Moonlighting α-PheRS connects JAK/STAT with Notch signaling to modulate intestinal homeostasis

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Keywords: aminoacyl tRNA synthetase, Notch signaling, JAK/STAT signaling, stem cell, differentiation, proliferation, intestinal tumor

Author contributions: T.H., J.L. and B.S. conceived the ideas and designed the experiments. T.H. conducted most experiments and performed the analysis of the results. J.L. performed the loss-of-function experiments of PheRS and the mTOR signaling tests, the adult wing measurements and the FACS analysis, including analyzing their data. T.H., J.L. and B.S. wrote the manuscript.

Summary / Abstract

Aminoacyl tRNA synthetases (aaRSs) not only load the appropriate amino acid onto their cognate tRNA, many of them perform additional functions that are not necessarily related to their canonical activities. Phenylalanyl tRNA synthetase (PheRS/FARS) levels are elevated in multiple cancers and, interestingly, also in normal stem cells. Our results show that elevated expression of the α-PheRS subunit stimulates cell proliferation in different tissues, while downregulation of *α-PheRS* reduces organ size. The stimulation of proliferation is independent of the β-PheRS subunit and the aminoacylation activity, and it does not visibly stimulate translation. Furthermore, stem cell-specific overexpression of *α-PheRS* caused a tumor phenotype in the intestine, a phenotype indistinguishable from the *Notch* RNAi phenotype in the same cells. Genetic interactions between *α-PheRS* and *Notch* suggest that their activities neutralize each other and that elevated α-PheRS levels attenuate Notch signaling whether Notch induces differentiation into enterocytes or neuroblast stem cell proliferation. Indeed, in the wing discs system, elevated α-PheRS levels suppress *Notch* transcriptional activity. α-PheRS therefore seems to act as a general regulator of Notch signaling, and its own levels are in turn controlled by Stat92E, the transcription factor of the JAK/STAT signaling pathway that is needed for the differentiation of intestinal stem cells during tissue homeostasis under normal conditions. From this we conclude that the α-PheRS subunit can transmit the activity status of the JAK/STAT pathway to the Notch pathway as a mechanism to coordinate stem cell proliferation with differentiation. In this process, α-PheRS levels balance between tissue development and tissue growth to regulate tissue homeostasis.

Introduction

Many cancer tissues display higher levels of Phenylalanyl-tRNA synthetase (PheRS, FARS or FRS) than their healthy counterparts according to the database "Gene Expression across Normal and Tumor tissue" (GENT2; published 2019) (Park et al., 2019). Interestingly, a correlation between tumorigenic events and PheRS expression levels had been noted already much earlier for the development of myeloid leukemia (Sen et al., 1997). Despite this, a possible causative connection between elevated PheRS levels and tumor formation had so far not been reported and, to our knowledge, also not been studied. This might have been due to the assumption that higher PheRS levels could simply reflect the demand of tumorigenic cells for higher levels of translation, or it could have to do with the difficulty of studying the moonlighting function of a protein that is essential in every cell for basic cellular functions such as translation.

Aminoacyl-tRNA synthetases (aaRSs) are important enzymes that act by charging transfer RNAs (tRNAs) with their cognate amino acid, a key process for protein translation. This activity makes them essential for accurately translating the genetic information into a polypeptide chain (Schimmel and Soll, 1979). Besides their well-known role in translation, an increasing number of aaRSs have been found to perform additional functions in the cytoplasm, the nucleus and even outside of the cell (Guo and Schimmel, 2013; Nathanson and Deutscher, 2000; Smirnova et al., 2012) (Casas-Tinto et al., 2015; Gomard-Mennesson et al., 2007; Greenberg et al., 2008; Otani et al., 2002; Zhou et al., 2014). Moonlighting aaRSs regulate alternative splicing, RNA processing and angiogenesis (Lee et al., 2004). For example, the amino-acid binding site of LysRS has an immune response activity; or TrpRS inhibits the vascular endothelial (VE)-cadherin and through this elicits an anti-angiogenesis activity (Tzima et al., 2005; Yannay-Cohen et al., 2009).

Cytoplasmic PheRS is one of the most complex members of the aaRSs family, a

heterotetrameric protein consisting of 2 alpha- (α) and 2 beta (β)-subunits responsible for

charging tRNA^{Phe} during translation (Roy and Ibba, 2006). The α subunit includes the catalytic

core of the tRNA synthetase and the β subunit has structural modules with a wide range of

functions, including tRNA anticodon binding, hydrolyzing mis-activated amino acids, and

editing misaminoacylated tRNA^{Phe} species (Ling et al., 2007; Lu et al., 2014; Roy and Ibba,

2006). Importantly, both subunits are needed for aminoacylation of tRNA^{Phe}.

We set out to address the question whether and how elevated levels of PheRS can

contribute to tumor formation. To test for this activity, we studied the role of PheRS levels in

the Drosophila model system with the goal of dissecting the molecular mechanism of such a

moonlighting role of *PheRS*. We found that α-PheRS levels regulate cell proliferation, cell

differentiation or both in different tissues and cell types. Interestingly, elevated levels of α-

PheRS do not simply allow higher levels of translation; α-PheRS performs its moonlighting

function by modulating differentiation and proliferation independent of the β-PheRS subunit

and aminoacylation activity. Although the consequences of altered levels vary to some degree

between tissues, we found that even in two tissues with the most divergent consequences, α-

PheRS levels act by repressing the Notch signaling pathway, suggesting that this regulative

mechanism is responsible for all moonlighting activities of α-PheRS described here. α-PheRS

levels, in turn, are controlled by JAK/STAT signaling in the intestinal system, placing α-PheRS

at the intersection between two signaling pathways for the fine tuning of normal tissue

homeostasis in the midgut. Focusing on the intestine and intestinal stem cells revealed that

elevated α-PheRS levels are tumorigenic in the intestinal model. Given the high demand for

research on intestinal diseases and cancer (Markowitz and Bertagnolli, 2009) our work now

opens new avenues to test ways to control tissue homeostasis and tumor formation.

Results

A non-canonical α-PheRS activity is sufficient to induce additional M-phase cells

To test whether elevated levels of PheRS can stimulate growth or proliferation when other aaRSs are not overexpressed, we overexpressed α-PheRS, β-PheRS, and both subunits together in the posterior compartment (P) of wing discs using the *engrailed-Gal4* (*en-Gal4*) driver. In this assay the anterior compartment expresses normal endogenous levels and serves as an internal control. When α-PheRS was overexpressed in the posterior compartment either alone or together with β-PheRS, the mitotic marker phospho-histone H3 (PH3) revealed a 40% increase in mitotic cells in the posterior (P) compartment relative to the anterior (A) one of the same disc (Fig 1A-C). Because elevated levels of the α-PheRS subunit alone are sufficient for the increase in mitotic cells, this effect is unlikely mediated by increased tRNA^{Phe} aminoacylation, which requires both subunits.

To test this interpretation, we made a mutant version of α-PheRS in which Tyr412 and Phe438 are replaced by cysteins (Cys). These substitutions are predicted to block the entrance into the phenylalanine binding pocket, preventing binding of Phe and aminoacylation of tRNA^{Phe} by the mutant PheRS^{Cys} (Finarov et al., 2010). To test whether the PheRS^{Cys} substitution indeed reduces the aminoacylation activity of PheRS, we expressed mutant and wild-type α-PheRS subunits together with β-PheRS subunits in E. coli, purified them and performed aminoacylation assays. α-PheRS^{Cys} together with wild-type β-PheRS produced the same background signal as the α-PheRS subunit alone, and this signal was clearly lower than the one obtained with wild-type α-PheRS plus β-PheRS (Supplementary Fig S1). The Drosophila cytoplasmic *α-PheRS* gene is localized on the X chromosome. A P-element insertion into the 5'-untranslated region of the α-PheRS transcript (*α-PheRS^{G2060}*) causes

recessive lethality that can be rescued by a genomic copy of wild-type α-*PheRS* (*gα-PheRS*)

that supports aminoacylation (Lu et al., 2014). A genomic copy of the aminoacylation defective

α-*PheRS*^{Cys}, *gα-PheRS*^{Cys} did not rescue the lethality of the α-*PheRS*^{G2060} mutant, indicating

that the Cys mutant is indeed not functional in aminoacylation in vivo in Drosophila. Despite

this apparently lack of aminoacylation activity, overexpressing a transgenic α-*PheRS*^{Cys} in the

posterior compartment of the wing disc also caused a 67% increase in the number of mitotic

cells in the above assay (Fig 1C). The fact that the mutant α-*PheRS*^{Cys} version caused an

increase in mitotic cells at least as strongly as the wild-type α-*PheRS,* together with the fact

that β-PheRS overexpression was not needed for this effect, clearly demonstrates that

proliferation can be enhanced without increasing the canonical function of PheRS, suggesting

that a non-canonical signal emanating from α-PheRS or α-PheRS^{Cys} is capable of inducing

proliferation or over-proliferation.

We also tested directly whether PheRS overexpression is unable to cause elevated

translation as we expected. For this, we analyzed protein synthesis activity in the two wing

compartments by puromycin staining using the ribopuromycylation method (RPM) (Deliu et

al., 2017). Overexpression of the transcription factor dMyc increases protein synthesis activity

and was therefore used as a positive control for the detection of elevated translation and PMY

labeling (Deliu et al., 2017). Indeed, when comparing signal intensity between the posterior

and the anterior compartment of the same disc, dMyc overexpression significantly increased

the anti-PMY signal in the expressing posterior compartment. In contrast, neither

overexpression of α-PheRS alone nor combined with β-PheRS increased the puromycin

labeling in the overexpressing compartment (Fig 1D-E'', F). The combined results therefore

demonstrate unambiguously that elevated α-PheRS levels cause additional cells to be in mitosis

through an aminoacylation- and translation-independent, non-canonical activity. Such elevated

α-PheRS levels might specifically slow down progression through M-phase, causing higher

activity. It is tempting to speculate that the slightly lower increase in proliferation upon

overexpressing the mutant *α-PheRS^{Cys}* (28%) in twin spot clones compared to wild-type *α-*

PheRS (30%) could be due to reduced translation caused by the overexpression of an inactive

α subunit that is predicted to partially act as a dominant negative subunit for the aminoacylation

function. If the proliferation function is important for development and homeostasis, reduced

α-PheRS activity should affect growth and development. Because *α-PheRS* and *β-PheRS* are

both essential genes in Drosophila (Lu et al., 2014), we used RNAi to reduce their activity in

specific tissues by RNAi (Fig S4A,B). Indeed, knock down in the developing eye reduced the

adult eye, whereas knockdown in the larval fat body reduced the size of the entire pupae.

Furthermore, RNAi knockdown *α-PheRS* or *β-PheRS* in Kc cells caused these cells to

proliferate more slowly than the control cells (Fig S4C). Although it is not clear from these

results, which activity of PheRS causes this effect, the phenotypes observed are consistent with

a direct function in regulating proliferation.

Elevated α-PheRS levels lead to mis-regulation of gut homeostasis by downregulating

Notch signaling and inhibiting the terminal differentiation of EBs

Tissue growth and homeostasis play important roles in developing and outgrown animals, and

they require tight control of stem cell self-renewal and differentiation into daughter cells. The

Drosophila midgut is a powerful model to analyze these mechanisms and their interplay.

Intestinal stem cells (ISCs) and adult midgut progenitors (AMPs) in the larval gut can either

divide asymmetrically or symmetrically (Jiang and Edgar, 2011; Micchelli, 2012). Asymmetric

divisions of ISCs give rise to a new ISC and a Su(H)GBE⁺ enteroblast (EB) for the enterocyte

(EC) lineage differentiation, or to a pre-enteroendocrine cell (pre-EE) for the enteroendocrine

(EE) cell lineage differentiation (Furriols and Bray, 2001; Guo et al., 2016). Differential

numbers of cells to remain in the PH3-positive state. Alternatively, they might either promote

over-proliferation of mitotic cells or induce proliferation in non-cycling cells.

The *α-PheRS* subunit accelerates proliferation in different tissues and its knockdown

reduces organ size

To test the effects of PheRS levels on proliferation directly and in additional cell types, we set

up a mosaic analysis with repressible cell marker (MARCM; (Wu and Luo, 2006) assays in the

follicle cells. Twin spot clones were generated with one clone overexpressing PheRS and the

GFP marker, and its twin clone expressing normal endogenous levels of PheRS and serving as

an internal control (Fig 2A). The results of this experiment showed that clonal overexpression

of both subunits of PheRS accelerated the proliferation of the overexpressing cells on average

by 32% (Fig 2B). Overexpression of GFP with only the β-PheRS subunit or with GlyRS did

not significantly promote clonal expansion (Fig 2B), confirming that the stimulation of growth

and proliferation is specific for PheRS and not a general role of aaRSs. Interestingly,

overexpression of GFP with the α-PheRS subunit alone also stimulated cell proliferation

autonomously by 30% (Fig 2B) and, intriguingly, this was very close to the 32% increase

calculated for the clone overexpressing both PheRS subunits (Fig 2B). Remarkably, the higher

number of mitotic cells observed upon α-PheRS overexpression in the posterior compartment

of the larval wing discs (Fig 1C) was in a comparable range as the proliferation increase in the

follicle cell assay (Fig 2B). These results therefore suggest that α-PheRS levels promote cell

proliferation and that it has this activity in different tissues.

Overexpression of *α-PheRS^{Cys}* alone and *α-PheRS^{Cys}* together with *β-PheRS (PheRS^{Cys})*

stimulated clonal growth and cell proliferation in the follicle cell twin spot experiment by 28%

and 25%, respectively (Fig 2B), again confirming that this is an aminoacylation-independent

Delta/Notch signaling between the ISC and its daughter causes the latter to either differentiate

into an absorptive EC lineage or a secretory EE linage by distinct mechanisms (Beehler-Evans

and Micchelli, 2015; Micchelli and Perrimon, 2006; Ohlstein and Spradling, 2007; Zeng and

Hou, 2015). EBs are intermediate differentiating cells that differentiate into ECs in a Notch-

dependent manner (Ohlstein and Spradling, 2006), while the production of EEs has not been

molecularly characterized, but the pre-EEs requires only low levels of Notch signaling (Guo et

al., 2016). We investigated the effect of overexpression of the α-PheRS$^{(Cys)}$ subunit in adult

midguts by using the *esg-Gal4, tub-Gal80^{ts}, UAS-2XEYFP* (referred to as *esg^{ts}*) system

(Micchelli and Perrimon, 2006), which allows specific and conditional activation of α-

PheRS$^{(Cys)}$ expression in ISCs and EBs by temperature-shift control. Co-expression of *UAS-*

2XEYFP allowed us to monitor the activity of the *esg-Gal4* driver. We observed cellular

changes in these stem cells as early as 2 days after induction and the phenotypes became more

pronounced until day 5, when the elevated α-PheRS$^{(Cys)}$ levels had caused the total numbers of

YFP$^+$ cells to increase 4.3 fold for the wild type and 4.7 fold for the α-PheRS^{Cys} mutant (Fig

S5; Figure 3A-C''',I). This hyperaccumulation of proliferative cells was also accompanied by

the formation of tumors composed of ISCs and EBs (Fig 3H). These tumors included

proliferating ISCs (YFP$^+$, diploid nuclei) and "differentiating" EBs (YFP$^+$, apparently

polyploid nuclei). Differentiating EBs were rarely observed in wild-type midguts (3% of

progenitor cells; Fig 3 A-A''',J) and these retained only weak YFP signals. The midgut with

high levels of α-PheRS$^{(Cys)}$ showed a significant increase of "differentiating" EBs (20% and

22%, respectively, of progenitor cells) and these expressed a strong *esg>YFP* signal (Fig 3B-

C''',I,J). Consistent with previous results, the frequency of strong EB tumors was the highest

(76%) in the α-PheRS^{Cys} overexpressing guts (Fig 3C-C''',H). In conclusion, elevated α-

PheRS$^{(Cys)}$ levels lead to an increase in the numbers of progenitor cells (ISCs and EBs) and

tumor formation in the adult midgut, and this phenotype is independent of the aminoacylation

activity of PheRS.

The increase of the midgut progenitor cells (ISCs and EBs) could be a consequence of

a differentiation problem of ISCs (Lian et al., 2018; Mundorf et al., 2019). Indeed, we also

observed a change in the ratio of EEs / ECs from 0.1 in the wild type to 0.8 in the *α-PheRS*

overexpressing midguts, resulting from counting the cell population in wild type (8% EEs, 68%

ECs) and *α-PheRS* overexpressing posterior midguts, which contained 12% EEs and 14% ECs

(Figure 3K,L).

Several observations indicate that Notch signaling is one of the important signaling

pathways for terminal differentiation. We observed that the change in ISC proliferation and

EE/EC ratio is similar to the low Notch activity phenotype that had been reported in several

studies (Guo and Ohlstein, 2015; Liu et al., 2010; Marianes and Spradling, 2013; Micchelli and

Perrimon, 2006; Ohlstein and Spradling, 2007). We confirmed the phenotype by knocking

down *Notch* with RNAi treatment with the same *esg^ts* system and confirmed the similarity

between Notch knockdown and *α-PheRS* overexpression (Figure 3D-D''',I,L). It is also

important to note that the kinetics with which this phenotype developed was the same as for

the RNAi knockdown of *N* (Fig S5).

We also observed that *α-PheRS* overexpression inhibited the terminal differentiation of

progenitors into ECs upon Notch over-activation (Figure 3E-F'''). It has been shown that

upregulation of Notch signaling by overexpressing the continuous active form of Notch (Notch

intracellular domain – N^ICD) would drive ISCs to differentiate into ECs, thereby depleting the

ISC pool in wild type adult midguts (Figure 3E-E''') (Micchelli and Perrimon, 2006; Zhai et

al., 2017). The overexpression of *α-PheRS* in the Notch over-activation background rescued

the ISC pool even beyond the wild type levels (Figure 3F-F''',M). This would also explain the

high number of YFP[+] "differentiating" EBs in midguts overexpressing *α-PheRS* alone (Figure

3B-B"'). Compared to the wild type EBs, these EBs had a larger cell size and polyploid DNA,

indicating that they were in the process of differentiating. The overexpression of *α-PheRS* in

these progenitor cells increased the number of "differentiating" EBs by preventing them from

undergoing terminal differentiation. Altogether, the high levels of *α-PheRS* induce the ISC and

EB tumor phenotype by not only increasing ISC proliferation, but also arresting EBs in their

undifferentiated stage.

Larval Drosophila midguts possess AMPs as the temporary reserve for adult ISCs.

AMPs go through several divisions to form imaginal midgut islets that include AMPs enclosed

by a peripheral cell (PC) (Mathur et al., 2010). Due to the transient period of the larval stage,

larval midguts do not require EC renewal under normal conditions (Lee and Lee, 2019).

However, Houtz et al. reported recently that larval guts can respond to certain damages and

injuries by triggering a regenerative process to compensate for depleted ECs in the epithelium

and also to allow reconstitution of AMPs (Houtz et al., 2019). We investigated the effect of

overexpression of each PheRS subunit in larval AMPs by using the *esg-Gal4, UAS-2XEYFP*

driver, which is specifically expressed in AMPs. Co-expression of *UAS-2XEYFP* allowed us

to monitor the activity of the *esg-Gal4* driver. The results demonstrated that overexpression of

Myc::α-PheRS in the larval midgut significantly increased the proportion of PH3 positive cells

(mitotic index) in the posterior midgut (Fig 4A-B', E). Driving the expression of the α-

PheRS[Cys] mutant alone in AMPs also produced a higher mitotic index (Fig 4 C-C',E),

indicating again that the aminoacylation function is not required for this activity. Due to lack

of epithelial renewal in larval guts, the cell density of larval midguts is usually stable (Lee and

Lee, 2019; Mathur et al., 2010). It is therefore surprising that elevated α-PheRS or α-PheRS[Cys]

levels increase the cell density in larval midguts (Fig 4F). Altogether, these results showed that

elevated α-PheRS$^{(Cys)}$ levels cause AMPs to proliferate and to differentiate, producing

additional larval midgut cells.

Strikingly, elevated α-PheRS^{Cys} levels induced a tumor phenotype in both anterior and

posterior areas of the larval midgut (outlined with white dashed lines, Fig 4C-C') while the

overexpression of wild-type Myc::α-PheRS only gave rise to high numbers of AMPs in the

posterior larval midgut (Fig 4B-B'). Interestingly, elevated α-PheRS^{Cys} levels also caused the

appearance of a more severe tumor phenotype, where individual AMP islets could not be

discerned anymore (Fig 4C-C'). Wild-type larval guts contain ECs with large nuclei and

interspersed occasional AMP islets with smaller nuclei (as seen in the YFP overexpression

control, Fig 4A-A'). In contrast, we observed a phenotype where ECs and AMPs could not be

distinguished based on the size of their nuclei, but emerged as a larger cell population with

intermediate size nuclei (Fig 4C'). Many of these cells expressed the *esg*>YFP stem cell marker

at high levels, but others displayed only a very weak YFP signal. This result is comparable to

the EB tumor phenotype in adult midguts where the progenitor cells are prevented from

undergoing terminal differentiation (Fig 3 B''',C''',G-G''). In addition, this tumor phenotype

was also observed when Notch was downregulated by RNAi using the same induction system

(Fig 4D-D'). As seen in Fig 4G, overexpression of *α-PheRS* and *α-PheRS^{Cys}* downregulated

the *Notch* activity reporter NRE-eGFP (Notch response element promoter driving the

expression of eGFP; (Saj et al., 2010)). This points again to an interaction between α-PheRS

and the Notch pathway. We concluded that elevated α-PheRS levels in larval midgut stem cells

cause mis-regulation of gut homeostasis, possibly by downregulating Notch signaling and

inhibiting the terminal differentiation of the progenitor cells (EBs).

α-PheRS is a novel general repressor of Notch signaling

Developing larval brains contain neuroblasts (NBs), stem cells that divide asymmetrically with

one daughter keeping the stemness and the other differentiating into a neuronal cell. Notch

signaling plays a crucial role in this process (Ables et al., 2011; Giachino and Taylor, 2014),

but in contrast to the situation in the gut, loss of *Notch* prevents NB self-renewal, whereas

ectopic expression of *Notch* leads to tumor formation (de la Pompa et al., 1997; Grandbarbe et

al., 2003; Hatakeyama et al., 2004). This opposite role of *Notch* makes the NB lineage an ideal

complementary system to test whether α-PheRS is a general component of the *Notch* pathway.

Driving α-PheRS or the α-PheRS^{Cys} expression in NBs with the *inscutable-Gal4 (incs-Gal4)*

driver resulted in significantly smaller central brains (CB), the region where the NBs are

located (Fig 5A-A'', B). In contrast, this treatment had little or no effect on the size of the optic

lobes (OL). The phenotype was indistinguishable from the phenotype caused by *N* knock-down

(Fig 5B), and co-overexpression of *Notch* together with *α-PheRS^{Cys}* in neuroblasts rescued the

brains to wild-type size (Fig 5B).

Type II neuroblasts are particularly suited to analyze effects on neuroblast

differentiation. Targeting specifically the 8 type II neuroblasts in central brain lobes with *α-*

PheRS or *α-PheRS^{Cys,}* overexpression, resulted in half of the central brains in a strong reduction

of the number of neuroblasts, and the resulting central brain lobes ended up smaller (Fig 5 C-

F,I). Knocking down *Notch* in type II NBs with RNAi and the same driver combination resulted

in a similar phenotype, but with a higher expressivity. On the other hand, overexpression of α-

PheRS in type II neuroblasts where *Notch* was also over-activated, partially rescued the tumor

phenotype of type II neuroblasts to wild-type numbers and it restored the normal size of the

brain (Fig 5G,H). Because the genetic interaction with *Notch* shows that the two activities

counteract one another in guts and brains, two tissues where *Notch* has opposing functions on

cellular differentiation, it appears that the interaction between *α-PheRS* and *Notch* is not

mediated indirectly through a primary effect on division or differentiation, but is likely to be a

more direct one. In any case, this interaction appears to modulate tissue homeostasis in different

organs.

To further address the role of *α-PheRS* on *Notch* signaling, we also studied its effect on

the larval wing disc and the adult wing. We investigated the effect of overexpressing *α-PheRS*

in adult wings by using the *en-Gal4, tub-Gal80^{ts}* (referred to as *en^{ts}*) system. This allowed us

to specifically and conditionally activate *α-PheRS^{(Cys)}* expression in the posterior compartment

of the wing disc by temperature-shift control. We observed that elevated *α-PheRS* or *α-*

PheRS^{Cys} levels induced the ectopic vein formation with a new vein branching from the

connecting vein between L4 and L5 vein (black arrow head, Fig 6A',A"). Even though the

treatment did not cause the appearance of notched wings in our experiment, this ectopic vein

phenotype is indistinguishable from the one obtained by downregulating *Notch* by RNAi

treatment using the same expression system (Fig 6A'"). This finding suggests that *α-PheRS*

might be a more general, novel *Notch* interactor.

To test directly for changes in *Notch* activity in response to altered levels of *α-PheRS*

or *α-PheRS^{Cys}* in imaginal wing discs, we monitor *Notch* activity with the NRE-eGFP reporter

and used the *en-Gal4, tub-Gal80^{ts}, UAS-mRFP system to express α-PheRS^{(Cys)}*. In this system,

eGFP expression marks the cells with active Notch signaling along the dorsal ventral (D/V)

boundary of the larval wing disc (Fig 6B"). Co-expression of *UAS-mRFP* allowed us to monitor

the activity of NRE-eGFP in the posterior compartment of the wing disc (black arrow head,

Fig 6B'") while the NRE-eGFP signal in anterior compartment served as an internal wild-type

control. In wild-type wing disc, the NRE-eGFP signal is as high in the posterior compartment

as in the anterior one (Fig 6C-C'"). As expected, knockdown of *Notch* in the posterior

compartment resulted in the exclusion of the eGFP signal from the mRFP-marked posterior

compartment (white arrow, Fig 6F-F'"). Importantly, elevated *α-PheRS* or *α-PheRS^{Cys}* levels

caused the same loss of eGFP signal in the mRFP-marked posterior compartments (Fig 6D-D''',E-E'''). These observations demonstrated that elevated *α-PheRS* levels downregulate *Notch* activity in larval wing discs. Taken together, the results from midguts, brains and wing discs, demonstrate that *α-PheRS* is a novel general repressor of *Notch* signaling.

Transcription factor Stat92E of the JAK/STAT pathway regulates α-PheRS levels

The JAK/STAT signaling pathway is required for the differentiation and maturation of ECs, and knockdown of STAT92E, the transcription factor at the end of the JAK/STAT signaling pathway, results in the formation of EB containing tumors (Zhai et al., 2015). Under normal conditions, STAT92E induces the progenitors to differentiate into ECs via regulating Notch activity (Herrera and Bach, 2019). Under stress conditions, like bacterial infection, secreted Unpaired3 (*Upd3*), a cytokine signal of the JAK/STAT pathway, activates ISC proliferation and differentiation to repair damaged parts of the gut (Buchon et al., 2009; Lin et al., 2010). Upd3 not only activates JAK/STAT signaling in ISCs, but also *Notch* activity to enhance ISC proliferation and to promote differentiation into EC, respectively (Jiang et al., 2009). We therefore tested whether α-PheRS could possibly coordinate JAK/STAT with Notch signaling in adult midguts. Using the hypomorphic *Stat92E^{HJ}* allele, we tested whether suppressing JAK/STAT signaling affects α-PheRS expression. Indeed, *Stat92E^{HJ}* mutants displayed elevated levels of α-PheRS in Delta-positive ISCs (Fig 7A-B''). Consistent with this result, *Stat92E* RNAi knock-down under tissue and temporal control also showed elevated α-PheRS levels in ISCs (Fig 7C-C''). As shown in Fig 7D,D', E,E', F,F', G, the levels of α-PheRS significantly increased in ISCs and EBs. The fact that two different approaches to reduce *Stat92E* activity led to higher α-PheRS levels in ISCs and EBs demonstrates that *Stat92E* regulates α-PheRS levels in these cells.

Surprisingly, RNAi knock down of *Stat92E* with the *esg^{ts}* system not only affected α-

PheRS levels in ISCs, but also in some neighboring polyploid YFP⁻ ECs, but not in distant ECs

(arrows in Fig 7C", F-F',G). Because we also observed this phenotype in *Stat92E^{HJ}* mutants

(arrows in Fig 7B",E-E',G), this is unlikely to be an off-target effect of the RNAi. It thus

appears that either *Stat92E* can normally control α-PheRS levels also in a cell non-autonomous

way or α-PheRS levels can be stable longer in YFP⁻ ECs. To test if *Stat92E* is not only required

for downregulation of α-PheRS, but also sufficient, we overexpressed *Stat92E* in ISCs and

EBs. Indeed, elevated-Stat92E levels reduced the α-PheRS signal in ISCs and EBs (Fig 7H-I").

On the other hand, high levels of α-PheRS did not affect *Stat92E* activity when assayed with

the *10X STAT92E-GFP* reporter (Bach et al., 2007) that expresses GFP under the control of ten

Stat92E binding sites (Fig 7J-K"'). We conclude that *Stat92E* can regulate α-PheRS levels

specifically in EBs and ISCs to maintain stem cell homeostasis.

If JAK/STAT regulates α-PheRS levels and these regulate Notch activity, this suggests

that α-PheRS levels mediate the interaction between these two pathways. To confirm that the

modulation of Notch signaling by JAK/STAT is indeed α-PheRS-dependent, we co-

overexpressed STAT92E and α-PheRS and tested the Notch activity in adult midguts with the

NRE-eGFP reporter. Co-overexpression of *α-PheRS* and *Stat92E* downregulates the *Notch*

activity reporter NRE-eGFP (Fig 7M) and also leads to the tumor-like midgut phenotype (Fig

7L") like the phenotype of overexpression of *α-PheRS* alone (Fig 3B, 7L'), whereas STAT92E

overexpression alone only produces guts with wild-type appearance (Fig 7L"'). Together with

the result that α-PheRS regulates Notch signaling, we therefore identified α-PheRS as an

intermediate factor that links the JAK/STAT pathway to Notch signaling to modulate gut

homeostasis.

Discussion and outlook

Our work revealed that *PheRS* not only charges tRNAs with their cognate amino acid Phe, but that it also performs moonlighting functions in regulating cell proliferation and differentiation in different tissues. Levels of α-PheRS are critical for these regulative processes and are generally elevated in healthy stem cells compared to differentiated cells. Similarly, many tumor cells show elevated α-PheRS levels compared to their healthy counterparts and a positive correlation between these levels and tumorigenic events had been noted some time ago (Sen et al., 1997). Several circumstantial and direct evidence show that elevated α-PheRS levels do not simply allow higher translational activity to overcome a growth rate restriction imposed by hypothetically limiting levels of PheRS. One, PheRS is unlikely to be rate-limiting for cellular growth because animals with only one copy of *α-PheRS* or *β-PheRS* do not show a phenotype (Lu et al., 2014) and tissue culture cells can be stimulated to grow more rapidly without stimulating the expression of the two PheRS genes (Chen et al., 2003) (Lu et al., 2014). Indeed, directly measuring translational activity *in situ* (Fig 1D-D") showed the same levels of translation whether *α-PheRS* was overexpressed or not. Furthermore, aminoacylation of tRNA^{Phe} requires both subunits to form the tetrameric protein α$_2$β$_2$-PheRS, and overexpression of an aminoacylation-dead *α-PheRS^{Cys}* mutant subunit alone, (without simultaneous overexpression of the β-PheRS subunit) already led to the accumulation of numerous additional dividing cells, closely resembling the phenotype observed when the wild-type gene was expressed in the same way. We therefore conclude that this activity of *α-PheRS* is independent of its tRNA^{Phe} aminoacylation function.

The notion that the α-PheRS subunit can be stable and function independently of the β-subunit was surprising because previous results showed that the two subunits were dependent on the presence of the other subunit for their stability (Antonellis et al., 2018; Lu et al., 2014;

Xu et al., 2018). Our results now show that this requirement does not apply to all cell types. In

young follicle cells, ISCs and possibly other dividing cells, the overexpression of the α-PheRS

subunit alone results in higher levels of α-PheRS accumulation and, in particular when elevated

levels were induced in gut ISCs and EBs, this produced a strong phenotype. This suggests that

the α- and β-PheRS subunits function together in every cell to aminoacylate tRNA^{Phe}, but in

addition, the α-subunit can be stable in specific cell types, such as stem cells, where it assumes

a novel function in regulating cell proliferation and differentiation. Many differentiating cell

types then seem to put a system in place that prevents α-PheRS accumulation at high levels

and the effects this causes.

PheRS is not the only aaRS family member with roles beyond charging tRNAs (Dolde

et al., 2014). For instance, MetRS/MRS is capable of stimulating rRNA synthesis (Ko et al.,

2000), GlnRS/QRS can block the kinase activity of apoptosis signal-regulating kinase 1

(ASK1) (Ko et al., 2001) and a proteolytically processed form of YARS/TyrRS acts as a

cytokine (Casas-Tinto et al., 2015; Greenberg et al., 2008). aaRSs are, however, also not the

only protein family which evolved to carry out more than one function. In recent years it has

become increasingly evident that many if not most proteins have evolved to carry out not only

one, but two or more functions, providing interesting challenges to figure out, which of their

activities are important for the individual functions of a protein (Dolde et al., 2014).

Elevated levels of α-PheRS promote cell proliferation in different cell types. In follicle

cells, more cells were produced in the α-PheRS overexpressing clones compared to wild-type

clones. In wing discs, more mitotic cells were detected in most areas of the α-PheRS

overexpressing compartment. However, overexpression of α-PheRS alone did not cause the

formation of a larger wing in the adult, even though this was sufficient to induce additional

mitotic cells in larval discs (Fig S2A,B; Fig 1B-C). Co-overexpression of both subunits was

needed to cause a small, but significant increase of the wing (Fig S2B). We also found that in

this system, elevated PheRS levels primarily affected cell size, whereas proliferation remained

controlled or was compensated for (Supplementary data, Fig S2C,D). The different behavior

in this system might be caused by the different driver used for these experiments or by the tight

organ size control mechanisms of this organ that are capable of compensating for differences

in growth and proliferation (Hariharan, 2015; Martin and Morata, 2006). Additionally,

reminiscent of its function in neuroblasts, Notch signaling at the D/V boundary region of the

wing disc promotes proliferation (de Celis et al., 1996). Interestingly, upon α-PheRS

overexpression in this region, not only Notch activity (Fig 6), but also PH3$^+$ cells became

absent from this region (Fig 1B"), even though they increase in others. We conclude that even

in the wing α-PheRS represses Notch signaling, but different regions of the wing disc respond

differently, making the wing disc a more complex system to study the responses to elevated α-

PheRS levels.

The described non-canonical functions of α-PheRS are not only independent of the

aaRS activity, they also do not reflect a function in sensing the availability of its enzymatic

substrate, Phe, for the major growth controller, the TOR kinase, like the aaRS members TrpRS

or LeuRS (Fig S3) (Adam et al., 2018; Bonfils et al., 2012; Han et al., 2012). In the gut tissue,

elevated α-PheRS and α-PheRS^{Cys} levels produced 12-14 times as many tumors and these

showed mostly a more severe phenotype (Fig 3H). Such tumors were composed of ISCs and

differentiating EBs. Similarly, guts also contained 5-8 times as many mitotic cells when α-

PheRS$^{(Cys)}$ was overexpressed (Fig 4E). Together, these results strongly suggest, that also in

this situation, the higher levels of α-PheRS induced strong cell proliferation.

Notch signaling is known to regulate different cellular behaviors during tissue growth

in a context-dependent manner. Most prominently, these are proliferation and differentiation

control (Henrique and Schweisguth, 2019; Hori et al., 2013). In this study, we presented the

effect of α-PheRS on downregulating Notch signaling activity in different tissues. The

overexpression of α-PheRS reproduced the classic "vein formation" phenotype in the adult

wings caused by loss-of-Notch (Fig 6A-A''') (Johannes and Preiss, 2002) and its elevated levels

also downregulated Notch activity at the D/V boundary in wing discs (Fig 6D-E'''). In ovarian

follicle cells, the elevated levels of α-PheRS led to an increase in clone size with more cells

per clone (Fig 2). This could theoretically also be explained by an inhibitory effect of α-PheRS

on Notch activity, because Notch is required for the follicle cells to exit the mitotic cycle and

enter the endocycle stage (Lopez-Schier and St Johnston, 2001). Thus, loss of Notch signaling

prevents the epithelial cells from switching from the mitotic cell cycle to the endocycle and

leads to overproliferation of follicle cells (Deng et al., 2001; Shcherbata et al., 2004) that would

be similar to the phenotype of α-PheRS overexpression in follicle cells. In adult midguts, this

activity of α-PheRS interfered with normal homeostasis of ISCs by inducing a typical low

Notch activity phenotype with many more ISCs, EBs and EEs (Micchelli and Perrimon, 2006;

Ohlstein and Spradling, 2007; Zhai et al., 2015). On the other hand, in the larval brain tissue,

Notch signaling plays the opposite regulatory role in the control the stem cell (NB)

homeostasis. Here *Notch* promotes NB self-renewal, and ectopic expression of N[ICD] leads to

tumor formation (de la Pompa et al., 1997; Grandbarbe et al., 2003; Hatakeyama et al., 2004).

Despite this contrary activity of Notch, elevated α-PheRS showed again an inhibitory effect on

Notch, preventing NB self-renewal and thereby reducing the size of the brain lobe (Fig 5A-

A'',B) and rescuing the tumor phenotype caused by ectopic expression of Notch (Fig 5 G,H).

Because α-PheRS levels attenuate Notch signaling in different situations where Notch causes

different effects, it seems to be a general component of the Notch signaling.

The effect of elevated α-PheRS levels is reminiscent of the effect of overexpressing

Hairless (H), an antagonist of Notch signaling that directly binds to the Suppressor of Hairless

(Su(H)) and inhibits the activation of Notch downstream targets (Brou et al., 1994; Johannes

and Preiss, 2002; Maier et al., 1999). The antagonistic inhibitory mechanism of H on the

downstream target genes of the Notch signaling pathway might be a paradigm for the

mechanism through which α-PheRS might act on the Su(H) complex and switch a fraction of

these complexes from an "on" to an "off" state to modulate the activation of the target genes.

It will be interesting to test this model.

Overexpression of α-PheRS in gut ISCs interfered with cell fate decisions by driving

ISC divisions and by keeping EBs in an early differentiation stage. But in addition, it also

induced the ISCs to differentiate into EEs. The combination of these effects resulted in a

"tumor-like" phenotype, that had been described as the ISC and EB tumor phenotype

(Korzelius et al., 2014; Micchelli and Perrimon, 2006; Zhai et al., 2017; Zhai et al., 2015). The

large volume of the tumors was attributed not only to the high number of EBs that emerged

from the increased ISC proliferation, but also to the large size of EBs that were arrested in their

differentiation. The appearance of this phenotype has been reported in situations where a

damaged or injured midgut requires a rapid intestinal regeneration after bacterial infection

(Zhai et al., 2017). Several studies reported that under such conditions, JAK/STAT signaling,

Notch signaling and other factors (e.g. the transcription factor Sox21a) can orchestrate EB

differentiation (Jiang and Edgar, 2011; Jiang et al., 2009; Shaw et al., 2010; Zhai et al., 2017).

We therefore addressed the possible role of α-PheRS in connecting the JAK/STAT with the

Notch signaling pathway.

Because *Stat92E* encodes a transcription factor that is required for the

differentiation of ISCs (Chen et al., 2016; Zhai et al., 2015), its effect on α-PheRS protein

levels could be through a fairly direct interaction between Stat92E and *α-PheRS*, or more

indirectly through an alteration cell fate alteration caused by the absence of Stat92E. The latter

hypothesis seems unlikely because in wild-type adult midguts, the different cell types show the

same levels of α-PheRS when normal guts are stained (Fig 7A",D-D'). This is because *Stat92E*

is highly active in ISCs and EBs (mCherry^{+} cells; Fig 7J'-J''') and keeps α-PheRS at the same

level as in differentiated cells. We learned this because reduced *Stat92E* activity caused an

increase in α-PheRS levels in ISCs and EBs. If the JAK/STAT pathway is capable of

controlling cellular α-PheRS levels in the same cell, and because knockdown

of *Stat92E* truncates JAK/STAT signaling and leads to a similar phenotype of EB tumors like

what we observed upon *a-PheRS* overexpression (Chen et al., 2016; Zhai et al., 2015), it

appears that *Stat92E* regulates ISC differentiation by modulating the *α*-PheRS levels.

JAK/STAT signaling is known to stimulate progenitor cell differentiation to regulate

normal tissue homeostasis (Herrera and Bach, 2019). Under these normal conditions, it also

downregulates α-PheRS levels and, consequently, activates Notch signaling at least partially

through downregulating α-PheRS levels to promote differentiation of the progenitor cells into

ECs. Interestingly, an interplay between the JAK/STAT and the Notch signaling pathways to

maintain ISCs homeostasis had been noticed before in regenerating damaged midguts (Jiang et

al., 2009). Our work now reveals an unexpected missing link between these two pathways in

normal guts and the gut phenotype caused by elevated levels of α-PheRS also points to the

importance of controlling and fine tuning its levels. Therefore, regulation of α-PheRS levels

links the two signaling pathways and implicates *PheRS* not only in the regulation of cell

proliferation, but also in regulating stem cell and tissue homeostasis by connecting two

signaling pathways which have drawn considerable attention for cancer research.

Stat92E is a transcription factor, but none of the published reports on Stat92E targets

lists the *α-PheRS* gene as a possible target (Bina et al., 2010; Muller et al., 2005; Wang et al.,

2013). We also inspected the promoter region of *α-PheRS* gene and found that there are some

regions with similarities to Stat92E binding motif (TCCnGAA; with n = 3 or 4 giving the

highest affinity for Stat92E binding) (Fig S6 A,B) (Rivas et al., 2008; Tsurumi et al., 2011;

Yan et al., 1996). The Stat92E potential binding motif 3 that is closest to the 5′ untranslated

region is the best candidate with the possibly highest affinity (n =3) (Fig S6 A,B). Future work

should analyze whether Stat92E can bind to the *α-PheRS* promoter and regulate *α-PheRS*

directly at the transcriptional level or whether it represses *α-PheRS* more indirectly.

Relevance of the moonlighting function of α-PheRS for tumor formation

Improper expression of PheRS was suspected long ago to promote carcinogenesis, but

till now the mechanisms behind this effect remained unknown. Elevated levels of the human

α-PheRS, FARSA, during the development of myeloid leukemia correlate with tumorigenic

events (Sen et al., 1997). The GENT2 database published in 2019 describes also strong positive

correlations between PheRS subunit levels and tumorigenic events in several tissues and

cancers, including colon cancer, which mostly seems to originate from intestinal stem cells

(ISCs) (Barker et al., 2009; Park et al., 2019). Modelling the effect of elevated α-PheRS levels

in *Drosophila* ISCs and EBs, we found that elevated levels led to over-proliferation of cells

with stem cell characteristics and to changes in cell fate, indicating that elevated α-PheRS

levels can indeed be a risk factor for tumor formation.

Modeling the effects of elevated α-PheRS levels in ISCs revealed that

hyperaccumulation of stem cells, a tumor risk, is mediated by high α-PheRS repressing Notch

signaling. In mammals, Notch signaling is essential for maintaining the homeostasis of cell

proliferation and differentiation (Qiao and Wong, 2009) similar to the function of Notch

signaling in the Drosophila gut that is needed to prevent the induction of tumors in the adult

midgut (Micchelli and Perrimon, 2006; Ohlstein and Spradling, 2007). Because in human, mis-

regulation of Notch signaling in these processes has been suggested to trigger the development

of colon cancer, *Notch* has been proposed as a molecular target for cancer therapy (Yin et al.,

2010). The results presented here provide new and unexpected insights into the communication

between two major signaling pathways involved in gut tumorigenesis and they suggest new

opportunities to target these mechanisms.

Materials and Methods

Key Resources Table

Reagent or Resource	Sources	Identifier	Additional information
Antibodies			
Anti phospho-Histone H3-rabbit	Cell signaling	9701S	1:200 v/v
Anti phospho-Histone H3-mouse	Cell signaling	9706S	1:200 v/v
Anti *α-PheRS*	Genescript	4668	Customized product (1:200 v/v)
Anti *α-PheRS*	Genescript	4669	Customized product (1:200 v/v)
Anti Myc-mouse	Developmental Studies Hybridoma Bank (DSHB)	9E10	Supernatant (1:3 v/v)
Anti Puromycin	DSHB	PMY-2A4	1:100 v/v
Anti Prospero	DSHB	MR1A	1:200 v/v
Anti Delta	DSHB	C594.9B	1:10 v/v
Anti V5 tag-rabbit	Cell signaling	13202	1:200 v/v
Anti Cy3 rabbit	Jackson Immuno Research	115-165-146	1:200 v/v
Anti-rabbit Alexa Flour 488	Molecular Probes	A-11008	1:200 v/v
Anti-rabbit Alexa Flour 488	Molecular Probes	A-11034	1:200 v/v
Anti-mouse Alexa Flour 488	Molecular Probes	A-11029	1:200 v/v
Anti-rabbit Alexa Flour 488	Life technology	A-21206	1:200 v/v
Anti-rabbit Alexa Flour 594	Invitrogen	A-11037	1:200 v/v
Anti-mouse Alexa Flour 594	Molecular Probes	A-11032	1:200 v/v
Anti-mouse Alexa Flour 568	Life technology	A-10037	1:200 v/v
Anti α-tubulin	Abcam	Ab18251	1:1,000 v/v
Anti GFP	ImmunoKontact	042704	1:1,000 v/v
Anti Myc-rabbit	Santa Cruz	Sc-789	A-12 (1:1,000 v/v)
HRP Anti rabbit IgG antibody (Peroxidase)	Vector	PI-1000	1:10,000 v/v
HRP Anti rabbit IgG antibody (Peroxidase)	Vector	PI-2000	1:10,000 v/v

Fly stocks and genetics			
α-PheRS^{G2060}/FM6	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center (BDSC)	26625	
RNAi- α-PheRS	Vienna Drosophila RNAi Center (VDRC)	33514	
RNAi- β-PheRS	VDRC	42046	
gα-PheRS^{Cys}			Transgenic construct
UAS-α-PheRS^{Cys}			Transgenic construct
hspFLP ; Act-Gal4/CyO ; neoFRT82B,tub-Gal80/TM3,Sb			
w ; If/CyO ; neoFRT82B,UAS- α-PheRS$^{(Cys)}$			
eyeless-Gal4	BDSC	5535	
ppl-Gal4	BDSC	58768	
engrailed-Gal4	BDSC	30564	
engrailed-Gal4,NRE-EGFP,UAS-myrRFP	BDSC	30730	
UAS-GFP	BDSC	6658	
STAT92E[HJ]/TM3,Sb	BDSC	24510	
w; UAS-Myc::MYC	BDSC	9674	
hspFLP/y ; + ; UAS-Myc::MYC	BDSC	9675	
hspFLP/y ; UAS-N^{ICD} /CyO ; MKRS/TM2	BDSC	52008	
10X STAT92E GFP	BDSC	26197	
w,UAS-STAT92E RNAi	BDSC	26899	
NRE-EGFP	BDSC	30727	
UAS-N RNAi	BDSC	7078	
neoFRT82B Sb1/TM6	BDSC	2051	
NRE-eGFP	BDSC	30728	
UAS-Dl	BDSC	5614	
tub-Gal4/TM3,Sb	BDSC	5138	
w*, Insc-Gal4	BDSC	8751	
w*,UAS-Dicer2 ; wor-Gal4, ase-Gal80; UAS-mCD8::GFP	IMBA		A gift from Juergen A. Knoblich, IMBA
y w att2A[vas-φ]; +; attP-86F	ETH Zurich		A gift from Hugo Stocker, ETH
esg-Gal4,UAS-2XEYFP;MKRS/TM6B,Tb	ETH Zurich		A gift from Hugo Stocker, ETH
esg-Gal4,UAS-2XEYFP;tub-Gal80^{ts}/TM3,Sb	ETH Zurich		A gift from Hugo Stocker, ETH
yw; esg-Gal4, UAS-GFP/TM6B,Tb,Hu	ETH Zurich	2400	A gift from Hugo Stocker, ETH
NP1-Gal4 (Myo31DF or Myo1A-Gal4)/CyO, y+	ETH Zurich	2398	A gift from Hugo Stocker, ETH
esg-Gal4, UAS-mCherry-CD8, tub-gal80^{ts}/CyO			A gift from Péter Nagy, Cornell University
UAS-STAT-GFP	Centro Andaluz de Biología del Desarrollo		A gift from Sol Sotillos Martín, Centro Andaluz de Biología del Desarrollo
yw;UAS-cyto-gars-myc/CyO			A gift from Albena Jordanova, VIB-U Antwerp Center for Molecular Neurology

Bacteria strains and vectors			
XL1 blue	Aligent	200249	
Rosseta – Novagen	Merckmilipore	70954	
pET-28a – Novagen	Merckmilipore	69864	
pET LIC (2A-T)	Addgene	29665	
pUASattB	Drosophila Genomics Resource Center	1419	
pw+SNattB	(Koch et al., 2009)		
Commercial assay or kit			
Pierce® Silver Stain kit	Thermo Scientific	24612	
Pierce® BCA Protein Assay kit	Thermo Scientific	23227	
ReliaPrep™ DNA CleanUp and Concentration System	Promega	A2893	
GeneElute™ HP Plasmid miniprep kit	Sigma	NA0160	
Qiagen® Plasmid Plus Midi kit	Qiagen	12943	
Ni-NTA affinity resin	Qiagen	30210	
ECL™ Prime Western Blotting System	GE Healthcare	RPN2232	
RNAMaxx™ High Yield Transcription Kit	Aligent	200339	
Software, algorithm			
Leica Application Suite X (LAS X)	Leica	https://www.leica-microsystems.com/products/microscope-software/p/leica-las-x-ls/	
FIJI	ImageJ	https://fiji.sc/	
GraphPad Prism	GraphPad	https://www.graphpad.com/scientific-software/prism/	
FlowJo™	BD Biosciences	https://www.flowjo.com/	
Microsoft Excel	Microsoft	https://products.office.com/en-us/excel	

573 **Buffers**

Lysis buffer for Drosophila tissue	Lysis buffer for bacteria
20 mM Tris HCl pH7.4	20 mM Tris HCl pH7.4
150uM NaCl	150uM NaCl
2 mM EDTA	2 mM EDTA
50 mM NaF	50 mM NaF
10% Glycerol	10% Glycerol
1% Triton X100	1% Triton X100
1 Protease inhibitor cocktail tablet (Roche-4693159001)	4mM Imidazole 1M
	0.6% Lysozyme
1 mM phenylmethylsulphonyl fluoride	1 Protease inhibitor cocktail tablet
	1 mM phenylmethylsulphonyl fluoride
4% PFA	**1X PBST**
1X PBST	0.2 % (v/v) Tween 20
4% (w/v) Paraformaldehyde	1X PBS
Blocking buffer	**Fly food recipe**

5% (w/v) non-fat dry milk 0.1% (v/v) Triton X100	20.4 l H_2O 1,680 g Maize flour 720 g Yeast
10X PBS pH 7.4	1,800 g Syrup 192 g Potassium sodium tartrate tetrahydrate 36 g Nipagin 120 ml Propionic acid
10.6 mM KH_2PO_4 1.5 M NaCl 30 mM $Na_2PO_4.7H_2O$	
10X SDS running buffer	**10X Transfer buffer**
30 g Tris base 144 g Glycine 10 g SDS dH_2O to 1	30 g Tris base 144 g Glycine dH_2O to 1
10X TBS pH to 7.6	**1X TBST**
24 g of Tris Base 88 g of NaCl dH_2O to 1	100 mL 10X TBS 900 mL dH_2O 0.1% (v/v) Tween 20

575 **Primers**

Name	Sequence (5' to 3')	Application
rc2263f	CGCGGATCCATCCGGCGAGAGAGTGTCTTTG	Genomic genomic construct of *α-PheRS*
rc2263r	CGGGGTACCTATGCCTGGCGATAATCGTG	
Tyr412Cys & Phe438Cys-F	TCAAGCCGGCGTACAATCCGTGTACCGAGCCCAG	Construct of *α-PheRS^Cys* mutation
Tyr412Cys & Phe438Cys-R	CTCCGGCCGACAGACGCCCGAGTTGCCC	
α-PheRS RNAi 11f	TAATACGACTCACTATAGGGAGGCAAGAAACGCAAGCTCCTC	*α-PheRS* ds RNA synthesis
α-PheRS RNAi 11r	TAATACGACTCACTATAGGGAGGGAACTCCGCCAGATGTGTG	
β-PheRS RNAi 10f	TAATACGACTCACTATAGGGAGGGCCAATCATTCGGGAATCA	*β-PheRS* ds RNA synthesis
β-PheRS RNAi 10r	TAATACGACTCACTATAGGGAGGAGGCAGGGACTTCTTAATGT	
seq r6	GCTCCCATTCATCAGTTCC	Sequencing
seqA r1	CATTTCCACCGTGAGATCCGTC	Sequencing
seqA r2	AACTCTTGTGGGTGACCGTTTC	Sequencing
seqA f1	GTTCTCGAAGTGAATGTTCTGG	Sequencing
seqA f2	TTTAGCCACCGTCGTCGTTTC	Sequencing
seqA r3	TCCAGCGACGATGACGAATTTG	Sequencing
seqA f3	CAAATGGATTGTGGGACCAGC	Sequencing
seqA r4	GCCCTCCTCCACCATCTTTAG	Sequencing

Fly genetics and husbandry

All *Drosophila melanogaster* fly stocks were kept for long term storage at 18ºC in glass or

plastic vials on standard food with day/night (12h/12h) light cycles. All experiments were

performed at 25ºC unless specifically mentioned. A UAS-GFP element was added in

experiments that tested for rescue and involved Gal4 mediated expression of the rescue gene.

This construct served to even out the number of UAS sites in each Gal4 expressing cell. Origins

of all stocks are noted in the *Key Resource Table*.

DNA cloning and generation of transgenic flies

Sequence information was obtained from Flybase. All mutations and the addition of the Myc-

tag to the N-terminus of *α-PheRS* were made by following the procedure of the QuickChange®

Site-Directed Mutagenesis Kit (Stratagene). The genomic *α-PheRS* rescue construct (*Myc::α-*

PheRS) codes for the entire coding region and for an additional Myc tag at the N-terminal end.

In addition, it contains ~ 1kb of up- and down-stream sequences and it was cloned into the

pw+SNattB transformation vector (Koch et al., 2009; Lu et al., 2014). The *α-PheRS* and *β-*

PheRS cDNAs were obtained by RT-PCR from mRNA isolated from 4-8 days old *OreR* flies

(Lu et al., 2014). The Tyr412Cys and Phe438Cys mutations in the *α-PheRS* sequence were

created by site directed mutagenesis. Like the wild-type cDNA, they were cloned into the

pUASTattB transformation vector to generate the pUAS-α-PheRS and pUAS-α-PheRS[Cys].

Before injecting these constructs into fly embryos, all plasmids were verified by sequencing

(Microsynth AG, Switzerland). Transgenic flies were generated by applying the *ϕ* C31-based

integration system with the stock (*y w att2A[vas-ϕ]; +; attP-86F*) (Bischof et al., 2007).

Western blotting

Protein was extracted from tissues, whole larvae, or flies using lysis buffer. Protein lysates

were separated by SDS-PAGE and transferred onto PVDF membranes (Milipore, US). The

blocking was performed for 1h at room temperature (RT) with non-fat dry milk (5%) in TBST

solution. Blots were probed first with primary antibodies (diluted in blocking buffer) overnight

at 4°C and then with secondary antibodies (diluted in TBST) 1h at RT. The signal of the

secondary antibody was detected by using the detect solution mixture (1:1) (ECL™ Prime

Western Blotting System, GE Healthcare Life Science) and a luminescent detector (Amersham

Imager 600, GE Healthcare Life Science). Origins and recipes of all buffers and reagents are

noted in the *Key Resource Table*.

Immunofluorescent staining and confocal microscopy

Adult midguts were dissected from each female fly after 5 days at 29°C (unless stated

otherwise) or at different time points after 2, 3, 4 days of heat treatment for the time course

experiment. A total of 10 guts were analyzed for each genotype. In the larval experiments, the

animals were mated at 25°C on fresh, rich diet food and set up for egg laying during a 2 hours

window. 120 hours after egg laying, larval midguts were dissected from wandering third instar

larvae and a total of 10 guts were analyzed for each genotype. Dissections were performed in

PBS 1X on ice and tissues were collected within maximum one hour. Fixation with 4% PFA

in PBS-T 0.2% at RT was done for different durations depending on the different tissues: two

hours (guts), 40 minutes (brains), 30 minutes (wing discs, ovaries). Then the samples were

blocked overnight with blocking buffer at 4°C. Primary antibodies (diluted in blocking buffer)

were incubated with the samples for 8h at RT. The samples were rinsed 3 times and washed 3

times (20 minutes/wash) with PBST. Secondary antibodies (diluted in PBST) were incubated

overnight at 4°C. The samples were then rinsed 3 times and washed 2 times (20 minutes/wash)

with PBST. Hoechst 33258 (2.5 µg/ml) was added in PBST before the last washing step and

the samples were mounted with Aqua/Poly Mount solution (Polysciences Inc., US). For the

anti-Delta labeling, the samples were blocked for 3h at RT with blocking buffer. The primary

anti-Delta antibody (1:10 v/v) was incubated with the samples overnight at 4°C and then the

secondary antibody was incubated overnight at 4°C. Origins and diluted concentrations of all

buffers and antibodies are noted in the *Key Resource Table*.

632   Protein synthesis measurements using the ribopuromycylation method (RPM)

For puromycin labeling experiments, tissues were dissected in Schneider's insect medium

(Sigma, US) supplement with 10% fetal calf serum (FCS, Sigma, US) at 25°C. They were then

incubated with Schneider's insect medium containing puromycin (5 µg/ml, Sigma, US) and

cycloheximine (CHX, 100 µg/ml, Sigma, US) for 2 hours at RT. Then the samples were fixed

with 4% PFA in PBS-T 0.2% at RT and blocked overnight with blocking buffer at 4°C. Primary

anti-Puromycin antibody (diluted in PBST) was incubated with the samples for 8h at RT. The

samples were rinsed 3 times and washed 3 times (20 minutes/wash) with PBST. Secondary

antibodies (diluted in PBST) were incubated overnight at 4°C. The samples were then rinsed 3

times and washed 2 times (20 minutes/wash) with PBST. Hoechst 33258 (2.5 µg/ml) was added

in PBST before the last washing step and the samples were mounted with Aqua/Poly Mount

solution (Polysciences Inc., US).

In vitro aminoacylation assay

Recombinant α-PheRS and β-PheRS proteins were co-expressed in the *E. coli* strain Rosetta (Novagen) and then purified (Moor et al., 2002). For this, the *α-PheRS* or *α-PheRS^{Cys}* mutant cDNAs were cloned with His tags at the N-terminal end into the pET-28a plasmid expression vector (Novagen). Wild-type *β-PheRS* cDNAs were cloned into the pET LIC (2A-T) plasmid (Addgene). Then, His-α-PheRS or the His-α-PheRS^{Cys} mutant and β-PheRS were co-expressed in the *E. coli* strain Rosetta with isopropylthiogalactoside (IPTG, 1mM) induction at 25 °C for 6 hours. Proteins were purified with Ni-NTA affinity resin (Qiagen). The aminoacylation assay protocol from Jiongming Lu was then followed (Lu et al., 2014) with the modification that the Whatman filter paper discs were soaked in Phenylalanine solution for 1 hour (30mg/ml in 5% trichloroacetic acid (TCA)) to reduce the background. This assay was performed at 25 °C in a 100µl reaction mixture containing 50 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 10 mM $MgCl_2$, 4 mM ATP, 5 mM β-mercaptoethanol, 100 µg/ml BSA, 3 U/ml *E. coli* carrier tRNA, 5 µM [^{3}H]-amino acid (L-Phe) and 1 µM tRNA^{Phe} from brewer's yeast (Sigma, US). In each experiment, a 15-µl aliquot was removed at four different incubation time points, spotted on the Phe-treated Whatman filter paper discs and washed three times with ice-cold 5% TCA and once with ice-cold ethanol. A blank paper disc without spotting and another with spotting the enzyme-free reaction were used for detecting background signals. After filter discs were dried, they were immersed in PPO Toluol (Sigma, US) solution in plastic bottles and the radioactivity was measured by scintillation counting.

Wing disc dissociation and FACS analysis

Wandering larvae derived from 2-4 hours egg collections were dissected in PBS during a maximal time of 30 minutes. Around twenty wing discs were incubated with gentle agitation

at 29°C for around 2-hours in 500µl 10× Trypsin-EDTA supplemented with 50 µl 10×Hank's

Balanced Salt Solution (HBSS) (Sigma, US) and 10 µl Vybrant DyeCycle Ruby stain

(Molecular Probes, US). Dissociated cells from wing discs were directly analyzed by FACS-

Calibur flow cytometer (Becton Dickinson, US).

Drosophila tissue culture cells were harvested and fixed in 70% ethanol and stained

with a staining solution containing 1mg/ml propidium iodide, 0.1% Triton and 10 mg/ml RNase

A. The cells were then subjected to FACS-Calibur cytometry and data were analyzed with the

FlowJo software.

Drosophila **cell culture and RNAi treatment**

Drosophila Kc cells were incubated at 25°C in Schneider's *Drosophila* medium supplemented

with 10% heat-inactivated fetal calf serum (FCS) and 50 µg/ml Penicillin/Streptomycin. To

induce RNAi knockdown in *Drosophila* cells, dsRNA treatment was performed (Clemens et

al., 2000). dsRNAs around 500bp in length were generated with the RNAMaxx™ High Yield

Transcription Kit (Agilent, US). Cells were diluted to a concentration of 10^6 cells/ml in serum-

free medium, and dsRNA was added directly to the medium at a concentration of 15 µg/ml.

The cells were incubated for 1 hour followed by addition of medium containing FCS. Then the

cells were kept in the incubator and were harvested at different time points 1-5 days after

dsRNA treatment.

Clonal assay and twin spot data analysis

For twin spot tests, we used the Mosaic Analysis with a Repressible Cell Marker (MARCM)

system. Twin spots were generated with the progenitor genotype *hs-flp; tub-Gal4/UAS-β-*

PheRS ; FRT82B, ubiGFP, UAS-α-PheRS^{(Cys)}/FRT82B Tub-Gal80. In twin spots, the internal

control clone was GFP-minus and the twin sister clone produced a red signal by the antibody

against the overexpressed protein. We induced the *hs-FLP, FRT82B* system at 37°C for 1h on

the third day post-eclosure and dissected the animals 3 days post-induction. Confocal imaging

detected non-green clones (without ubiGFP) and red clones (stained with Myc antibody-red)

(Fig 9A).

In twin spots, cell numbers per clone were counted and the numbers of cell divisions

per clone were calculated as $\log_2$(cell numbers per clone). This represents the logarithm of the

cell numbers per clone to the base 2. The increase of cell proliferation (%) was analyzed by

comparing the number of cell divisions of the clone pairs in the same twin spot.

Image acquisition and processing

Imaging was carried out with a Leica SP8 confocal laser scanning microscope equipped with

a 405 nm diode laser, a 458, 476, 488, 496 and 514 nm Argon laser, a 561 nm diode pumped

solid state laser and a 633 nm HeNe laser. Images were obtained with 20x dry and 63x oil-

immersion objectives and 1024x1024 pixel format. Images were acquired using LAS X

software. The images of the entire gut were obtained by imaging at the standard size and then

merging maximal projections of Z-stacks with the Tiles Scan tool. Fluorescent intensity was

determined from FIJI software.

Quantification of cell numbers per posterior midgut

Z stack images through the width of the posterior midgut were acquired along the length of the

posterior midgut from the R4a compartment to the midgut-hindgut junction. Maximum

projections of each Z stack were obtained, and the total number of each cell type were counted

manually and exported to Microsoft Excel and GraphPad Prism for further statistical analysis.

Quantification and statistical analysis

For quantifications of all experiments, *n* represents the number of independent biological

samples analyzed (the number of guts, the number of wing discs, the number of twin spots),

error bars represent standard deviation (SD). Statistical significance was determined using the

t-test or ANOVA as noted in the figure legends. They were expressed as P values. (*) denotes

$p < 0.05$, (**) denotes $p < 0.01$, (***) denotes $p < 0.001$, (****) denotes $p < 0.0001$. (*ns*)

denotes values whose difference was not significant.

Acknowledgements

We thank Peter Nagy, Hugo Stocker, Albena Jordanova, Erik Storkebaum and the

Bloomington Stock Center for fly stocks. We are also grateful to Mark Safro for suggesting

mutations that disrupt the phenylalanine binding site of α-PheRS. We also thank Rohan

Chippalkatti for sharing his knowledge about the larval brain and also Dominique Brunssen

and Jonathan Huot for their valuable advices for the aminoacylation assay. This work was

supported by the Novartis Foundation for medical-biological Research (#18A050), the Swiss

National Fund (project grant 31003A_173188) and the University/Canton of Bern.

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Figure legends:

Figure 1: *α–PheRS* overexpression promotes appearance of mitotic cells without *β-PheRS* and without stimulating translation.

(A-B''',C) Wing disc phenotypes induced by the overexpression of α-*PheRS* or α-*PheRS*^{Cys}. *en-Gal4 (en-Gal4/+;UAS-GFP/UAS-α-PheRS*^(Cys)*)* was used to drive transgene expression in the posterior compartment of developing wing discs. Mitotic cells were visualized with anti-phospho-Histone H3 (PH3) antibodies (A: Anterior compartment/P: Posterior compartment). n=10, *p<0.05, **p<0.01 in t-test. (D-E'',F) Protein synthesis did not increase upon overexpression of *α-PheRS* or *α-PheRS* and *β-PheRS* together. *en-Gal4* was used to drive the overexpression of the transgenes in the posterior compartment of wing discs. dMyc was used as positive control *(en-Gal4/UAS-Myc::MYC;UAS-GFP/+)*. Protein synthesis was measured by the mean intensity of the puromycin (PMY) signal labelling the nascent polypeptides. n=15, ****p<0.0001, *ns:* not significant.

Figure 2: *α-PheRS* levels promote follicle cell proliferation independent of tRNA^{Phe} aminoacylation.

Clonal twin spot analysis of the effect of overexpression of the PheRS subunits in follicle cells by the MARCM technique *(hspFLP/+;Act-Gal4/+;neoFRT82B,tub-Gal80/neoFRT82B,UAS-α-PheRS*^(Cys)*)*. Upon inducing mitotic recombination by a heat-shock (37°C for 40 minutes), a recombining cell will divide and give rise to two proliferating clones. (A) One clone (red) overexpresses PheRS and its twin clone (GFP⁻) does not and expresses normal levels (internal control, outlined with yellow line). (B) Three days after inducing the recombination, the average number of cell divisions were calculated for each clone and compared to its twin spot to obtain the proliferation increase (%). n= 30, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001, ****p<0.0001 in ANOVA test.

Figure 3: **Elevated α-PheRS levels lead to mis-regulation of gut homeostasis by attenuating Notch signaling and EB differentiation.**

(A-C''') Overexpression of *α-PheRS* or *α-PheRS*^{Cys} using the *esg-Gal4,UAS-2XEYFP;tub-Gal80*^{ts} (hereby as *esg*^{ts}) system led to an increase in the number of YFP⁺ positive cells and also induced the formation of ISC and EB tumors *(esg-Gal4,UAS-2XEYFP/+;tub-Gal80*^{ts}*/UAS-α-PheRS*^(Cys)*)*. (D-D''') Knockdown of *Notch* (*N*) with the same *esg*^{ts} system led to a similar phenotype as *α-PheRS* overexpression *(UAS-N*^{RNAi}*/+;esg-Gal4,UAS-2XEYFP/+;tub-Gal80*^{ts}*/+)*. (E-F''') Overexpression of *α-PheRS* rescued the depleted ISC pool caused by Notch over-activation. (G-G'',H) Color coded quantification of ISC and EB tumor frequency by a tumor grading system that is based on the level of accumulating ISCs and EBs. (I,J) Quantification of YFP⁺ cell numbers and percentage of differentiating EBs among YFP⁺ cells (A-D'''). (K,L) Quantification of the EE/EC ratio and the percentage of the individual cell type as part of the total number of gut cells of the posterior midgut region analyzed (A-D'''). (M) Quantification of YFP⁺ cell numbers in the experiments (B-B''',E-F'''). In all experiments, EEs were visualized with the anti-Prospero antibody, YFP⁻/Hoechst⁺ polyploid cells were counted as ECs. Animals were mated at 18°C and adults of the required genotypes were

1024 collected and shifted to 29°C to inactivate Gal80^{ts}. Adult midguts were dissected from female
1025 flies after 5 days at 29°C. At least 10 guts were analyzed for each genotype. n=10, **p<0.01,
1026 ***p<0.001, ****p<0.0001 in ANOVA test.

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Figure 4: Elevated α-PheRS leads to a *Notch* knockdown-like phenotype in larval guts.

(A-D) Whole gut images and (A'-D') pictures of the posterior midgut area (white square). The
expression of the different genes indicated was driven by the *esg-Gal4,UAS-2XEYFP* system.
The YFP displayed in green marks AMPs and EBs, Hoechst (blue) stains the DNA in the nuclei.
Overexpression of the *α-PheRS^{Cys}* mutant gave rise to tumor-like areas in both the anterior and
the posterior midgut (outlined with dashed lines) (*esg-Gal4,UAS-2XEYFP/+;UAS-α-*
PheRS$^{(Cys)}$/+).. (E) Mitotic cells were identified with anti-phospho-Histone H3 (PH3)
antibodies. n=10, ****p<0.0001 in t-test. (F) Total cells per intestinal region were measured
by counting Hoechst 33258 labeled cells manually. n=10, **p<0.01,****p<0.0001. (G) Notch
activity reporter (NRE-eGFP) expresses GFP under the control of a Notch response element
(NRE). The eGFP reporter signal drastically decreases upon *α-PheRS* or *α-PheRS^{Cys}*
overexpression in adult midgut ISCs (*esg-Gal4,UAS-2XEYFP/+;tub-Gal80^{ts}/UAS-α-*
PheRS$^{(Cys)}$,NRE-eGFP). Female flies were collected 3 days after eclosure and cultured at 29°C
for 5 days before dissecting and harvesting their midguts. Protein lysates were then extracted
and separated by SDS-PAGE gel. 25 guts were analyzed for each genotype.

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Figure 5: High levels of *α-PheRS* repress neuroblast proliferation by downregulating the
***Notch* pathway.**

(A-A") The overexpression of *α-PheRS* or *α-PheRS^{Cys}* in neuroblasts reduced the ratio
central brain (CB) size. The *insc-Gal4,UAS-GFP* system was used to overexpress proteins in
neuroblasts (NBs) (*w*, Insc-Gal4/UAS-GFP;UAS-α-PheRS$^{(Cys)}$/+*). NBs were labelled by
GFP expression. The central brain is shown on the right side (area with GFP$^+$ NBs and
outlined by white dashed lines) and the optic lobe areas on the left. (B) Effect of
overexpression of *α-PheRS$^{(Cys)}$* and *N^{ICD}*, and *N* knock-down on the CB/OL size ratio. n=20,
***p<0.001, *ns*: not significant. (C-H, I) Elevated *α-PheRS* or *α-PheRS^{Cys}* levels reduced the
number of Type II NBs per brain lobe, and less than half of the lobes contained the normal 7-
8 NBs. *Notch RNAi* caused the same phenotype with higher expressivity. Overexpressing *α-*
PheRS^{Cys} rescued the tumor phenotype caused by ectopic Notch activation in NB to normal
wild-type levels. The larval brains were dissected from third instar larvae, and at least 20
brains were analyzed for each genotype (*w*,UAS-Dicer2/+;wor-Gal4,ase-Gal80/+;UAS-*
mCD8::GFP/UAS-α-PheRS$^{(Cys)}$). Each brain lobe was classified according to the number of
Type II NBs per brain lobe. n = 25.

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1061 **Figure 6: Elevated α-PheRS induces ectopic vein formation in adult wings and**
1062 **downregulates Notch activity in wing discs.**

1063 (A-A''') The ectopic wing venation phenotype resulting from elevated levels of α-PheRS or α-
1064 PheRS^{Cys} are similar to the phenotype of *N^{RNAi}* treatment. An ectopic vein branches from the

connecting vein between L4 and L5 vein (arrowhead). Knockdown of *Notch* shows this phenotype and the classical notched phenotype in the distal region of L3,L4 and near the L5 vein. The *en-Gal4,tub-Gal80^{ts}* (hereby *en^{ts}*) system was used to drive transgene expression in the posterior compartment of developing wing discs *(en-Gal4/+;tub-Gal80^{ts}/UAS-α-PheRS^{(Cys)})*. Animals were initially kept at 18°C for 3 days and then shifted to 29°C to inactivate Gal80^{ts} until adult flies eclosed, enabling expression of α-PheRS or α-PheRS^{Cys} or the *N^{RNAi}*. (B) Schematic illustration of wild-type wing imaginal discs including the different compartments (left: anterior, right: posterior, up: ventral, down: dorsal), (B') the expression domain of *en^{ts}*>mRFP and (B") the expression domain of *NRE-eGFP along the ventral/dorsal (V/D) boundary*. (B"')*en-Gal4,NRE-eGFP,UAS-mRFP;tub-Gal80^{ts}* was used to drive transgene expression in the posterior compartment of developing wing discs and to evaluate the Notch activity with the reporter *NRE-eGFP* (black arrowhead) *(w,UAS-Dcr2;en-Gal4,UAS-myrRFP,NRE-eGFP/+;tub-Gal80^{ts}/UAS-α-PheRS^{(Cys)})*. (C-F"') Elevated α-PheRS or α-PheRS^{Cys} leads to the loss of NRE-eGFP expression in the posterior compartments, similar to the phenotype of *Notch* knockdown *(w,UAS-Dcr2/UAS-N^{RNAi};en-Gal4,UAS-myrRFP,NRE-eGFP/+;tub-Gal80^{ts}/+)*. After egg laying and being kept at 18°C for 6 days, the animals were shifted to 29°C for 1 day to inactivate Gal80^{ts} and to enable expression of α-PheRS, α-PheRS^{Cys} or of *N^{RNAi}*.

Figure 7: The JAK/STAT transcription factor Stat92E regulates α-PheRS levels.

(A-C") Hypomorphic *Stat92E^{HJ}* mutants contain elevated levels of α-PheRS in their ISCs (B). Anti-Delta antibody was used to label ISCs, and anti-α-PheRS was used to stain for α-PheRS. *esg^{ts}* was used to drive YFP expression in A-A" (control: *esg-Gal4,UAS-2XEYFP/+;tub-Gal80^{ts}/+)* and in C-C" (*Stat92E* RNAi: *UAS-Stat92E RNAi/+;esg-Gal4,UAS-2XEYFP/+;tub-Gal80^{ts}/+)*, respectively. YFP therefore marks ISCs and EBs. The white arrows in C", E, F indicate apparently polyploid YFP^- ECs with high levels of α-PheRS. (D-F') Quantification of the signals along the line in the images D-F (high power pictures of the region outlined in A,B,C) is based on the lines drawn across the nuclei. Reduced *Stat92E* (hypomorphic allele or RNAi treatment), showing higher α-PheRS levels in ISCs and EBs when *Stat92E* activity is reduced. (G) The signal intensity of α-PheRS differs between the ISCs/EBs (YFP^+ cells), where it is high, and the distant ECs (white asterisk in C-C", YFP^- cells), where it is low, whereas the signal intensity of α-PheRS is similarly high between the ISCs/EBs and the neighboring ECs. Lowered JAK/STAT signaling (*Stat92E^{HJ}* allele or by RNAi) significantly elevated the levels of α-PheRS in ISCs/EBs and neighboring ECs (Nb EC), but not in distant ECs. α-PheRS levels were measured by the mean intensity of the fluorescent signal. n=10, ****p<0.0001, *ns:* not significant. (H-I") Overexpression of *Stat92E* decreased α-PheRS levels in Esg^+ cells (circled with white dashed lines) in adult guts *(esg-Gal4,UAS-2XEYFP/UAS-Stat92E-GFP;tub-Gal80^{ts}/+)*. The same imaging settings were used as in (A). (J-K"') As measured by the *10X Stat92E-GFP* reporter, *Stat92E* activity did not alter upon overexpression of *α-PheRS*. The *esg-Gal4,UAS-mCD8:mCherry,tub-Gal80^{ts} system* was used to overexpress *α-PheRS* in ISCs and EBs *(esg-Gal4,UAS-mCD8:mCherry,tub-Gal80^{ts}/10X Stat92E-GFP;UAS-α-PheRS^{(Cys)}/+)*. Female flies were collected 3 days after eclosure and cultured at 29°C for 5 days before dissecting and harvesting their midguts. (L-L"') The co-overexpression of *Stat92E* and *α-PheRS* caused the over-proliferative phenotype that is indistinguishable from the *α-PheRS*

overexpression alone phenotype obtained with the *esg-Gal4* driver, whereas the *Stat92E*
overexpression alone did not alter the Esg$^+$ cell numbers. (M) The Notch activity reporter
(NRE-eGFP) readout drastically decreased upon overexpression of *α-PheRS* alone *(esg-*
*Gal4,UAS-2XEYFP/+;tub-Gal80^{ts}/UAS-α-PheRS$^{(Cys)}$,NRE-eGFP)*or *Stat92E* and *α-PheRS* co-
overexpression   *(esg-Gal4,UAS-2XEYFP/UAS-Stat92E-GFP;tub-Gal80^{ts}/UAS-α-*
PheRS$^{(Cys)}$,NRE-eGFP), whereas *Stat92E* overexpression alone increased Notch activity in
adult midguts *(esg-Gal4,UAS-2XEYFP/UAS-Stat92E-GFP;tub-Gal80^{ts}/NRE-eGFP)*. Female
flies were collected 3 days after eclosure and cultured at 29ºC for 5 days before dissecting and
harvesting their midguts. Protein lysates were then extracted and separated by SDS-PAGE gel.
25 guts were analyzed for each genotype.

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Figure 1

Figure 2

A

B

Figure 3

Figure 4

A — *Esg>YFP* · A' — DNA / Esg>YFP

B — *Esg>Myc::α-PheRS* · B' — DNA / Esg>YFP

C — *Esg>α-PheRS^{Cys}* · C' — DNA / Esg>YFP

D — *Esg>N^{RNAi}* · D' — Esg>YFP

E
Mitotic index
Control   α-PheRS   α-PheRS^{Cys}
***   **

F
Total cells per intestinal region analyzed
Control   α-PheRS   α-PheRS^{Cys}
**   ****

G
Tub>
Control   α-PheRS   α-PheRS Cys
NRE-eGFP
α-PheRS
α-Tubulin

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7