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Abstract

Myc proteins are powerful proto-oncoproteins and important promoters of growth and proliferation during normal development. They are thought to exercise their effects upon binding to their partner protein Max, and their activities are largely antagonized by complexes of Max with Mnt or an Mxd family protein. Although the biological functions of Myc, Mxd and Mnt have been intensively studied, comparatively little is known about the *in vivo* role of Max. Here we generate Max loss-of-function and reduction-of-function mutations in *Drosophila melanogaster* to address the contribution of Max to Myc-dependent growth control. We find that many biological activities of Myc do not, or only partly, require the association with Max—for example, the control of endoreplication and cell competition—and that a Myc mutant that does not interact with Max retains substantial biological activity. We further show that Myc can control RNA polymerase III independently of Max, which explains some of Myc's observed biological activities. These studies show the ability of Myc to function independently of Max *in vivo* and thus change the current model of Max network function.

Max-independent functions of Myc in *Drosophila melanogaster*

Dominik Steiger^{1,2}, Michael Furrer^{1,3}, Daniela Schwinkendorf^{1,3} & Peter Gallant¹

Myc proteins are powerful proto-oncoproteins and important promoters of growth and proliferation during normal development. They are thought to exercise their effects upon binding to their partner protein Max, and their activities are largely antagonized by complexes of Max with Mnt or an Mxd family protein. Although the biological functions of Myc, Mxd and Mnt have been intensively studied, comparatively little is known about the *in vivo* role of Max. Here we generate Max loss-of-function and reduction-of-function mutations in *Drosophila melanogaster* to address the contribution of Max to Myc-dependent growth control. We find that many biological activities of Myc do not, or only partly, require the association with Max—for example, the control of endoreplication and cell competition—and that a Myc mutant that does not interact with Max retains substantial biological activity. We further show that Myc can control RNA polymerase III independently of Max, which explains some of Myc's observed biological activities. These studies show the ability of Myc to function independently of Max *in vivo* and thus change the current model of Max network function.

Numerous human tumors are characterized by deregulated expression of c-Myc or the related proteins N-Myc or L-Myc¹. Myc proteins function as transcription factors to control a large number of protein-coding genes, as well as genes for rRNA and small noncoding RNAs that are transcribed by RNA polymerases I and III, respectively². Myc proteins contain an N-terminal transcription regulatory domain and a C-terminal basic-helix-loop-helix-zipper (BHLHZ) that mediates interaction with the BHLHZ protein Max and is required for binding of the resulting heterodimer to hexameric E-box motifs; at physiological concentrations, Myc proteins cannot homodimerize (reviewed in ref. 2). In addition to activating E-box-containing targets, Myc-Max heterodimers also repress other genes indirectly by binding to, and thereby inhibiting, other transcriptional activators such as Miz-1 (ref. 3). Of note, Max has been shown to be necessary for transcriptional activation and repression by Myc^{4–7}, as well as for the ability of overexpressed Myc to transform cells, induce apoptosis and trigger cell cycle progression^{8,9}, and it has been speculated that Max might even be required for the correct folding of the Myc protein¹⁰. Max also interacts with the BHLHZ-containing Mxd/Mnt proteins (Mxd1–4, Mnt, Mga; reviewed in ref. 11). The resulting heterodimers bind to E-boxes and repress many of the genes that are activated by Myc-Max, thereby functioning as Myc antagonists. As a consequence, the loss of Mnt partially relieves the need for Myc, and cells lacking Mnt show several characteristics of Myc-overexpressing cells^{12,13} (reviewed by ref. 11).

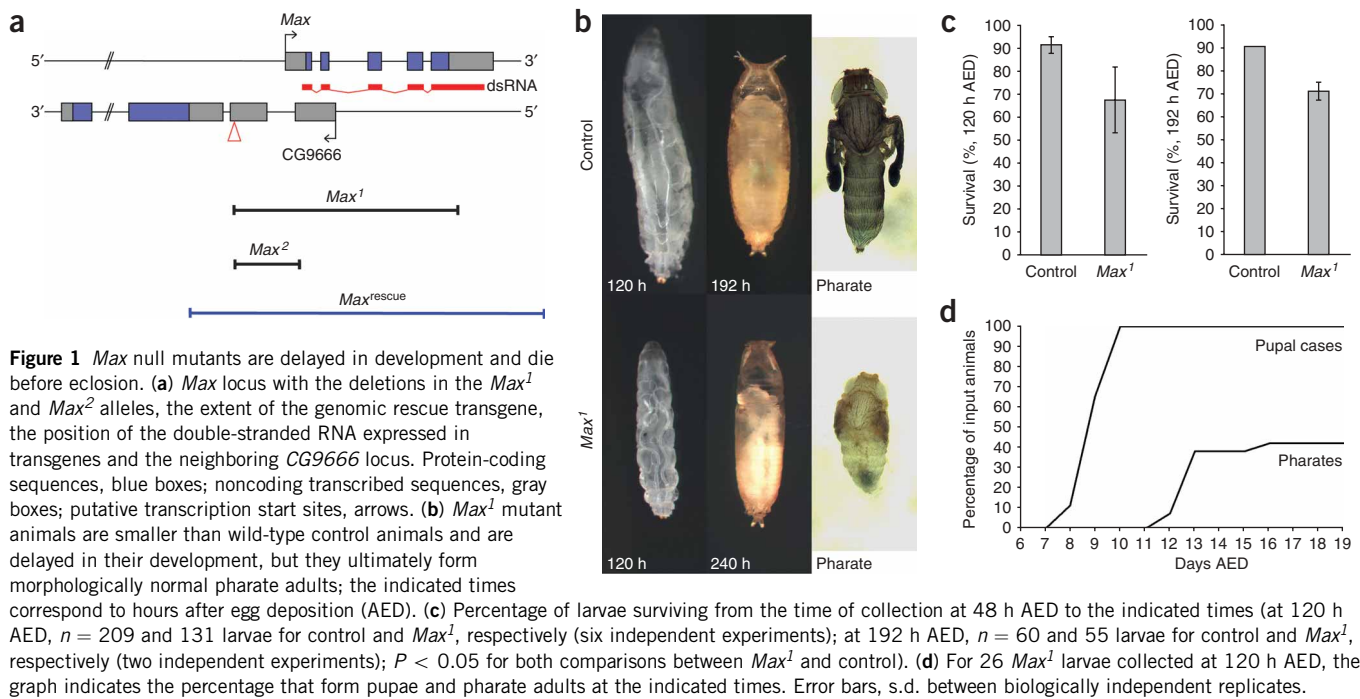
The *in vivo* analysis of the Myc-Max-Mxd network in vertebrates is rendered difficult by the redundancy of the *Myc* and *Mxd/Mnt* genes.

In addition, mice lacking *Max* die before day 6.5 of embryogenesis, and the cellular functions of Max have not been studied in detail¹⁴. We have therefore initiated a study of this network in *Drosophila melanogaster*. Flies contain a single *Myc* gene (*diminutive*, abbreviated as *dm*; the protein is called Myc) that has an important role in the cell-autonomous control of growth^{15,16}. Flies with reduced Myc activity are delayed in their development and ultimately eclose at a reduced size¹⁷, whereas *dm*⁴ animals (null for Myc) experience a normal embryogenesis but then fail to grow and die as small larvae¹⁸. Myc also has a role in cell-autonomous apoptosis¹⁹ and in a process called cell competition, whereby neighboring cells compare their Myc levels and cells with less Myc are eliminated by apoptosis^{20,21} (reviewed in ref. 22). Of note, the function of Myc is evolutionarily conserved such that *Drosophila* Myc can rescue the proliferation defect of *c-Myc*^{-/-} murine embryonic fibroblasts²³, and conversely, an isoform of human c-Myc overcomes the lethality of a strong hypomorphic *dm* mutant allele²⁴. The transcriptional targets of *Drosophila* Myc fall into similar classes as the vertebrate Myc targets^{25,26}, and like vertebrate c-Myc^{27,28}, *Drosophila* Myc stimulates the activity of RNA polymerase I, albeit indirectly by increasing the levels of co-factors for RNA polymerase I²⁹. In contrast to Myc, the single Mxd/Mnt homolog in flies, Mnt, is not essential, and flies carrying the null allele *Mnt*¹ are mainly characterized by a slight increase in body size³⁰. Overexpression of Mnt shows the expected growth- and proliferation-inhibiting functions, confirming the role of Mnt as a Myc antagonist.

Here we address the biological function of the central member of the network, Max. Flies contain a single *Max* gene^{15,31}. Using RNAi

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transgenes and a null mutation in *Max*, we confirm the importance of *Max* for *Myc* activity and for the control of growth. We further demonstrate the antagonism between *Myc* and *Mnt* and show a partial rescue of the *dm*⁴ mutant phenotype by the *Mnt*¹ mutation. Surprisingly, however, our analysis reveals the ability of *Myc* to partially function upon depletion of *Max*. This *Max*-independent function of *Myc* is confirmed by the partial activity of a *Myc* mutant that lacks the *Max*-interaction domain and by the overexpression of *Myc* in the presence of reduced levels of *Max*. Our experiments also reveal the control of RNA polymerase III as an activity of *Myc* that does not depend on dimerization with *Max*. Thus, we provide the first clear *in vivo* evidence for fundamental growth functions of the *Myc* proto-oncogene that are independent of *Max*.

RESULTS

Flies lacking *Max* can complete metamorphosis

Using imprecise excision of a P element, we generated a *Max*-null mutant allele, *Max*¹ (Fig. 1a and Supplementary Note and Supplementary Fig. 1 online). *Max*¹ homozygous animals survive embryogenesis and hatch at the same proportions as controls. However, their growth is impaired and *Max*¹ animals are smaller than controls at all larval stages, as pupae and as pharate adults (Fig. 1b and below); further, they show a reduced viability at larval stages (Fig. 1c). Their rate of development is normal up to the molt from second to third instar (at 70–80 h after egg deposition (AED)), but *Max*¹ third instar larvae pupariate only between days 8 and 10 AED (Fig. 1d; wild-type flies pupariate at day 5 AED). Most homozygous mutant animals survive until pupal stages, and 42% undergo metamorphosis to end up as morphologically normal pharate adults, but none of these animals ever eclose (Fig. 1b,d). Apart from the reduced size, only minor defects were visible in *Max*¹ animals: third instar larvae had fewer teeth on their mouth hooks and occasionally the tips of these mouth hooks were forked, and most pupae failed to evert their anterior spiracles. No defects were observed in *Max*¹/+ heterozygous animals, except for a slight developmental delay specifically in animals that were simultaneously mutant for the hypomorphic *Myc* allele

dm^{P0}, confirming a genetic interaction between *Max* and *Myc* (Supplementary Fig. 1d). Taken together, these defects and the genetic interaction with *Myc* are consistent with a role for *Max* in the control of growth.

Loss of *Max* or *Myc* leads to different phenotypes

Although *Max* is also essential, *Myc* clearly has a more severe mutant phenotype: larvae lacking *Myc* fail to grow, and most of them die a few days after hatching¹⁸ (see below). This unexpected difference in phenotypic strengths could be explained by three non-mutually exclusive hypotheses. First, maternally deposited *Max* protein could persist until late in development and mediate some of the observed growth. We consider this explanation unlikely, on the basis of the observed *Max* mRNA abundance and short protein half-life (see Supplementary Note and Supplementary Fig. 2 online), and because the *Max*¹ phenotypes are not further enhanced by simultaneous targeting of *Max* with RNAi (using a *Max-IR* transgene that otherwise phenocopies a *Max* mutation; Supplementary Fig. 3 online). Furthermore, the experiments discussed below strongly argue against this possibility, as they demonstrate substantial growth in *Max*-mutant tissues at late times of development and reveal some activity of a mutant form of *Myc* that is incapable of interacting with *Max*. Second, loss of *Max* might reflect the simultaneous loss of growth-promoting *Myc*-*Max* and growth-inhibiting *Mnt*-*Max* complexes. Third, *Myc* might have functions that do not depend on dimerization with *Max* and that are lost only in *Myc*- but not in *Max*-mutant animals. To distinguish between these latter two possibilities, we compared *Max*¹ mutants (lacking *Myc*-*Max* and *Mnt*-*Max* activities but retaining *Max*-independent functions of *Myc*) with animals lacking all *Myc* and *Mnt* functions^{18,30} (*dm*⁴ *Mnt*¹ mutants, carrying null alleles for both *Myc* and *Mnt*). *dm*⁴ *Mnt*¹ mutants, as well as *dm*⁴ *Max*¹ mutants, grow better and survive to a greater extent than *dm*⁴ mutants (Fig. 2a). Thus, elimination of *Mnt* partially relieves the need for *Myc* in animal development (see also ref. 32). Of note, *dm*⁴ *Mnt*¹ *Max*¹ animals behave similarly, demonstrating that *Max* does not associate with a second repressor protein whose activity would be lost in *Max*¹ mutants but not in *dm*⁴ *Mnt*¹.

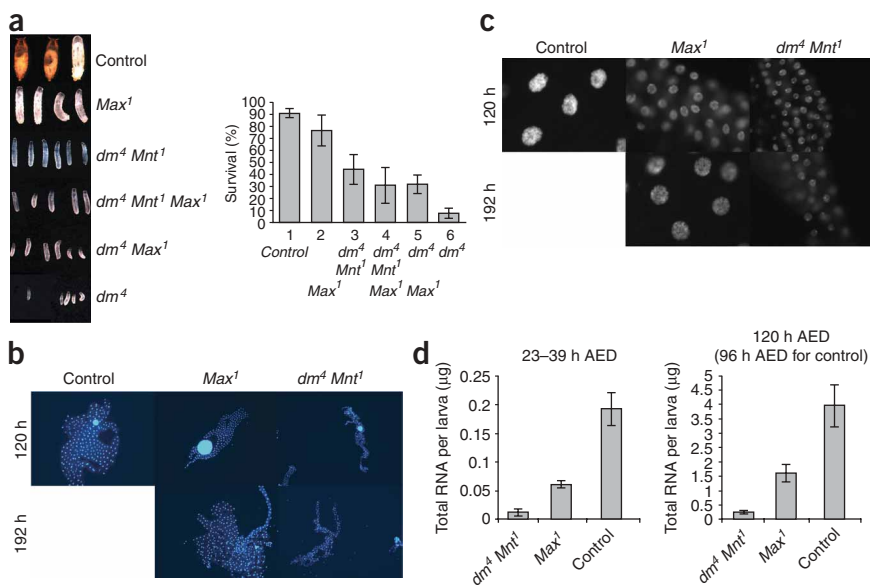


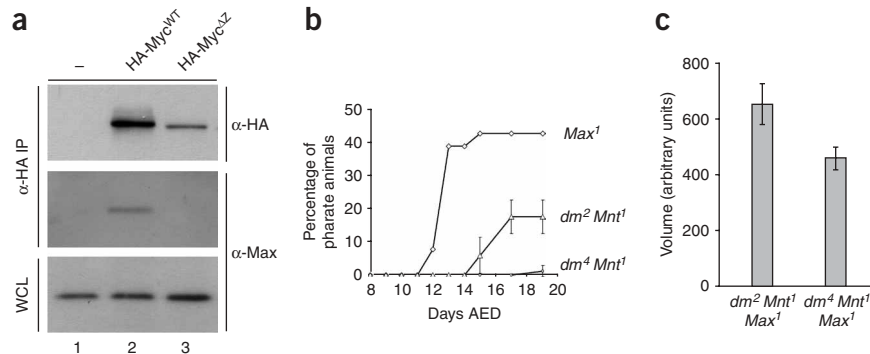
Figure 2 Loss of *Max* leads to milder defects than simultaneous loss of *Myc* and *Mnt*. (a) Larvae of the indicated genotypes were collected at 48 h AED into normal food vials and photographed at 120 h AED (left panels); the percentages of surviving animals from 3–6 independent experiments are indicated in the graph on right (*Max¹* differs significantly with $P < 0.05$ from all other genotypes except control; number of input larvae were 209, 71, 236, 45, 38 and 147 for genotypes 1 through 6, respectively). (b,c) Individual fat bodies (b) or close-up views of salivary gland nuclei (c) at the indicated times of development. All photomicrographs within a panel (a,b or c) are at the same magnification. (d) Average total RNA content per larva at the indicated times ($n = 12$ larvae per sample for control at 96 h AED and 20 for all other genotypes; error bars indicate s.d. for 2–8 independent RNA preparations; all genotypes are significantly different from each other at both time points, with $P < 0.05$).

However, *Max¹* larvae (as well as *Mnt¹ Max¹* larvae; **Supplementary Fig. 4** online) are markedly bigger and show less lethality than any of the other genotypes (**Fig. 2a**). *Max¹* animals continue to grow, and the difference compared to the *dm⁴ Mnt¹* animals becomes even more pronounced at later times (data not shown). The body size differences between these genotypes are reflected in the relative sizes of the polyplod organs and their constituent cells that make up most of the larval mass (**Fig. 2b,c**). The *Max¹* fat body and salivary gland cells grow markedly between days 5 and 8 (when no more *Max* mRNA can be detected; see below) and reach near wild-type sizes, whereas the growth of *dm⁴ Mnt¹* cells remains severely stunted (**Fig. 2b,c**); this growth defect is cell-autonomous, as it is also seen in clones of mutant cells embedded in a wild-type organ (**Supplementary Fig. 5c** online). The growth defect is paralleled by a strong reduction of total RNA levels in *dm⁴ Mnt¹* mutants, and a more modest reduction in *Max¹* mutants; this effect is observed in young larvae even before overall size differences become apparent, and it persists to later stages (**Fig. 2d**). As most cellular RNA consists of rRNA, this observation suggests a defect in rRNA accumulation in both genotypes, and it further indicates that the *Max¹* mutant phenotype is manifest at the very beginning of larval development. Taken together, these observations reveal clear differences

between the lack of *Max* and the simultaneous elimination of *Myc* and *Mnt*, strongly suggesting the existence of molecular functions of *Myc* that do not require the interaction with *Max*.

Such functions are further supported by the *Myc* allele *dm²* (ref. 33), encoding a *Myc* protein that is truncated before the leucine zipper. This altered *Myc* does not bind to *Max* when ectopically expressed in S2 cells (**Fig. 3a**), consistent with the published requirement for the leucine zipper for the heterodimerization between vertebrate *Myc* and *Max*^{34–36}. Thus, *dm² Mnt¹* mutant flies have lost all *Max*-dependent activities but nevertheless survive better and grow larger than *dm⁴ Mnt¹* mutants, demonstrating that they retain some *Myc* function (**Fig. 3b**). To eliminate any potentially remaining *Myc*-*Max* functions (potentially originating from translational read-through at the premature stop codon in *dm²*), we further combined the *dm² Mnt¹* chromosome with the *Max¹* allele. The resulting *dm² Mnt¹ Max¹* animals show a less severe growth defect than *dm⁴ Mnt¹ Max¹* mutants and form larger pupal cases (**Fig. 3c**), again demonstrating that *Myc* can partially function without binding to *Max*. Nonetheless, *Max¹* mutants grow and survive better than *dm² Mnt¹* mutant animals (**Fig. 3b**), indicating that a substantial part of the *Max*-independent functions of *Myc* requires the presence of the leucine zipper.

Figure 3 C-terminally truncated *Myc* does not interact with *Max* but retains partial function. (a) S2 cells were cotransfected with *Max* and the indicated HA-tagged *Myc* variants. The two top lanes show immunoblots of anti-HA (α -HA) immunoprecipitates probed with anti-HA or anti-*Max* antiserum; the bottom lane shows whole-cell lysates probed with anti-*Max* antiserum. (b) Percentage of larvae of the indicated genotypes (collected at 5 d AED) having undergone metamorphosis at the indicated times; on days 17 and 19, the differences between the *Myc*-mutant genotypes are significant with $P < 0.05$ (2 to 3 independent experiments with a total number of 72 and 155 animals for *dm² Mnt¹* and *dm⁴ Mnt¹*, respectively; the *Max¹* data are the same as shown in **Figure 1d**). (c) Maximal lengths and widths of nine pupal cases per genotype were measured using Adobe Photoshop and their volumes extrapolated by approximating the pupal shape with a cylinder (the difference is highly significant; $P = 1.4 \times 10^{-5}$). Error bars, s.d.



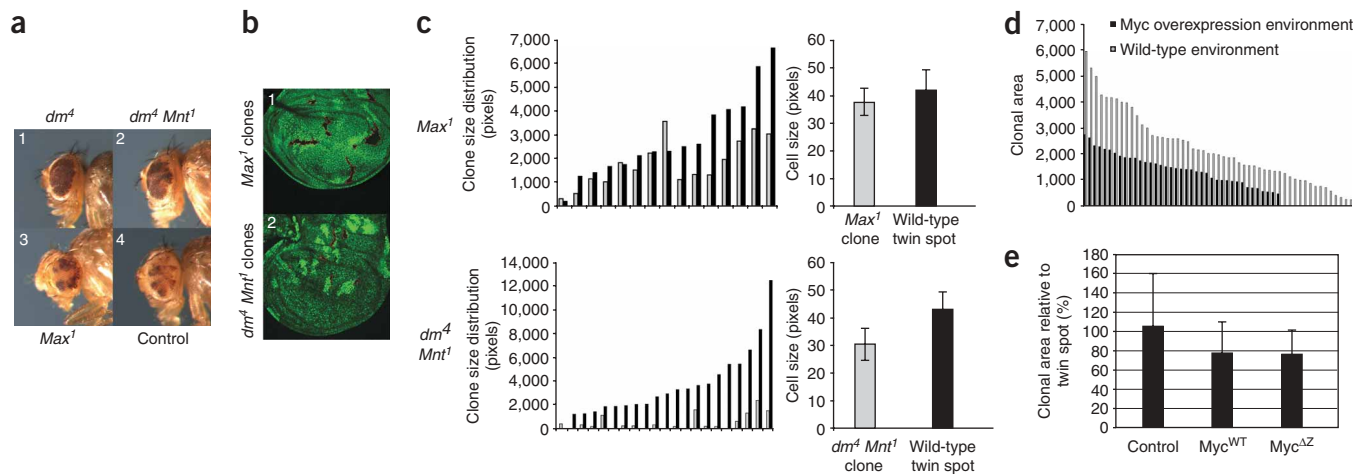


Figure 4 *Max* mutant mitotic clones grow better than *dm Mnt* double-mutant clones. (a) Typical adult eyes generated with the “*ey-FLP cell-lethal*” system, containing patches of homozygous mutant ommatidia (white) and heterozygous tissue (red). (b) Shown are 72-hour-old mutant clones (black and outlined in red, lacking GFP expression) and their wild-type twin spots (bright color, expressing two copies of a *GFP* transgene) in wing imaginal discs from wandering third instar larvae. (c) The left graphs show the size distribution of mutant clones (light bars) and their wild-type twin spots (dark bars); many *dm⁴ Mnt¹* mutant clones do not survive by 72 h after induction, and therefore their twin spots are unaccompanied. The right graphs depict the average size of the cells making up the indicated clones or twin spots, respectively ($n = 15\text{--}20$ clones per sample; twin spot cells differ significantly in size from *dm⁴ Mnt¹* cells ($P = 1.1 \times 10^{-6}$), but not from *Max¹* cells ($P = 0.087$)). (d) Sizes of neutral clones (expressing wild-type levels of Myc) in *Max¹* wing discs that do (dark bars) or do not (light bars) overexpress Myc; the clones in both genotypes are genetically identical, but their surroundings express different levels of Myc. (e) Relative clone areas in discs overexpressing the indicated transgenes (clone area divided by the area of the corresponding twin spot, in percent; average of 20 independent clones per genotype; P values for the comparison with control are 0.064 and 0.045 for Myc^{WT} and Myc^{AZ}, respectively). Error bars, s.d.

Cellular differences between *Max¹* and *dm⁴ Mnt¹* animals

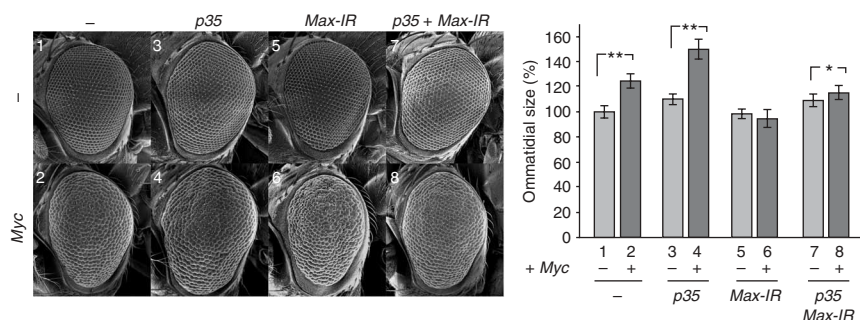
We also observed clear differences between the different genotypes in diploid imaginal disc cells. Normally patterned mosaic eyes could be generated in which *Max¹* homozygous mutant ommatidia occupied a large fraction (using the *ey-FLP cell-lethal* technique³⁷; Fig. 4a) or even the majority of the eye (using the *ey-FLP Minute* technique; Supplementary Fig. 5a), whereas the *dm⁴* or the *dm⁴ Mnt¹* mutant ommatidia only ever occupied a small fraction of such mosaic eyes, and the resulting eyes are always rough (Fig. 4a and Supplementary Fig. 5a). However, occasional bristles produced by *Max¹* homozygous cells are tiny (Supplementary Fig. 5a,b), indicating that Max is essential for the normal development of bristles but not of ommatidia.

We observed similar differences in mitotic clones in the wing disc, where many *dm⁴ Mnt¹* mutant clones are eliminated by cell competition^{20–22} and where the remaining clones are significantly smaller and contain significantly smaller cells than their wild-type sister clones (Fig. 4b,c). In marked contrast, *Max¹* mutant clones persist and are only moderately smaller than their wild-type sister clones, and they are made up of normally sized cells (Fig. 4b,c). These differences

cannot be explained by persisting Max protein because as a consequence of dilution (in average, these clones consist of 47 cells) and degradation (the age of the clones corresponds to more than seven Max half-lives), these clones can only contain negligible amounts of Max protein. These observations confirm the difference between *dm⁴ Mnt¹* and *Max¹* mutants, and they show that cells depleted for Max maintain a normal size and that loss of Max entails less cell competition than loss of Myc.

To further characterize this effect on cell competition, we overexpressed Myc in *Max¹* wing imaginal discs and induced clones of cells lacking the overexpression construct; in a wild-type (*Max⁺*) background, such clones suffer from competition by the surrounding, Myc-overexpressing cells^{20,21}. Similarly, in a *Max¹* background, such clones are smaller than genetically identical control clones of equal age (Fig. 4d), indicating that at least some cell competition takes place in *Max¹* mutants. In further support of this notion, the Myc derivative Myc^{AZ} is capable of inducing cell competition to the same extent as Myc^{WT}, such that clones lacking a ubiquitously expressed Myc^{AZ} transgene in heterozygous wing discs are smaller than similarly aged neutral clones in control wing discs (Fig. 4e). Taken together, these

Figure 5 Myc overexpression in the eye induces growth and apoptosis in a largely Max-dependent and Max-independent manner, respectively. Left panel, scanning electron micrographs of adult eyes overexpressing the indicated transgenes. Right panel, average ommatidial sizes for the corresponding genotypes (percentage of genotype 1). For each bar, the sizes of 20 centrally located ommatidia derived from 6 independent eyes were determined; error bars indicate s.d. Significance of differences between genotypes differing only by the ectopic expression of Myc are denoted; * $P < 0.05$ and ** $P < 0.001$.



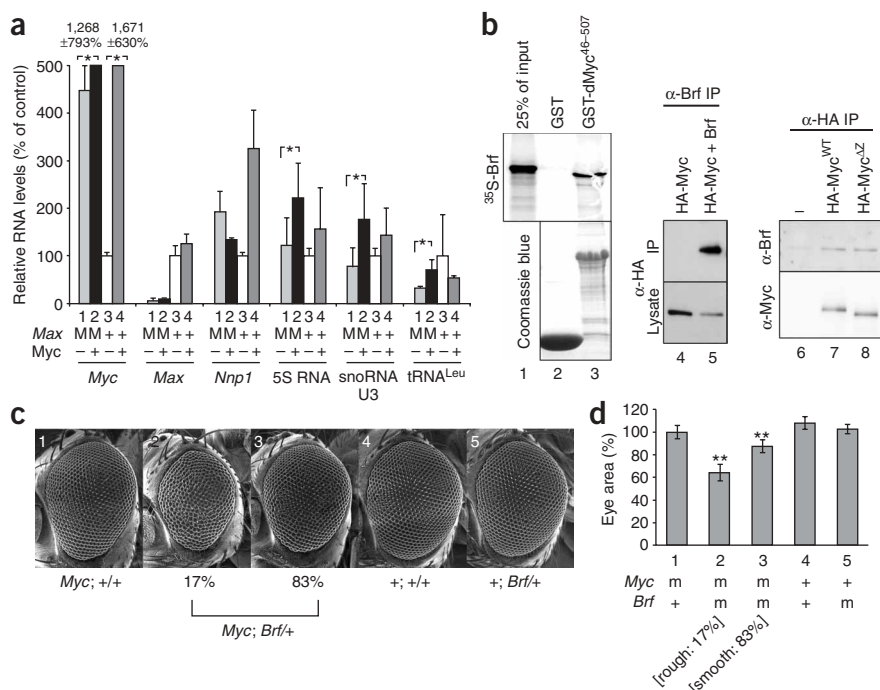


Figure 6 Myc interacts with Brf and can induce RNA Pol III targets independently of Max. **(a)** mRNA levels at 9–11 h after a heat-shock in 4-day-old (*Max*^{1/+}, indicated by “+”) or 5-day-old (*Max*¹, indicated by “M”) larvae ($n = 2–8$ samples; $*P < 0.05$). The low level of signal in the *Max* PCR reaction in the *Max*¹ genotypes results from unspecific amplification (as ascertained by agarose gel electrophoresis). **(b)** Physical interaction of Brf with Myc. Left panels, *in vitro* translated ³⁵S-labeled Brf specifically binds to a GST-Myc^{46–507} (upper panel, lane 3); the lower panel shows the GST proteins from the same gel. Center panels, antibodies to Brf specifically retrieve HA-Myc from S2 cells transfected with both HA-Myc and Brf (lane 5). Right panels, anti-HA immunoprecipitates from S2 cells expressing HA-Myc^{WT} (lane 7) or HA-Myc^{AZ} (lane 8) both contain endogenous Brf protein. **(c)** heterozygosity for *Brf* causes a defect in eyes that are mutant for *Myc* (genotype “*w dm*^{P0} *tub* > *Myc* > *GAL4 ey-FLP*”), as revealed by scanning electron microscopy (eyes labeled *Myc*; *Brf*+/+). Such a defect is only rarely seen in control eyes (labeled “*Myc*; +/+” and “+; *Brf*+/+”, respectively). **(d)** Average eye size ($n = 5–6$ independent eyes; genotype 2: 4 eyes). Samples 2 and 3 have the same genotype, but only eyes in sample 2 have a defective morphology. *t*-tests are indicated for the comparisons between genotypes 1 and 2/3 and between genotypes 4 and 5 with $**P < 0.01$. Error bars, s.d.

and **Supplementary Fig. 6a**; similar effects are observed in a *Mnt*¹ mutant background, indicating that they cannot be ascribed to the loss of Mnt-Max complexes; **Supplementary Fig. 6d**). These latter effects are strongly reduced by co-expression with the viral pan-caspase inhibitor p35, suggesting that they are associated with apoptosis. Simultaneous expression of p35 and interference with *Max* reduces both Myc-induced apoptosis and growth and results in eyes that are (of all genotypes) the most similar to controls (**Fig. 5** and **Supplementary Fig. 6a,b**). Thus, strong overexpression of Myc induces both apoptosis, which is largely independent of Max, and growth, which (to a large extent) requires Max. Consistent with this notion, ectopic expression of Myc^{AZ} cannot increase the size of *dm*⁴-mutant ommatidia but is able to induce apoptosis (**Supplementary Fig. 6e**). Note that moderate Myc overexpression (with one *UAS-Myc* transgene) in wild-type eyes induces no detectable apoptosis but nevertheless a substantial increase in size, which is only partially abolished by RNAi against *Max* (**Supplementary Fig. 6f**), suggesting that the Max-independent functions may also contribute to growth.

Molecular basis of the Max-independent functions of Myc

To characterize the effect of Myc on its transcriptional targets in the absence of Max, we conditionally overexpressed Myc in *Max*¹ animals and analyzed the consequences on target gene expression (see Methods). As expected, mRNA levels for *Myc* are strongly elevated in the genotypes carrying a Myc transgene, and *Max* mRNA levels are undetectable in the *Max*¹ mutants (**Fig. 6a**); endogenous *Myc* levels are also increased in *Max*¹

experiments strongly argue that association with Max is not necessary for Myc-induced cell competition.

Biological activity of Myc in Max-depleted tissues

As a complementary approach to characterize Max-independent functions of Myc, we overexpressed Myc in the eye and simultaneously targeted *Max* with RNA interference; as described in the **Supplementary Note**, *Max-IR* transgenes (expressing dsRNA against *Max*) phenocopy a *Max* mutation—they strongly decrease *Max* mRNA levels, reduce growth and genetically interact with *Myc* mutants (**Supplementary Fig. 3**). Strong overexpression of Myc with *GMR-GAL4* (using three *UAS-Myc* transgenes) has previously been shown to stimulate growth³⁸ and cell-autonomous apoptosis¹⁹ (such ‘cell-autonomous apoptosis’ does not require juxtaposition of cells with different levels of Myc as in cell competition associated apoptosis but only excessive levels of Myc in the apoptotic cell itself; **Fig. 5** and **Supplementary Fig. 6a,b** online). Downregulation of *Max* by RNAi (or by titration of the Max protein; **Supplementary Fig. 6c**) abrogates Myc-induced overgrowth (**Fig. 5**) but does not suppress the associated roughness and the loss of pigment cells (**Fig. 5**

mutants, consistent with the notion that Myc autorepresses its own transcription³⁹ and that Max is required for this process⁶. The E-box-dependent Myc-Max target gene *Nnp-1* (ref. 26) is strongly induced by Myc overexpression in control animals but not in *Max*¹ mutants, demonstrating strict Max dependency of this prototypical Myc target and confirming the absence of functional Max protein in this genotype (the increased *Nnp-1* levels in *Max*¹ mutants may reflect the simultaneous loss of repression by Mnt-Max complexes or the difficulty of comparing absolute transcript levels between *Max*¹ and control larvae). Thus, the Max-independent effects of Myc cannot be explained by the activation of classical, E-box-containing Myc targets. We were unable to identify other Max-independent transcriptional targets of Myc by comparing the genome-wide transcriptomes of S2 cells treated with dsRNA against either *Myc* or *Max* (ref. 26 and data not shown). However, recent publications suggest that vertebrate Myc proteins also control RNA polymerase III targets that are not represented on standard genome-wide microarrays⁴⁰. Indeed, we found that RNAi against *Myc* in S2 cells significantly reduced the levels of the Pol III targets tRNA^{Leu} and snoRNA U3 (ref. 41), as assayed by qRT-PCR (by 27 ± 2% and 34 ± 6%, respectively, as compared to control

cells treated with *gfp*-dsRNA; average \pm s.d. of two biologically independent replicates). Conversely, overexpression of Myc in wild-type larvae induced the expression of the two Pol III targets 5S RNA and snoRNA U3 (Fig. 6a), and they, as well as tRNA^{Leu}, were induced even more efficiently by Myc upon depletion of Max (Fig. 6a). Taken together, these data constitute the first evidence that Myc stimulates Pol III activity in insects and, furthermore, that Myc can do so upon depletion of Max. In addition, Myc is required for the synthesis of rRNA (see above, Fig. 2d)—that is, the stimulation of Pol I. However, this process seems to involve Max, presumably via the Myc–Max-dependent activation of Pol I cofactors such as dTIF-1A²⁹.

In vertebrates, the effect of Myc on Pol III has been shown to be mediated by the TFIIIB-component Brf⁴⁰. Two lines of evidence suggest that the same holds true for *Drosophila*. First, Myc interacts physically with Brf, both *in vitro* and in transiently transfected S2 cells (Fig. 6b). This interaction can be seen with C-terminally truncated forms of Myc that do not bind Max, both in S2 cells and *in vitro* (Fig. 6b). Second, Myc interacts genetically with Brf, as documented for the eye-specific allele *ey>dm^{P0}* (ref. 42). *ey>dm^{P0}* flies⁴² (Fig. 6c,d) develop normally and eclose with phenotypically wild-type eyes that contain slightly smaller ommatidia, but simultaneous heterozygosity for Myc-interacting genes such as *pont* results in a reduction in ommatidial size and number and in marked eye defects⁴². Of note, heterozygosity for *Max^l* does not affect eye development of *dm^{P0}/Y* animals, consistent with the observation that eyes containing large *Max^l* clones develop normally (Fig. 4a and Supplementary Fig. 5a). In contrast, heterozygosity for a *Brf* mutation leads to a statistically significant reduction in eye size (9%; $P = 0.01$) and induces clear eye defects in 17% of the animals, whereas less than 2% of control animals have such defects (Fig. 6c,d). Similar eye defects were also observed with heterozygosity for a deficiency uncovering the *Brf* locus (data not shown). Taken together, these data show that Myc can activate RNA polymerase III without requiring association with Max, and they suggest that this effect is mediated by a direct physical interaction between Myc and the Pol III co-factor Brf.

DISCUSSION

Myc is one of the most potent human proto-oncogenes and growth regulators, and Max has been generally accepted to be an indispensable partner for Myc. In this work, we show that a substantial part of the function of *Drosophila* Myc does not require association with Max. This contention is based on three lines of evidence. First, simultaneous loss of Myc and its only known antagonist, Mnt, (in *dm⁴ Mnt^l* mutants) impairs growth and proliferation at the cellular, tissue and organismal level significantly more than loss of *Max* (in *Max^l* mutants). Second, Myc can activate target genes and trigger biological responses even upon depletion of Max. Third, an altered Myc lacking the leucine zipper retains some biological activity, even though it is incapable of binding to Max. These observations cannot be attributed to maternally deposited Max protein—the massive reduction of total RNA in young *Max^l* larvae indicates that Max levels are already strongly reduced at this early time point. Furthermore, clear differences between *dm⁴ Mnt^l* and *Max^l* animals (with respect to organismal growth, cell competition, growth and proliferation of polyploid tissues and of mitotic clones) are manifest at much later times of development when no more *Max* mRNA can be detected and (given its short half-life) most Max protein must have decayed.

These observations strongly argue that Myc can support development to pharate adult stage even upon depletion of Max, which

contrasts with the early requirement for Max in mice¹⁴. We believe that these different outcomes reflect the developmental flexibility of flies, which respond to the growth defect imposed by the loss of Max by extending their development by at least three days, rather than molecular differences between mammalian and insect Myc proteins. Indeed, *Drosophila* Myc and vertebrate c-Myc can largely substitute for each other, and two recent studies in tissue culture also raised the possibility of Max-independent functions of Myc in vertebrates^{43,44}.

The observation that mutant Myc lacking the C terminus can only partially substitute for wild-type Myc suggests that Myc acts in different Max-independent protein complexes, some of which require the Myc C terminus whereas others do not. The identity of other partners for the C terminus of Myc are currently unknown, but several candidate proteins have been described in vertebrate systems (reviewed by ref. 45). However, our work reveals one partially C terminus-independent activity of Myc: we show that Myc can induce the expression of RNA polymerase III targets; this effect is presumably mediated by an interaction between the RNA Pol III co-factor Brf and a part of the Myc protein that does not include the C terminus. Thus, like its vertebrate counterparts, Myc controls all three RNA polymerases and thereby coordinates the production of ribosome components.

Although at present we can only speculate about the relative importance of the different branches of Myc-dependent processes, our experiments have shown several biological processes that can take place (to a large extent) upon depletion of Max, such as cell-autonomous cell death caused by Myc overexpression in the eye, the development of ommatidial precursor cells, endoreplication of polyploid larval cells, cell competition and the control of cell size. This observation comes as a surprise, as the well-characterized Myc–Max targets have been generally assumed to drive growth and possibly endoreplication. Given the functional conservation of Myc in evolution, we consider it likely that many activities of vertebrate Myc will also not require association with Max.

METHODS

Myc protein derivatives. For ectopic expression of Myc in S2 cells, we cloned a cDNA coding for full-length Myc containing an N-terminal triple HA-tag into the vector pUASTattB⁴⁶. The mutant derivative lacking the leucine zipper (HA-Myc^{ΔZ}, containing a multiple HA-epitope tag and Myc amino acids 1 to 675; the stop codon is in the same position as in the *dm²* allele) was expressed from an analogous construct.

To express HA-Myc^{WT} or HA-Myc^{ΔZ} ubiquitously *in vivo*, the same cDNAs were cloned under the control of the *αTub84B* promoter in pBSattB or under the control of UAS-sites in pUASTattB and integrated into the attP site zh86Fb⁴⁶; for control purposes, a transgenic line was established containing the empty vector pBSattB at zh86Fb. All sequences are available on request.

Fly culture. Flies were kept on standard *Drosophila* medium. Test crosses were performed in climate-controlled chambers at 25 °C.

Phenotypic analysis. To determine survival rates, 6–10 h egg lays were typically performed on apple agar plates supplemented with yeast paste. At 48 h AED, we transferred defined numbers of larvae to tubes containing standard fly food and determined their survival rates at the indicated time points. For photography, we first froze larvae and then photographed them using a Zeiss AxioCam HRC camera attached to a Zeiss Stemi SV 11 microscope.

Adult fly eyes were recorded on a JEOL JSM-6360 LV scanning electron microscope at $\times 180$ magnification. We determined the area of 20 central ommatidia (from at least 5 independent eyes per genotype) using Adobe Photoshop. Fusions of two ommatidia were counted as two individual ommatidia. We determined eye sizes by multiplying the number of ommatidia in individual eyes (as counted from scanning electron micrographs) with average ommatidial size (as measured in the same eye).

Clonal analysis. For a description of the *ey-FLP* system, see ref. 47.

For mitotic clones in wing discs, 6 h egg lays were performed on standard food, 15–30 min heat shocks (in a 37° water bath) were given at 48 h AED, and larvae dissected and fixed 72 h later. Expression of *hs-GFP* was induced by a 1 h heat-shock 3 h before dissection. Wing discs were recorded on a Leica SP2 confocal microscope (at $\times 40$). Clonal areas and cell sizes (calculated from clonal areas and from the counts of nuclei) were determined with Adobe Photoshop. The frequency of surviving 72 h old clones was determined from 24 and 106 twin spots for *dm⁴ Mnt¹* and *Max¹*, respectively.

To assess cell competition in a *Max¹* background, we subjected *Max¹* larvae carrying the *tub>Myc>GAL4* (“>” indicating an FRT site) or the *actin>CD2>GAL4* transgene to heat shock for 12 min and 5 min, respectively, in a 37° water bath at 120 h AED and dissected them at 216 h AED. Clones (53 from 14 discs for *act>CD2>GAL4*; 39 from 6 discs for *tub>Myc>GAL4*) were photographed (at $\times 10$) on a Leica DMRA compound microscope.

Microscopy. Larval imaginal discs and polyploid tissues were dissected, fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde in PBS for 15 min and washed in PBS three times for 10 min. We visualized nuclei with 0.5 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ Hoechst 33342 included in the second washing step. Wing discs were mounted in Vectashield mounting solution.

Molecular analysis. To extract RNA, we homogenized larvae (12 to 20 larvae per sample for qRT-PCR) for 1 min in 1 ml of TRIZOL reagent (Invitrogen) with a Polytron tissue homogenizer. The homogenate was frozen at -80°C for at least 1 d and then processed according to the manufacturer’s protocol. We then redissolved the precipitated RNA in 20 μl ddH₂O and determined its concentration with a Nanodrop ND-1000 spectrophotometer.

We removed contaminating genomic DNA by treatment with the TURBO DNA-free kit (Ambion), and analyzed the purified RNA on a Bioanalyzer chip (Agilent). cDNA was synthesized from 1 μg of template RNA per sample using the Omniscript Reverse Transcription Kit (Qiagen) and random hexamer primers. Parallel control reactions containing only RNA provided templates for “-RT” samples. We carried out qRT-PCR reactions in triplicates on an ABI 7900 Real Time PCR Instrument (Applied Biosystems) using the SYBR GREEN PCR Master Mix (Applied Biosystems). Data were analyzed with SDS 2.0 software (Applied Biosystems) and Microsoft Excel, using the $\Delta\Delta\text{Ct}$ method and the expression level of *Act5C* as an internal reference for each biological sample. Primer sequences and PCR conditions are described in the **Supplementary Methods** online.

Characterization of Myc targets in *Max¹* larvae. We induced ubiquitous Myc overexpression in 4.3- to 5.2-day-old *Max¹* larvae (at a stage where *Max* is undetectable) by giving a strong heat-shock to *hs-FLP actin>CD2>GAL4 UAS-Myc Max¹* larvae. Such a treatment triggers expression of GAL4 and hence expression of Myc in virtually all cells; these animals will continue their development and ultimately die during metamorphosis. To minimize indirect consequences of Myc activation, we extracted and processed total RNA as described above at 9 to 11 h after the induction of Myc and then analyzed it by qRT-PCR. As controls, we used identically treated animals that lacked the Myc transgene and/or were heterozygous for *Max¹*.

In vitro interaction. Full-length Brf (*Drosophila* Gold Collection clone LD32109 in pOT2a) was *in vitro* translated in 25 μl TNT lysate (Promega) according to the manufacturer’s instructions, in the presence of 15 μCi ³⁵S-labeled methionine (GE Amersham). GST and GST-Myc⁴⁶⁻⁵⁰⁷ were produced in bacteria and bound to glutathione beads (detailed protocol available upon request), resuspended in 260 μl Binding Buffer (200 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 1 mM DTT, 0.5% NP-40, 10% glycerol, Complete Mini Protease inhibitors (Roche)) and incubated with 10 μl of *in vitro* translation mixture for 2–3 h at 4°. After four washes in Wash Buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0), 200 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 1 mM DTT, 0.5% NP-40), bead-bound proteins were analyzed by SDS-PAGE, followed by Coomassie blue staining (to reveal the GST proteins) and exposure to a phosphorimager (to detect the radio-labeled Brf).

Tissue culture experiments. *Drosophila* Schneider S2 cells were cultured and transfected as previously described⁴². Briefly, 5×10^6 cells in a 3.5-cm well were transfected in 1 ml of serum-free medium with 10 μl Cellfectin (Gibco) and 10 μg plasmid DNA, containing 3.3–4 μg tubulin-GAL4 and the balance in UAS-plasmids; 16–17 h after transfection, the cells were re-fed with complete medium. After 24–48 h, we lysed the cells in lysis buffer (250 mM NaCl, 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0), 5 mM EDTA, 0.5% NP-40) containing a cocktail of protease inhibitors (Roche). After incubation on ice for 30–60 min, the lysates were precleared with protein G-sepharose beads, then incubated with primary antibodies for 3–6 h at 4°, followed by another incubation with protein G-sepharose beads for 1–2 h. We then washed the beads 3–5 \times with lysis buffer and resuspended them in SDS-PAGE sample buffer, and analyzed the equivalent of 40–50% of each well by SDS-PAGE followed by immunoblotting. Antibodies for immunoprecipitations were mouse anti-HA (Covance) or rabbit anti-Brf⁴⁸; primary antibodies for protein blotting were rabbit anti-HA (Roche) or mouse anti-Myc⁴⁹, rabbit anti-Brf⁴⁸, mouse anti-Max.

Reagents. Sources of original fly lines are indicated in the **Supplementary Table 1** online; Brf^{c07161} is caused by a piggyBac insertion in the third intron. Anti-Myc antibodies were first described by Prober and Edgar⁵⁰; anti-Brf was a gift from S. Takada (MD Anderson)⁴⁸.

Fly genotypes used in the figures. **Figure 1:** panel b, “y w”, “y w; *Max¹*” and “y w; *Max¹/TM3, Ser y⁺*” (as control for pharates); panel c, “Oregon R” and “w; *Max¹*”; panel d, “w; *Max¹*”.

Figure 2: panel a, “Oregon R” (1); “w; *Max¹*” (2); “w *dm⁴ Mnt¹/Y*” (3); “w *dm⁴ Mnt¹/Y; Max¹*” (4); “w *dm⁴/Y; Max¹*” (5); “w *dm⁴/Y*” (6); panels b and c: “y w”, “w; *Max¹*”, “w *dm⁴ Mnt¹/Y*”; panel d, “w *dm⁴ Mnt¹/Y*”, “w; *Max¹*” (23–39 h AED) and “y w/Y, y⁺; *Max¹*” (120 h AED), “y w”.

Figure 3: panel b, “w; *Max¹*”, “w *dm⁴ Mnt¹/Y*”, “y w *dm² Mnt¹/Y*”; panel c, “y w *dm² Mnt¹/Y; Max¹*”, “w *dm⁴ Mnt¹/Y; Max¹*”.

Figure 4: panel a, “w *dm⁴ FRT19/y cl^{15b} FRT19; Sp/ey-FLP*” (1); “w *dm⁴ Mnt¹ FRT19/y cl^{15b} FRT19; Sp/ey-FLP*” (2); “y w *ey-FLP/Y; Max¹ FRT80/cl^{15b} FRT80*” (3); “y w *FRT19/y cl^{15b} FRT19; ey-FLP/+*” (4); panels b and c, “w *dm⁴ Mnt¹ FRT19/y w hs-GFP FRT19 hs-FLP*”, “y w *hs-FLP; Max¹ FRT80/ubi-GFP FRT80*”; panel d, “y w *hs-FLP; actin>CD2>GAL4 UAS-GFP Max¹/Max¹*” (light bars), “y w *tub>Myc>GAL4 hs-FLP; UAS-GFP/+; Max¹*” (dark bars); panel e, “y w *hs-FLP/y w; FRT82B (zh86Fa)/FRT82B ubi-GFP*” (empty vector control), “y w *hs-FLP/y w; FRT82B tub-Myc^{WT}(zh86Fa)/FRT82B ubi-GFP*”, “y w *hs-FLP/y w; FRT82B tub-Myc^{AZ}(zh86Fa)/FRT82B ubi-GFP*”.

Figure 5: “y w/Y; GMR-GAL4/+” (1); “y w/Y; GMR-GAL4 UAS-Myc^{132/+}; UAS-Myc¹³ UAS-Myc^{42/+}” (2); “y w/Y; GMR-GAL4/+; UAS-p35/+” (3); “y w/Y; GMR-GAL4 UAS-Myc^{132/+}; UAS-Myc¹³ UAS-Myc⁴²/UAS-p35” (4); “y w/Y; GMR-GAL4/UAS-Max-IR²⁻⁷” (5); “y w/Y; GMR-GAL4 UAS-Myc¹³²/UAS-Max-IR²⁻⁷; UAS-Myc¹³ UAS-Myc^{42/+}” (6); “y w/Y; GMR-GAL4/UAS-Max-IR²⁻⁷; UAS-p35/+” (7); “y w/Y; GMR-GAL4 UAS-Myc¹³²/UAS-Max-IR²⁻⁷; UAS-Myc¹³ UAS-Myc⁴²/UAS-p35” (8).

Figure 6: panel a, “y w *hs-FLP; actin>CD2>GAL4 UAS-GFP Max¹/Max¹*” (1); “y w *hs-FLP; UAS-Myc^{132/+}; actin>CD2>GAL4 UAS-GFP Max¹/Max¹*” (2); “y w *hs-FLP; actin>CD2>GAL4 UAS-GFP Max¹/+*” (3); “y w *hs-FLP; UAS-Myc^{132/+}; actin>CD2>GAL4 UAS-GFP Max¹/+*” (4). Panel c, “w *dm^{P0} tub>Myc>GAL4 ey-FLP/Y*” (1); “w *dm^{P0} tub>Myc>GAL4 ey-FLP/Y; Brf^{c07161/+}*” (2,3); “w *dm^{rev} tub>Myc>GAL4 ey-FLP/Y*”; (4); “w *dm^{rev} tub>Myc>GAL4 ey-FLP/Y; Brf^{c07161/+}*” (5). Panel d, as in c.

Note: Supplementary information is available on the Nature Genetics website.

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