Ras controls growth, survival and differentiation in the *Drosophila* eye by different thresholds of MAP kinase activity

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SUMMARY

Ras mediates a plethora of cellular functions during development. In the developing eye of *Drosophila*, Ras performs three temporally separate functions. In dividing cells, it is required for growth but is not essential for cell cycle progression. In postmitotic cells, it promotes survival and subsequent differentiation of ommatidial cells. In the present paper, we have analyzed the different roles of Ras during eye development by using molecularly defined complete and partial loss-of-function mutations of Ras. We show that the three different functions of Ras are mediated by distinct thresholds of MAPK activity. Low MAPK activity prolongs cell survival and permits differentiation of R8 photoreceptor cells while high or persistent MAPK activity is sufficient to precociously induce R1-R7 photoreceptor differentiation in dividing cells.

Key words: Ras1, Signal transduction, Cell growth, Cell death, Differentiation, *Drosophila*

INTRODUCTION

Activation of the small GTPase Ras is associated with a wide variety of cellular responses to extracellular stimuli (Campbell et al., 1998; Rommel and Hafen, 1998). In cultured mammalian cells, Ras is activated in response to mitogenic signals, and interfering with Ras activation causes growth arrest. Oncogenic transformation of cells is frequently associated with the constitutive activation of Ras. In addition to proliferation, Ras activity is also involved in differentiation. In *Caenorhabditis elegans*, Ras controls larval viability, vulva induction and male spicules development (Sternberg and Han, 1998). In *Drosophila*, Ras activity has multiple functions including the specification of larval head and tail structures, mediating signaling by the Torso receptor tyrosine kinase, specification of ventral ectoderm fate in the embryo and dorsoventral polarity in the egg shell in response to EGF receptor stimulation. In imaginal discs, Ras is required for cell growth, differentiation of wing veins and photoreceptor cells (Diaz-Benjumea and Hafen, 1994; Freeman, 1998; Prober and Edgar, 2000). Overexpression of constitutively active Ras induces tissue overgrowth and non-autonomous cell death (Karim and Rubin, 1998).

Three different models have been proposed to explain how Ras can control different cellular responses. In the first model, the cellular response to Ras activity is dictated by the cellular context. For example, Ras signaling regulates different sets of transcription factors in response to epidermal growth factor (EGF) receptor and Sevenless activation in the developing eye, and in response to Torso activation in the embryo (reviewed in Freeman, 1998; Dickson, 1995; Lu et al., 1993). In *C. elegans*, specification of tail or vulval structures in response to Ras activity depends on the expression of different homeodomain proteins (Maloof and Kenyon, 1998). When we take this model to the extreme, Ras activation is a mere trigger for a single cellular response. In the second model, the combined activities of different signal transduction pathways determine the biological response. For example, transformation of fibroblasts in response to oncogenic Ras depends on the ability of constitutively active Ras to activate two distinct effectors, Raf and PI3K (Rodriguez-Viciana et al., 1997). In the third model, quantitatively different levels of Ras activity elicit qualitatively different responses. For example, stimulation of PC12 cells by EGF induces Ras and MAP kinase activity transiently and induces proliferation. Stimulation by NGF, however, results in a prolonged activation of Ras and MAP kinase and triggers neurite outgrowth (Marshall, 1995). In the *Drosophila* embryo, different amounts of constitutively active Ras activate different target genes and cause the differentiation of different posterior structures (Greenwood and Struhl, 1997; Ghiglione et al., 1999).

One problem concerning the experimental evidence that underlies each of the three different models is the fact that most experiments involve the overexpression of constitutively active Ras protein and hence may not reflect a physiological situation. We have analyzed Ras function in the developing eye in vivo using molecularly defined Ras mutations that affect a specific signaling pathway. In the developing eye, complete loss of Ras function slows down cell growth but cells can still progress through the cell cycle. However, Ras null mutant cells fail to differentiate and undergo apoptosis upon exit from the cell cycle. *Ras<sup>D38E</sup>*, a Ras effector mutant with reduced activity
towards Raf, rescues survival of postmitotic cells and differentiation of the R8 photoreceptor cells in the eye disc but fails to promote recruitment of the other photoreceptors. Differentiation of R1-R7 cells can be rescued, however, by a concomitant increase in mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) activity. Furthermore, high levels of Ras activity in proliferating cells in the eye imaginal disc result in precocious neuronal differentiation. These results indicate that different thresholds of Ras activity specify different cellular responses and that all these responses are mediated by the Raf/MAPK effector pathway of Ras.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Fly stocks

*Ras*° is an excision allele of the P-element line *Ras*° (Schnorr and Berg, 1996). *P(3)K* alleles used are *Dp110°* (Weikove et al., 1999) and *Dp110°*, which was isolated in a screen for growth defective mutations (H. S. and E. H., unpublished). Flies carrying *P(sev-RasG12V,w*) ( engineered clone), *P(sev-RasG12V3SS,w*) ( engineered clone), *P(sev-RasG12V3SS,w*) ( engineered clone), *P(sev-RasG12V40C,w*) ( engineered clone), *P(UAS-RasG12V40C,w*) ( engineered clone), *P(UAS-RasG12V40C,w*) ( engineered clone), *P(Ras-w,y*) ( engineered clone), *P(RasD38E,y*) ( engineered clone), *P(Ras340C,y*) ( engineered clone), and *P(Ras340C,y*) were generated by P-element transformation. For the overexpression studies, we used the lines *sev-RasG12V1* (2nd chr.), *sev-RasG12V3SS2* (3rd chr.), *sev-RasG12V3SS2* (3rd chr.) and *UAS-RasG12V2* (2nd chr.), *UAS-RasG12V3SS2* (2nd chr.) and *UAS-RasG12V3SS2* (2nd chr.), *UAS-RasG12V3SS2* (2nd chr.) and *UAS-RasG12V3SS2* (2nd chr.). For clonal analyses we used transformants of *P(Ras):Ras-3* (2nd chr.), *RasD38E-27* (2nd chr.), *RasD38E-29* (2nd chr.), *RasD38E-30* (2nd chr.). Line *RasD38E30* contains the two recombinant elements of the P elements of line *RasD38E-27* and *RasD38E-29*. Lines *RasD38E30*, 7 and *RasD38E30*, 15 arose from two independent recombination events of the P elements of line *RasD38E-27* and line *RasD38E-29*. The recombination events were confirmed by Southern analysis.

Molecular analysis of *Ras°*

The 1.7 kb deletion of *Ras°* starts 18 bp upstream of the transcription start and ends 198 bp downstream of the putative polyadenylation signal. The deletion extent was determined by PCR using the *start and ends 198 bp downstream of the putative polyadenylation signal. These results indicate that different thresholds of Ras activity specify different cellular responses and that all these responses are mediated by the Raf/MAPK effector pathway of Ras.

Clonal analysis

Mitotic recombination was induced using the FLP/FRT technique (Xu and Rubin, 1993). *Ras°* clones in the eye imaginal disc were induced by heat shock induction of FLP recombinase in y w hsFLP;*P(Ras,y*)/+; *FRT82B Ras°*/FRT82B P(arm-lacZ) larvae 24-48 hours AED for one hour at 37°C. Clones in a Minute background were induced in y w hsFLP;*P(Ras,y*)/+; *FRT82B Ras°*/FRT82B P(arm-lacZ) M(3)w124 larvae 24-48 hours AED for 30 minutes at 37°C.

To determine the clonal size in wing discs, clones were induced by heat shock in y w hsFLP;*P(Ras,y*)/+; *FRT82B Ras°*/FRT82B (arm-lacZ) larvae 48 hours AED (4 hours egg collections) for 10 minutes at 34°C and analyzed at 120 hours AED. For generating *Ras°* clones in the adult eye, either larvae of the genotype y w hsFLP;*P(Ras,y*)/+; *FRT82B Ras°*/FRT82B y w were heat shocked 24-48 hours AED for one hour at 37°C to induce mitotic recombination or we selectively removed Ras function in the eye by using eyFLP;FRT82B Ras°*/FRT82B w c1383 (Newcombe et al., 2000), where a cell lethal mutation is combined with the Ras° chromosome and therefore the only proliferating cells in the eye imaginal disc are homozygous mutant for Ras. Adults were examined for w clones in the eye. Histological sections of the eyes were performed as described previously (Basler and Hafen, 1998).

Gain-of-function clones of Ras were induced using the FLP-out technique (Struhl and Basler, 1993; Neufeld et al., 1998). hsFLP; Act5c >CD2 >Gal4,UAS-GFPnls +/+ additional UAS lines larvae were heat shocked at 48-72 hours AED for 30 minutes at 34°C. Discs were fixed for 20 minutes in 4% paraformaldehyde in PBS and then permeabilized with 0.3% Triton X-100 in PBS. Following antibodies were used: rat anti-Elav (1:30, a gift from G. Rubin), rabbit anti-β galactosidase (1:2000, Cappel), rabbit anti-Boss (1:2000, a gift from L. Zipursky), Texas Red- and FITC-conjugated secondary antibodies (1:200, Jackson ImmunoResearch) were used.

TUNEL assay

Apoptotic cells were detected using the ApopTaq system (ONCOR). The 3′-OH ends of DNA were labeled for one hour at 37°C by addition of digoxigenin 11-UTPs by the enzyme TdT and subsequently detected with a FITC-conjugated anti-digoxigenin antibody.

RESULTS

A set of molecularly defined partial and complete loss-of-function mutations in Ras

Ras function in the developing eye has been studied extensively by overexpression of constitutively active forms of Ras and by reducing Ras function in heterozygous conditions (reviewed by Wassarman et al., 1995). These studies have enabled us to establish a crucial role for Ras in the differentiation of photoreceptor cells. Little is known, however, about earlier functions of Ras in eye development, as complete loss of Ras function causes larval lethality. The use of clonal analysis of mutant *Ras* alleles of different strength has been useful in dissecting Ras function in the adult wing (Diaz-Benjumea and Hafen, 1994). We wanted to use an allelic series of molecularly defined *Ras* mutations to dissect the different roles of Ras during eye development and to address the question of whether quantitatively different levels of Ras and its downstream effectors define thresholds for different cellular responses. We first characterized a precise deletion mutation in *Ras*...
(Ras<sup>77b</sup>) that serves as a complete loss-of-function mutation. Furthermore, we generated a genomic Ras transgene that rescues the lethality associated with the Ras null allele, and thus appears to contain all regulatory sequences necessary for the correct spatial and temporal expression of Ras. By introducing mutations into this rescue construct we can analyze the effects of partial loss-of-function mutations under physiological conditions rather than rely on overexpression or constitutive activation.

In mammalian cells, single amino acid substitutions in the effector domain of Ras in conjunction with the constitutively active G12V mutation have been used successfully to dissect the role of different Ras effectors in cellular responses (White et al., 1995; Joneson et al., 1996). Expression of the constitutively active Ras<sup>G12V</sup> in mammalian cells activates, in addition to Raf other signaling components such as PI3K (Rodriguez-Viciana et al., 1997). In these cells, Ras<sup>G12V,D38E</sup> or Ras<sup>G12V,T35S</sup> exhibit a reduced activity towards Raf and fail to detectably activate PI3K. Conversely, Ras<sup>G12V,Y40C</sup> exhibits reduced activity towards PI3K but has no detectable activity towards Raf. Given the identity of the amino acid sequence between mammalian H-Ras and Drosophila Ras in and around the effector domain, we hypothesized that these mutations would have a similar effect on the activity of Drosophila Ras. To test the specificity of these mutant proteins in Drosophila, we investigated their ability to induce phenotypes characteristic for the activation of the putative downstream effectors Raf and PI3K, respectively. Differentiation of extra R7 photoreceptor cells is induced by expression of constitutively active components of the Ras/MAP kinase pathway in the progenitors of the R7 and the lens-secreting cone cells using the enhancer of the sevenless (sev) gene. Flies carrying a sev-Ras<sup>G12V</sup> transgene possess rough eyes, owing to the presence of additional R7 photoreceptor cells (Fig. 1B, arrow; Fortini et al., 1992). Flies carrying one copy of the sev-Ras<sup>G12V,D38E</sup> transgene also showed a characteristic multiple R7 phenotype (Fig. 1C, arrow). We note, however, that the phenotype is considerably weaker than that observed in sev-Ras<sup>G12V</sup> flies. Identical results were obtained with the Ras<sup>G12V,T35S</sup> transgene (data not shown). Flies carrying one copy of the sev-Ras<sup>G12V,Y40C</sup> transgene had wild-type eyes with no extra R7 cells (Fig. 1D). Thus, in the Ras effector domain, the D38E and the T35S substitution are able to support neuronal development in the context of an activating G12V substitution, while the Y40C substitution is not. These results indicate that, albeit at a reduced level, Ras<sup>G12V,D38E</sup> and Ras<sup>G12V,T35S</sup> are able to activate Raf, while Ras<sup>G12V,Y40C</sup> is not.

Overexpression of PI3K in postmitotic cells under the control of GMR-Gal4 increases the size of the eye but does not affect eye patterning (Leevers et al., 1996). In contrast, GMR-Gal4, UAS-Ras<sup>G12V,Y40C</sup> flies had rough eyes but showed no significant increase in eye size (Fig. 1E). Expression of Ras<sup>G12V</sup> and Ras<sup>G12V,D38E</sup> under GMR-Gal4 control caused lethality, most likely due to the high Ras activity towards Raf. The rough eye phenotype in GMR-Gal4, UAS-Ras<sup>G12V,Y40C</sup> flies was not caused by a hyper-activation of PI3K, as concomitant reduction of endogenous PI3K function caused a reduction in head and body size but did not suppress the rough eye phenotype (Fig. 1F). Based on this genetic evidence, it appears that Ras<sup>G12V,Y40C</sup> is not able to trigger PI3K-specific cellular responses in the developing eye. Ras<sup>G12V,Y40C</sup> may thus interfere with or activate another yet unknown pathway leading to the formation of rough eyes. Several studies in Drosophila have used the Ras effector site mutations to distinguish between possible downstream effectors in the control of specific cellular responses (Bergmann et al., 1998; Therrien et al., 1999). Our analysis indicates that in spite of the conservation of the Ras effector domain these mutations may not have similar effects: while Ras<sup>D38E</sup> and Ras<sup>T35S</sup> are able to activate Raf, Ras<sup>Y40C</sup> appears unable to activate Dp110 PI3K.

**Ras function is required for growth, survival and neural differentiation**

In order to test the role of Ras in the development of ommatidial cells we generated clones of cells homozygous for the null mutation Ras<sup>77b</sup>. Ras<sup>−/−</sup> clones could not be recovered...
in the adult eye, suggesting that Ras is essential for proliferation, growth or survival of eye imaginal disc cells (Simon et al., 1991; Fig. 2A). When we examined Ras mutant clones in eye imaginal discs we made two observations (Fig. 2C). First, clones of Ras−/− cells are observed in the eye imaginal disc; however, compared with that of their wild-type sister clones (twin spots), the relative size of the clones is reduced (which indicates that cells lacking Ras function can proliferate but that they have a growth disadvantage). Second, Ras−/− clones located behind the morphogenetic furrow are often wedge-shaped and much reduced in size. It appears that Ras−/− cells disappear once the morphogenetic furrow has passed. Behind the morphogenetic furrow, cells stop dividing, are recruited into ommatidial clusters and differentiate into photoreceptors and non-neuronal cone or pigment cells (Wolff and Ready, 1991). Thus, it appears that Ras function is not essential for proliferation, whereas it is essential for survival and/or differentiation of postmitotic cells in the eye disc.

The growth disadvantage of Ras−/− cells is not an intrinsic defect in the Ras mutant cell but it is caused by a failure to compete successfully with faster growing Ras+/− cells. If the growth rate of the heterozygous Ras+/− cells is reduced by a dominant Minute (M) mutation, the Ras−/− clones are substantially larger and cover large areas of the disc (Fig. 2D). Similar results were also obtained in the wing disc (data not shown). As observed in a wild-type background, the size of Ras−/− clones in the M background is reduced behind the morphogenetic furrow, suggesting that Ras mutant cells fail to differentiate and are eliminated autonomously. Indeed, we observed a significant increase in apoptotic cells within Ras−/− clones when we performed TUNEL staining on imaginal discs (Fig. 2E).

The analysis of Ras loss-of-function clones has enabled us to distinguish three temporally separate functions of Ras in the developing eye imaginal disc. First, Ras function contributes to normal cell growth. Ras−/− cells have a growth disadvantage and cannot compete with wild-type cells, but it
appears, however, that Ras function is not essential for cell cycle progression. Second, Ras function is required for the survival of postmitotic ommatidial cells. Third, Ras function is necessary for neuronal differentiation of photoreceptor cells. All the three phenotypes are rescued by a single copy of the Ras transgene (Fig. 2B, 2F and 2G).

Partial rescue of Ras mutant phenotypes by effector site mutants

To test whether Ras variants containing amino acid substitutions in the effector domain can rescue any of these three distinct requirements for Ras during eye development we introduced the D38E and the Y40C mutations in the genomic Ras rescue construct. We generated transgenic lines that contained one or more copies of the different mutant constructs in combination with the Ras null allele. While one copy of the wild-type rescue construct rescued the lethality of homozygous Ras mutant animals, the presence of one or two copies of any of the mutant transgenes did not rescue Ras mutants to adulthood. Similarly, none of the mutant constructs was sufficient to rescue Ras−/− clones in the adult eye. In the eye imaginal disc, however, a partial rescue of the mutant transgenes was observed with the RasD38E construct. In the presence of this transgene, the defect in growth was partially restored as measured by the increased ratio of the area occupied by the mutant and wild-type sister clone (Fig. 3). Furthermore, RasD38E cells survived behind the morphogenetic furrow and single Elav-positive cells were detected within the mutant clone (Fig. 4A,B), indicating that some mutant cells could differentiate neurally. These single Elav-positive cells are R8 cells since they express the R8-specific marker Boss (Fig. 4C). Therefore the RasD38E mutant appears to provide sufficient Ras activity to prolong survival of postmitotic ommatidial cells and to support differentiation of R8 photoreceptors. RasD38E does not, however, provide enough activity to support recruitment of the other photoreceptor cells. No rescue of growth, cell survival and R8 differentiation was observed with the RasY40C transgene (Fig. 4D,E).

The incomplete rescue observed with the RasD38E transgene may be due to insufficient activity of the RasD38E mutant protein towards its effector Raf. In mammalian cells, H-RasG12V,D38E leads to five times less activation of Raf than H-RasG12V (Rodriguez-Viciana et al., 1997). Alternatively, the partial rescue observed with RasD38E may be caused by its inability to activate a specific effector in addition to Raf. We therefore analyzed Ras mutant clones in the presence of multiple copies of RasD38E or a combination of RasD38E and RasY40C mutant transgenes. Although we showed that RasY40C does not activate PI3K, it may possess residual activity towards another, unidentified effector of Ras. However, neither increasing the copy number of the RasD38E transgene nor introducing a combination of the two different effector site mutants improved the rescue of Ras−/− photoreceptor cells in the adult (data not shown). This suggests that either the levels of Ras activity provided by up to three copies of the RasD38E transgene are insufficient to support differentiation of the R1-R7 photoreceptor cells or that Ras activity cannot be increased by simply augmenting the amount of mutant Ras protein in the cell. The specific activity of RasD38E may be too low because of a reduced binding affinity for Raf or an increased GTPase activity.

An increase in MAP kinase activity permits RasD38E to rescue cell survival and photoreceptor differentiation

To test whether the incomplete rescue of one or multiple copies of the RasD38E transgene is due to insufficient levels of MAP kinase activation or to the failure to activate additional effector pathways, we wanted to increase endogenous MAP kinase activity levels without rendering it independent of upstream activating signals. The rolled (r) mutation in the gene encoding the Drosophila homolog of MAP kinase causes an amino acid substitution (D334N) in the kinase domain (Brunner et al., 1994). This substitution renders MAP kinase partially resistant to dephosphorylation by MAPK phosphatases, which in turn results in a slightly elevated basal activity of MAP kinase and a prolonged activation (Cowley et al., 1994; Oellers and Hafen, 1996; Camps et al., 1998).

We assayed the ability of r to assist RasD38E in promoting growth and differentiation in eyes in which Ras function was selectively removed. As loss of Ras function results in the death of postmitotic cells in the eye imaginal disc, such flies develop with a severely reduced head that almost completely lacks eyes (Fig. 5B). Introducing one copy of the Ras rescue construct completely restores eye size and structure (Fig. 5C). The RasD38E transgene causes a slight enlargement of the eye field owing to the presence of unpigmented cuticle (Fig. 5D, arrow); however, no additional ommatidial structures are formed. No significant increase in eye size was observed with the RasY40C transgene. Similarly to RasD38E, the r
gain-of-function mutation alone was not sufficient for a significant increase in eye size (Fig. 5E), consistent with the biochemical and genetic evidence that this mutant protein is dependent on activation by Ras. The combination of Ras D38E and rl Sem, however, resulted in a substantial rescue of the eye and head size phenotype (Fig. 5F). Fully differentiated ommatidial structures are observed in these eyes. Histological sections through eyes of such flies reveal the presence of differentiated photoreceptor cells. A significant fraction of the ommatidia contained the full complement of photoreceptors (Fig. 5G). Therefore, the combination of Ras D38E and rl Sem is able to rescue R1-R7 differentiation and cell survival to adulthood. This indicates that the failure of Ras D38E to specify R1-R7 cell fate and to promote survival of these cells in the adult eye can be compensated by increasing the basal activity of MAP kinase.

High levels of Ras and Raf activity are sufficient to induce precocious photoreceptor cell differentiation in the eye

Low levels of Ras activity are required for survival and differentiation of R8 cells and higher levels of Ras activity are needed for the differentiation of the R1-R7 cells. It has been shown that ectopic expression of activated EGF receptor or Ras promotes neuronal differentiation ahead of the morphogenetic furrow (Dominguez et al., 1998; Hazelett et al., 1998, and Fig. 6B). If our model according to which the levels of MAPK activity determine the Ras-mediated responses in the eye were correct, activated forms of Ras and activated Raf in the eye imaginal disc using the FLP-out technique (Struhl and Basler, 1993). RasG12V-expressing clones located anterior to the morphogenetic furrow are rounded and express the neuronal marker Elav, indicating that these cells have undergone precocious neuronal development (Fig. 6B, arrow) and send out axonal projections. Thus, high levels of Ras activity are sufficient to induce neuronal differentiation anterior to the morphogenetic furrow. Expression of RasG12VD38E appeared equally efficient in inducing precocious neuronal differentiation as RasG12V in this assay (Fig. 6C, arrow). This is surprising as it is clearly less efficient in inducing ectopic R7 cells (Fig. 1C). As expected, RasG12V,Y40C was inactive (Fig. 6D). Similar to RasG12V, expression of an activated, membrane targeted version of Raf (RafY9) was also sufficient to induce photoreceptor differentiation anterior to the furrow (Fig. 6E, arrow). As noted previously (Dominguez et al., 1998; Hazelett et al., 1998), the competence for neural differentiation in response to high Ras
or Raf activity is restricted to a zone anterior to the morphogenetic furrow. Clones in the antennal disc or in the peripodial membrane do not undergo neuronal differentiation. We conclude that in cells within the competence zone in the eye imaginal disc, high levels of Ras or Raf activity are necessary and sufficient to induce neuronal differentiation. In the same cells, low levels of Ras activity promote growth. The regulation of precise levels of Ras activity during eye development is therefore important for the correct cellular response.

**DISCUSSION**

We have presented evidence that Ras signaling controls different cellular responses by at least two thresholds of MAPK activity in the eye imaginal disc of *Drosophila*. Low levels of MAPK activity permit growth, survival of postmitotic cells and R8 differentiation, while high activity induces R1-R7 differentiation. These data significantly extend results from previous studies on the role of EGF receptor function during eye development. It provides direct evidence that, under physiological conditions not involving overexpression, altering the levels of a single effector pathway, the Raf/MAPK pathway, is sufficient to elicit distinct cellular responses.

**Ras and growth control**

Ras was first identified as an oncogene in vertebrates (reviewed by Bourne et al., 1990). Studies in tissue culture cells have suggested that the primary role of Ras is in the control of cell proliferation, as the mitogenic response to a variety of growth factors can be blocked by inhibiting Ras function (Mulcahy et al., 1985; Smith et al., 1986). However, we show that in the eye imaginal disc, cells proliferate in the absence of Ras, albeit with a reduced growth rate, implying that Ras is not essential for proliferation in this system. The reason for the small size of Ras mutant clones compared to their twin spots is not only the intrinsic growth deficit of these cells but is caused by their failure to compete successfully with the faster growing wild-type cells. These results are in agreement with a recent study of Ras function in the wing disc (Prober and Edgar, 2000).

How does Ras control growth? One possibility is that Ras directly binds and activates PI3K. Clones mutant for components in the insulin receptor/PI3K pathway also have a growth disadvantage compared to wild-type cells (Böhni et al., 1999; Montagne et al., 1999; Weinkove et al., 1999). Although in vertebrates, H-RasG12V,Y40C activates PI3K, we found no evidence that the corresponding mutant activates PI3K in *Drosophila*. Partial loss-of-function mutations in genes coding for Raf and MAPK, respectively, showed similar growth defects as Ras mutants (Diaz-Benjumea and Hafen, 1994). Furthermore, RasD38E showed a significant rescue of the growth disadvantage of Ras-/- clones. Thus, we propose that Ras and growth control

Fig. 5. Increasing MAP kinase activity permits RasD38E to rescue cell survival and photoreceptor differentiation. To test the rescue of RasD38E in a background with increased MAPK activity we selectively removed Ras function in eye imaginal disc cells using the eyFLP, cell lethal technique (Newsome et al., 2000). The mutant tissue is marked by the absence of pigment. Genotypes: (A) eyFLP+, FRT82B w+ c13R3/TM3; (B) eyFLP++; FRT82B RasD38E+/FRT82B w+ c13R3; (C) eyFLP++; P(RaswI>y+/+); FRT82B RasD38E+/FRT82B w+ c13R3; (D) eyFLP++; P(RasD38E>y+/+); FRT82B RasD38E+/FRT82B w+ c13R3; (E) eyFLP++; rrlSem+/+; FRT82B RasD38E+/FRT82B w+ c13R3; (F,G) eyFLP++; P(RasD38E,y+/+); rrlSem++; FRT82B RasD38E+/FRT82B w+ c13R3; (F,G) eyFLP+/+; P(RasD38E,y+/+); rrlSem++; FRT82B RasD38E+/FRT82B w+ c13R3; (G) eyFLP+/+; P(RasD38E,y+/+); rrlSem++; FRT82B RasD38E+/FRT82B w+ c13R3/TM3 flies show wild-type eyes (A). Selective removal of Ras function in the eye by eyFLP+/+; FRT82B RasD38E+/FRT82B w+ c13R3, generates flies with a drastically reduced head capsule and reduced eyes (B). One copy of the Ras rescue construct restores the head and the eye size (C). The RasD38E transgene (D) or the rrlSem mutation (E) alone do not rescue the eye structure, but eye size is slightly increased due to undifferentiated cuticle in the eye (arrows). The RasD38E transgene in a rrlSem background rescues Ras-/- photoreceptors (F). Tangential section through an eye shown in (F) reveals the presence of differentiated R1-R7 photoreceptor cells (G).
while cell growth depends on the activities of the MAP kinase as well as the PI3K pathway, the activation of the MAP kinase pathway is only Ras-dependent. It has recently been proven that cooperation between the Ras/MAP kinase and the PI3K/PKB pathway is required in order to induce growth in cultured cells. In fibroblasts, activation of Raf and PI3K is required for cyclin D1 expression and entry into S-phase (Gille and Downward, 1999). Induction of DNA synthesis by activation of the platelet-derived growth factor (PDGF) receptor requires an early activation of MAPK and a late phase PI3K activity (Jones et al., 1999).

The role of Ras in survival and differentiation

*Ras* mutant cells located behind the morphogenetic furrow die by programmed cell death (PCD). Ras controls the PCD inducer Hid, by repressing its expression and by modifying its activity through phosphorylation by MAPK (Bergmann et al., 1998; Kurada and White, 1998). In mammalian cells, PI3K promotes survival via PKB-mediated phosphorylation of the pro-apoptotic protein Bad. Thus, survival could at least in part be mediated by the activation of PI3K. Indeed, a partial suppression of Hid-induced apoptosis in the eye by the expression of Ras<sup>G12V,Y40C</sup> was taken as evidence that PI3K supports survival in the developing eye (Bergmann et al., 1998). This is unlikely in the light of the data presented here, as we have shown that Ras<sup>G12V,Y40C</sup> is unable to activate PI3K. Furthermore, the *Ras<sup>D38E</sup>* transgene rescues *Ras<sup>−/−</sup>* cells posterior to the morphogenetic furrow from PCD. Thus it appears that the function of Ras in survival is mediated exclusively through the activation of MAPK. In the adult, however, *Ras* mutant cells were never observed. This may be due to an exclusive role of Ras in promoting cell survival of ommatidial cells at later stages or due to an additional role in cell fate specification. Several lines of evidence argue against an exclusively anti-apoptotic role of Ras during the later stages of eye development. First, reduced Ras activity in the R7 precursor cell in the absence of the Sev receptor tyrosine kinase results in a change in cell fate rather than death of this progenitor cell (Tomlinson and Ready, 1986). Second, constitutive activation of Ras in cone cell precursors is sufficient to induce R7 differentiation in these cells (Fortini et al., 1992). Third, ectopic expression of an activated EGF receptor or Ras<sup>G12V</sup> results in precocious induction of photoreceptor cell differentiation anterior to the furrow (Hazelett et al., 1998; Domínguez et al., 1998 and this study). Thus in the case of R1-R7 differentiation, high levels of Ras activity are required for a choice in cell fate rather than mere survival of the cells. The differentiation of the R8 cells, which we have shown to depend on Ras activity, however, may be different. R8 cell differentiation is rescued by Ras<sup>D38E</sup>, concomitant with the survival of the mutant clones. Therefore it is possible that Ras-mediated survival is sufficient for R8 cell differentiation. Interestingly, loss of EGF receptor function still allows the formation of R8 cells (Domínguez et al., 1998), suggesting that the low levels of Ras activity

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**Fig. 6.** High levels of Ras activity induces neuronal differentiation. Analysis of clones expressing activated Ras in third instar eye imaginal discs. Clones of cells expressing *UAS-Ras<sup>G12V</sup>* under Act-Gal4 control were induced 48-72 hours AED by heat shock. The clone is visualized by co-expression of GFP<sub>nls</sub> (green) and neuronal differentiation is visualized by labeling with an antibody to the nuclear neuronal marker Elav (red, right panel). The merged image is shown in the left panel. Posterior is towards the bottom. Wild-type clones are shown as a control in (A). Clones expressing Ras<sup>G12V</sup> round up and express the neuronal marker Elav anterior to the morphogenetic furrow (B, arrow). Expression of Ras<sup>G12V,D38E</sup> is sufficient to induce the neuronal marker Elav in clones in front of the furrow (C, arrow, the inset shows a magnification of a Ras<sup>G12V,D38E</sup> clone in front of the furrow), whereas expression of Ras<sup>G12V,Y40C</sup> does not induce Elav in front of the furrow (D). Raf<sup>torY9</sup> expression in front of the furrow is sufficient to induce Elav expression (E, arrow). Clones of activated Ras or Raf in the peripodial membrane do not express Elav (arrowheads).
required for R8 differentiation are achieved by another receptor system.

**Different thresholds of Ras/MAPK activity induce distinct cellular responses in the developing eye**

There are three different models for how specificity of Ras signaling is achieved: Specificity may be controlled by (1) the cellular context, (2) the activation of distinct signaling pathways by Ras or (3) by different levels of Ras activity. The experiments presented here support the importance of the cellular context and the different levels of Ras activity but fail to provide evidence for the activation of different signaling pathways by Ras. All aspects of Ras signaling could be rescued by the activation of the Ras/MAPK pathway and we found no evidence, using the Ras effector site mutants, that constitutively active Ras activates the PI3K pathway directly.

The cellular context in which Ras activates MAP kinase is clearly important. Expression of RasG12V in blastoderm cells triggers differentiation of head and tail structures (Melnick et al., 1993; Greenwood and Struhl, 1997), it triggers vein differentiation in wing disc cells (Prober and Edgar, 2000) and neuronal differentiation in eye disc cells. We have shown here that different levels of Ras/MAPK activity appear to control distinct cellular responses within the same tissue (Fig. 7). Low levels of Ras activity, provided by the RasD38E mutant, rescue R8 differentiation and survival but not R1-R7 differentiation. High levels of Ras/MAPK activity provided by wild-type Ras or by a combination of RasD38E and rrlSem are required for the differentiation of R1-R7 photoreceptor cells.

There are two possibilities with regard to the nature of the activity thresholds that elicit the different cellular responses. The threshold may be quantitative. Cells could react to different activity levels within the cells. Alternatively, the threshold may be temporal and cells react to the difference in the duration of the signal. Staining of imaginal discs with an antibody that selectively recognizes activated MAPK (dpERK. Gabay et al., 1997) was not sensitive enough to detect activated MAPK during normal photoreceptor cell recruitment or during ectopic neuronal differentiation in RasG12V-expressing clones anterior to the morphogenetic furrow (data not shown). Therefore, we cannot distinguish between these two models. In the present case, however, we favor the temporal model because we do not detect the highest levels of dpERK staining behind the morphogenetic furrow during photoreceptor cell recruitment. In response to MAP kinase activation in the developing eye, a number of negative regulators of the pathway are induced. The EGF-related peptide Argos competes with the TGFβ-like ligand Spitz for EGF receptor binding (Freeman, 1994; Golemba et al., 1996), and Sprouty, a cytoplasmic protein, associates with the EGF receptor to turn off the signaling pathway (Casci et al., 1999). Indeed, neuronal differentiation and ommatidial development in the RasD38E mutant is rescued by the prolonged activity of MAPK caused by the rrlSem mutation. It is possible that the reduced activity of RasD38E towards Raf is caused by a more rapid inactivation, owing to increased GTPase activity. The observation that RasG12VD38E is sufficient to induce neuronal differentiation ahead of the furrow, in conjunction with the G12V substitution, which inactivates the Ras GTPase activity is consistent with the idea that D38E may stimulate GTP hydrolysis. Thus, neuronal differentiation in Drosophila may depend on the prolonged activation of Ras/MAP kinase, whereas transient activation is sufficient for survival upon exit from the cell cycle and differentiation of R8 photoreceptor cells. Therefore it appears that neuronal differentiation in response to Ras activation in the developing eye of Drosophila is similar to neuronal differentiation in PC12 cells, which also requires prolonged activation of MAPK (Marshall, 1995). The modulation of levels and/or the duration of Ras/MAPK activity levels appear to be important determinants of cellular responses in multicellular organisms.

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