Manuscript submitted to:

Volume 2, Issue 1, 70-96.

### **AIMS Genetics**

DOI: 10.3934/genet.2015.1.70

Received date 13 November 2014, Accepted date 25 January 2015, Published date 5 February 2015

#### Review

# Cell proliferation control by Notch signalling during imaginal discs development in *Drosophila*

## Carlos Estella<sup>1</sup> and Antonio Baonza<sup>2, \*</sup>

- <sup>1</sup> Departamento de Biología Molecular and Centro de Biología Molecular SeveroOchoa, Universidad Autónoma de Madrid (UAM), Madrid, Spain
- <sup>2</sup> Centro de Biología Molecular Severo Ochoa (CSIC/UAM) c/Nicolás Cabrera 1, 28049, Madrid, Spain
- \* **Correspondence:** Email: abaonza@cbm.csic.es; Tel: 0034 914974129; Fax: 0034 914978632.

**Abstract:** The Notch signalling pathway is evolutionary conserved and participates in numerous developmental processes, including the control of cell proliferation. However, Notch signalling can promote or restrain cell division depending on the developmental context, as has been observed in human cancer where Notch can function as a tumor suppressor or an oncogene. Thus, the outcome of Notch signalling can be influenced by the cross-talk between Notch and other signalling pathways. The use of model organisms such as *Drosophila* has been proven to be very valuable to understand the developmental role of the Notch pathway in different tissues and its relationship with other signalling pathways during cell proliferation control. Here we review recent studies in *Drosophila* that shed light in the developmental control of cell proliferation by the Notch pathway in different contexts such as the eye, wing and leg imaginal discs. We also discuss the autonomous and non-autonomous effects of the Notch pathway on cell proliferation and its interactions with different signalling pathways.

Keywords: Drosophila; Notch signaling; imaginal discs; cell proliferation

#### 1. Introduction

A wide range of cellular functions including cell proliferation, cell survival and cell fate commitment has been shown to be regulated by the activity of Notch signalling in nearly all multicellular organisms [1-4]. Accordingly with these pleiotropic effects, there is extensive evidence linking the deregulation of Notch pathway with multiple diseases and cancer [4-8]. Despite the

great progress in elucidating the mechanisms and molecular features of this signalling cascade during the last decades, the explanation for the diversity of cellular responses triggered by the pathway is not fully understood.

Since the first allele of Notch gene was identified in Drosophila melanogaster by T H Morgan in 1917 [9], this genetically powerful model organism has provided solid explanations for much of what we know about Notch-dependent intercellular signalling [6]. In addition, the evolutionary conservation between flies and humans has ensured the functional significance of these findings for obtaining a better understanding of human development and disease. Numerous studies have highlighted the power of using the development of the Drosophila imaginal discs as an in vivo system model for analyzing how cooperative interactions between the Notch pathway and other signals contribute to regulate cell proliferation in epithelia. Moreover, these structures have been employed to define the molecular mechanisms underlying tumor development and metastasis when Notch signalling is perturbed [10]. As occurs in mammals, Drosophila Notch activation can promote tumor growth by causing abnormal cell proliferation, not only autonomously, but also triggering proliferation in the normal surrounding cells. This effect is pleiotropic and context-dependent. Cancer is primarily a disease caused by loss of normal cellular growth regulation and this is often caused by the loss of cell proliferation control. To elucidate how alteration in the activity of Notch leads to the loss of proliferative control is fundamental to define the role that Notch plays in the intricate machinery that regulates the cell cycle and cell proliferation during normal development. In this review we will focus on recent advances and knowledge on the function of Notch signalling in regulating cell proliferation during normal development of the imaginal discs. The mechanisms of normal Notch signalling regulating cell proliferation may provide useful insights to understand how alteration in this pathway can induce tumorogenesis.

#### 2. Description of the Notch signalling pathway

In Drosophila the activation of the Notch signalling pathway depends on the interaction between the unique Notch receptor identified in this insect (in mammals there are 4 Notch orthologs, termed NOTCH1-4) with its ligands Delta (Dl) (Delta-like [Dll1], Dll3 and Dll4 in mammals) and Serrate (Ser) (Jagged, Jag 1 and Jag2 in mammals). The Notch receptor is a single-pass transmembrane molecule synthesized as a precursor form that is cleaved by Furin-like convertase (S1 cleavage) to generate a non-covalently linked heterodimer [11]. This heterodimer is composed of two subunits. One of these subunits consists of the major portion of the extracellular domain (NEC) fragment, and the other is the C-terminal region that contains the remainder of the NEC domain, the transmembrane domain and the intracellular domain (NICD) [3,4]. The activation of the receptor initiates a proteolytic process of the receptor and the subsequent release of the Notch intracellular domain (NICD) [4,6,8,12,13]. The cleavage of the receptor is performed by different proteases in a sequential manner, firstly by members of the ADAM metalloprotease Kuzbanian (Kuz)/TACE family, and later by the presenilin (PS)-dependent gamma-secretase complex (S3 cleavage) to release a soluble intercellular Notch fragment (NICD). This domain then translocates to the nucleus to participate in concert with the transcription factor CSL (CBF1-Suppressor of Hairless (Su(H)), and Mastermind (Mam), in the transcriptional activation of Notch target genes [2,3,41].

The Notch (NICD) is subject to a variety of post-translational modifications, including phosphorylation, ubiquitylation, hydroxylation and acetylation. These modifications can modulate

the relative strength of receptor-ligand interaction, as well as the outcome of the signal transduction, and therefore the final cellular response induced by the activation of the pathway [4,6,13,14]. Another process that modulates the activity of Notch signalling is the endocytic trafficking [15-18]. Ligand endocytosis contributes to generate the physical forces necessary to dissociate and activate the receptor, and activated receptors enter endosomes to signal. Moreover, endosomal trafficking is involved in down-regulating Notch receptors that have not been activated. Disruption of the function of genes encoding for endocytic components cause different tumors [15,16,17,19]. According to whether the gene affected is required early or late in the endocytic pathway the tumor phenotype differ. Thus, mutations in genes that act at the level of early endosome fusion, such as Rab5, the syntaxin, Avalanche (Avl) and Rabenosyn-5, cause autonomous tumor growth of wholly mutant tissue [20,21], but clones of mutant cells for these genes fail to overgrow. In contrast, loss of later endosomal trafficking components, such as ESCRTI (TSG101) and ESCRTII (Vps25), exhibit a non-autonomous tumor phenotype whereby mutant clones induce proliferation in adjacent wild-type tissue [22-26] reviewed [23,25]. The difference between these two types of endocytic tumors seems to be due to their differential effects on Notch signalling [18,20,22,23,25-28]. Thus, whereas lack of Notch internalization in early endocytic mutants does not appear to promote Notch signalling [18,20,21] the disruption of ESCRTI and ESCRTII results in ectopic Notch activation and the induction of the expression of the secreted JAK/STAT ligand Unpaired (Upd) [18,22,23,25,26,27], which acts to promote growth in adjacent wild-type tissue (see below). The influence of the endocytic trafficking on Notch signalling has been covered in several reviews [15,16,17,19].

#### 3. Notch signalling coordinates the growth of the eye discs

The adult eye, antenna and part of head cuticle of *Drosophila* originate from a common structure known as eye-antennal discs. The discs develop from approximately 70 ectodermic cells that invaginate from the dorsal pouch of the embryo forming a flat epithelial sac-like structure [29,30]. The few cells that constitute the primordium of the eye disc start to proliferate during the larval stages, reaching an approximate number of 97000 cells at end of the pupal stage [31]. During larval development, the eye-antennal disc is divided into different linage units known as compartments [32,33]. The boundaries between different compartments act as a signalling centers necessary for the growth and patterning of the discs [34,35]. One of the borders that play a fundamental role during eye development is the Dorsal-Ventral (D/V) boundary.

In the early stage of eye disc development, before the definition of the D/V border, the function of Notch signalling is necessary to separate the presumptive eye territory from the antenna field and promote proliferation. The elimination of Notch function during this stage truncates completely the development of the eye field and, simultaneously duplicates the presumptive region of the antenna [36,37]. This phenotype can be at least partially rescued by over-expressing the cell cycle regulator *Cyclin-E (CycE)* [37]. Interestingly, this role of Notch signalling participating in the early specification of different territories is not exclusive for the eye field, and a similar mode of action has been reported to take place at early stages of wing development (see below and Figure 1).

Different signalling events occur at the D/V boundary to control and coordinate the growth of the eye discs during larval development. A key proliferative signal is established around a maximal concentration of Notch activity along this boundary, this region is known as 'organizer' [35,38]. Although the Notch receptor is expressed in almost all the cells of the eye-antennal disc, its activity

is limited to the D/V boundary due to the function of genes whose expression is restricted either to the dorsal or ventral compartments of the eye disc [38-41]. The sequential and localized expression of genes such as *panier (pnr)*, *wingless (wg)* and *iroquois (iro-C)* determine dorsal fate of the eye primordium [38,42,43]. Concomitantly, the activity of the *iro-C* into the dorsal region represses the expression of *fringe (fng)*, thus restricting its expression to the ventral half of the eye primordium [38,39,40,42] (Figure 2). Opposing *fng*-positive and *fng*-negative cells establish the molecular mechanism that functionally defines the D/V boundary. The *fng* gene encodes for a glycosyltransferase that enzymatically modifies Notch modulating the ability of this receptor to interact with its ligands DI and Ser [44,45,46]. Fng inhibits the ability of Ser to signal through Notch and at the same time potentiates Notch-DI interactions, thereby generating the local activation of Notch along the D/V boundary. This localized activation of Notch promotes global growth throughout the eye discs from this early stage of eye development and onwards [38,47]. Any disruption affecting the D/V boundary specification impedes eye formation, while ectopic generation of D/V boundaries hold the potential to create *de novo* organizers that frequently cause eye duplications or enlargements of the eye field [38-41].

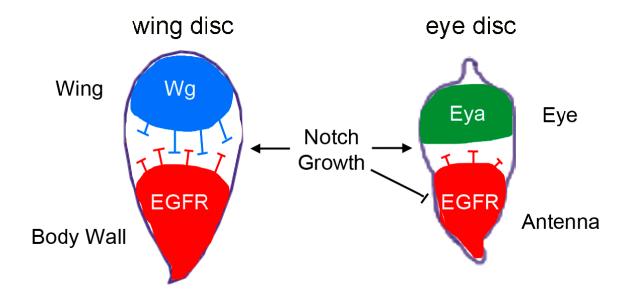


Figure 1. Notch induced growth and territorial specification. Illustration of the subdivision of the wing and eye-antenna imaginal discs into distinct territories. The wing disc is subdivided in wing and body wall primordia by the antagonistic signalling pathways Wg (blue) and EGFR (red). The eye-antenna imaginal disc is subdivided into antenna and eye primordia by the activity of EGFR (red) and Eya (green), respectively. Notch signalling induced cell proliferation promotes the subdivision of the wing and eye-antenna imaginal discs in distinct territories.

### Α

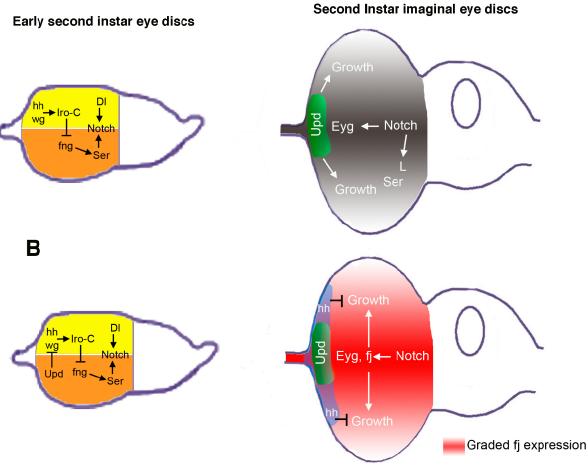


Figure 2. Role of Notch in autonomous and non-autonomous control of cell proliferation in the eye disc. Schematic representation of an early second (left), and third (right) larval instar eye discs. The subdivision of the eye discs in Dorsal (yellow), and Ventral (orange) compartments depends on the restricted expression of different genes that lead to the activation of Notch signalling at the D/V boundary. (A) Model suggesting that the function of the Jak/Stat pathway is required down-stream of the Notch signalling. Accordingly to this model, Upd is activated at the organizer by Notch signalling to promote global eye growth. (B) Alternative model suggesting that Jak/Stat activation is necessary for defining the organizer, and therefore it functions up-stream of Notch signalling.

# 3. Non-autonomous effects of Notch signalling in control of cell proliferation during eye development

Although Notch activity is restricted to the D/V boundary at the early phases of larval development, the influence of Notch signalling on proliferation spans throughout the eye disc. This implies the existence of a relay signal that expands the growth promoting effect of Notch to the entire eye disc. It has been proposed that the Pax protein encoded by the gene *eye gone (eyg)* is a

major effector of Notch signalling at the D/V boundary [48,49]. In second instar eye discs eyg transcription is induced by Notch signalling in a slice within the eye primordium straddling the D/V boundary [48,49]. Over-expressing eyg can compensate loss of Notch activity, whereas loss of eyg blocked the function of Notch signalling. Accordingly, it has been proposed that evg is required downstream of Notch signalling for eye growth (Figure 2) [48,49]. Since eyg encodes for a transcription factor, other protein/s must operate downstream of eyg to relay the D/V organizer proliferative signal throughout the eve disc [49]. One of the proteins that might be mediating this function is Unpaired (Upd), the ligand of the JAK/STAT pathway [50]. Considering these data, a model has been proposed that suggests that Notch signalling and eyg induce the expression of upd at the organizer, then this secreted protein would diffuse throughout the eye disc acting over long distance to promote cell proliferation [48,51,52] (Figure 2A). The fact that in an eyg null mutant background the ectopic activation of Notch signalling can still induce proliferation in the eye discs, suggest that Notch could also control proliferation by an eyg-independent mechanism. Moreover, as Notch signalling can induce upd, but not evg, in the posterior eye discs margin, the activation of upd can also be through an eyg-independent mechanism [48]. The functional link from Notch signalling to eyg and upd would explain how the localized activation of Notch could regulate global growth of the eye disc (Figure 2A). However, other authors have questioned this model, as they have found that the growth defects caused by the elimination of Notch signalling cannot be rescued by the activation of the upd/JAK/STAT (Figure 2B) [53]. These authors propose that the activation of JAK/STAT pathway by Upd precedes the formation of the organizer. Thus, in early eye development, upd would be antagonizing Wg and Hedgehog (Hh) signalling in the ventral domain and therefore repressing *iro-C* in this domain. Consistently with this model, the over-expression of upd induces overgrowth associated with *iro-C* inhibition and the appearance of new D/V boundaries [53]. Thus, in an initial phase JAK/STAT pathway would be necessary to define the position of the organizer, and therefore it would be functioning upstream of Notch signalling. Once the D/V boundary is defined Notch signalling would be locally activated along this border to establish the organizer, and therefore to induce global eye growth [53]. Interestingly, these authors have reported that one of the factors that is, at least partially, executing this global growth response induced by Notch signalling is the Golgi transmembrane type II glycoprotein Four-jointed (Fj) (Figure 2B)[54]. The ectopic expression of *fj* partially rescues the proliferative defects caused by reduced Notch activity [53]. The expression of fi is activated by Notch and JAK/STAT pathway at the D/V boundary in a graded manner (Figure 2B). This expression is complementary to the graded expression of the tumor suppressor gene dachsous (ds). This gene encodes for an atypical cadherin that binds to, and activates the protocadherin Fat, that in turn initiates the Hippo pathway signal. The function of this pathway restrains disc growth by inhibiting cell proliferation [55,56]. Fj kinase activity phosphorylates the cadherin domains of Fat and Ds during their transit through the Golgi, decreasing the affinity of Ds for Ft, and therefore reducing the activity of Hippo pathway [56]. Thus, Fj might be functioning as a regulatory hub, integrating Notch and Hippo pathway during the growth of the eye discs [53].

During eye disc development Hh and Notch signalling display an antagonistic interaction that plays an important role in the definition of the final size of the eye. In early second larval stage hh is expressed in marginal cells of the eye disc, and its product is secreted in an opposite gradient to that of the growth-promoting factors produced in the organizer [47,57] (Figure 2B). The function of this signalling pathway is crucial for retinal patterning and also to regulate eye growth [47]. In a

recent genetic screening, Da Ros and co-workers [57] have found that the over-expression of the conserved microRNA mir-7 enhances the overgrowth eye phenotype caused by the ectopic expression of Dl. These authors proposed that the cooperative action between mir-7 and Notch pathway reduces the activity of Hh signalling pathway by down-regulating two functionally redundant Hh receptors, Interference hedgehog (Ihog) and Brother of Ihog (Boi) [58-61]. ihog is directly silenced by miR-7, whereas boi is repressed by Notch signalling during eye growth. In this context Hh signalling would be necessary to reduce cell proliferation (Figure 2B). These results contrast with the function that it has been proposed for Hh signalling in promoting cell proliferation during eye discs development [62]. However, recent reports suggest that when Hh pathway is activated in clones of cells, the mutant cells are eliminated by apoptosis, whereas the surrounding wild-type cells over-proliferate [63]. Interestingly, mutations in members of the Hh pathway have been associated with human cancers [64]. This suggests that in addition to the well-known oncogenic role of Hh signalling, this pathway might also have a tumor-suppressor function. Accordingly, the downregulation of components of Hh signalling enhances the phenotype caused by the ectopic activation of Notch, resulting in severe disc overgrowth. Moreover, the tumor-like overgrowths induced by the ectopic expression of Dl and mir-7 are suppressed when Hh signal is increased [57]. These results reveal a cooperative antagonistic interaction between these two pathways in the control of cell proliferation. Considering that these signalling pathways, and their regulation, are highly conserved between flies and humans, it is likely that this mechanism might play a role in the development of some human cancers.

All these models coincide with the idea that different signalling pathways mediate the Notch-induced global eye growth (Figure 2). These signals promote cell proliferation throughout the eye discs in response to the local activation of Notch at the D/V boundary. Thus, the mechanisms underlying Notch-induced tumorigenesis might be, at least partially, explained by the interaction between Notch signalling and these signalling pathways (Hh, JAK/STAT and the Hippo pathway).

#### 4. Cell autonomous effect of Notch regulating cell proliferation during eye disc development

#### 4.1. Second mitotic wave

During eye disc development the onset of retinal differentiation is associated with the formation of an indentation in the most posterior region of the eye disc, known as morphogenetic furrow (MF). Since progressively anterior cells undergo this constriction, the furrow takes on a wave-like appearance moving from posterior region of the eye discs to the anterior [65,66,67]. The furrow sweeps across the disc, leaving in its wake the developing clusters of cells that will become the individual units of the compound eye, known as ommatidia. Moreover, furrow initiation promotes cell cycle synchronization, as cells anterior to the furrow proliferate randomly, but as soon as they enter the MF they arrest in G1 [68,69,70]. After the passage of the furrow, most of the cells that are not part of the cluster of cells that have initiated the process of differentiation undergo a single round of cell division, known as the second mitotic wave (SMW). After this, most cells will not divide again [66,71]. This additional round of cell division supplies unspecified precursor cells to each ommatidium [66]. Because the cells only undergo one round of division at this stage, and because of the progressive mode of development, all stages of the cell cycle can be observed easily in a single eye disc (Figure 3).

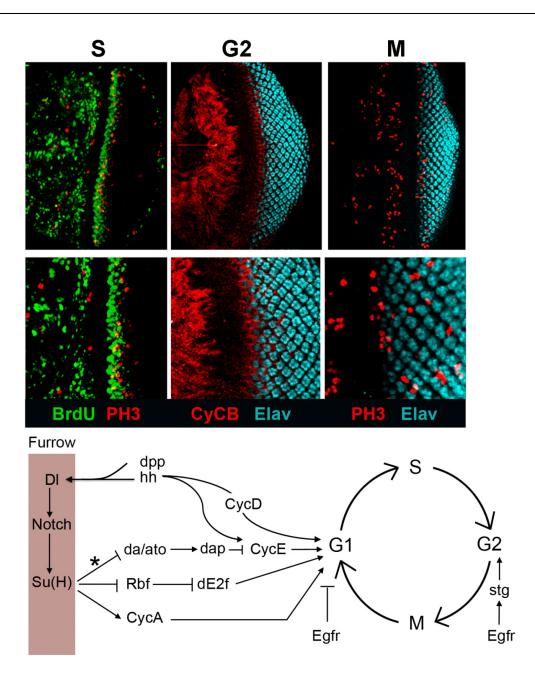


Figure 3. Second Mitotic wave regulation. Third instar eye imaginal discs, showing the different phases of the cell cycle. BrdU incorporation (green) marks S phase, CycB staining (red) indicates G2 phase and staining with antibodies against PH3 (red) marks mitosis. Photoreceptors are staining with Elav (blue). In the morphogenetic furrow cells are arrested in G1, and are therefore devoid of mitotic cells expressing PH3; posterior to the furrow, the SMW is marked by a narrow band of mitotic cells. Model of SMW regulation by different signals: Delta/Notch signalling, controls the onset of S-phase in the SMW by regulating the activity of dE2F, and the expression of CycA. Su(H) (asterisk) independently of Notch blocks the activity of Dap for promoting CycE function. The later G2/M checkpoint in the SMW is overcome by EGFR signalling that triggers the expression of Stg. Model modified from [72].

Different studies report that there is a specific Notch requirement for cells to enter S-phase in the SMW [52,72,73,74]. These studies have shown that clones of cells containing loss of function alleles of Notch, Dl or Su(H) do not enter S-phase and consequently fail to incorporate Bromodeoxyuridine (5-bromo-2'-deoxyuridine, BrdU) or express Cyclin-B (CycB) in the region posterior to the MF [72,73]. Consistently, the ectopic activation of Notch signalling or the over-expression of an activated form of Su(H) in cells posterior to the MF expands the zone of BrdU incorporation in the SMW, and increases the number of mitotic cells posterior to the MF [52,72,73]. This cell-autonomous effect of Notch is independent of the function of this signalling pathway inducing the proliferative signals associated with the organizer [52]. The function of Notch signalling promoting S phase entry in the SMW depends on at least two processes (Figure 3). Firstly, the de-repression of the inhibition of dE2F1 by Retinoblastoma factor (Rbf). Secondly, the activation of the expression of Cyclin-A (CycA) by Notch signalling [72]. However, the co-over-expression of CycA and dE2F1 is not sufficient to rescue S-phase in Notch mutant cells, implying the existence of, at least, one other target gene by which Notch triggers the onset of S-phase [72]. An obvious candidate for being a Notch effector in this transition is CycE, which is a primary trigger of S-phase [75]. However, it has been suggested that Notch signalling might be controlling this transition independently of this cyclin, since high levels of CycE are observed in Notch mutant cells [72,73]. CycE functions through regulating the activity of its partner Cdk2. Thus, the level of expression of CycE does not always correlate with the activity of the complex formed by CycE/Cdk2 kinase, since the function or expression of Cdk2 can be modified independently of CycE. In fact Cdk2 mutant cells accumulate high levels of CycE but fail to enter S phase in the SMW [74]. In addition, CycE/Cdk2 kinase activity can be inhibited by the p21/p27 family of Cdk inhibitor, Dacapo (Dap). The over-expression of *dap* blocks the S phase transition, though mutant cells accumulate high levels of CycE protein [76,77]. It has been reported that Su(H) mutant cells are arrested in G1 in the SMW, in part because dap is up-regulated. Thus, G1/S progression in Su(H) mutant cells can be induced by expressing CycE together with Cdk2 or eliminating dap in Su(H) mutant cells [74]. The up-regulation of dap in Su(H) mutant cells is dependent upon the basic helix-loop-helix (bHLH) proneural protein Daughterless (Da) [74]. Surprisingly, in clones of Notch mutant cells the levels of Dap are reduced [72,73], suggesting that Dap accumulation is not contributing to the G1 arrest in these mutant cells. These observations suggest that the mechanisms involved in the retention of Notch and Su(H) mutant cells in G1 in the SMW might be different (Figure 3)[74]. This possible mechanism should be further analyzed, since it might be a novel regulatory process, through which Su(H) could regulate cell proliferation.

The movement of the MF depends on the secreted proteins Hh and Decapentaplegic (Dpp). Hh is secreted from differentiating cells behind the MF and induces the expression of *Dpp*, which then also participates in furrow propagation [78-82]. Posterior-to-anterior spread of both proteins (Hh and Dpp) is also required to arrest cells in G1 ahead of the MF, and to activate the expression of *Dl* in an uniform band of cells [62,68,72,73,82]. As cells emerge from the MF, Dl activates to the Notch receptor to promote G1/S progression in all cells, although only uncommitted cells enter S-phase in the SMW, since Epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) activity blocks the cell cycle progression in G1 in the cells that are part of the precluster [72,73,83].

#### 4.2. Hh and Notch signalling in the control of cell proliferation in the SMW

Hh signalling plays a fundamental role in initiating and coordinating the onset of S-phase in the SMW. This signalling pathway activates several branches to promote G1/S transition during this coordinated division. On one hand, it promotes transcription of CycE and CycD [84], principal regulators of the S-phase onset, and on the other hand, together with Dpp, leads to the expression of Dl in the furrow (Figure 3) [72,73]. In addition to this function, Hh signalling is also required to regulate the expression of the basic helix-loop-helix (bHLH) protein Atonal (Ato) [80,85,86]. This transcription factor is essential for the differentiation of the photoreceptors [87]. Interestingly, Bossuyt and co-workers [88] have identified an anti-oncogenic function for *ato* during eye development. These authors report that the loss of *ato* strongly enhances the formation and progression of tumors generated when Notch is activated in "sensitized" flies, whereas, ectopic expression of *ato* strongly inhibits tumor formation in these flies [88]. This suggests that tumor formation might require loss of the capacity of the cells to induce cell fate commitment and differentiation.

*ato* is first expressed in a band of cells in front of the MF in response to Hh signalling. In the MF, this stripe of cells is refined into clusters of cells expressing high levels of *ato* (intermediate groups). Finally, from these groups the expression of *ato* is restricted to one single cell in each cluster, which will become the R8 photoreceptor [47]. The function of Notch is necessary to restrict the expression of *ato* to only one cell in each group. The Hh pathway is required to repress *ato* expression between the nascent proneural clusters [86]. Thus, both signalling pathways coordinately define the final pattern of expression of *ato* [47]. Interestingly, this repressive function is mediated by the bHLH protein Da (Figure 4). This factor is dynamically regulated in the furrow by several mechanisms, including Hh, and Notch signalling pathways. In the region posterior to the MF, Notch signalling up-regulates the expression of *da* in some cells to repress the expression of *ato*, to define the R8 pattern (Figure 4) [89]. Interestingly, the regulation of the expression of *the* cyclin

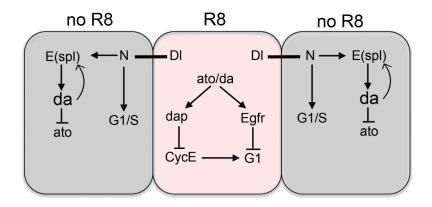


Figure 4. Schematic representation of the genetic interactions between *Notch/atonal/da* in the R8 equivalence group. The function of Notch signalling regulating cell proliferation in the equivalence group is tightly linked with its function controlling the differentiation of the photoreceptors. In the cells of the equivalence group that do not differentiate as R8s, Notch signalling is involved in the down-regulation of Atonal at the same time as it promotes G1/S progression.

inhibitor *dap* in the SMW depends on Da [74,90]. All these data suggest a tight link between the role of Notch signalling regulating proliferation in the SMW and its function controlling differentiation.

# 5. Autonomous requirements of Notch signalling in the regulation of cell proliferation in the ventral region of the eye discs

The cell autonomous effect of Notch signalling regulating cell proliferation seems to be restricted to cells posterior to the MF, as cell proliferation ahead of the furrow is not detectably impaired by loss of *Notch*. The fact that clones of *Notch* and *Dl* mutant cells can be generated implies that they are not required for the earlier, unpatterned proliferation in the region anterior to the MF [52,72]. However, different reports have shown that the growth of the ventral region of the eye discs depends on the function of ventral genes like *Lobe* (*L*) and its downstream target *Ser*. The depletion of the function of these genes in the whole eye disc result in selective growth defects in the ventral half of the eye [38,91]. In addition, other reports suggest that ventral *Notch* clones show disrupted *upd* transcription. These results argue that there is Notch activation not only at the D/V-midline but also in ventral tissue, and that Notch activity in ventral tissue is necessary for *upd* expression [52]. Surprisingly, *Ser* loss-of-function clones do not exhibit any phenotypes in the eye [41,92,93]. It has been suggested that Ser might function as a diffusible factor, or there may be other functionally redundant *Ser*-like genes. The function of Ser and Notch in this context is not clear, further analysis is necessary to clarify the role of these factors in the control of cell proliferation in the ventral region of the eye disc.

#### 6. Notch pathway activation in the wing disc

The dynamic pattern of Notch pathway activation, as observed by the transcriptional response of its targets like  $E(spl)m\beta$  or the synthetic Notch Responding Element (NRE) [94,95,96] reflects the different Notch requirements during wing development. As previously described for the eye disc, as development progresses the wing discs is subdivided into different compartments. In early second larval stage the discs is subdivided into two compartments, Dorsal and Ventral. This division depends on the function of the gene apterous (ap), which is expressed specifically in dorsal cells [97-101]. Some aspects of the definition of the D/V border are conserved in the developing eye and the wing, although the precise activating mechanisms differ. One important difference between both discs is that in the eye discs, compared to the wing disc, the D/V axis is inverted. Thus, the restricted expression of ap in the dorsal region activates the dorsal-specific expression of Ser and fng. As in the eye discs, Fng inhibits Notch activation by Ser, but in this case in the dorsal compartment, restricting Ser to signal to ventral cells [102-107]. Contrary to the negative function of Fng in Notch-Ser interaction, Fng binds to Notch and promote Notch-Dl interaction, therefore restricting Notch activation at the D/V border [44,106-110]. As previously described in the eye discs, the D/V boundary in the wing discs also functions as an organizing "center" influencing global growth and patterning of the wing [97,101]. The growth response induced by Notch at the D/V boundary of the wing disc is, at least partially, mediated through the expression of target genes such as wg, Cut and vestigial (vg) [104,108,109,111-114]. Wg promotes wing development at least in part, by feeding an auto-regulatory loop of vg, which is required for wing specification and growth [111,115]. Therefore in the absence of Notch activity at the D/V boundary, the wing does not grow due to a failure of wing

cell fate specification [96,109,111,112,114,116,117,118]. In the wing disc, it has been proposed that the effects of Notch signalling on cell proliferation is not just a consequence of the activation of these target genes [96,117,119,120,121] (see below). In accordance to this more general role of Notch controlling wing growth, mutant clones for *Notch* do not proliferate normally in the wing, even when they are far away from the D/V border, suggesting that Notch is required for the proliferation of the whole wing primordia [122].

The effects of Notch in control of the cell cycle and proliferation are context-dependent as it occurs in the eye discs. For example at the D/V boundary Notch has a negative impact on cell proliferation defining the so-called Zone of Non-Proliferation Cells (ZNCs), while in other regions Notch can influence growth autonomously and non-autonomously (see below). Therefore Notch pathway can have a very different outcome on cell proliferation depending on the time and spatial location of its activation, and its synergy with other signalling pathways.

#### 7. Early Notch induced cell proliferation promotes territorial subdivision of wing disc

An important developmental decision that occurs during wing discs development, apart from the A/P and D/V compartmentalization, is the specification of the wing pouch and the body wall fates [123,124,125]. One of the earliest roles of Notch during wing disc development is to separate the mutually antagonistic effects of two signalling pathways, EGFR and Wg that are required for body wall and wing specification, respectively [96,123,125]. In the early wing disc primordium, Vein the ligand of the EGFR pathway, is expressed in dorsal body wall cells, and restricts the expression of Wg to the distal domain of the disc, delimiting the region of the disc that is specified as wing cell fate (Figure 1) [126,125,127]. Growth induced by Notch activity pull apart the mutually repressive effects of the EGFR and Wg pathways leading to wing cell fate specification [96]. Interestingly, this effect of Notch in early wing disc growth, and wing development can be rescue by the expression of the cell cycle regulator CycE (G1/S) or the universal G2/M regulator string (stg, the cdc25 homologue) in conditions of reduced Notch function [96]. Therefore Notch seems to control wing disc growth modulating the expression of these cell cycle regulators. This early role of Notch precedes the function of this pathway inducing the D/V organizer centre. It is remarkable the similarities that exist between this process and that observed during the definition of eve primordium (see above) (Figure 1). This suggests that likely the mechanisms involved in the regulation of both processes are conserved between both discs.

#### 8. Autonomous control of cell proliferation by Notch and the zone of non-proliferation cells

Proliferation of the wing disc proceeds randomly at a rapid rate that slowly decays at the end of third instar stage. Just before pupal formation, the cells of the discs are arrested in the G2 phase of the cell cycle. However, a band of cells at the D/V boundary are arrested in G1 around 30h before the rest of the cells of the discs stop proliferate. This effect is as a consequence of a regulatory program involved in sensory organ formation, and defines the ZNCs [128,129]. The pattern of cell proliferation at these stages correlates with the pattern of activity of the mutually exclusive Notch and Wg signalling pathways. The activation of Notch at the D/V boundary activates *wg* that signals to non-boundary cells, while boundary cells are refractory to Wg-signalling through *Cut* repression [130,131]. At the D/V boundary Notch activity blocks cells in G1 by repressing the G1/S regulators *bantam* 

microRNA and *dmyc*, both factors are necessary to activate the dE2F1 transcription factor. In non-boundary cells, which are actively proliferating, the response to Notch is reduced by the activity of Wg alleviating the block in G1 (Figure 5) [131,130]. Interestingly, cells that are unable to respond to Notch and Wg signalling are still able to proliferate [131]. It has been suggested that in anterior cells, Wg induces a G2 arrest in Dorsal and Ventral cells close to the D/V boundary by inducing the expression of the bHLH proneural transcription factors *achaete* (*ac*) and *scute* (*sc*) leading to the repression of *stg* [129]. However, in at recent report [132] it has been proposed that the capacity of Sc to repress *stg* expression in the ZNC could be mediated by Da. Da functions as a transcriptional repressor of *stg*, thereby regulating G2/M transition. The over-expression of *stc* in the wing discs induces high levels of Da that in turn block the expression of *stg* [132]. These data suggest that, as occurs during the SMW, the function of Notch signalling regulating cell proliferation in the wing margin is tightly linked with its function controlling the differentiation of the sensory organs that appear in this region. The bHLH family of transcription factors plays an important role mediating the function of Notch signalling in the regulation of these processes [133]. This family of proteins coordinate cell cycle control, cell lineage commitment and cell differentiation [134].

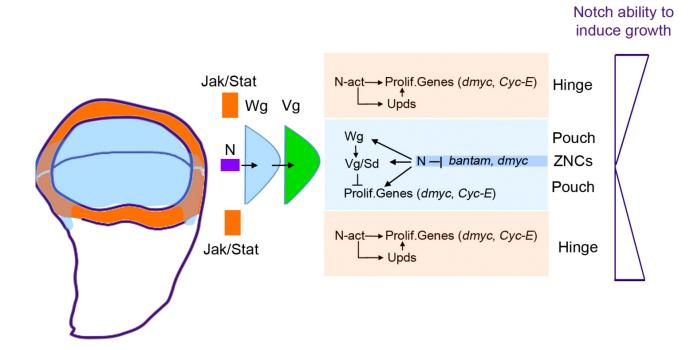


Figure 5. Role of Notch in autonomous and non-autonomous control of cell proliferation in the wing imaginal disc. Schematic representation of a wing imaginal disc with the activity of Notch pathway in purple at the D/V boundary, Wg (blue) and Vg (green) in the pouch and Jak/Stat activation pathway in orange. At the zone of non-proliferation cells, Notch blocks cell proliferation autonomously though the repression of the *bantam* microRNA and *dmyc*. At the pouch, Notch's ability to induce the expression of *dmyc* and *CycE* is repressed by Vg in a feed-forward repression mechanisms. In the proximal pouch and the hinge, Notch cooperates with the Jak/Stat pathway to promote cell proliferation.

Interestingly, it has been reported that most of Notch functions during wing disc development seem to be mediated by this family of transcription factors. Thus, the bHLH proteins encoding by E(spl)-C and *deadpan (dpn)* are required at the wing margin for *wg* and *Cut* expression while repress *dmyc* and therefore G1/S transition. Moreover, these factors also mediate the function of Notch signalling regulating cell proliferation in the rest of the wing pouch, and in the hinge region [135,136].

#### 9. Notch autonomous and non-autonomous control of cell proliferation

The analysis of the effects caused by the ectopic activation of Notch during wing disc proliferation reflects the context-dependent nature of Notch signalling. Thus, clones of cells expressing, either the intracellular domain of *Notch (NICD)*, that function as a constitutively activated form of the receptor, or the ligand *Dl*, stimulate cell proliferation [119,121,120]. In the distal region of the wing pouch, these clones induce non-autonomous over-growth, as result of the induction of ectopic D/V boundaries. However the size of these clones is smaller than control clones. This later effect is likely caused by the function of Notch in the specification of the wing hinge, induce large over-growths, both autonomously and non-autonomously. The proliferative effects of these clones are not caused by the generation of ectopic D/V boundaries [119,121].

The non-autonomous effects on cell proliferation produced by Notch signalling from the D/V boundary, or when this pathway is ectopically expressed in the hinge, likely depend on a secreted relay factor/s. The obvious candidates to be mediating these non-autonomous effects are the Notch target genes *wg* and *vg*, which are expressed at the D/V boundary [102,104,105,108,109,137]. However, different results suggest that only part of the proliferative effects induced by Notch can be attributed to *wg* expression. Thus, *wg* is not ectopically expressed in all proximal clones, and in the absence of Wg function, Notch activation can induce proliferation in some proximal clones and in the hinge [121]. In addition, the ectopic expression of *wg* is not sufficient to reproduce the effects caused when Notch signalling is activated [117,119,121,138]. Wg's role in controlling cell proliferation is controversial and has been extensively discussed elsewhere [117,119,121,138,139,140].

All the complex effects on wing disc growth mediated by Notch are indicative of the context dependence that this pathway has regulating cell proliferation. To solve this problem Djiane and co-workers [136] have used a genome-wide approach to characterize the repertoire of genes directly activated by Notch that could be mediating Notch's effects on tissue growth. Among the genes identified in this analysis they have found: cell proliferation regulators (CycE and stg), cell signalling molecules (wg and upd), and wing growth regulators (sd and vg). RNAi knockdown of most of the genes identified in this study suppressed to some extent the growth defects caused by Notch pathway activation. The authors defined 4 different classes of target genes. The first was a largely cell-autonomous response genes (e.g. wg). The second group comprised genes that respond to Notch activation both autonomously and non-autonomously (e.g. sd and fi). Interestingly fi has been also identified as a Notch target gene during eye development (see above). The third group includes genes that present a complex response to Notch signalling activation. Thus, these genes are not autonomously expressed in all the cells where Notch is active in the wing pouch, whereas are both autonomously and non-autonomously up-regulated in the hinge and pleural regions (e.g. CvcE). Finally, group four is constituted by genes that are up-regulated in broad domains at the hinge and pleural regions tips, but are not responsive to Notch in the wing pouch (e.g. *dmvc*). These data

implies the existence of mechanisms to limit the capacity of Notch signalling to up-regulate the expression of the target genes of group 3 and 4 in central wing pouch. One of the factors that is mediating this effect is the TAE transcriptional factor Scalloped (Sd) [141]. This gene is activated by Notch, and it has been classified in group 2 [136]. Sd forms a complex with the nuclear protein Vg [141,142]. This complex is required for wing specification and growth [118]. Sd is also one of the binding partners of Yorkie, the transcriptional effector of the Hippo pathway that regulates tissue growth and cell survival (reviewed [143]). Therefore, changes in the balance between the amounts of Sd/Vg/Yki proteins might influence the target genes activated, and the proliferative response of wing cells. In this way, Notch pathway activation or down-regulation has a profound impact in the expression of *expanded (ex)*, one of the best-characterized Yki targets [144,145]. Notch activation represses *ex* expression just in the wing pouch while Notch down-regulation de-represses it in the D/V margin where it is not expressed [144]. According to this feed-forward repression model, Notch dependent activation of Yorkie targets such as *ex* and the cell cycle regulators *dmyc* and *CycE* or the apoptosis regulator *diap1* (Figure 5) [136].

Similarly, the proteins of the E(spl)-C, well known targets of Notch, are also involved in a negative feed-forward onto other Notch targets like *dmyc*, restricting the capacity of Notch signalling to activate gene expression to particular regions of wing pouch [136]. However, other Notch targets like *ex* or *diap1* are not regulated by the E(spl)-C, suggesting that different targets depend on different negative feed-forward mechanisms [136,144].

The ectopic activation of Notch in the hinge and pleural regions promotes non-autonomous cell proliferation and activation of *dmyc*, *CycE* or *diap1* [119,120,121,131,135]. In this region the activation of Notch induces high levels of Jak/Stat pathway activity [136,146]. A feed-forward mechanism between the Notch and Jak/Stat pathways has been proposed to coordinate the non-autonomous growth at the periphery of the pouch. This process depends on the secreted Jak/Stat ligands Upd1, Upd2 and Upd3 that would function as a secreted relay factors. Interestingly, these Jak/Stat ligands are also regulated by Notch. Therefore, a feed-forward mechanism between these two pathways has been proposed to explain the non-autonomous growth and expression of *CycE*, *dmyc* and *diap1* (Figure 5) [136]. However, a functional link between these pathways is still missing.

#### 10. Notch growth regulation in the leg disc

Notch signaling establishes boundaries that separate each leg segment, as it does in the D/V boundary of the wing and in the eye discs. In the leg disc, the Notch pathway is activated in 9 concentric rings that prefigure the leg joints along the Proximo-Distal (PD) axis (Figure 6) [95,147,148]. The expression of the Notch ligands, *Dl* and *Ser*, is also segmentally controlled by the combination of the leg "gap" genes and PD tarsal genes, in proximal cells to the end of each segment [147,149]. The Notch pathway is activated in a row of cells adjacent and distal to *Dl* and *Ser* expression domains at the presumptive joints. Apart for being completely required for the formation of all joints, Notch also controls the growth of the leg in a non-autonomous manner. Mutant cells for components of the Notch pathway that span two segments are usually associated with joint and growth defects [95,147,148]. Interestingly, the leg size reduction involved mutant and non-mutant tissue. Moreover, clones that locally activate the pathway induced leg overgrowths composed of mutant and

wild type tissue, suggesting that as in the wing and eye discs, Notch control leg growth in an autonomous and non-autonomous manner [95,147,148]. It has been proposed that Notch pathway activation at the joint induces an unidentified signal that acts non-autonomously to promote cell survival and growth [150]. However it is still unknown if in the leg disc, Notch controls cell proliferation, cell shape changes or oriented cell division that could be the cause of the growth defects observed in *Notch* mutant legs.

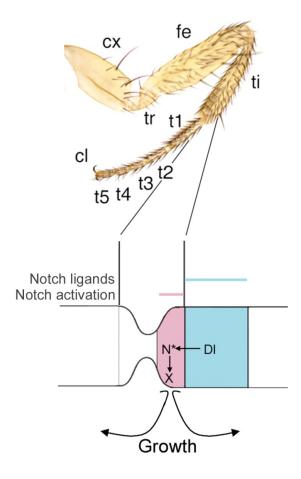


Figure 6. Leg growth control by Notch: *Drosophila* leg with the 10 segments separated by the joints. The cartoon represents a joint where the proximal expression of the Notch ligand (Dl) activate the Notch pathway (N\*) in the joint and controls the growth of the adjacent segments.

#### 11. Notch and its relationship with epigenetic modifiers

The combination of different *ex vivo* and *in vivo* RNAi screenings [151], as well as genome-wide [136] approaches have identified distinct epigenetic factors that are functionally related to Notch signalling. Interestingly the alteration of the function of some of these factors synergize with the gain of Notch signalling to foment hyperplastic and neoplastic growth. One example is the BTB/POZ containing transcriptional repressors *longitudinals lacking* (*lola*) and *pipsqueak* (*psq*). It has been shown that these proteins cooperate with Notch in the formation of tumors and invasion after *Dl* over-expression in the wing and eye imaginal disc [152]. Both *lola* and

*psq* function as epigenetic silencers that together with co-expression with Dl shut down the expression of *Rbf*, a tumor suppressor gene that negatively regulates *dE2F1*, promoting metastatic tumors [152]. The importance of epigenetic regulation in the control of the function of Notch signalling, and its relation with tumor formation has been recently reviewed [10].

#### 12. Effects of loss of apico-basal polarity in Notch signaling

In *Drosophila*, Scribble (Scrib), Discs large (Dlg) and Lethal giant larvae (Lgl), cooperatively establish, and maintain apico-basal cell polarity. Loss-of-function mutations in these genes result in neoplastic overgrowth, along with a loss of apico-basal cell polarity and differentiation. Though *scrib* mutant clones shown ectopic expression of *CycE*, and excessive cell proliferation, they do not become overgrown because they are eliminated by Jun N-terminal kinase (JNK)-dependent apoptosis [153]. However, the ectopic activation of Notch in these clones induces unrestrained tissue overgrowth [153-158]. The mechanistic details about how Notch promotes this effect is unknown, however it has been proposed that the activation of Notch in *scrib* mutant cells blocks differentiation and apoptosis, and also promotes JNK-mediated tumor overgrowth and invasion. aPKC signalling is also required to promote tumor overgrowth when Notch is ectopically expressed in *scrib* mutant clones, through either increased cell proliferation or cell survival [158].

It is not clear what the relationship is between cell polarity and tissue growth. Different publications have suggested that at least the apico-basal polarity determinants Lgl/aPKC and Crb can establish apico-basal cell polarity, and control tissue growth, independently [159-162]. The effects on proliferation and survival of these factors are via the Salvador/Warts/Hippo (SWH) tumor suppressor pathway [160,161,162]. Therefore, Notch signalling might be cooperating with the Hippo pathway to promote tumor growth in mutant cells rather than loss of apico-basal cell polarity. In addition, it has been recently published that Lgl regulates endocytosis to restrict vesicle acidification and prevent ectopic ligand-dependent Notch signaling [28]. Thus, the disruption of apico-basal cell polarity can affect different processes, and compromise the activity of multiple signalling pathways, that eventually can cooperate with Notch signalling to promote tumor formation.

#### 13. Notch and tumor formation

Although it is well defined that Notch 1 is an oncogene in human T lymphoblastic leukemias/lymphomas (T-ALL), there is little evidence to support a causative role for Notch in the initiation of tumorigenesis in human solid cancers [5-8]. Considering the clear relationship between proliferative events and Notch activation, it has been proposed that the hyper-proliferative states induced by Notch, frequently in synergy with other signals, can eventually lead to bona fide oncogenic events, even though Notch activation does not lead to cancer *per se* [5]. Therefore, the identification of the mechanisms by which Notch signalling control cell proliferation during normal development can help us to better understand how alterations in the activity of Notch signalling may lead to oncogenic events in different pathological conditions. The analysis of the function of Notch signalling during the development of *Drosophila* has been fundamental for the identification of such mechanisms similar to those by which Notch signalling induces normal growth. For example, the function of Notch regulating the activity of different cell cycle regulators and cyclins, seems to be

involved in the initiation of some cancers. Thus, increased levels of the Notch ligand JAG1, which commonly occur in breast cancers, promotes cell cycle progression by inducing *CycD1* through Notch signalling [163]. Moreover, in mice homozygous-null for *Ccnd3* (*CycD*), the ectopic expression of *Notch* failed to induce T-ALL, suggesting a fundamental role for D type cyclins in Notch-mediated transformation [8,164]. Notch signalling also drives cell cycle entry by transcriptionally activating *myc*, that is a direct target of Notch and contributes to cell cycle progression in T-ALL [8,165,166], as well as in Notch-induced mouse mammary tumors [167]. Moreover, Notch can promote cell cycle progression repressing the transcription of CDKIs *p27* and *p57* through HES1 in different cell types [8]. In T-ALL, Notch directs the transcription of the E3 ubiquitin ligase *S phase kinase-associated protein 2* (*SKP2*), which leads to decreased p27 protein levels and increased cell proliferation [168].

Potential involvement of Notch signalling in other human cancers is frequently associated with the cooperative action between Notch and other signalling pathways (Wg, Jak/Stat). As we have described in this review, these pathways are functionally related to Notch signalling in the control of cell proliferation during normal development [6,8].

#### 14. Conclusions

There are many precedents to demonstrate the utility of the development of the imaginal discs of Drosophila as a model to reveal the mechanistic details of how Notch signalling controls cell proliferation. The definition of these mechanisms is fundamental to establish how perturbations in the activity of Notch signalling can lead to an excess of cell proliferation, the primary caused of cancer. The studies in Drosophila have shown that Notch can regulate the activity and/or function of different factors that control the cell cycle. Interestingly the function of some of these cell cycle regulators have been found that to be altered in human cancer associated with disruption of Notch signalling. In addition the function of Notch in synergy with other signalling pathways can regulate different factors involved in the control of cell proliferation.

An important aspect of the function of Notch regulating cell proliferation is its context-dependent nature. Different studies in Drosophila have revealed that this effect is at least partially caused by different feed-forward mechanism between Notch signalling and other genes and signalling pathways. Therefore the final outcome of the activity of Notch signalling in the regulation of cell proliferation depends on the interaction between this pathway and different genes, and signals.

#### Acknowledgments

We thank L A Baena-Lopez for their helpful comments and constructive criticisms. This work was supported by grants from MINECO BFU2011-23224 to AB and MINECO BFU2012-34353 to CE.

#### **Conflict of Interest**

The authors declare no conflict of interest for this work.

#### References

- 1. Hori K, Sen A, Artavanis-Tsakonas S (2013) Notch signaling at a glance. J Cell Sci 126: 2135-2140.
- 2. ArtavanisTsakonas S, Rand MD, Lake RJ (1999) Notch signaling: Cell fate control and signal integration in development. *Science* 284: 770-776.
- 3. Kopan R, Ilagan MX (2009) The canonical Notch signaling pathway: unfolding the activation mechanism. *Cell* 137: 216-233.
- 4. Andersson ER, Sandberg R, Lendahl U (2011) Notch signaling: simplicity in design, versatility in function. *Development* 138: 3593-3612.
- 5. Louvi A, Artavanis-Tsakonas S (2012) Notch and disease: a growing field. *Semin Cell Dev Biol* 23: 473-480.
- 6. Ntziachristos P, Lim JS, Sage J, et al. (2014) From fly wings to targeted cancer therapies: a centennial for notch signaling. *Cancer Cell* 25: 318-334.
- 7. Radtke F, Raj K (2003) The role of Notch in tumorigenesis: oncogene or tumour suppressor? *Nat Rev Cancer* 3: 756-767.
- 8. Ranganathan P, Weaver KL, Capobianco AJ (2011) Notch signalling in solid tumours: a little bit of everything but not all the time. *Nat Rev Cancer* 11: 338-351.
- 9. Morgan T (1917) The theory of the gene. *Am Nat*: 513.
- 10. Dominguez M (2014) Oncogenic programmes and Notch activity: an 'organized crime'? *Semin Cell Dev Biol* 28: 78-85.
- 11. Blaumueller CM, Qi H, Zagouras P, et al. (1997) Intracellular cleavage of Notch leads to a heterodimeric receptor on the plasma membrane. *Cell* 90: 281-291.
- 12. Bray SJ (2006) Notch signalling: a simple pathway becomes complex. *Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol* 7: 678-689.
- 13. Fortini ME (2009) Notch signaling: the core pathway and its posttranslational regulation. *Dev Cell* 16: 633-647.
- 14. Bray S, Bernard F (2010) Notch targets and their regulation. Curr Top Dev Biol 92: 253-275.
- 15. Kandachar V, Roegiers F (2012) Endocytosis and control of Notch signaling. *Curr Opin Cell Biol* 24: 534-540.
- 16. Baron M (2012) Endocytic routes to Notch activation. Semin Cell Dev Biol 23: 437-442.
- Vaccari T, Bilder D (2009) At the crossroads of polarity, proliferation and apoptosis: the use of Drosophila to unravel the multifaceted role of endocytosis in tumor suppression. *Mol Oncol* 3: 354-365.
- 18. Vaccari T, Lu H, Kanwar R, et al. (2008) Endosomal entry regulates Notch receptor activation in Drosophila melanogaster. *J Cell Biol* 180: 755-762.
- 19. Fortini ME, Bilder D (2009) Endocytic regulation of Notch signaling. *Curr Opin Genet Dev* 19: 323-328.
- 20. Lu H, Bilder D (2005) Endocytic control of epithelial polarity and proliferation in Drosophila. *Nat Cell Biol* 7: 1232-1239.
- 21. Morrison HA, Dionne H, Rusten TE, et al. (2008) Regulation of early endosomal entry by the Drosophila tumor suppressors Rabenosyn and Vps45. *Mol Biol Cell* 19: 4167-4176.
- 22. Herz HM, Chen Z, Scherr H, et al. (2006) vps25 mosaics display non-autonomous cell survival and overgrowth, and autonomous apoptosis. *evelopment* 133: 1871-1880.

- 23. Herz HM, Bergmann A (2009) Genetic analysis of ESCRT function in Drosophila: a tumour model for human Tsg101. *Biochem Soc Trans* 37: 204-207.
- 24. Vaccari T, Rusten TE, Menut L, et al. (2009) Comparative analysis of ESCRT-I, ESCRT-II and ESCRT-III function in Drosophila by efficient isolation of ESCRT mutants. *J Cell Sci* 122: 2413-2423.
- 25. Thompson BJ, Mathieu J, Sung HH, et al. (2005) Tumor suppressor properties of the ESCRT-II complex component Vps25 in Drosophila. *Dev Cell* 9: 711-720.
- Moberg KH, Schelble S, Burdick SK, et al. (2005) Mutations in erupted, the Drosophila ortholog of mammalian tumor susceptibility gene 101, elicit non- cell-autonomous overgrowth. *Dev Cell* 9: 699-710.
- 27. Vaccari T, Bilder D (2005) The Drosophila tumor suppressor vps25 prevents nonautonomous overproliferation by regulating notch trafficking. *Dev Cell* 9:687-698.
- 28. Parsons LM, Portela M, Grzeschik NA, et al. (2014) Lgl regulates Notch signaling via endocytosis, independently of the apical aPKC-Par6-Baz polarity complex. *Curr Biol* 24: 2073-2084.
- 29. Haynie JL, Bryant PJ (1986) Development of the eye-antenna imaginal disc and morphogenesis of the adult head in Drosophila melanogaster. *J Exp Zool* 237: 293-308.
- 30. Jurgens G, Hartenstein V (1993) The terminal region of the body pattern *Cold Spring Harbor*, *NY: Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory Press*: 687-746.
- 31. Wolff T, Ready DF (1993) Pattern formation in the Drosophila retina. In: Bate M, Martinez-Arias A, editors. *The development of Drosophila melanogaster*. Cold Spring Harbor, New York: Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory Press.
- 32. Garcia-Bellido A (1975) Genetic control of wing disc development in *Drosophila*. In: Porter R, Rivers J, editors. *Cell patterning*. Boston: CIBA Symposium. pp. 161-183.
- 33. Baker WK (1978) A clonal analysis reveals early developmental restrictions in the Drosophila head. *Dev Biol* 62: 447-463.
- 34. Blair SS (1995) Compartments and appendage development in *Drosophila*. *Bio ssays* 17: 299-309.
- 35. Irvine KD, Rauskolb C (2001) Boundaries in development: formation and function. *Annu Rev Cell Dev Biol* 17: 189-214.
- 36. Kumar JP, Moses K (2001) EGF receptor and Notch signaling act upstream of Eyeless/Pax6 to control eye specification. *Cell* 104: 687-697.
- 37. Kenyon KL, Ranade SS, Curtiss J, et al. (2003) Coordinating proliferation and tissue specification to promote regional identity in the Drosophila head. *Dev Cell* 5: 403-414.
- 38. Singh A, Tare M, Puli OR, et al. (2011) A glimpse into dorso-ventral patterning of the Drosophila eye. *Dev Dyn* 241: 69-84.
- 39. Cho KO, Choi KW (1998) Fringe is essential for mirror symmetry and morphogenesis in the Drosophila eye. *Nature* 396: 272-276.
- 40. Dominguez M, de Celis JF (1998) A dorsal/ventral boundary established by Notch controls growth and polarity in the Drosophila eye. *Nature* 396: 276-278.
- 41. Papayannopoulos V, Tomlinson A, Panin VM, et al. (1998) Dorsal-ventral signaling in the Drosophila eye. *Science* 281: 2031-2034.
- 42. Cavodeassi F, Diez Del Corral R, Campuzano S, et al. (1999) Compartments and organising boundaries in the Drosophila eye: the role of the homeodomain Iroquois proteins. *Development*

126: 4933-4942.

- 43. Maurel-Zaffran C, Treisman JE (2000) pannier acts upstream of wingless to direct dorsal eye disc development in Drosophila. *Development* 127: 1007-1016.
- 44. Haines N, Irvine KD (2003) Glycosylation regulates Notch signalling. *Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol* 4: 786-797.
- 45. Munro S, Freeman M (2000) The Notch signalling regulator Fringe acts in the Golgi apparatus and requires the glycosyltransferase signature motif DxD. *Curr Biol* 10: 813-820.
- 46. Bruckner K, Perez L, Clausen H, et al. (2000) Glycosyltransferase activity of Fringe modulates Notch-Delta interactions. *Nature* 406: 411-415.
- 47. Roignant JY, Treisman JE (2009) Pattern formation in the Drosophila eye disc. *Int J Dev Biol* 53: 795-804.
- 48. Chao JL, Tsai YC, Chiu SJ, et al. (2004) Localized Notch signal acts through eyg and upd to promote global growth in Drosophila eye. *Development* 131: 3839-3847.
- 49. Dominguez M, Ferres-Marco D, Gutierrez-Avino FJ, et al. (2004) Growth and specification of the eye are controlled independently by Eyegone and Eyeless in Drosophila melanogaster. *Nat Genet* 36: 31-39.
- 50. Hombria JC, Brown S (2002) The fertile field of Drosophila Jak/STAT signalling. *Curr Biol* 12: R569-575.
- 51. Tsai YC, Sun YH (2004) Long-range effect of upd, a ligand for Jak/STAT pathway, on cell cycle in Drosophila eye development. *Genesis* 39: 141-153.
- 52. Reynolds-Kenneally J, Mlodzik M (2005) Notch signaling controls proliferation through cell-autonomous and non-autonomous mechanisms in the Drosophila eye. *Dev Biol* 285: 38-48.
- 53. Gutierrez-Avino FJ, Ferres-Marco D, Dominguez M (2009) The position and function of the Notch-mediated eye growth organizer: the roles of JAK/STAT and four-jointed. *EMBO Rep* 10: 1051-1058.
- 54. Ishikawa HO, Takeuchi H, Haltiwanger RS, et al. (2008) Four-jointed is a Golgi kinase that phosphorylates a subset of cadherin domains. *Science* 321: 401-404.
- 55. Edgar BA (2006) From cell structure to transcription: Hippo forges a new path. *Cell* 124: 267-273.
- 56. Halder G, Johnson RL (2011) Hippo signaling: growth control and beyond. *Development* 138: 9-22.
- 57. Da Ros VG, Gutierrez-Perez I, Ferres-Marco D, et al. (2013) Dampening the signals transduced through hedgehog via microRNA miR-7 facilitates notch- induced tumourigenesis. *PLoS Biol* 11: e1001554.
- 58. Yao S, Lum L, Beachy P (2006) The ihog cell-surface proteins bind Hedgehog and mediate pathway activation. *Cell* 125: 343-357.
- 59. McLellan JS, Yao S, Zheng X, et al. (2006) Structure of a heparin-dependent complex of Hedgehog and Ihog. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 103: 17208-17213.
- 60. Camp D, Currie K, Labbe A, et al. (2010) Ihog and Boi are essential for Hedgehog signaling in Drosophila. *Neural Dev* 5: 28.
- 61. Yan D, Wu Y, Yang Y, et al. (2010) The cell-surface proteins Dally-like and Ihog differentially regulate Hedgehog signaling strength and range during development. *Development* 137: 2033-2044.
- 62. Heberlein U, Singh CM, Luk AY, et al. (1995) Growth and differentiation in the Drosophila eye

90

coordinated by hedgehog. Nature 373: 709-711.

- 63. Christiansen AE, Ding T, Bergmann A (2012) Ligand-independent activation of the Hedgehog pathway displays non-cell autonomous proliferation during eye development in Drosophila. *Mech Dev* 129: 98-108.
- 64. Jones S, Zhang X, Parsons DW, et al. (2008) Core signaling pathways in human pancreatic cancers revealed by global genomic analyses. *Science* 321: 1801-1806.
- 65. Treisman JE, Heberlein U (1998) Eye development in Drosophila: formation of the eye field and control of differentiation. *Curr Top Dev Biol* 39: 119-158.
- 66. Wolff T, Ready DF (1991) The beginning of pattern formation in the Drosophila compound eye: the morphogenetic furrow and the second mitotic wave. *Development* 113: 841-850.
- 67. Heberlein U, Moses K (1995) Mechanisms of Drosophila retinal morphogenesis: The virtues of being progressive. *Cell* 81: 987-990.
- 68. Horsfield J, Penton A, Secombe J, et al. (1998) decapentaplegic is required for arrest in G1 phase during Drosophila eye development. *Development* 125: 5069-5078.
- 69. Penton A, Selleck SB, Hoffmann FM (1997) Regulation of cell cycle synchronization by decapentaplegic during Drosophila eye development. *Science* 275: 203-206.
- Thomas BJ, Gunning DA, Cho J, et al. (1994) Cell cycle progression in the developing Drosophila eye: Roughex encodes a novel protein required for the establishment of G1. *Cell* 77: 1003-1014.
- 71. De Nooij JC, Hariharan IK (1995) Uncoupling cell fate determination from patterned cell division in the Drosophila eye. *Science* 270: 983-985.
- 72. Baonza A, Freeman M (2005) Control of cell proliferation in the Drosophila eye by Notch signaling. *Dev Cell* 8: 529-539.
- 73. Firth LC, Baker NE (2005) Extracellular signals responsible for spatially regulated proliferation in the differentiating Drosophila eye. *Dev Cell* 8: 541-551.
- 74. Sukhanova MJ, Du W (2008) Control of cell cycle entry and exiting from the second mitotic wave in the Drosophila developing eye. *BMC Dev Biol* 8: 7.
- Knoblich JA, Sauer K, Jones L, et al. (1994) Cyclin E controls S phase progression and its down regulation during *Drosophila* embryogenesis is required for the arrest of cell proliferation. *Cell* 77: 107-120.
- 76. Lane ME, Sauer K, Wallace K, et al. (1996) Dacapo, a cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor, stops cell proliferation during Drosophila development. *Cell* 87: 1225-1235.
- 77. Reis T, Edgar BA (2004) Negative regulation of dE2F1 by cyclin-dependent kinases controls cell cycle timing. *Cell* 117: 253-264.
- 78. Ma C, Moses K (1995) wingless and patched are negative regulators of the morphogenetic furrow and can affect tissue polarity in the developing Drosophila compound eye. *Development* 121: 2279-2289.
- 79. Heberlein U, Hariharan IK, Rubin GM (1993) *Star* is required for neuronal differentiation in the Drosophila retina and displays dosage-sensitive interactions with Ras1. *Devl Biol* 160: 51-63.
- 80. Domínguez M, Hafen E (1997) Hedgehog directly controls initiation and propagation of retinal differentiation in the Drosophila eye. *Genes Dev* 11: 3254-3264.
- 81. Greenwood S, Struhl G (1999) Progression of the morphogenetic furrow in the Drosophila eye: the roles of Hedgehog, Decapentaplegic and the Raf pathway. *Development* 126: 5795-5808.
- 82. Masucci JD, Miltenberger RJ, Hoffmann FM (1990) Pattern-specific expression of the

*Drosophila decapentaplegic* gene in inaginal disks is regulated by 3' cis- regulatory elements. *Genes Dev* 4: 2011-2023.

- 83. Baker NE, Yu SY (2001) The EGF receptor defines domains of cell cycle progression and survival to regulate cell number in the developing Drosophila eye. *Cell* 104: 699-708.
- 84. Duman-Scheel M, Weng L, Xin S, et al. (2002) Hedgehog regulates cell growth and proliferation by inducing Cyclin D and Cyclin E. *Nature* 417: 299-304.
- 85. Dominguez M, Brunner M, Hafen E, et al. (1996) Sending and receiving the *hedgehog* signal: Control by the *Drosophila* Gli protein Cubitus interruptus. *Science* 272: 1621-1625.
- 86. Domínguez M (1999) Dual role for Hedgehog in the regulation of the proneural gene atonal during ommatidia development. *Development* 126: 2345-2353.
- 87. Jarman AP, Grell EH, Ackerman L, et al. (1994) *atonal* is the proneural gene for Drosophila photoreceptors. *Nature* 369: 398-400.
- 88. Bossuyt W, De Geest N, Aerts S, et al. (2009) The atonal proneural transcription factor links differentiation and tumor formation in Drosophila. *PLoS Biol* 7: e40.
- 89. Lim J, Jafar-Nejad H, Hsu YC, et al. (2008) Novel function of the class I bHLH protein Daughterless in the negative regulation of proneural gene expression in the Drosophila eye. *EMBO Rep* 9: 1128-1133.
- 90. Sukhanova MJ, Deb DK, Gordon GM, et al. (2007) Proneural basic helix-loop- helix proteins and epidermal growth factor receptor signaling coordinately regulate cell type specification and cdk inhibitor expression during development. *Mol Cell Biol* 27: 2987-2996.
- 91. Singh A, Choi KW (2003) Initial state of the Drosophila eye before dorsoventral specification is equivalent to ventral. *Development* 130: 6351-6360.
- 92. Chern JJ, Choi KW (2002) Lobe mediates Notch signaling to control domain- specific growth in the Drosophila eye disc. *Development* 129: 4005-4013.
- 93. Sun X, Artavanis-Tsakonas S (1996) The intracellular deletions of Delta and Serrate define dominant negative forms of the Drosophila Notch ligands. *Development* 122: 2465-2474.
- 94. Furriols M, Bray S (2001) A model Notch response element detects Suppressor of Hairless-dependent molecular switch. *Curr Biol* 11: 60-64.
- 95. de Celis JF, Tyler DM, de Celis J, et al. (1998) *Notch* signalling mediates segmentation of the *Drosophila* leg. *Development* 125: 4617-4626.
- 96. Rafel N, Milan M (2008) Notch signalling coordinates tissue growth and wing fate specification in Drosophila. *Development* 135: 3995-4001.
- 97. Diaz-Benjumea F, Cohen SM (1993) Interactions between dorsal and ventral cells in the imaginal disc directs wing development in *Drosophila*. *Cell* 75: 741-752.
- 98. Tabata T, Schwartz C, Gustavson E, et al. (1995) Creating a *Drosophila* wing de novo, the role of *engrailed* and the compartment hypotesis. *Development* 121: 3359-3369.
- 99. Zecca M, Basler K, Struhl G (1995) Sequential organizing activities of engrailed, hedgehog and decapentaplegic in the Drosophila wing. *Development* 121: 2265-2278.
- 100. Lawrence PA, Morata G (1976) Compartments in the wing of *Drosophila*: a study of the *engrailed* gene. *Dev Biol* 50: 321-337.
- 101. Blair SS, Brower DL, Thomas JB, et al. (1994) The role of *apterous* in the control of dorsoventral compartmentalization and PS integrin gene expression in the developing wing of *Drosophila*. *Development* 120: 1805-1815.
- 102. Diaz-Benjumea FJ, Cohen SM (1995) Serrate signals through Notch to establish a

Wingless-dependent organizer at the dorsal/ventral compartment boundary of the *Drosophila* wing. *Development* 121: 4215-4225.

- 103. Milan M, Cohen SM (2000) Subdividing cell populations in the developing limbs of Drosophila: do wing veins and leg segments define units of growth control? *Dev Biol* 217: 1-9.
- 104. de Celis JF, García-Bellido A, Bray SJ (1996a) Activation and function of *Notch* at the dorso-ventral boundary of the wing imaginal disc. *Development* 122: 359-369.
- 105. Doherty D, Feger G, Younger-Shepherd S, et al. (1996) Delta is a ventral to dorsal signal complementary to Serrate, another Notch ligand, in Drosophila wing formation. *Genes Dev* 10: 421-434.
- 106. Fleming RJ, Gu Y, Hukriede NA (1997) Serrate-mediated activaction of Notch is specifically blocked by the product of the gene *fringe* in the dorsal compartment of the *Drosophila* wing imaginal disc. *Development* 124: 2973-2981.
- 107. Panin VM, Papayannopoulos V, Wilson R, et al. (1997) *fringe* modulates Notch-ligand interactions. *Nature* 387: 908-912.
- 108. Kim J, Irvine KD, Carroll SB (1995) Cell recognition, signal induction, and symmetrical gene activation at the dorsal-ventral boundary of the developing *Drosophila* wing. *Cell* 82: 795-802.
- 109. Couso JP, Knust E, Martínez Arias A (1995) *Serrate* and *wingless* cooperate to induce *vestigial* gene expression and wing formation in *Drosophila*. *Curr Biol* 5: 1437-1448.
- 110. Irvine KD, Wieschaus E (1994) *fringe*, a boundary-specific signalling molecule, mediates interactions between dorsal and ventral cells during *Drosophila* wing development. *Cell* 79: 595-606.
- 111. Kim J, Sebring A, Esch JJ, et al. (1996) Integration of positional signals and regulation of wing formation and identity by *Drosophila vestigial* gene. *Nature* 382: 133-138.
- 112. Baena-Lopez LA, Garcia-Bellido A (2006) Control of growth and positional information by the graded vestigial expression pattern in the wing of Drosophila melanogaster. *Proc Natl Acad Sci* USA 103: 13734-13739.
- 113. Baena-Lopez LA, Nojima H, Vincent JP (2012) Integration of morphogen signalling within the growth regulatory network. *Curr Opin Cell Biol* 24: 166-172.
- 114. Neumann CJ, Cohen SM (1996) A hierarchy of cross-regulation involving Notch, wingless, vestigial and cut organizes the dorsal/ventral axis of the Drosophila wing. Development 122: 3477-3485.
- 115. Zecca M, Struhl G (2007) Recruitment of cells into the Drosophila wing primordium by a feed-forward circuit of vestigial autoregulation. *Development* 134: 3001-3010.
- 116. Klein T, Martinez-Arias A (1999) The Vestigial gene product provides a molecular context for the interpretation of signals during the development of the wing in *Drosophila*. *Development* 126: 913-925.
- 117. Klein T, Martinez Arias A (1998) Different spatial and temporal interactions between *Notch*, *wingless*, and *vestigial* specify proximal and distal pattern elements of the wing in *Drosophila*. *Dev Biol* 194: 196-212.
- 118. Williams JA, Bell JB, Carroll SB (1991) Control of *Drosophila* wing and haltere development by the nuclear *vestigial* gene product. *Genes* Dev 5: 2481-2495.
- 119. Baonza A, Garcia-Bellido A (2000) Notch signaling directly controls cell proliferation in the Drosophila wing disc. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 97: 2609-2614.
- 120. Go JM, Eastman DS, Artavanis-Tsakonas S (1998) Cell proliferation control by Notch signaling

in Drosophila development. Development 125: 2031-2040.

- 121. Giraldez AJ, Cohen SM (2003) Wingless and Notch signaling provide cell survival cues and control cell proliferation during wing development. *Development* 130: 6533-6543.
- 122.de Celis JF, Garcia-Bellido A (1994) Roles of the *Notch* gene in *Drosophila* wing morphogenesis. *Mech Dev* 46: 109-122.
- 123. Baonza A, Roch F, Martin-Blanco E (2000) DER signaling restricts the boundaries of the wing field during Drosophila development. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 97: 7331-7335.
- 124. Zecca M, Struhl G (2002) Subdivision of the Drosophila wing imaginal disc by EGFR-mediated signaling. *Development* 129: 1357-1368.
- 125. Wang SH, Simcox A, Campbell G (2000) Dual role for Drosophila epidermal growth factor receptor signaling in early wing disc development. *Genes Dev* 14: 2271-2276.
- 126. Simcox AA, Grumbling G, Schnepp B, et al. (1996) Molecular, phenotypic, and expression analysis of vein, a gene required for growth of the Drosophila wing disc. *Devl Biol* 177: 475-489.
- 127. Paul L, Wang SH, Manivannan SN, et al. (2013) Dpp-induced Egfr signaling triggers postembryonic wing development in Drosophila. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 110: 5058-5063.
- 128. O'Brochta D, Bryant PJ (1985) A zone of non-proliferating cells at a lineage restriction boundary in *Drosophila*. *Nature* 313: 138-141.
- 129. Johnston LA, Edgar BA (1998) *Wingless* and *Notch* regulate cell-cycle arrest in the developing *Drosophila* wing. *Nature* 394: 82-84.
- 130. Buceta J, Herranz H, Canela-Xandri O, et al. (2007) Robustness and stability of the gene regulatory network involved in DV boundary formation in the Drosophila wing. *PLoS One* 2: e602.
- 131. Herranz H, Perez L, Martin FA, et al. (2008) A Wingless and Notch double- repression mechanism regulates G1-S transition in the Drosophila wing. *Embo J* 27: 1633-1645.
- 132. Andrade-Zapata I, Baonza A (2014) The bHLH factors extramacrochaetae and daughterless control cell cycle in Drosophila imaginal discs through the transcriptional regulation of the Cdc25 phosphatase string. *PLoS Genet* 10: e1004233.
- 133. de Celis JF, de Celis J, Ligoxiars P, et al. (1996) Functional relationships between *Notch* and bHLH genes of the *E(spl)* complex: the *E(spl)* genes mediate only a subset of *Notch* activies during imaginal development. *Development* 122: 2719-2728.
- 134. Massari ME, Murre C (2000) Helix-loop-helix proteins: regulators of transcription in eucaryotic organisms. *Mol Cell Biol* 20: 429-440.
- 135. San Juan BP, Andrade-Zapata I, Baonza A (2012) The bHLH factors Dpn and members of the E(spl) complex mediate the function of Notch signaling regulating cell proliferation during wing disc development. *Biol Open* 1: 667-676.
- 136. Djiane A, Krejci A, Bernard F, et al. (2013) Dissecting the mechanisms of Notch induced hyperplasia. *Embo J* 32: 60-71.
- 137. Rulifson EJ, Blair SS (1995) *Notch* regulates *wingless* expression and is not required for the reception of paracrine wingless signals during wing margin development in *Drosophila*. *Development* 121: 2813-2824.
- 138. Klein T, Martinez-Arias A (1997) An intrisic dominant negative activity of *Serrate* that is modulated during wing development in *Drosophila*. *Dev Biol* 189: 123-134.
- 139. Alexandre C, Baena-Lopez A, Vincent JP (2014) Patterning and growth control by

membrane-tethered Wingless. Nature 505: 180-185.

- 140. Johnston LA, Sanders AL (2003) Wingless promotes cell survival but constrains growth during Drosophila wing development. *Nat Cell Biol* 5: 827-833.
- 141. Halder G, Polaczyk P, Kraus ME, et al. (1998) The Vestigial and Scalloped proteins act together to directly regulate wing-specific gene expression in Drosophila. *Genes Dev* 12: 3900-3909.
- 142. Simmonds AJ, Liu X, Soanes KH, et al. (1998) Molecular interactions between Vestigial and Scalloped promote wing formation in Drosophila. *Genes Dev* 12: 3815-3820.
- 143. Zhao B, Tumaneng K, Guan KL (2011) The Hippo pathway in organ size control, tissue regeneration and stem cell self-renewal. *Nat Cell Biol* 13: 877-883.
- 144. Djiane A, Zaessinger S, Babaoglan AB, et al. (2014) Notch inhibits Yorkie activity in Drosophila wing discs. *PLoS One* 9: e106211.
- 145. Graves HK, Woodfield SE, Yang CC, et al. (2012) Notch signaling activates Yorkie non-cell autonomously in Drosophila. *PLoS One* 7: e37615.
- 146. Bach EA, Ekas LA, Ayala-Camargo A, et al. (2007) GFP reporters detect the activation of the Drosophila JAK/STAT pathway in vivo. *Gene Expr Patterns* 7: 323-331.
- 147. Rauskolb C, Irvine KD (1999) Notch-mediated segmentation and growth control of the Drosophila leg. *Dev Biol* 210: 339-350.
- 148. Bishop SA, Klein T, Arias AM, et al. (1999) Composite signalling from Serrate and Delta establishes leg segments in Drosophila through Notch. *Development* 126: 2993-3003.
- 149. Estella C, Voutev R, Mann RS (2012) A dynamic network of morphogens and transcription factors patterns the fly leg. *Curr Top Dev Biol* 98: 173-198.
- 150. Kerber B, Monge I, Mueller M, et al. (2001) The AP-2 transcription factor is required for joint formation and cell survival in Drosophila leg development. *Development* 128: 1231-1238.
- 151. Saj A, Arziman Z, Stempfle D, et al. (2010) A combined ex vivo and in vivo RNAi screen for notch regulators in Drosophila reveals an extensive notch interaction network. *Dev Cell* 18: 862-876.
- 152. Ferres-Marco D, Gutierrez-Garcia I, Vallejo DM, et al. (2006) Epigenetic silencers and Notch collaborate to promote malignant tumours by Rb silencing. *Nature* 439: 430-436.
- 153. Brumby AM, Richardson HE (2003) scribble mutants cooperate with oncogenic Ras or Notch to cause neoplastic overgrowth in Drosophila. *Embo J* 22: 5769-5779.
- 154. Brumby AM, Richardson HE (2005) Using Drosophila melanogaster to map human cancer pathways. *Nat Rev Cancer* 5: 626-639.
- 155. Pagliarini RA, Xu T (2003) A genetic screen in Drosophila for metastatic behavior. *Science* 302: 1227-1231.
- 156. Miles WO, Dyson NJ, Walker JA (2011) Modeling tumor invasion and etastasis in Drosophila. *Dis Model Mech* 4: 753-761.
- 157. Elsum I, Yates L, Humbert PO, et al. (2012) The Scribble-Dlg-Lgl polarity module in development and cancer: from flies to man. *Essays Biochem* 53: 141-168.
- 158. Leong GR, Goulding KR, Amin N, et al. (2009) Scribble mutants promote aPKC and JNK-dependent epithelial neoplasia independently of Crumbs. *BMC Biol* 7: 62.
- 159. Zeitler J, Hsu CP, Dionne H, et al. (2004) Domains controlling cell polarity and proliferation in the Drosophila tumor suppressor Scribble. *J Cell Biol* 167: 1137-1146.
- 160. Parsons LM, Grzeschik NA, Allott ML, et al. (2010) Lgl/aPKC and Crb regulate the Salvador/Warts/Hippo pathway. *Fly (Austin)* 4: 288-293.

- 161. Robinson BS, Huang J, Hong Y, et al. (2010) Crumbs regulates Salvador/Warts/Hippo signaling in Drosophila via the FERM-domain protein Expanded. *Curr Biol* 20: 582-590.
- 162. Grzeschik NA, Amin N, Secombe J, et al. (2007) Abnormalities in cell proliferation and apico-basal cell polarity are separable in Drosophila lgl mutant clones in the developing eye. *Dev Biol* 311: 106-123.
- 163. Cohen B, Shimizu M, Izrailit J, et al. (2010) Cyclin D1 is a direct target of JAG1-mediated Notch signaling in breast cancer. *Breast Cancer Res Treat* 123: 113-124.
- 164. Ling H, Sylvestre JR, Jolicoeur P (2010) Notch1-induced mammary tumor development is cyclin D1-dependent and correlates with expansion of pre- malignant multipotent duct-limited progenitors. *Oncogene* 29: 4543-4554.
- 165. Sharma VM, Calvo JA, Draheim KM, et al. (2006) Notch1 contributes to mouse T-cell leukemia by directly inducing the expression of c-myc. *Mol Cell Biol* 26: 8022-8031.
- 166. Weng AP, Millholland JM, Yashiro-Ohtani Y, et al. (2006) c-Myc is an important direct target of Notch1 in T-cell acute lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma. *Genes Dev* 20: 2096-2109.
- 167. Klinakis A, Szabolcs M, Politi K, et al. (2006) Myc is a Notch1 transcriptional target and a requisite for Notch1-induced mammary tumorigenesis in mice. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 103: 9262-9267.
- 168. Dohda T, Maljukova A, Liu L, et al. (2007) Notch signaling induces SKP2 expression and promotes reduction of p27Kip1 in T-cell acute lymphoblastic leukemia cell lines. *Exp Cell Res* 313: 3141-3152.

© 2015, Antonio Baonza, et al., licensee AIMS Press. This is an open access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0)