Extracellular spreading of Wingless is required for *Drosophila* oogenesis

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Abstract

Recent studies have investigated whether the Wnt family of extracellular ligands can signal at long range, spreading from their source and acting as morphogens, or whether they signal only in a juxtacrine manner to neighboring cells. The original evidence for long-range Wnt signaling arose from studies of Wg, a *Drosophila* Wnt protein, which patterns the wing disc over several cell diameters from a central source of Wg ligand. However, the requirement of long-range Wg for patterning was called into question when it was reported that replacing the secreted protein Wg with a membrane-tethered version, NRT-Wg, results in flies with normally patterned wings. We and others previously reported that Wg spreads in the ovary about 50 μm or 5 cell diameters, from the cap cells to the follicle stem cells (FSCs) and that Wg stimulates FSC proliferation. We used the *NRT-wg* flies to analyze the consequence of tethering Wg to the cap cells. *NRT-wg* homozygous flies are sickly, but we found that hemizygous *NRT-wg/null* flies, carrying only one copy of tethered Wingless, were significantly healthier. Despite their overall improved health, these hemizygous flies displayed dramatic reductions in fertility and in FSC proliferation. Further, FSC proliferation was nearly undetectable when the *wg* locus was converted to *NRT-wg* only in adults, and the resulting gerarium phenotype was consistent with a previously reported *wg* loss-of-function phenotype. We conclude that Wg protein spreads from its source cells in the gerarium to promote FSC proliferation.

Introduction

Wnt signaling is an important and conserved mechanism of cellular communication that controls proliferation and differentiation in many cell types and organisms (Steinhart and Angers, 2018). The first Wnt ligand identified in any animal was encoded by the *wingless (wg)* gene in *Drosophila melanogaster* (Sharma and Chopra, 1976), and subsequent studies of the Wg protein have provided important paradigms for its function in all animals. Beginning over 25 years ago, accumulated studies have established that Wg meets the criteria for a morphogen: it spreads in a gradient from its source exposing cells to different concentrations of the protein, and it triggers different transcriptional responses at different concentrations (Bejsovec and Martinez Arias, 1991; Kirkpatrick et al., 2004; Kreuger et al., 2004; Strigini and Cohen, 2000; Struhl and Basler, 1993; Yan and Lin, 2009; Zecca et al., 1996). This morphogen model is based largely on studies in the wing disc, an immature larval structure (anlage) that gives rise to the adult wing. More recently, however, the morphogen function of Wg was significantly challenged by the finding that flies are viable and patterned normally when the gene encoding the secreted Wg ligand was replaced with a membrane-tethered version of Wg, NRT-Wg, capable of signaling but not spreading from its source (Alexandre et al., 2014). Although these flies were reported to be less healthy than their control siblings, their wings were patterned normally, indicating that Wg extracellular spreading is not important for wing pattern. This highly influential study was interpreted to mean that the observed spreading of Wg protein is not important for its signaling, as Wg signaling occurs only in a juxtacrine manner between adjacent cells rather than spreading in a diffusive manner from source cells to target cells (Nusse and Clevers, 2017).

Several groups have re-examined the question of extracellular spreading of Wg using the *NRT-wg* allele. Two studies have found that Wg protein signals at a distance – requiring extracellular spreading — from gut tissues. In embryos, NRT-Wg cannot replace Wg emanating from the midgut needed to pattern the renal tubules (Beaven and Denholm, 2018), and in pupae Wg spreading is important for normal development of the adult gut (Tian et al., 2019). These results, combined with the direct visualization of Wg protein as far away as 11 cells from its source in the wing disc (Chaudhary et al., 2019), support the model that Wg is not limited to juxtracrine signaling but rather spreads extracellularly to signal at a distance from its source.

We have previously reported that Wg spreads from source cells in the *Drosophila* germarium, the most anterior region of the ovary (Wang and Page-McCaw, 2014). Extracellular Wg protein forms a visible gradient in the germarium, emanating from its source in the cap cells at the anterior tip of the germarium and spreading posteriorly over a distance of about 50 μm or 5 cell diameters to reach the follicle stem cells (FSCs) (Forbes et al., 1996; Song and Xie, 2003); this extracellular spreading of Wg is facilitated by the glypican Dlp, in a mechanism similar to that reported for the wing disc (Baeg et al., 2001; Han et al., 2005; Wang and Page-McCaw, 2014). In the germarium, Wg acts as a proliferative signal for the FSCs, inducing them to increase their proliferation rate (Song and Xie, 2003; Wang and Page-McCaw, 2014). The progeny of FSCs, the follicle cells, encapsulate cysts of germline cells to form immature *Drosophila* eggs, called egg chambers. Increasing the level of Wg protein that reaches the FSCs, either by overexpressing *wg* in cap cells or by promoting its extracellular spread, results in increased follicle cell numbers; in contrast, decreasing the level of Wg protein that reaches the FSCs decreases the number of follicle cells, resulting in encapsulation defects (Song and Xie,

2003; Wang and Page-McCaw, 2014). Because *wg in situ* hybridization signal and transcriptional reporters localize to cap cells, and because the visible Wg protein gradient is most concentrated at the cap cells, we concluded that Wg spreads in the germarium (Forbes et al., 1996; Luo et al., 2015; Song and Xie, 2003; Wang and Page-McCaw, 2014). However, it has also been proposed that Wg signals in a juxtacrine manner to the FSCs, with the ligand emanating from neighboring escort cells, raising questions about the role of Dlp in this process (Kim-Yip and Nystul, 2018; Sahai-Hernandez and Nystul, 2013)

The existence of the *NRT-wg* allele affords an opportunity to test the model that Wg spreads from the cap cells to the FSCs. If Wg signaling is extracellular over a distance, then NRT-Wg would not be able to substitute for wild-type Wg in the germarium; in contrast, if Wg signaling is juxtacrine in nature, emanating either from neighboring cells or presented via cytonemes from distant cells, then NRT-Wg would be able to substitute for wild-type Wg. In this study, we analyze the consequences of eliminating Wg spreading by tethering Wg in the germarium. In the course of these studies we determined that NRT-Wg has an inherent dose-dependent toxicity, which we minimized by analyzing *NRT-wg/null* animals. We find that tethered Wg accumulates around the cap cells and cannot substitute for wild-type Wg in egg development. Further, FSC proliferation is reduced to undetectable levels when Wg is tethered, supporting the idea that wild-type Wg spreads in the germarium and has long-range function. Thus, Wg signals at a distance from the source cells in the germarium, a result that adds to the evidence that Wg signals at a distance and not only in a juxtacrine manner.

Results and Discussion

Tethering Wg to the plasma membrane creates a dose-dependent toxicity.

Previously it was reported that flies expressing membrane-tethered *NRT-wg* from the endogenous *wg* locus – flies which lack all wild-type Wg protein – have reduced fitness (Alexandre et al., 2014). We quantified their survival to adulthood by crossing heterozygous balanced *NRT-wg* flies and counting the progeny classes (details of the *NRT-wg* and other genotypes used in this study are shown in Fig. 1A). Full survival would be indicated by 33% homozygous *NRT-wg* flies because the *CyO* balancer is homozygous lethal; however, we found that only 8% of the progeny were homozygous *NRT-wg* (Fig. 1B). The *NRT-wg* flies were generated by inserting a cDNA encoding *NRT-wg* into the *wg* locus, which was previously mutated to delete *wg* coding sequence. The appropriate controls for these *NRT-wg* flies have a wild-type *wg* cDNA inserted into the same deleted *wg* locus, which results in a homozygous viable, completely healthy line (called “control” from here on; see Fig. 1A for schematic)(Alexandre et al., 2014). In comparison to the homozygous *NRT-wg* flies, control flies survived to 5 days, as 32% of the progeny were homozygous control, remarkably close to the expected 33% (Fig. 1B). If *NRT-wg* simply reduced *wg* function (e.g., by reducing Wg spreading) we would expect survival to decrease further when the dose of *NRT-wg* was halved, *in trans* to a null allele of *wg*. We crossed *NRT-wg* flies to *wg* null flies (*wg^{CX4}*) and counted *NRT-wg/null* flies and were surprised to discover that survival ratios were significantly improved, with *NRT-wg/null* flies representing 18% of the progeny (Fig. 1B). These results indicate that *NRT-wg* is not simply a loss-of-function of Wg spreading.

The increased lethality of homozygous *NRT-wg* flies compared to *NRT-wg/null* flies can be explained either by a second mutation on the chromosome that contributes to the sickly phenotype when homozygous, or by *NRT-wg* itself having a weak neomorphic toxicity. To distinguish these possibilities, we utilized another allele, also engineered by the Vincent lab, which can be converted from wild-type *wg* to *NRT-wg* by FLP-mediated recombination (Fig. 1A), without changing any other locus on the chromosome. We converted this allele to *NRT-wg* in the male germline with *TubP-FLP*; this newly flipped *NRT-wg* allele and the initial unflipped *wg* allele had identical chromosomal backgrounds. When we tested viability, we found that homozygotes of the unflipped *wg* line were completely viable whereas homozygotes of the newly flipped *NRT-wg* allele were barely viable (6% of the population, Fig. 1B), mirroring our earlier results despite the identical background. As a final test of possible background elements contributing to lethality, we crossed the newly flipped *NRT-wg* line to the unflipped *wg* line, testing the viability of offspring heterozygous for *NRT-wg* yet homozygous for potential background elements. These progeny were viable (Fig. 1C). Thus, despite extensive testing, we found no evidence to support the hypothesis that *NRT-wg* chromosomes carry a background mutation contributing to lethality, and we conclude *NRT-Wg* itself has a dose-dependent toxicity. Such toxicity could be explained by increased short-range Wg signaling in neighbors of *wg*-expressing cells, since Wg that should spread to distant cells is tethered at the cell surface.

After eclosion, homozygous adult flies were difficult to work with because they were short-lived: even when fed well and housed without crowding, 50% of the homozygous *NRT-wg* female flies died by ~5 days after eclosion (Fig. 1D). Like the eclosion phenotype, the lifespan phenotype was partially suppressed in *NRT-wg/null* flies: 50% lethality was observed by ~12

days after eclosion (Fig. 1D). Thus, the dose-dependent toxicity of NRT-Wg was apparent in lifespan as well as in viability to adulthood.

Tethering Wg to the plasma membrane specifically reduced female fertility.

To determine whether Wingless tethering affected egg formation in the germarium, we examined the fertility of *NRT-wg* flies, mating them to wild-type males and counting the number of eggs laid per day. On days 4 and 5 after eclosion, control flies laid on average 61 and 78 eggs, whereas *NRT-wg* homozygous flies laid on average 5 eggs on each of these days, a reduction in fertility of 92-94% (Fig. 1E). The sharp reduction in fertility indicates that Wg spreading is required for normal egg development. Importantly, with respect to fertility, hemizygous *NRT-wg/null* flies were not significantly different from homozygotes, with fertility reduced by 85-89% (Fig. 1E), indicating that the *NRT-wg* fertility phenotype is not a result of the unexpected toxicity of homozygous *NRT-wg* and instead can be attributed to the lack of Wg spreading. These results are consistent with the model that Wg spreading is required for normal egg production.

Upon dissection, the ovaries of *NRT-wg* homozygous flies were observed to be much smaller than control ovaries with a reduction in the stages of vitellogenesis. In contrast, ovaries of *NRT-wg/null* hemizygotes were normally sized with representation of all stages of egg chamber development (Fig. 2A-D), suggesting that defects in later-stage vitellogenic eggs are caused by NRT-Wg toxicity, like the viability and lifespan phenotypes. Consistent with the relatively normal appearance of the ovaries, the architecture of the germarium of *NRT-wg/null*

females appeared similar to control females, with egg chambers budded at the posterior of the germarium surrounded by a full complement of follicle cells (Fig. 2E). The normal germarium architecture was surprising, because previous studies by us and others have found that conditional loss of *wg* in adult females results in defects in the germarium, with too many germline cysts and not enough follicle cells to encapsulate them (Song and Xie, 2003; Wang and Page-McCaw, 2014). This mismatch of germline cysts to follicle cells can result in the accumulation of germline cysts in an enlarged germarium and/or encapsulation defects in which two germline cysts are squeezed together in one follicle cell covering (Song and Xie, 2003; Wang and Page-McCaw, 2014).

In wild-type germaria, the Wg protein forms a gradient that extends from the anterior to the FSCs (identified by lineage tracing, Fig. 2F;(Wang and Page-McCaw, 2014)). To validate the *NRT-wg* allele was tethered as expected, we examined Wg localization in *NRT-wg* homozygotes and in controls (with the same copy number of the *wg* gene). In contrast to the gradient of Wg protein found in the controls (Fig. 2G), in *NRT-wg* germaria the Wg protein was sequestered at the cap cells, the cells that produce the Wg protein (Fig. 2H). The change in Wg localization provided confirmation that the NRT transmembrane domain functioned in the germarium to tether Wg to the plasma membrane, but it did not explain why germarium architecture appeared normal when egg laying was so infrequent in *NRT-wg/null* females.

Previously we reported *fz3-RFP* was a faithful reporter of Wnt signaling activity in the germarium (Wang and Page-McCaw, 2014). The specificity of the *fz3-RFP* reporter for Wg has not been established, as four *Wnts* are expressed in the germarium (*Wnt2*, *Wnt4*, *Wnt6*, and *wg*; (Forbes et al., 1996; Luo et al., 2015; Waghmare and Page-McCaw, 2018; Wang et al.,

2015)). To determine if *fz3-RFP* responded to multiple Wnt ligands, we analyzed how *fz3-RFP* responded to the loss of each Wnt ligand (Fig. S1). We measured RFP fluorescence after knocking down each Wnt with a Gal4 driver in the cell type that generates it. *bab1^{Agal4-5}* was used to knock down *wg* or *Wnt6* in cap cells (Fig. S1A-D), and *C587-Gal4* was used to knock down *Wnt2* or *Wnt4* in escort cells (Fig. S1E-J). These experiments showed that *fz3-RFP* reports the signaling activities of at least three Wnt ligands – Wg, Wnt2, and Wnt4 – as *fz3-RFP* reporter levels were modestly but reproducibly reduced when each was knocked down individually; in contrast *fz3-RFP* levels were not affected by knocking down Wg in escort cells, confirming that it is not expressed in escort cells at appreciable levels (Fig. S1J). To analyze *fz3-RFP* levels in *NRT-wg* germaria, we needed to recombine these two loci on the 2nd chromosome. *fz3-RFP* is unmapped and identifying a recombinant required molecular screening of hundreds of progeny, suggesting that it is tightly linked to the *wg* locus. Puzzlingly, when germaria were analyzed from the *fz3-RFP*, *NRT-wg* recombinant *in trans* to a null allele (*fz3-RFP*, *NRT-wg/null*), *fz3-RFP* levels were unexpectedly increased throughout the escort cells (Fig. S2). Although *fz3-RFP* does not report Wg spreading directly, these results suggest there may be a relay of Wnt signaling from the cap cells to the escort cells, and proper levels depend on Wg spreading. We conclude that *fz3-RFP* is a complex reporter for many types of Wnt signaling.

Previously we found that FSC proliferation is sensitive to the levels of Wg spreading from the cap cells, with more proliferation occurring when the range of Wg spreading is visibly increased. Because the range of Wg spreading is sharply limited by NRT-Wg, we hypothesized that FSC proliferation would be reduced, a possible explanation for the lack of fertility in *NRT-wg* females. In our earlier study, FSC proliferation was measured by two assays – indirectly by

the frequency of FSC mitotic clone induction (see Fig. 2F), and directly by visualizing mitotic cells in the region of FSCs by phospho-histone H3 (pH3) staining – and the results of these two assays were in close agreement (Wang and Page-McCaw, 2014). For this study, we were unable to use lineage tracing to evaluate FSC proliferation in the *NRT-wg/null* germaria we were analyzing, as the allele we used contains an *FRT* at the *wg* locus, precluding the use of *FRTs* for mitotic recombination. Fortunately, we were able to use the alternative approach of direct visualization of mitotic cells with anti-pH3 (Fig. 3A, B), and we analyzed their frequency in the germarium. Although there is disagreement about how many FSCs are in each germarium and how far the FSCs extend in the anterior direction, there is broad agreement that most (or all) FSC proliferation occurs at the border between regions 2a and 2b, at the boundary of bright Fas3 antibody staining (Fadiga and Nystul, 2019; Hartman et al., 2013; Laws and Drummond-Barbosa, 2015; Nystul and Spradling, 2010; Reilein et al., 2017; Song and Xie, 2002). For comparison, we also measured mitosis in other regions of the germarium: the germline cells found anterior to the 2a/2b boundary; region 2b where mitotic cells are prefollicle cells, the immediate daughters of the FSCs; region 3 where mitotic cells are follicle cells; and stage 6, an ovarian tissue outside the germarium. We analyzed three sets of *NRT-wg* genotypes. As described previously, we analyzed germaria from homozygous *NRT-wg* females (Fig. 3C) and from hemizygous *NRT-wg/null* females (Fig. 3D), as toxicity is reduced in the latter. We also analyzed germaria from females carrying a conditional allele, in which *wg* was converted to *NRT-wg* only after adults eclosed, so as to avoid any contribution of *NRT-wg* during pupal development of the ovary; the final adult genotypes compared were *control-wg* (unflipped)/*null* versus *NRT-wg* (flipped)/*null* (Fig. 3E). Examining all three data sets, it is striking that pH3

staining was never observed in the FSC-containing region in any of the 156 *NRT-wg* germaria, compared to 33 mitotic pH3-positive cells observed in 131 control ovaries. Although we counted only the pH3-positive cells, DAPI staining showed the total number of cells to be similar, consistent with our observations that the germarium is not disrupted in these mutants (Fig. 2D, E). In the other regions, some reductions in mitosis were observed at varying levels in different *NRT-wg* backgrounds, with the reduction in mitosis most pronounced in the homozygous *NRT-wg*, but they were not consistent across genotypes. Together, these results indicate that in *NRT-wg* germaria, the FSC proliferation rate is so low as to be undetectable, and such a low rate would explain the ten-fold reduction in egg-laying. These results are consistent with the model that Wg spreads from a distance to signal the FSCs, a process previously shown to be mediated by the glypican Dlp (Wang and Page-McCaw, 2014).

Given the absence of measurable FSC proliferation, we were puzzled by the architecture of the *NRT-wg* germaria, since germline proliferation was not as dramatically reduced as follicle stem cell proliferation (Fig. 3C-E). Such a mismatch in proliferation rates would result in either the accumulation of too many germline cells in the germarium, encapsulation defects with multiple germline cysts within one follicle, and/or death of germline cells. We noted that some *NRT-wg/null* germaria displayed encapsulation defects (15/19 germaria), although this defect was not sufficiently penetrant to compensate on its own for the drastic reduction in FSC proliferation. To assay germline death, we performed TUNEL-staining to identify apoptotic cells in germaria (Fig. 4A-C). In *NRT-wg/null* germaria, the rate of germline death was slightly but significantly elevated over controls, which combined with the encapsulation defects may compensate for the lack in FSC proliferation. Remarkably, in *NRT-wg* homozygotes nearly every

germarium contained a dying germline cyst. These two mechanisms together, apoptosis of unencapsulated cysts and encapsulating multiple cysts into one follicle, likely compensate for the continued proliferation of germline stem cells while the follicle stem cells do not proliferate.

It has been documented that homozygous *NRT-wg* animals have defects in gut development during pupal metamorphosis, specifically having defects in muscle patterning, cell fate specification, organ folding, and the relative size of various regions (Tian et al., 2019). It is reasonable to consider that *NRT-wg* malformed guts may result in reduced nutritional uptake in adults, and interestingly, several of the ovarian phenotypes we observed in *NRT-wg* homozygotes — small ovaries, a reduction in follicle cell proliferation, and apoptosis of germline cysts — are observed in wild-type flies with poor nutrition (Drummond-Barbosa and Spradling, 2001; Hartman et al., 2013). This nutrition interpretation is less likely to explain the reduced fertility of *NRT-wg/null* hemizygotes because ovary size was normal and overall follicle cell proliferation was not significantly different from controls except for the region of follicle stem cells and their immediate daughters, but nevertheless it is impossible to rule out developmental causes when Wg was tethered throughout development. To separate the role of Wg spreading in development from oogenesis, we generated conditional mutants in which Wg was tethered only after eclosion, using $\{FRT\ wg\ FRT\ NRT-wg\}$ which converted *wg* to *NRT-wg* in adults via intrachromosomal recombination (Fig 4D, E). To convert this allele, we first expressed the FLP recombinase ubiquitously with *act5C-Gal4* restricted by Gal80^{ts} to be expressed only after eclosion, but few adults were recovered. Fortunately, expressing FLP recombinase in the *wg* expression pattern with *wg-Gal4*, restricted by Gal80^{ts} to adults, resulted in *NRT-wg/null*

viable adults. Although these germaria did not generally display encapsulation defects (only 1/32 had a visible encapsulation defect), they did display a significant increase in 16-cell germline cysts (Fig. 4F-H), a previously reported phenotype for the adult-onset loss of *wg* (Song and Xie, 2003). These results are consistent with the model that extracellular spreading of Wg is required in the germarium for normal FSC proliferation, and without sufficient FSC proliferation, the germarium backs up with too many germline cysts.

In these *NRT-wg* experiments, and in previously reported *wg* loss-of-function germarium experiments, the *wg* gene product was manipulated throughout the animal (Song and Xie, 2003). Thus, these experiments cannot exclude the possibility that *wg* function and Wg spreading are required in another adult tissue to promote FSC proliferation. A conclusive experiment about whether Wg spreads from the cap cells to the FSCs would be to convert *wg* to *NRT-wg* only in the cap cells (converting *wg* to a null allele as a control). Unfortunately, despite substantial efforts we have not been unable to identify a cap-cell specific *Gal4* driver that expresses in all of the cap cells, the source of most or all Wg for the germarium, and the escaping cap cells appear to provide sufficient Wg protein to maintain signaling. Nevertheless, because NRT-Wg is capable of signaling to neighboring cells (Tian et al., 2019), these data clearly demonstrate that extracellular Wg spreading is required for oogenesis and follicle stem cell proliferation. Because Wingless spreading is not required in the wing for patterning but is required for egg production, our findings suggest that different tissues may have different requirements for diffusible vs. juxtacrine wingless signaling.

Our data is consistent with a simple model that Wg spreads from the cap cells to the FSCs where it directly signals FSC proliferation. This simple model is challenged, however, by

studies of FSCs that cannot transduce Wnt signals. In two papers, the Kalderon lab has found that when FSCs clones decrease Wnt signaling by overexpressing dnTCF (Melamed and Kalderon, 2020) or when they lose Wnt signaling by mitotic recombination of an arrow mutant (Reilein et al., 2017), FSCs have a small decrease in proliferation measured by EdU incorporation, a decrease insufficient to explain our data that proliferation rates are below the threshold of detection when Wg is tethered. There are some differences in methodology — they measure S-phase and we measure M-phase, they measure FSC clonal cells in competition with wild-type cells and we measure all FSCs — yet still these results appear to be at odds. One model to reconcile these data is that Wg indirectly signals FSC proliferation, through an intermediate cell type that cannot be reached with NRT-Wg. Interestingly, Kalderon group found that increasing activity of the Wnt signaling pathway has a dramatic reduction on FSC proliferation (Melamed and Kalderon, 2020), and we found with the *fz3-RFP* Wnt reporter that total Wnt signaling is unexpectedly increased when Wg is tethered. Together, these data suggest that Wg spreading is part of a complex relay of Wg signaling in the germarium, which regulates FSC proliferation.

Methods

Fly stocks

Flies were cultured on cornmeal-molasses media at 25°C unless otherwise noted.

Females were fed on media with wet yeast paste in the presence of w^{1118} males, and tossed to new vials every 1-2 days until dissection. The following stocks were a generous gift from Dr. Jean-Paul Vincent: $wg\{KO; FRT NRT-Wg FRT QF\}/CyO$. $wg\{KO; FRT Wg FRT QF\}/CyO$. $wg\{KO; Gal4/CyO\}$. $wg\{KO; FRT Wg FRT NRT-Wg\}/CyO$. $wg\{KO; Gal4\}$. The *NRT-wg* flies used in this study were $wg\{KO; FRT NRT-Wg FRT QF\}$, which express *NRT-wg* and not *QF* in their unflipped state; the corresponding control flies were $wg\{KO; FRT Wg FRT QF\}$, which express *wg* and not *QF* in their unflipped state. We did not use the non-flippable $wg\{KO; NRT-Wg\}$ line because of reported problems with its control, $wg\{KO; wg\}$. In its unflipped state, the $wg\{KO; FRT NRT-Wg FRT QF\}$ chromosome is equivalent to $wg\{KO; NRT-Wg\}$. The wg^{CX4} null allele was obtained from the Bloomington *Drosophila* Stock Center (BDSC).

For adult-onset tethering of *Wg* in which *wg* is replaced with *NRT-wg*, the cross $wg\{KO; Gal4\}/CyO; Tub-Gal80^{ts}/TM6 \times wg\{KO; FRT wg FRT NRT-wg\}/CyO; UAS-FLP/TM6$ was performed at 18°C. Immediately after progeny eclosed as adults, females were collected of genotype $wg\{KO; Gal4\}/wg\{KO; FRT wg FRT NRT-wg\}; UAS-FLP/Tub-Gal80^{ts}$ and moved to 29°C for 5 days (Fig. 3E) or 10 days (Fig. 4) before dissection. *UAS-FLP*, *Tub-Gal80^{ts}*, and the alternative driver *Act5C-Gal4* were obtained from the BDSC.

FSC mitotic clones (Fig. 2F) were induced and stained for lacZ as previously described (Wang and Page-McCaw, 2014)

To assess *fz3-RFP* expression in control and Wnt knockdown conditions, *fz3-RFP*; *bab1^{Agal4-5}*, *Tub-Gal80^{ts}* or *C587-Gal4*; *fz3-RFP*; *Tub-Gal80^{ts}* females were crossed to *w¹¹¹⁸* (control), *UAS-wg^{RNAi}* (NIG-FLY 4889 R-4), *UAS-Wnt2^{RNAi}* (BL 29441, BL 36722), *UAS-Wnt4^{RNAi}* (BL 29442) or *UAS-Wnt6^{RNAi}* (VDRC 10420) males at 18°C. F1 females of the appropriate genotypes were collected within one day of eclosing, crossed with *w¹¹¹⁸* males, transferred to fresh vials supplemented with yeast paste and incubated at 29°C for *Gal80^{ts}* inactivation and *Gal4/UAS-RNAi*-mediated knockdown of Wnts for 7 days. During the incubation at 29°C, flies were transferred to fresh vials supplemented with yeast paste every other day.

To assess *fz3-RFP* expression in germaria in control and *NRT-wg* heterozygous flies, *fz3-RFP/CyO* or *fz3-RFP, wg{KO; FRT NRT-wg FRT QF, Pax-Cherry}/CyO* flies were analyzed. To assess *fz3-RFP* expression in germaria of *NRT-wg* homozygotes, *fz3-RFP, wg{KO; FRT NRT-wg FRT QF, Pax-Cherry}/wg{KO; FRT NRT-wg FRT QF, Pax-Cherry}* were analyzed. To assess *fz3-RFP* in *NRT-wg/null* flies, *fz3-RFP, wg{KO; FRT NRT-wg FRT QF, Pax-Cherry}/wg^{CX4}* were analyzed. All crosses were performed at 25°C. Females of the appropriate genotypes were aged at 25°C for 5-7 days.

Tissue fixation and staining

Ovaries were stained as previously described (Wang and Page-McCaw, 2014). Briefly, ovaries were dissected in Schneider's *Drosophila* media, fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde (Ted Pella) in PBS and washed with PBST (PBS + 0.1% Triton X-100) before being blocked with 5% normal goat serum in PBST and incubated with primary antibodies at 4°C overnight. To visualize DNA, ovaries were incubated in 1 µg/ml DAPI (Sigma) in PBST for 10 min. Extracellular Wg

staining was performed according a published protocol (Strigini and Cohen, 2000) and was also described in (Wang and Page-McCaw, 2014). The following primary antibodies were from Developmental Studies Hybridoma Bank (DSHB): mouse anti-Fas3 (7G10, 1:8), mouse anti-Hts (1B1, 1:5), mouse anti-LamC (LC28.26, 1:20), mouse anti-Wg (4D4, 1:3) and rat anti-Vasa (1:10). Rabbit anti-phospho-Histone H3 (Millipore, 1:1,000) was used to label mitotic cells. Secondary antibodies used were goat anti-rabbit IgG and goat anti-rat IgG conjugated to Alexa Fluor 488 (Molecular Probes), Cy3-conjugated goat anti-mouse IgG1 or IgG2a. Stained samples were mounted in Vectashield (Vector Laboratories).

For Fz3-RFP visualization, ovaries were dissected in incomplete Schneider's media, fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde (Ted Pella) in 1XPBS at RT, washed with 1X PBST, and mounted in Vectashield mounting media containing DAPI (Vector Laboratories).

For TUNEL staining, ovaries were dissected and fixed as described above, washed thoroughly in PBS, and permeabilized with PBS containing 0.1% Triton X-100 and 0.1% sodium citrate. 100 µl of TUNEL reaction mixture (*In Situ* Cell Death Detection Kit TMR Red, Roche) was added per 5 pairs of ovaries, and samples were incubated at 37 °C in the dark for 1 hr. Ovaries were washed thoroughly in PBST, blocked and co-stained with primary antibodies overnight as described above.

Microscopy and imaging

Fluorescent images were taken by a Zeiss Axioimager M2 equipped with an Apotome system and an AxioCam MRm camera (Zeiss). Images were acquired using 40X/1.3 oil EC Plan-NeoFluor or 63X/1.4 oil Plan-Apochromat objective lens at room temperature. The Zeiss

Axiovision 4.8 software was used for data acquisition, and projections of Z-stacks were compiled using the Orthoview functions. Images were exported as 16-bit TIFF files and processed with Adobe Photoshop CS4 or Affinity Photo. Brightfield images of ovaries were acquired with a Zeiss Axiocam MRc camera mounted to a Zeiss Lumar V12 stereomicroscope, using a Neolumar S 1.5x objective, X-Cite 120Q light source and Axiovision 4.8 software.

Quantification and Statistics

Viability (eclosion) assays were performed at 25°C. Parents were allowed to lay eggs in bottles for 2-3 days. Adults emerged ~10 days later, and all progeny were counted until they stopped eclosing (never longer than 8 days). For the crosses in Fig. 1B, 8 bottles (replicates) were counted for control and *NRT-wg* homozygotes; 4 bottles for *NRT-wg/null*; and 6 bottles each for the germline flipped and non-flipped genotypes. For the cross in Fig. 1C, 6 bottles were counted. For longevity assays, about 20 adult females were collected upon eclosion and cultured with *w¹¹¹⁸* males in a vial. Dead females were counted every 2 days when flies were tossed to new vials.

For the fertility assay, female flies were fattened on cornmeal-molasses media with males and fresh yeast for 2-4 days, then 10-12 females and half as many males were put in an egg-collecting cage fed daily with a grape juice plate with yeast paste. Each 24 hours the plate was changed, eggs laid on the plate were counted, and the number of eggs/female/day was determined by dividing the number of eggs by the number of females present at the start of the collection period. Dead females were removed daily and the number of surviving females was recorded for the next day's egg collection.

For quantification of *fz3-RFP* intensities, Z-stacks spanning the entire germarium were acquired at 20X for each genotype, sum Z projection of each germarium was generated in ImageJ, and average *fz3-RFP* intensity was obtained by outlining the *fz3-RFP* expression domain in the germarium. All germaria were imaged at same settings for comparisons shown in individual graphs.

To determine the number of mitotic cells in regions of the ovary, ovarioles were dissected and stained with anti-phospho-Histone H3 (pH3), Fas3, and DAPI. Mitotic cells were recognized by anti-pH3 staining. DAPI and Fas3 were used to identify the region of the ovary. Cells at the 2a/2b border, proximal to the region of high Fas3 staining, were considered as FSCs. Sixteen-cell cysts were identified by their typical structure of fusomes labeled with anti-Hts staining and vasa germline staining.

For main figures, student's *t*-test (two-tailed, two-sample equal variance) was used for statistical analysis and a *p* value of <0.05 was considered significant. For Fig. S1D, J and S2E dot plots, comparisons of means across indicated genotypes was done using ordinary one-way ANOVA, and significant differences between genotypes was determined by Tukey's test. Mean and standard error of mean are represented on the dot plots.

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Figure Legends

Figure 1: Tethering Wg to the plasma membrane specifically reduced female fertility.

A. *wg* alleles used in this study.

B. The *NRT-wg* allele has a dose-dependent toxicity inherent in the allele, not caused by a second chromosomal lesion. Homozygous *NRT-wg* flies (panel B, column 2) had severely compromised survival to adulthood, with homozygotes present at only 8% of total progeny rather than the predicted 33%. Survival was greatly improved (18% of total progeny) when flies carried one copy of *NRT-wg in trans* to the *wg^{CX4}* null allele (column 3, *wg-NRT/null*). The FRT-containing (flippable) line was fully viable (34% of progeny) in its unflipped state, when it expressed wild-type *wg* (column 4). After germline excision of wild-type *wg*, *NRT-wg* was expressed in the same chromosomal background, and survival was severely compromised in homozygotes (6% of progeny, column 5). All parents carried the *CyO* balancer chromosome to standardize results, even though the control and unflipped line are homozygous viable and fertile.

C. Heterozygous flies carrying the unflipped *wg* chromosome *in trans* to the flipped *NRT-wg* chromosome were fully viable (panel C, 46% of the population compared to 50% expected).

D. Homozygous *NRT-wg* flies had severely reduced lifespan, but lifespan was improved in *wg-NRT/null* hemizygous flies. Each line represents an independent biological replicate of 16-38 flies.

E. Both homozygous *NRT-wg* flies and hemizygous *wg-NRT/null* flies had dramatically reduced

female fertility, indicating that fertility is specifically sensitive to Wingless tethering independent of its toxicity. Each bar represents 3 biological replicates of 5-12 females. Error bars represent SEM.

Figure 2: Ovaries with tethered Wg have normal germarium architecture even though Wg protein is sequestered near cap cells.

A. Bright-field image showing sizes of control ovaries, *NRT-wg* homozygous ovaries, and *NRT-wg/null* hemizygous ovaries. *NRT-wg/null* hemizygotes are more similar than homozygotes to controls. Bar: 500 μ m.

B-D. DAPI staining in ovaries, 2 samples shown for each genotype, revealed the distribution of egg chamber stages in controls (B), in *NRT-wg* homozygous ovaries with fewer late-stage egg chambers (C), and in *NRT-wg/null* hemizygotes with a more typical distribution of egg chamber stages (D). Bar: 500 μ m. All ovaries in A-D are from 6-day old females.

E. Hemizygous *NRT-wg/null* germarium stained for DAPI (in blue) and Hts and LamC (in green) showing normal cap cells, spectrosomes/fusomes, and follicle cells. Like most *NRT-wg/null* germaria (15/19), this germarium does not show an encapsulation defect. Bar: 25 μ m.

F. Germarium, wild-type for *wg*, showing extracellular Wg protein (red) spreading from the anterior (left) to the follicle stem cells. A follicle stem cell (FSC) clone was genetically labeled to express *lacZ* (green). Bar: 5 μ m.

G-H. Control germarium (G) and *NRT-wg* homozygous germarium (H) stained for extracellular Wg protein (red) revealed that tethering Wg to its source in cap cells reduced the visible spread of Wg protein. Bar: 25 μ m.

Figure 3: Follicle stem cell proliferation was severely reduced when Wg was tethered to the plasma membrane.

A-B. Cell proliferation was detected by anti-phospho-H3 staining, which recognizes mitotic cells in germaria and early egg chambers. Scale bar: 25 μ m.

C. In homozygous *NRT-wg* ovaries, significantly less cell proliferation occurred in all somatic cell types examined, although germ cell proliferation was not significantly changed. Inset shows a FSC at the 2a/2b boundary labeled by anti-pH3 in a control germarium, scale bar 25 μ m.

D. In hemizygous *NRT-wg/null* ovaries, decreases in somatic cell proliferation were observed specifically in the region of follicle stem cells (Fas3- region) and their immediate daughters (Region 2b), and not in later Regions 3 or 6.

E. In germaria that were raised with control Wg then flipped to *NRT-wg* as adults, decreased cell proliferation occurred, with the most pronounced differences in the region of follicle stem cells (Fas3- region) and their immediate daughters (Region 2b). * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$, NS not significant. Error bars are SEM.

Figure 4: Germaria with tethered Wingless had too many germline cysts.

A-C. Apoptotic cysts were detected in germaria by TUNEL. Controls expressing wild-type *wg* (A) showed few apoptotic cysts, whereas germaria from flies expressing only *NRT-wg* throughout development had substantially more apoptotic germline cysts (B), on average about 1 apoptotic cyst per germarium (C). Bar: 25 μ m.

D-E. The *wg* locus was converted to express *NRT-wg* during adulthood by either *act>FLP* (D) or *wg>FLP* (E) under *Gal80^{ts}* control. Egg encapsulation proceeded normally in nearly all germaria, 35/40 germaria for *act>FLP* and 31/32 for *wg>FLP*. Genotypes: *wg{KO}/wg{KO}; FRT wg FRT NRT-wg*; *actin-Gal4, Tub-Gal80^{ts}/UAS-FLP* in (D) and *wg{KO}; Gal4}/wg{KO}; FRT wg FRT NRT-wg*; *Tub-Gal80^{ts}/UAS-FLP*. Bar: 25 μ m.

F-H. When the *wg* locus is converted to *NRT-wg* during adulthood by *wg>FLP*, germaria contain increased numbers of germline cysts (G) compared to controls in which no conversion occurred (F). Germline cysts are evident with anti-Vasa staining (green). Genotypes: *wg{KO}; Gal4}/+; Tub-Gal80^{ts} /UAS-FLP* as unconverted control and *wg{KO}; Gal4}/wg{KO}; FRT wg FRT NRT-wg*; *Tub-Gal80^{ts} /UAS-FLP*. Bar: 25 μ m. Error bars are standard deviation.

A Endogenous *wg* locus

B Viability of *wg* mutant progeny from cross

C Viability of *NRT-wg* mutant progeny from cross

D Longevity

E Female Fertility

Fig. S1: *fz3-RFP* reports signaling activity of Wg, Wnt2, and Wnt4 in the *Drosophila* gerarium.

(A-J) The Wnt signaling reporter *fz3-RFP* in red, nuclei stained with DAPI in blue. Scale bar: 20 μ m.

(A-C) *bab1^{Agal4-5}*, expressed in cap cells and terminal filament cells, was used to knock down *wg* (B) or *Wnt6* (C), both expressed in cap cells.

(D) Quantification of *fz3-RFP* intensity. Knockdown of *wg* resulted in decreased *fz3-RFP* expression, whereas knockdown of *Wnt6* did not affect *fz3-RFP* expression.

(E-I) *C587-Gal4*, strongly expressed in escort cells, was used to knockdown *wg* (F), *Wnt2* (G,H) or *Wnt4* (I). *Wnt2* and *Wnt4* are expressed in escort cells.

(J) Quantification of *fz-RFP* intensity. Levels are comparable in controls and when *wg* is knocked down in escort cells, consistent with previous findings that *wg* is expressed in cap cells, not escort cells. Knockdown of *Wnt2* in escort cells using two independent RNAi lines or knockdown of *Wnt4* in escort cells results in decreased *fz3-RFP* expression.

** indicates p value: 0.0099–0.001, *** indicates p value <0.00099, n.s. indicates not statistically significant. Each dot in D and J indicates average RFP intensity for a single gerarium. n=6-8 geraria per genotype. AU: Arbitrary Unit.

Figure S2: *fz3-RFP* expression is higher *NRT-wg* germaria.

(A-D) A comparison of *fz3-RFP* expression in the germaria of **(A)** control **(B)** *NRT-wg* heterozygous, **(C)** *NRT-wg* homozygous, and **(D)** *NRT-wg/null* flies shows that membrane tethering of Wg unexpectedly induces *fz3-RFP* expression in germaria. DAPI labels nuclei. AU: Arbitrary units. Scale bar: 20 μm.

(E) Quantification of *fz3-RFP* intensity in germaria of the indicated genotypes. Each dot indicates average *fz3-RFP* intensity in one germarium. n=8-10 germaria per genotype. * indicates p value: 0.01–0.05, ** indicates p value: 0.0099–0.001, *** indicates p value < 0.00099.