_P(k)=1$ and $a_y(k)=2$.
(B) Enumeration of all possible microstates for a cis-regulatory element of length 3 in which only the first site carries the ETS designation. Solid black lines denote binding sites, green and magenta rectangles denote bound Pnt and Yan molecules. The cumulative thermodynamic potentials of each microstate, ΔG_k, are listed beside each graphical depiction.
(C) Relative thermodynamic contributions of binding site affinity versus polymerization to microstate statistical frequencies as a function of Pnt and Yan concentration. For each point in the plane, influence of site affinity was calculated by weighting the sum of all ETS and non-ETS thermodynamic potentials for each microstate by the statistical frequency of the corresponding microstate. The influence of polymerization was analogously determined. The shown color scale reflects the relative magnitude of these two summations, normalized by limits of zero and complete polymerization.

binding site occupancy by either factor, with the presumably large changes in target gene mRNA

synthesis resulting in a state transition.

DISCUSSION

We have identified a scenario in which cell state transitions are best defined by changes in the

relative abundance of the activator/repressor pair Pnt and Yan, rather than by the absolute concentration

of either transcription factor. Our results suggest that cells maintain a fixed Pnt-to-Yan ratio in the

progenitor pool, and that RTK/MAPK signaling overcomes the buffering mechanism that maintains the

ratio at that fixed point. This produces a sustained increase in the ratio that marks, and perhaps drives,

the transition to specified photoreceptor (R) fates. Consistent with this interpretation, genetic

perturbations that disrupt the ratio produce cell fate specification defects. Mathematical modeling

suggests that changes in the Pnt-to-Yan ratio will promote functionally distinct transcriptional complexes

at target gene enhancers, with lower Pnt-to-Yan ratios favoring repressive Yan-dominated complexes

and higher ratios producing Pnt-dominated activating complexes. In this way, the RTK/MAPK signal

triggers a molecular switch that reliably activates previously repressed gene expression programs to

drive the differentiative transition.

Successful cell state transitions usually require specific changes in mRNA and protein

expression, which are often dictated by transcription factors. It is widely believed that developmental

gene expression programs depend on the absolute concentration of the transcription factors that control

them (Spitz and Furlong, 2012). Our study in the developing *Drosophila* eye has revealed a different

mechanism whereby cells respond to changes in the ratio in abundance of two transcription factors

rather than to changes in the absolute concentration of either protein.

Two key characteristics of the Pnt/Yan system make ratiometric control of cell state transitions

possible. First, both factors bind to the same DNA sites in the target genes but exert opposing effects on

transcription. Gene targets associated with specific photoreceptor fates are repressed in progenitors

where the Pnt-to-Yan ratio is low and transcriptionally activated when eye cells transit to differentiated

states in response to increased ratio; induction of target gene expression is necessary for differentiation

(Nagaraj et al., 2002; Xu et al., 2000). Second, stabilizing interactions between adjacently bound Yan

monomers sensitize enhancer occupancy to the relative abundance of the competing transcription

factors. As was first shown for the human ortholog of Yan, TEL1 (Green et al., 2010; Kim et al., 2001),

DNA-bound Yan monomers enhance recruitment of Yan to adjacent binding sites through stabilizing

SAM-SAM polymerization (Lachance et al., 2018; Qiao et al., 2004a). Such cooperativity could generate
threshold-like behavior and cause an ultrasensitive switch in site occupancy between Yan and Pnt.

Under these conditions, relative site occupancy by either factor determines whether or not a
target gene is transcribed. Our modeling predicts that when binding sites are saturated, the probability a
site is occupied by one of the factors is controlled by the ratio of factor concentrations and not by the
absolute concentration of the factors. In other words, as long as the relative Pnt-to-Yan ratio is precisely
controlled, the downstream transcriptional switches that define retinal cell state transitions should be
agnostic to the absolute abundance of either transcription factor. Indeed, our experimental results
revealed the existence of a feedback control mechanism that can maintain the optimal ratio over at least
a four-fold range in transcription factor level. In this way, state transitions can proceed reliably despite
variation in protein concentrations driven by fluctuations in metabolism, cell volume, expression noise,
environment, genetic polymorphisms, or gene copy number.

This mechanism also explains how the transcription factors can have pulsatile expression
dynamics in eye progenitor cells, be co-expressed, and still consistently regulate transcription.
Regulation of genes through pulsatile dynamics of competing transcription factors with opposing effects
has been reported in yeast (Lin et al., 2015). However, in the developing eye, this competition relies on
the ratio of the two factors to differentially regulate gene transcription. Perhaps the pulsatile dynamics of
Pnt and Yan restrict R cell state transitions to the specific period of developmental time of the late third
instar larval stage. Identification of the transcriptional and post-transcriptional mechanisms that initiate
and maintain Yan and Pnt expression dynamics will be needed to explore this idea further.

Mechanistic studies in the embryonic mesoderm have shown that not only are Pnt and Yan co-
expressed, but that they can co-occupy enhancers and together may organize repressive transcriptional
complexes that poise target genes for activation (Webber et al., 2018). Although the chromatin
immunoprecipitation assays used in that study lacked the single cell and temporal resolution to
determine whether occupancy patterns changed during and after a transition, the assumption is that
RTK/MAPK signaling would shift the system toward Pnt-dominated occupancy and activation of gene
expression. If the same holds true in developing retinal cells, then the constant ratio in the progenitors
may maximize the probability that transcriptional complexes with the correct Pnt/Yan stoichiometry will
assemble to provide both the stabilizing repressive regulation and the requisite signal-responsiveness
needed to render a transition. Molecularly, state transitions require a switch from repression to activation
of transcription of a particular gene, and so the increase in Pnt-to-Yan ratio is likely to foster assembly of
transcriptional complexes with different stoichiometry.

The average Pnt-to-Yan ratio is dynamically stable within cells that remain in a particular state,

and only exhibits transient change when cells switch states. These dynamics reflect the capacity of the

system to coordinate the relative expression of the two transcription factors. Our results predict a

stabilizing mechanism that monitors the relative abundance of Pnt and Yan and takes corrective action

when the ratio deviates from a specified reference value. Although the ratio value is constant within

either multipotent progenitor cells or R cells, the ratio value differs between progenitors and R cells.

Hence, the stabilizing mechanism must be modified when cells change state in order to accommodate a

sustained change in the ratio's set point. The precise nature of the stabilizing mechanism and the means

by which it is modified are currently unknown and may include regulation not only at the transcriptional

level, but also at all steps in protein synthesis and stability. Further complexity stems from the fact that

the Pnt-GFP gene used in our study reports expression of the three protein isoforms that are required in

different combinations to specify R2-R5 versus R1,R6 and R7 fates (Wu et al., 2020). Therefore, the

ratiometric control mechanism must establish, measure and adjust levels of all three Pnt isoforms.

There are two time-windows when progenitor cells exhibit greater dispersion in their Pnt-to-Yan

ratio. These time-windows correspond to the periods when a subset of the progenitor cells transit to R

cell states. Thus, the mechanism that stabilizes the ratio at the progenitor fixed point is transiently

overridden and the ratio values become highly heterogeneous. Many progenitors at this time have

elevated ratios that overlap in value with those in committed R cells. It is possible that some of these high

ratio progenitor cells are actually transiting across fates at that time but cannot yet be definitively

identified as R cells. It is also possible that not all progenitors with elevated ratios transit to an R cell

state, and that if they do not, their ratio values decline to the previous set point. In this sense, the

progenitor cells might undergo transient fluctuations in ratio, with only some cells transiting their fate and

maintaining an elevated ratio. Using live imaging to track Yan and Pnt levels in individual cells as they

navigate these state transitions should help resolve these different possibilities.

In conclusion, we propose that an elevated Pnt-to-Yan ratio may be a requirement for retinal cells

to transit to a stably specified state, and that reduced ratios can make these transitions less robust. While

the ratiometric-based mechanism we have uncovered could be a unique feature of the repetitive waves

of stereotyped cell state transitions that occur in the developing *Drosophila* eye, it may operate in other

contexts in which progenitors co-express Pnt and Yan. Even more broadly, ratiometric control may prove

to be a common and effective developmental strategy for ensuring the accuracy and robustness of cell

state transitions that are regulated by combinatorial transcriptional inputs.

METHODS

Genetics:

Unless otherwise noted, all experiments were performed with animals reared at 25°C on standard
cornmeal-molasses Drosophila culture medium.

Fly stocks from the Bloomington Stock Center: *pnt-gfp* BAC transgene, BL42680; *pnt²*, BL2222; *H2Av-*
mRFP, BL23651; *w¹¹¹⁸*, BL6326; UAS-mCherryNLS, BL38424. Additional alleles: *pntᐃ⁸⁸* (O'Neill et al.,
1994); *sev>Rasᵛ¹²*(Fortini et al., 1992); *sev>Yanᴬᶜᵀ* (Rebay and Rubin, 1995); *sev>Gal4* (Jemc and
Rebay, 2006).

Experiments measuring wild type dynamics of *Pnt-GFP* were done by dissecting eye discs from *w¹¹¹⁸* ;
pnt-gfp; pntᐃ⁸⁸/pnt², H2Av-mRFP white prepupae. The effect of *pnt* gene dosage on Pnt-to-Yan ratio was
measured in *w¹¹¹⁸* ; *pnt-gfp /+ ; pntᐃ⁸⁸/pnt²* (1x *pnt*) and *w¹¹¹⁸* ; *pnt-gfp; pntᐃ⁸⁸/pnt²* (2x *pnt*) discs.

In experiments with constitutive Ras or Yan activation, Pnt-GFP and Yan levels were measured in eye
discs from animals of the following genotypes: *w¹¹¹⁸* ; *pnt-gfp/ Sev>Rasᵛ¹²; pntᐃ⁸⁸/+* relative to *w¹¹¹⁸* ; *pnt-*
gfp / +; pntᐃ⁸⁸/+ wild type control; and *w¹¹¹⁸* ; *pnt-gfp/Sev>Yanᴬᶜᵀ; pntᐃ⁸⁸/+* relative to *w¹¹¹⁸* ; *pnt-gfp / +;*
pntᐃ⁸⁸/+ wild type control*.

Immunohistochemistry

For all experiments, eye-antennal discs were dissected from white prepupae. For experiments in
which 4′,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) was used as the nuclear marker, samples were fixed in 4%
paraformaldehyde (w/v) / PBS-Triton X-100 0.1% for 25 minutes at room temperature. After fixation, eye
discs were blocked in PBS-Triton X-100 0.1% and 1% normal goat serum for 30 minutes at room
temperature. Primary and secondary antibodies were incubated each for 2 hours at room temperature
with DAPI. Including DAPI during primary and secondary antibody staining was important for even
penetration of DAPI. Antibodies used: mouse anti-Yan 8B12 (DHSB, 1:200) and goat anti-mouse Cy3
(1:2000, Jackson Immunoresearch). Discs were washed for 20 min in PBS-Triton X-100 0.1%, then
mounted in VectaShield mounting medium. For experiments in which H2Av-mRFP was used as the
nuclear marker, discs were fixed in 4% (w/v) paraformaldehyde/PBS for ~45 min and goat anti-mouse
Pacific Blue antibody (Life Technologies, 1:200 dilution) was used as the secondary antibody.

Samples were kept in the dark at -20°C and imaged no later than 18-24 hr after fixation. 1024 x

1024 16-bit images were captured using either a Zeiss LSM880 or a Leica SP5 confocal microscope

equipped with 40X oil objectives. During imaging, discs were oriented with the equator parallel to the x-

axis of the image. Optical slices were set at 0.8μm slices (45-60 optical slices) with an additional digital

zoom of 1.2-1.4 to completely image eye discs from basal to apical surfaces. Images recorded a region

of at least 6 rows of ommatidia on each side or the dorsal-ventral eye disc equator. All discs for a given

condition were fixed, mounted, and imaged in parallel to reduce measurement error. Sample preparation,

imaging, and analysis were not performed under blind conditions, nor was sex of the animals noted at

time of dissection.

Quantification of expression levels

A minimum of three experimental replicate eye discs were imaged for each experimental

condition, with the exception of the *sev>Ras^{V12}* condition for which only one control disc was available.

For each imaged wild type eye disc, ~160 R8, ~320 R2/5, ~300 R3/4, ~260 R1/6, ~ 220 R7 and >1000

progenitor cells were identified. Empirically, the replicate number of three eye discs provided

reproducible composite dynamics. No outlier eye discs were found for any experimental condition, so all

samples were included in analysis. The sample size was not pre-computed before data collection.

Expression dynamics were inferred from confocal image stacks using an updated version of the

segmentation and annotation pipeline described in Peláez et al. 2015. The new pipeline includes

Silhouette, an open-source package for macOS that integrates our image segmentation algorithm with a

GUI (graphical user interface) for cell type annotation. Subsequent analysis and visualization procedures

were carried out using the accompanying *FlyEye* python package, which is freely available on GitHub.

Cell nuclei segmentation was performed using either H2Av-mRFP (Figures 1, 2, and 4, and their

figure supplements) or DAPI (Figures 3 and 5, and their figure supplements) signals as a reference

channel to identify individual nuclear boundaries. Nuclei expressing H2Av-mRFP were segmented using

the *Silhouette* app's optimized implementation of the GraphCut algorithm (Qi et al 2013), while DAPI-

stained discs were segmented using an open-source implementation of the watershed algorithm

designed to mitigate the effect of bright spots caused by DAPI accumulation in nucleoli (Bernasek et al.,

2020). Each layer of the confocal stack was segmented independently in both cases. A single contour

containing each unique cell was manually selected and assigned a cell type (cell state) using *Silhouette*,

with care taken to avoid annotating nucleolar contours rather than complete nuclear contours in DAPI-

stained discs.

For each annotated nucleus contour, expression measurements were obtained by normalizing

the mean fluorescence of the Pnt-GFP and Yan antibody channels by the mean fluorescence of the

reference channel. This normalization mitigates variability due to potentially uneven sample illumination,

segment area, nuclear volume, and in the case of His-RFP, differences in protein expression capacity

between cells.

Conversion of distance to time

Cell positions along the anterior-posterior axis were mapped to developmental time as described

previously (Peláez et al. 2015). This is predicated on two assumptions: the furrow proceeds at a constant

rate of one column of R8 neurons per two hours; and minimal cell migration occurs. For each disc,

Delaunay triangulations were used to estimate the median distance between adjacent columns of R8

neurons (Fortune and Steven, 1992). We used the median rather than the mean distance because it

minimized the influence of non-adjacent R8s that were falsely identified by the triangulation (Peláez et al.

2015). Dividing the furrow velocity of 2 h per column by this median distance yields a single conversion

factor from position along the anterior-posterior axis to developmental time. This factor was applied to all

cell measurements within the corresponding disc, yielding expression time series. Notably, these are not

single cell dynamics, but rather aggregate dynamics across the development time course of a cell

population.

Computation of moving averages and confidence intervals

Moving averages were computed by first-order Savitzky-Golay filtration (Savitzky and Golay,

1964). This method augments the simple windowing approach used in Peláez et al. 2015 by enabling

visualization of expression trends at early time-points that are otherwise obscured by large window sizes.

A secondary first-order filtration with one-fifth the original window size was applied to smooth lines for

visualization purposes.

None of our conclusions are sensitive to our choice of filtration or smoothing method (Peláez et

al. 2015). Primary window sizes of 250 and 75 cells were used for reporting the expression of multipotent

and differentiated cells, unless noted otherwise. Confidence intervals for the moving average were

inferred from the 2.5th and 97.5th percentile of ten thousand point estimates of the mean within each

window. Point estimates were generated by bootstrap resampling with replacement of the expression

levels within each window.

Alignment of expression data

554   Cells were aligned with a reference population by shifting them in time. The magnitude of this

555   shift was determined by maximizing the cross-correlation of progenitor Pnt-GFP expression $Y(t)$ with the

556   corresponding reference time series $X(t)$. Rather than raw measurements, moving averages within a

557   window of ten cells were used to improve robustness against noise. This operation amounts to:

$$z = \underset{dt}{\mathrm{argmax}}\ \hat{\gamma}_{X(t),Y(t)}$$

$$\hat{\gamma}_{X(t),Y(t)}(dt) = E\left[\frac{(Y(t+dt)-\mu_Y)(X(t)-\mu_X)}{\sigma_Y\sigma_X}\right]$$

where, μ and σ are the mean and standard deviation of each time series, and dt is the time shift by which

the population should be shifted.

For each experimental treatment, a disc was randomly chosen and shifted in time such that time

zero corresponds to the first annotated R8 neuron. This disc then served as the reference population for

the alignment of all subsequent biological replicates within the treatment. Similarly, different experimental

treatments (e.g. control and perturbation) were aligned by first aligning the discs within each treatment,

then aggregating all cells within each treatment and repeating the procedure with the first treatment

serving as the reference.

This approach differs from the previous implementation of our pipeline in which discs were

manually aligned by the inflection point of their Yan-YFP expression profiles. Manual alignment entails

arbitrary prioritization of certain dynamic features over others. Our revised protocol yields consistent,

reproducible alignment of expression time series that equally weighs the entire time course. The

automated approach is more principled but less robust than the manual approach. Specifically, it fails

when dynamic forms qualitatively differ between experimental treatments. In these instances, we revert

to manual alignment using the inflection point of Pnt-GFP induction as a reference.

Simple competitive binding model

Figure 6 - figure supplement 1 presents results for an equilibrium model of two species, Yan (Y)

and Pnt (P), competing for a finite pool of shared binding sites, S:

$$Y + S \overset{K_{D,Yan}}{\Longleftrightarrow} SY$$

$$P + S \overset{K_{D,Pnt}}{\Longleftrightarrow} SP$$

580   where $K_{D,Yan}$ and $K_{D,Pnt}$ are equilibrium association constants and SY and SP denote the bound species.

581   Applying a mass balance to the total protein and binding site (S_0) abundances:

582
$$Y_0 = Y + SY$$

583
$$P_0 = P + SP$$

584
$$S_0 = S + SY + SP$$

yields an analytically tractable system of nonlinear equations (Wang, 1995). For each pair of absolute

protein abundances (Y_0, P_0) in Figure 6 - figure supplement 1B, the Pnt binding site occupancy is simply

SP/S_0.

Competitive binding model with cooperativity

The model presented in Figure 6 expands upon the work of Hope, Rebay, and Reinitz (2017).

The model is based on a single cis-regulatory element consisting of n adjacent binding sites, each of

which may be designated as ETS or non-ETS. Each binding site may exist in one of three binding states;

bound by a single copy of Yan, bound by a single copy of Pnt, or unbound. Thermodynamic potentials

were assigned to each binding state using two parameters for each transcription factor. The parameter

α_X defines the free energy of transcription factor X binding to an ETS site, while β_X defines the free

energy of binding to a non-ETS site (Figure 6 - figure supplement 2A). A unique configuration of binding

states for all n binding sites constitutes a single microstate, k. The thermodynamic potential of each

microstate was taken to be the sum of thermodynamic potentials for each of its constituent binding sites.

For each microstate, the stabilizing effect of polymerization was incorporated via a third parameter, γ_X,

that defines the free energy of SAM-SAM binding between a pair of similar transcription factors bound to

adjacent sites. The net result is a total thermodynamic potential, ΔG_k, for each microstate. An example

enumeration of all possible microstates for an element consisting of one ETS site preceding two non-

ETS sites is provided in Figure 6 - figure supplement 2B. The statistical frequencies of each microstate

were evaluated by constructing a canonical ensemble:

$$p_k = \frac{exp(\frac{-\Delta G_k}{RT})[P]^{a_P(k)}[Y]^{a_Y(k)}}{\sum_k exp(\frac{-\Delta G_k}{RT})[P]^{a_P(k)}[Y]^{a_Y(k)}}$$

in which p_k is the statistical frequency of microstate k, $[P]$ is the Pnt concentration, $[Y]$ is the Yan

concentration, $a_P(k)$ and $a_Y(k)$ are functions representing the number of bound molecules of P and Y

within microstate k, T is a fixed temperature set to 300 K, and R is the gas constant. Fractional

occupancies for each binding site correspond to the cumulative statistical frequency of all microstates in
which the site is occupied by a given transcription factor. Overall fractional occupancies are similarly
evaluated across all sites within the element.

We considered regulatory elements comprised of 12 binding sites in which only the first site
carries the ETS designation. We retained the same parameterization of Yan binding proposed by Hope,
Rebay, and Reinitz (2017): α_Y=-9.955 kcal mol^{-1}, β_Y=-5.837 kcal mol^{-1}, and γ_Y=-7.043 kcal mol^{-1}. We
parameterized Pnt binding thermodynamics to provide balanced competition between Pnt and Yan in the
absence of any SAM-mediated polymerization of Pnt. That is, we set Pnt binding affinities such that the
transition from Pnt to Yan occupancy occurs when Pnt and Yan concentrations are approximately equal.
The model used to generate Figure 6D-F assumes that Pnt binds individual sites with elevated affinities
$\alpha_P = 0.96(\alpha_Y + \gamma_Y)$ and $\beta_P = 0.96(\beta_Y + \gamma_Y)$. The model used to generate Figure 6A-C uses these same
elevated binding affinities for Yan, while setting γ_Y=0 kcal mol^{-1}. Qualitatively, our results are not sensitive
to this parameterization.

Statistical frequencies of all microstates were enumerated using a recursive graph-traversal
algorithm implemented in python, where each node in the graph represents an individual binding site and
each edge reflects occupancy by a specific transcription factor. An open-source python implementation
of this modeling framework has been published on GitHub (https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.5520493).

Data and software availability

All segmented and annotated eye discs will be deposited in a data repository upon publication. A
series of Jupyter notebooks that use these data to reproduce all analysis, simulations, and figures
presented in this manuscript has also been made available (https://github.com/sbernasek/pnt_yan_ratio).
The *Silhouette* app used to segment nuclei in eye discs expressing His-RFP and annotate nuclei in all
eye discs is freely available via the macOS App Store, while the *FlyEye* python package used to
generate, align, and visualize expression dynamics has been published on GitHub
(https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.5520468).

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