Adaptive modification of lipid droplets mediated by Plin1 functions in infection-induced pathogenesis in *Drosophila*

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ABSTRACT

Lipid droplets （LDs） are important intracellular dynamic organelles for lipid metabolism. However, the relationship between the status of LDs and innate immune response to infection, especially the underlying mechanisms remain largely unknown. Herein, we describe the morphological dynamic of LDs in fat body of *Drosophila*, which is different between transient and sustained bacterial infection. Detailed analysis shows that *perilipin1* (*plin1*), a core gene regulating lipid metabolism of LDs, is suppressed by innate immune signaling, IMD/Relish pathway, via Martik (MRT) /Putzig (PZG) complex. In transient immune activation, downregulated *plin1* promotes the formation of large LDs, which alleviates immune reactions-induced reactive oxygen species (ROS) stress. Thereby, the growth of LDs is likely an active adaptation in response to IMD activation, which maintains redox homeostasis. Whereas in sustained inflammatory condition, *plin1* deficiency accelerates excessive decomposition of large LDs through recruitment of Brummer/ATGL lipase on LDs, which results in energy wasting and severe lipotoxicity, thus deteriorated pathogenesis. Taken together, our study provides evidences that *plin1* has dual function on LDs' morphology to regulate infection-induced pathogenesis, and Plin1 might be a potential therapeutic target for coordinating the resolution of inflammation and lipid metabolism in LDs.

INTRODUCTION

Immune activation is always tightly accompanied with metabolic reprogramming, which redistributes energy consumption to guarantee the priority of immune protection against pathogenic infection (Hotamisligil, 2017; O'Neill et al., 2016). Thereby, the

homeostatic regulation of metabolism in response to immunoreaction is critical for the

host fitness. Unlike transient infection, sustained infection is often associated with

chronic pathogenesis, which subsequently results in metabolic disorders, the main

threat to the individual health. Besides carbohydrate metabolism, lipid provides another

important bioenergetic and synthetic resources *in vivo*. Quite a few of lipid metabolites

have been reported to play roles in pro-inflammation or anti-inflammation (Arita, 2012;

Serhan et al., 2014; Walpole GFW, 2018). However, the dynamics and differences of

lipid metabolism in transient and sustained inflammatory conditions are barely

described so far.

Lipid droplets（LDs）are important intracellular organelles in all eukaryotic and some

prokaryotic cells(Murphy, 2001), providing the major place for lipid synthesis, lysis,

transfer and storage. These organelles contain a phospholipid monolayer surrounding

neutral lipids, such as di/triacylglycerols or sterol esters (Tauchi-Sato et al., 2002).

Because LDs function mainly through storing and providing energy(Walther and Farese,

2012), they appear to be involved in multiple physiological and pathological processes

in the host. The emerging evidences have shown that LDs are responsive to ER

stress(Fu et al., 2011), buffer starvation stimulation(Velazquez et al., 2016) , play roles

in diseases, such as diabetes and cancer(Cohen JC, 2011; Greenberg et al., 2011). Most

intriguingly, LDs also take participate in immune regulation including but not limit to

modulating functions of myeloid cells (den Brok et al., 2018), combating pathogenic

bacterial infection, exploited by virus and so on (Saka and Valdivia, 2012; Vallochi et

al., 2018; Welte, 2015). The number, size and anchored proteins of LDs are dynamically

changing during the period of infection or inflammation (Harsh et al., 2019; Henne et

al., 2018; Menon et al., 2019). So that this diversification makes it difficult for LDs to

be viewed as either pro-inflammatory or anti-inflammatory modulators(Pereira-Dutra

et al., 2019). It strongly indicates that the homeostasis of LDs should be tightly

controlled. Defects in the biogenesis and the mobilization of LDs will result in free fatty

acid induced lipotoxicity(Ertunc and Hotamisligil, 2016; Listenberger et al., 2003) or

even the accumulation of pro-inflammatory mediators(Feldstein et al., 2004; Summers,

2006), all of which lead to metaflammation accompanied with organelles dysfunction,

secondary inflammatory responses and exacerbated dysbiosis of metabolism(Ertunc

and Hotamisligil, 2016). However, the role and dynamic pattern of LDs during immune

activation still remain obscure. Especially, the factors mediating this immunometabolic

switches of LDs have not been well identified.

Drosophila melanogaster has emerged as a productive organism to investigate

immunometabolism, due to the advantages of powerful genetic manipulation and

highly conserved mechanisms in both innate immunity and metabolism (Heier and

Kuhnlein, 2018; Lemaitre and Hoffmann, 2007; Myllymaki et al., 2014). Especially,

the fat body (analogous to human liver and adipose tissue) is an ideal place for studying

the interaction between LDs' metabolism and inflammation, which thanks to its

richness of LDs and its role as a major organ mediating systemic innate

immunity(Arrese and Soulages, 2010; Kleino and Silverman, 2014). LDs are not

homogenous organelles, which accommodates hundreds of variable proteins (Beller M

et al., 2006; Guo Y et al., 2008). However, Perilipins (Plins) are important constitutive

proteins on the surface of LDs (Itabe et al., 2017; Kimmel and Sztalryd, 2016). There

are two Plins in *Drosophila*, Lipid storage droplet-1 (*lsd1*, homologous to human

PLIN1) and *lsd2* (homologous to human PLIN2) (Bickel et al., 2009). *plin2* acts to

promote lipid storage and LDs' growth as a barrier for lipase(Fauny et al., 2005; Grönke

et al., 2003; Teixeira et al., 2003), while *plin1* modulates protein flux on LDs(Beller et

al., 2010; Bi et al., 2012). In human or mouse adipocyte tissue, PLIN1 deficiency led

to inflammatory cells infiltration and uncontrollable LDs lipolysis (Gandotra S, 2011;

Sohn et al., 2018; Tansey et al., 2001). Depletion of infiltrated immune cells or

inhibition of lipase, adipose triglyceride lipase (ATGL) or hormone-sensitive lipase

(HSL), alleviated this metaflammation(Cani et al., 2007; Schweiger et al., 2017), which

indicates a link between PLIN1 controlled LDs and immunometabolism. However, the

function of LDs and underlying mechanisms involving Plins in response to infection

are still poorly understood.

In this study, the dynamic switches in morphology and number of LDs during transient

and sustained inflammation, induced either by bacterial infection or genetic

manipulation, were compared. Plin1 was found to have a dual function to regulate LDs'

morphology in different inflammatory conditions. And adaptive modification of LDs

acts as a potential modulator of infection-induced pathogenesis.

Results

Immune activation modulates lipid metabolism, particular the morphology of lipid droplets (LDs) in the fat body.

In *Drosophila*, the fat body is not only a center organ mediating systemic immune responses, but also the major place for lipid metabolism. Thus, to decipher the mechanistic connections between innate immunity and lipid metabolism, triglycerides (TAGs) kinetics was detected in the fat body of *Drosophila* after systemic infection. Two bacteria were applied to perform nano-injection to infect adult fruit flies. One bacterium is a fly non-pathogenic Gram-negative bacterium, *Escherichia. Coli* (*E. coli*), which infection results in a transient innate immune response within 48 hour post infection (hpi)(Vodovar et al., 2005). The other one is a fly deadly pathogenic Gram-negative bacterium, *Salmonella. Typhimurium* (*S. typhimurium*), which causes a sustained intracellular infection that triggers a prolonged inflammatory responses in *Drosophila*(Brandt et al., 2004). The immune deficiency (IMD) pathway is the dominant innate immune singling against Gram-negative bacterial infection, which regulates Relish/NF-κB-dependent transcription of AMPs, such as *Diptericin* (*Dpt*) (Hoffmann JA., 2003; JA., 2003; Kaneko T, 2004; Lemaitre and Hoffmann, 2007; Lemaitre, 2007). Therefore, measuring the expression level of *Dpt* can monitor the IMD signaling activity in turn (Leulier et al., 2003; Neyen et al., 2016). Infection by both bacteria led to a gradient increase of IMD activity in the fat body from 0 hpi to 12 hpi. However, the transient immune response induced by *E. coli* infection subsided to the basal level after 48 hpi (**Fig.1A**), until then the prolonged activation of IMD still continuously increased after *Salmonella* infection (**Fig. 1B**). Interestingly, compared

with mock injection control (**Supplementary Fig. S1A**), the TAGs level in the fat body

of flies with *E.coli* infection steadily increased from 6 hpi to 16 hpi, then a decline at

24 hpi and almost recovered after 48 hpi (**Fig. 1A**). But after *S. typhimurium* infection,

the TAGs level presented a continuous decrease in the fat body, which was in negative

correlation with progressively increased IMD activity (**Fig. 1B**). Moreover, only a

decrease of TAGs level was observed in the whole body after *E.coli* infection

(**Supplementary Fig. S1B**), which suggested a preferred lipid import rather than *de*

novo fatty acid synthesis in the fat body from 0 hpi to 12 hpi. It is also consistent with

previous studies that the transcriptional levels of the most triglyceride synthesis genes

are suppressed in the beginning period of infection (Clark et al., 2013; Dionne et al.,

2006). While in the case of sustained infection by *S. typhimurium,* the TAGs level was

continuously decreased in the whole body (**Supplementary Fig. 1C**) as that in the fat

body (**Fig. 1B**). However, these results indicated a link between lipid metabolism and

IMD signaling activation.

LDs is the major place for lipid anabolism, catabolism and mobilization(Kühnlein,

2012), which prompted us to investigate whether the morphology of LDs in the fat body

responds to bacterial infection. Compared with PBS injection group (**Fig. 1C and 1C1**),

BODIPY staining cells of fat bodies showed that both *E. coli* and *S. typhimurium*

infection increased the percentage of intracellular small LDs (diameter < 2 μm) at 6 hpi

(**Fig. 1C and 1C2- C3**). Then, LDs trended to become bigger at 16 hpi indicated by the

decrease of small LDs percentage and the increase of large LDs (diameter > 4 μm)

percentage, and then this size distribution of LDs was restoring to the basal level at 24

h post *E. coli* infection (**Fig. 1C and 1C2**), while the percentage of small LDs kept on

increasing after *S. typhimurium* infection (**Fig. 1C and 1C3**). Similar to the changes of

TAGs level, the average size of LDs in fat body cells raised up before 16 h and

decreased at 24 h post *E. coli* infection, which of that was only continuous decreasing

after *S. typhimurium* infection (**Supplementary Fig. S1D**). These results indicated that

small LDs were firstly prone to fuse into bigger ones within 16 h of *E. coli* infection.

On the contrary, large LDs tended to decompose during *S. typhimurium* infection (**Fig.**

1C and Supplementary Fig. S1D). Therefore, these results suggested that the

morphology of LDs in the fat body changed according to bacterial infection, but

different in transient and sustained infectious condition.

IMD signaling activation sufficiently modifies the morphology of LD.

To determine whether the IMD activation rather than the potential bacterial effects is

responsible for the modification of LDs during infection, a fat body-specific RU486-

inducible GAL4 driver (*GS106-GAL4*) (Roman et al., 2001) was applied to detect the

relationship between IMD signaling and LDs' patterns in the fat body. Ectopic

expression of either different isoforms of *PGRP-LC* (*PGRP-LCx* or *PGRP-LCa*), the

receptor of IMD signaling pathway (Choe et al., 2002; He et al., 2017; Yang et al., 2019),

or the N-terminal of *Relish* (*Rel.68*), the *Drosophila* NF-kB factor (Wiklund et al.,

2009), resulted in a constitutive activation of IMD signaling (**Supplementary Fig.**

S1E-G). IMD activation by *GS106-GAL4* in fat bodies caused an increase of TAGs

level in the fat body at 12 h after RU486 treatment (**Fig. 1D and 1E**), simultaneously,

the TAGs level of whole body didn't change within 12 hpi (**Supplementary Fig. S1H-**

I). These results recalled the phenotypes in the early stage (within 12 hours) of transient

infection by *E. coli*. However, this elevation of TAGs level in fat bodies of WT flies

disappeared in that of flies with mutation along IMD signaling pathway (*imd[1]*、 *PGRP-*

LC[Δ5] and *relish[E20]*) at 12h post injection with heat-killed *E. coli* (These immune

deficient flies died too quickly when primed by live bacteria.) (**Fig. 1F and**

Supplementary Fig. S1J). Furthermore, IMD signaling deficiency also hampered the

increase of LDs size at 16 hpi, comparing with WT control (**Supplementary Fig. S1K-**

L). Whereas, prolonged hyper-activation of IMD signaling induced by RU486 (after

24 hpi) led to a dramatic decrease of TAGs level in both fat body and the whole body

(**Fig. 1D-E and Supplementary Fig. S1H-I**), accompanying with the decrease of both

the percentage of large LDs (**Fig. 1G and 1G1-G3**) and the average LDs size in the fat

body (**Fig. 1H**), all of which was reminiscent of that in sustained infection by *S.*

typhimurium. Therefore, these results suggested IMD activation is necessary and

enough to modify LDs.

***plin1* is involved in LDs modification induced by IMD activation.**

To explore the underlying mechanisms of LD's metabolism in response to immune

activation, genes involved in the regulation of LDs (Beller et al., 2010; Grönke et al.,

2003; Heier and Kuhnlein, 2018; Kühnlein, 2012) were tested in fat bodies by real-time

PCR. After comprehensive analysis of mRNA expression, only four genes, *APGAT2,*

DGAT2, Rfabg and *plin1*, showed opposite transcriptional trends (from 4 hpi to 12 hpi)

in transient infection by *E. coli* when comparing with sustained infection by *S.*

typhimurium (**Supplementary Fig. S2*A* and S2*B***). Further, we noticed that the

expression level of *plin1* present the most reduction in the fat body, in which IMD

overactivated through overexpressing *Rel.68* by fat body-specific driver *ppl-GAL4*

(**Supplementary Fig. S2*C***). Therefore, these results indicated a potential role of *plin1*

in the regulation of LD's metabolism accompanied with IMD activation.

Interestingly, reminiscent of the correlation between TAGs level and IMD activity in

the fat body during bacterial infection of flies (**Fig. 1A**), transient infection by *E. coli*

induced a significant downregulation of the mRNA level of *plin1* at 4 hpi, which was

then restored to the basal level at 24 hpi (**Fig. 2A**). While prolonged overactivation of

IMD signaling either by sustained intracellular *S. typhimurium* infection (**Fig. 2B**), or

by RU486 treatment in fat body-specific GS flies (**Fig. 2C**), led to continuous reduced

plin1 expression. Martik (MRT) /Putzig (PZG) complex, a chromosome remodeling

complex, was reported to suppress *plin1* at transcriptional level (Yao et al., 2018).

Intriguingly, both mRNA levels of *mrt* and *pzg* rose up in the fat body after bacterial

infection (**Fig. 2D and Supplementary Fig. S3A**). Noteworthily, homologous

alignment showed that at least one conserved binding motif of Relish existed in the

promoter region of both *mrt* and *pzg* genes across *Drosophila* species with different

evolutionary ages (**Supplementary Fig. S3B and S3C**). It implied a potential

regulation of Relish on these genes. Peptidoglycan (PGN) derived from gram-negative

bacteria can activate IMD signaling in *Drosophila* S2* cells *in vitro* (Kaneko T, 2004).

Indeed, the luciferase activity controlled by the promoter of *mrt* or *pzg* was significantly

enhanced in S2* cells after PGN treatment, which was blocked by the knockdown of Relish using dsRNA (He et al., 2017) (**Fig. 2E and Supplementary Fig. S3D**). Additionally, two Relish binding motifs flanked truncated *mrt* promoter region (T-*mrt(RelB)*, -870 to +1bp) were critical for *mrt* transcription (**Fig. 2F and Supplementary Fig. S3E**), because PGN treatment didn't enhance T-*mrt*-Luc activity any more when these two sites were removed (**Fig. 2F**). Thus, these results suggested the suppression of *plin1* by IMD signaling might be through upregulation of mrt/pzg. In consistent with previous studies (Beller et al., 2010; Bi et al., 2012), *plin1* deficiency by mutation (*plin1^{38}*) or fat body specific knockdown (*UAS-plin1 RNAi* driven by *ppl-GAL4*) promoted the formation of large LDs (**Fig. 2G**). In contrast, ectopic expression of *plin1* in fat bodies enhanced lipid mobilization and inhibited LD coalescence (Yao et al., 2018), thus led to the accumulation of small LDs (**Fig. 2G**). All together, these results provided explanation for LDs' growth in the early stage of transient IMD activation.

Sustained immune activation prefers to accelerate lipolysis of large LDs in a Bmm/ATGL-dependent manner.

However, unlike transient IMD activation promoted LDs' growth (**Fig. 1C and Supplementary Fig. S1D**), sustained IMD hyper-activation in the fat body, either driven by *ppl-GAL4* (**Fig. 3A**) or RU486 inducible *GS106-GAL4* for 5 days (**Fig. 3B and 3B1**), instead accelerated large LDs decomposition and small LDs generation. Simultaneous deficiency (**Fig. 3A**) or knockdown (**Fig. 3B**) of *plin1* in the fat body

induced the formation of large LDs **(Fig. 3B1)**, with note that the average size of these

LDs is smaller than that of flies with *plin1* deficiency alone **(Fig 2G)**, but bigger than

that of RU486-untreated controls(**Fig. 3B** and **3B1**). Although these results confirmed

the function of Plin1 in reducing LDs' growth, it is worthy to explore mechanism why

IMD-induced autonomous downregulation of *plin1* was unable to overcome LDs'

breakdown in prolonged immune activation condition. Thus, the long time-course of

LDs' morphological change was traced in the fat body of flies with IMD overactivation

(*ppl-Gal4>Rel.68*). Although *plin1* deficiency made *ppl-Gal4>Rel.68;plin1^{38}* flies

have much larger LDs than that of *ppl-gal4>Rel.68* at the first week after eclosion,

these larger LDs then experienced much faster decomposition rate (**Fig. 3C**).

Intriguingly, no matter the distribution of LDs size (**Fig. 3C1-C2**) or the average LDs

size (**Fig. 3D**) had no significant differences in the fat body of *ppl-GAL4>Rel.68* and

ppl-GAL4>Rel68;plin1^{38} flies since the second week. Therefore, these results

suggested that decomposition of LDs occurred quickly and preferred on large LDs

during sustained immune activation.

Persistent inflammation always over-consumes energy, most of which is provided by

lipolysis. Indeed, sustained IMD activation in the fat body (*ppl-GAL4>Rel.68*)

enhanced the decrease of TAGs level in the whole body, very interestingly, which

became much faster when removing *plin1* simultaneously (*ppl-GAL4>Rel68;plin1^{38}*)

(**Supplementary Fig. S4A**). For further confirmation, these flies were treated with

nutrient starvation, a much more sensitive condition. *plin1* mutation indeed

dramatically enhanced TAGs consumption rate in *ppl-GAL4>Rel.68;plin1[38]* flies since

the start of starvation, comparing with *ppl-GAL4>Rel.68* flies (**Fig. 3E**). Consequently,

flies with a higher TAGs consumption rate were more sensitive to starvation (**Fig. 3F**).

Previous study suggested that LDs lipolysis predominately mediated by Brummer

(Bmm), the *Drosophila* homolog of mammalian adipose TAG lipase (ATGL)(Grönke

S, 2007; Gronke et al., 2005). Fat body-specific knockdown of *Bmm* effectively blocked

the quick decomposition of large LDs in the fat body of both *ppl-GAL4>Rel.68* and

ppl-GAL4>Rel68;plin1[38] flies (**Fig. 3G**), and even further promoted the LDs growth in

the fat body (**Fig. 3H)** as well as TAGs content of the whole body **(Supplementary**

Fig. S4B). Furthermore, *Bmm-GFP* knock-in allele was applied to detect the

localization of Bmm on LDs under normal and IMD-activated condition. Compared

with control, IMD activation by fat body-specific overexpression of *Rel.68* significantly

enhanced the Bmm-GFP abundance on the surface of LDs. It's worthy to note that

Bmm-GFP signals were largely concentrated in the contact site between LDs, a sign of

overactive lipolysis (Gronke et al., 2005) (**Fig. 3I**). Together, these results suggested

that sustained IMD activation enhanced Bmm/ATGL-mediated lipolysis of large LDs.

***plin1* compromises host protection against bacterial infection**.

Naturally, whether *plin1*-mediated LDs modification participated in the regulation of

immune function was detected next. Compared with genetic controls, either *plin1*

deficiency (*plin1[38]*) (**Fig. 4A and 4B**) or fat body-specific knockdown of *plin1* (*ppl-*

GAL4>UAS-plni1RNAi) (**Fig. 4C and 4D**) prolonged the survival rate and reduced

bacterial loads (colony-forming units, CFUs) after *S. typhimurium* systemic infection,

indicative of enhanced resistance against bacterial infection. Conversely, ectopic

expression of *plin1* in the fat body (*ppl-GAL4>UAS-plin1*) led to a dramatic increase

of mortality rate of flies infected by *S. typhimurium* (**Fig. 4E ，Reducing infection OD**

because O.E.*plin1* flies died too quickly.**)**, and even by non-pathogenic *E. coli* (**Fig.**

4G), likely due to uncontrolled bacterial growth **(Fig. 4F and 4H)**. To exclude the

potential effects of *plin1* on flies' development, RU486 induced fat body-specific GAL4

(*GS106-GAL4*) was used after fly eclosion. After RU486 treatment for 3 days, the

significant decrease or increase of LDs size by overexpression or knockdown of *plin1*,

respectively, was clearly observed in the fat body (**Fig. 4I**). Since then, flies were

challenged with *S. typhimurium*. As expected, downregulation of *plin1* prolonged the

survival rate, while upregulation of *plin1* shortened the survival rate and elevated

bacterial loads after *S. typhimurium* infection (**Fig. 4J and 4K**). However, deficiency

of *plin1* did not affect anti-microbial peptides (AMPs) (*Diptericin, Dpt; AttacinA, AttA*)

response upon *E. coli* infection (**Supplementary Fig. S5A**), but particularly improved

Dpt expression upon *S. typhimurium* infection (**Supplementary Fig. S5B**). More

interestingly, overexpression of *plin1* obviously dampened the AMPs response in both

E. coli and *S. typhimurium* infection (**Supplementary Fig. S5C and S5D**). Taken

together, these results suggested that adaptive downregulation of *plin1* in response to

IMD signaling activation at least benefited the host against bacterial infection.

Large LDs relieves oxidative stress associated with immune activation.

Lipid metabolic disorder usually follows sustained inflammation response. And one

hallmark is excessive lipolysis-induced lipotoxicity (Blaser et al., 2016; Grisouard et

al., 2012; Morgan and Liu, 2011; Zu et al., 2009), which is one causative factor for

reactive oxidative species (ROS)-related tissue damages(Ertunc and Hotamisligil, 2016;

Herms et al., 2013; Listenberger et al., 2003). Since LDs are major hubs for lipid

metabolism in fat body cells, it promoted us to investigate whether *plin1*-mediated LDs

modification during immune response regulates intracellular redox homeostasis. A

transgenic allele with a *gstD-GFP* insertion was applied to monitor ROS activity *in vivo*

by measuring GFP intensity (Sykiotis and Bohmann, 2008). Transient infection by

E.coli only induced a slight and temporary elevation of ROS level in the fat body at 16

hpi. However, *S. typhimurium* infection resulted in a continuous and strong increase of

intracellular ROS level in fat bodies (**Fig. 5A and 5A1-A2**). Additionally, fluorescent

probe 2',7'-dichlorofluorescein diacetate (DCFH-DA) was also used to evaluate

intracellular ROS level. DCFH-DA staining showed that sustained IMD activation

induced by RU486 feeding for 5 days caused a significant increase of ROS levels in the

fat body of *GS106-GAL4>PGRP-LC* (*LCa or LCx*) and *GS106-GAL4>Rel.68* flies (**Fig.**

5B and 5B1-B3). These results suggested a link between sustained IMD activation and

accumulated intracellular oxidative stress. To determine whether immune activation

induced-oxidative stress affects the host against bacterial infection, N-acetylcysteine

(NAC), a widely-used ROS scavenger, was fed to flies after *S. typhimurium* infection.

Feeding flies with NAC at 12 h, not 0h, post *S. typhimurium* infection, just when the

excessive ROS accumulation was already rapidly developing (**Fig. 5A**), significantly

improved flies' survival, compared to non-feeding control (**Fig. 5C**). These results

suggested that oxidative stress developing with sustained immune response is harmful

to fly after bacterial infection.

Very impressively, data correlation analysis showed that there seemed to be a positive

correlation between the continuously increased percentage of small LDs (< 2 μm) and

the gradient accumulated ROS intensity in fat body cells after *S. typhimurium* infection

(**Fig. 5D**). Recalling the phenotypes of low ROS intensity and large LDs formation in

WT flies during transient infection by *E. coli* (**Fig. 5A and Fig. 1C**), whether large LDs

has ability against intracellular oxidative stress was determined next. *plin1* deficiency

(*plin1^{38}*) or knockdown (*UAS-plin1RNAi* driven by *ppl-GAL4*), which promoted LDs

growth, contained the lower level of ROS than that of control (**Fig. 5E and 5E1-E2**).

In contrast, overexpressing *plin1*（*ppl-GAL4> plin1*）, which transformed LDs into

smaller ones, led to a much higher level of ROS intensity (**Fig. 5E and 5E2**). The

similar phenotypes were observed in fat body-specific *GS106-GAL4* flies after RU486

induction (**Fig. 5F and 5F1-F2).** Intriguingly, further removing *plin1* from *ppl-*

GAL4>Rel.68 flies significantly ameliorated ROS accumulation in the fat body in this

sustained IMD activated condition (**Fig. 5G and 5G1**). More importantly, deficiency

of *plin1* significantly prolonged the survival rate of *ppl-GAL4>UAS-Rel.68* flies after

S. typhimurium infection, with the note that flies with IMD hyper-activation alone (*ppl-*

GAL4>UAS-Rel.68) were more susceptible to *S. typhimurium* infection than its genetic

control (**Fig. 5H**). In addition, if we blocked the decomposition of large LDs associated

with IMD overactivation by knockdown of *Bmm* in the fat body, it strikingly benefited

the survival of *ppl-GAL4>Rel.68* flies as well, even without infection (**Fig. 5I**).

Therefore, these results suggested that large LDs formation contributed to alleviate the

intracellular oxidative stress induced by IMD activation. And Plin1 might serve as an

important linker to respond to IMD signaling and to modify LDs.

To further investigate antioxidative role of LDs, the morphology of LDs in fat body

cells was examined in flies with disruption of ROS metabolism. In *Drosophila*,

<u>sup</u>er<u>o</u>xide <u>d</u>ismutase genes (*sod1/sod2*) or <u>cat</u>alase gene (*cat*) encoded enzymes for

intracellular ROS clearance (C M Griswold et al., 1993; J P Phillips et al., 1989).

Knockdown of either *sod1*, *sod2* or *cat*, which led to excessive ROS accumulation,

promoted LDs growth significantly (**Fig. 6A and 6B**). Interestingly, once these flies

were fed with NAC to remove intracellular ROS, the morphology and the average size

of LDs almost reverted to the level as controls (**Fig. 6A and 6B**). Furthermore,

simultaneously overexpressing *plin1* or *Bmm* in the fat body sufficiently blocked the

formation of large LDs in *ppl-GAL4>UAS-sod1-RNAi*, *sod2-RNAi* or *cat-RNAi* flies

(**Fig. 6C and 6D**), which as expect caused much stronger ROS accumulation than

controls (**Fig. 6E and 6F**). Taken together, these results suggested that adaptive LDs

growth benefited flies to resist oxidative stress.

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378 **Discussion**

379 Lipid metabolic reprogramming has been widely reported to associate with immune

380 responses (Buck et al., 2017; Hotamisligil, 2017; O'Neill et al., 2016). As the major

381 intracellular organelle for lipid metabolism and storage, LDs also seem to be involved

in immune process. Immune stimulation either by infection with bacteria (D'Avila et al., 2006; Peyron et al., 2008), virus (Barba G, 1997; Hope et al., 2002; Samsa et al., 2009), fungus(Sorgi et al., 2009) and protozoan parasites (Vallochi et al., 2018), or by inoculation with cytokines(Bandeira-Melo et al., 2001; Pacheco P et al., 2002) is able to promote the biogenesis of LDs in mammalian leukocytes. Recently, Hash et al also confirmed that LDs are infection-inducible organelles in the gut of *Drosophila* at a certain timepoint after infection (Harsh et al., 2019). However, the status and morphology of LDs is changing rapidly *in vivo*. The dynamic transformation of LDs during immune response, and in turn whether LDs status link to the regulation of pathogenesis is rarely described.

In our study (**Fig.7**), we carefully traced the time-course morphogenesis of LDs in the fat body beside the dynamic curve of IMD signaling activity. We found that transient IMD activation (within 12hpi) by non-pathogenic bacterial infection promoted LDs' growth in the fat body. The LDs' size and TAGs level in the fat body peaked when IMD activity achieved its peak. However, the TAGs level in the whole body decreased around that period, suggesting the substrates for LDs' biogenesis in the fat body might come from imported lipid rather than *de novo* synthesized fatty acids. And IMD signaling activation is required for this process. Detailed analysis showed that *plin1* downregulation takes charge of LDs' growth in response to transient IMD activation because its expression is suppressed by IMD/Relish activated MRT/PZG complex. These findings indicate that LDs' biogenesis is likely an active host adaptation to

immune challenges. As the evidence to further support this hypothesis, we found that

enlarged LDs benefits the host against intracellular ROS-mediated oxidative stress,

which is tightly associated with IMD activation. Excessive ROS accumulation is often

the main cause for inflammation/infection-induced cellular damages. The similar

antioxidative function of LDs were also reported in neuron stem cell niche(Bailey et al.,

2015) and in cancer cells (Bensaad et al., 2014). However, the detailed mechanism that

large LDs prevent ROS accumulation needs further investigation. One possibility is that

biological processes such as cancer, neural activity, and inflammation are energy-

intensive, rely on robust fat metabolism, which releases amounts of free fatty acid. The

oxidation of free fatty acids generates ROS and the growth of LDs efficiently sequester

these excessive free lipids. Moreover, large LDs' formation can reduce the opportunity

that pathogens make use of free fatty acids for their own proliferation(Arena et al., 2011;

LaRock et al., 2015; Narayanan and Edelmann, 2014). That might be why *plin1*

deficient flies, owning bigger LDs, had lower bacterial loads after infection. In addition,

larger LDs might contain more resident histones, a cationic protein which was reported

to be able to kill bacteria in previous study(Anand P et al., 2012). In mammals, IFN-γ

treatment of *M. tuberculosis* infected bone-marrow derived macrophage (BMDM) can

induce the formation of LDs, in which neutral lipids serve as a source to produce

eicosanoids for enhancing the host defense (Knight et al., 2018). Thereby, LDs' growth

is beneficial for both redox homeostasis and anti-infection. The downregulation of

Plin1 to enlarge LDs might be an effective adaptation for the host to resolve

inflammation-associated stress in response to immune activation.

However, during sustained pathogenesis induced either by pathogenic bacterial infection or by hyper-activation of IMD signaling through genetic manipulation, only progressively smaller LDs were observed. We assumed that LDs' growth by autonomous downregulation of endogenous *plin1* in response to IMD activation was unable to overcome robust lipolysis in high energy-consumed hyperinflammation. In consistence, TAGs level in the whole body was continuous decreased either. Interestingly and impressively, although mutation of *plin1* in flies with IMD overactivation enlarged LDs initially, the decomposition of LDs in these flies is instead much faster than flies with IMD hyper-activation alone. Protein translocation assay confirmed that sustained IMD overactivation increased the recruitment of the key rate-limiting lipase, Bmm/ATGL, on the surface of LDs. Furthermore, one finding that *Plin1$^{-/-}$* mice have a higher rate of ATGL-mediated lipolysis in the adipose tissue (Sohn et al., 2018), supports our notion that Bmm/ATGL-mediated lipolysis might prefer to occur on *plin1* deficient-induced large LDs. As we mentioned above, hyperinflammation leads to the excess accumulation of free fatty acids in the cytoplasm, which will promote lipotoxicity and ROS-induced oxidative stress(Aitken et al., 2006; Koppers et al., 2010; Song et al., 2014). The high level of intracellular ROS can further promote lipolysis and free fatty acids release(Krawczyk SA et al., 2012). This vicious circle finally drives the host enter a severe metaflammation state during chronic hyperinflammation, and subsequently shorten lifespan. A recent study showed that renal purge of hemolymphatic lipids can efficiently prevent ROS-mediated tissue damage in

inflammation(Li et al., 2020). In our study, knockdown of Bmm, to prevent free lipids'

generation, can also prolonged the lifespan of flies with hyper-inflammation. Therefore,

although LDs' growth drove by *plin1* downregulation is an active protection mechanism,

high energic wasting in severe pathological condition is more powerful to consume

these large LDs very quickly. Instead, *plin1* mutation looks like to enhance the

decomposition of large LDs in this case. However, the mechanism of the recruitment

of lipases on large LDs in response to hyper-inflammation, and the involvement of Plin1

need further investigation.

Plin1 is an important regulator on the surface of LDs. It has been reported to control

the lipid mobilization on LDs surface by recruiting kinds of enzymes(Gandotra et al.,

2011; Sztalryd et al., 2003) . We found in this study *plin1* expression is also regulated

by innate immune signaling. It promotes us to image that Plin1 may serve as a bridge

factor to link immunity and lipid metabolism through modification of LDs. In response

to transient immune activation, adaptative enlarged LDs benefit the host against

inflammation-related stress; while in prolonged hyper-immune activation, large LDs

decompose quickly and enhance lipolysis, which worsen the pathogenesis. The

dynamic morphogenesis of LDs in these two conditions are totally different, in both of

which Plin1 involved. It is worthy in the future to trace and dissect the dynamic protein

composition on the surface of LDs along the different stages of inflammation,

especially the ones interacted with Plin1. In sum, we found that the homeostasis of LDs'

morphology is critical in the regulation of pathogenesis during infection. And LDs'

regulation may provide a potential therapeutic target for resolution of inflammation.

Materials and Methods

Detailed information on *Drosophila* stocks and bacterial strain; cloning and double-

strand RNAs; infection and survival rate counting; lifespan counting; bacterial loads

assay; cell culture, transfection and luciferase assay; qRT-PCR; lipid droplet staining

and counting; TAG assay; RU486 treatment; ROS detection; starvation test; microscopy

and software; statistical analyses are described in the Supplemental Experimental

Procedures.

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Author's contributions

497 Conceptualization, L.W. and L.P.; Methodology and Validation, L.W. and L.P.; Formal

498 Analysis, L.W. J.L., J.Y., Z.F. and L.P.; Investigation, L.W. and L.P.; Resources, L.P.;

499 Writing-Original Draft, L.W. and L.P.; Writing -Review & Editing, L.P.; Supervision,

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DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

503 The authors declare no competing interests.

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MAIN FIGURES AND LEGENDS

Including seven main figures.

Figure 1

Fig. 1. IMD signaling activation switches lipid metabolism and LDs morphology in the fat body. (**A** and **B**) Relative *Dptericin*(*Dpt*) mRNA expression and TAGs level in the fat body of wild type flies at indicated time points post *E. coli* (**A**) and *S. typhimurium* (**B**) infection. The mean values of *Dpt* mRNA expression or TAGs level were connected by dash line. The fold change of mRNA expression was normalized to that of 0 h and four independent repeats (n =20 flies per repeat) were performed at each time point. Total TAGs level of 25 flies' fat body tissues was quantified in six biological replicates at each time point. (**C**) BODIPY staining (green) of LDs in the fat body of wild type flies at indicated time points post *E. coli* (upper panel) and *S. typhimurium* (lower panel) infection. Nuclei of fat body cells were stained with DAPI (blue). Scale bar: 10 μm. The corresponding statistics of the distribution of LDs' size was shown in (**C1**) for *E. coli* infection and in (**C2**) for *S. typhimurium* infection (n =30 cells for each time point). Eight fat bodies were examined for each time point. (**D** and **E**) Relative changes of TAGs level in the fat body of *GS106-GAL4> PGRP-LCx* (**D**) and *GS106-GAL4> PGRP-LCa* (**E**) flies after RU486 treatment for indicated time. The change of TAG levels was normalized to that of 0h without RU486 treatment. Six independent repeats (n =25 flies per repeat) at each time point were performed. (**F**) Relative TAGs level in the fat body of wild type and IMD pathway mutants (*Relish*，*PGRP-LC* and *Imd*). Each value of TAGs level was normalized to that of 0h of wild type. Each data contains four independent repeats (25 flies' fat body tissues per repeat). (**G**) BODIPY staining (green) of LDs in the fat body of indicated flies after 5 days with (lower panel) or without (upper panel) RU486 treatment (**G**). Nuclei of fat body cells were stained with DAPI (blue). Scale bar: 20 μm. The corresponding statistics of the distribution of LDs' size was shown in (**G1**) for *GS106-GAL4> Rel.68* flies, in (**G2**) for *GS106-GAL4> PGRP-LCx* flies and in (**G3**) for *GS106-GAL4> PGRP-LCa* flies (n =30 cells in each genotype). Eight fat bodies were examined for each sample. (**H**) The statistics of LDs size (n =30 cells) in fat body cells of indicated flies after RU486 treatment for 5 days. Each scattering dot represents the data from one fat body cell. Error bars represent the mean ± s.d. (**A-B, D-F**) and mean with range (**H**). Data were analyzed by One-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple-comparison test (**A-B, D, E**) and Multiple t-tests (**D-F, H**). *$p <$ 0.05; **$p < 0.01$; ***$p < 0.001$; ns, not significant. **See also in Supplementary Figure 1.**

Figure 2

Fig. 2. *plin1* responds to IMD activation through Mrt/Pzg complex, and regulates LDs' morphology. (**A and B**) Relative *plin1* mRNA levels in the fat body of wild type flies at the indicated time points post *E. coli* (**A**) or *S. typhimurium* (**B**) infection. Flies treated with sterile PBS were used as a control. The fold change of mRNA expression was normalized to that of 0 h**.** (**C**) Relative *plin1* mRNA levels in the fat body of *GS106-GAL4>PGRP-LCs* flies after RU486 treatment for indicated time. The fold change of mRNA expression was normalized to that of 0 h. (**D**) Relative *mrt* mRNA levels in the fat body of wild type flies post *E. coli* or *S. typhimurium* infection. Flies treated with sterile PBS were used as a control. The fold change of mRNA expression was normalized to that of 0 h. (**E**) Relative luciferase activities of F-*mrt*(RelB) (Full length promoter of -1.5kb to +1bp including all predicted Relish Binding motifs in Fig. S3) reporter in S2* cells after double strand RNA (dsRNA) and PGN (35 μg/ml) treatment. All data were normalized to dsGFP control group at 0 h. Three independent repeats were performed at each time point for each treatment. (**F**) Relative luciferase activities of T-*mrt*(RelB) (Truncated length promoter of -870 to +1bp flanked with two key binding motifs) and T-*mrt* (Truncated length promoter with no binding motifs) reporter in S2* cells after PGN (35 μg/ml) treatment. All data were normalized to T-*mrt*(RelB) group at 0 h. Three independent repeats were performed at each time point for each group. (**G**) BODIPY staining (green) of LDs in the fat body of indicated flies. Nuclei of fat body cells were stained with DAPI (blue). Eight fat bodies were examined for each genotype. Scale bar: 20 μm. Error bars represent the mean ± s.d.. Data were analyzed by One-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple-comparison test (**A-D**), Multiple t-tests (**A-B**) and Student's t test (**E-F**). $*p < 0.05$; $**p < 0.01$; $***p < 0.001$; ns, no significance. **See also in Supplementary Figure 2 and 3.**

Figure 3

Fig. 3. *S*ustained IMD activation prefers to enhance Bmm-mediated lipolysis on large LDs. (**A**) BODIPY staining (green) of LDs in the fat body of indicated flies. Nuclei of fat body cells were stained with DAPI (blue). Eight fat bodies were examined for each genotype. Scale bar: 20 μm. (**B**) BODIPY staining (green) of LDs (**B**) and statistics of the size distribution of LDs (**B1**) in the fat body of indicated flies after RU486 treatment for 5 days. Nuclei of fat body cells were stained with DAPI (blue). Eight fat bodies were examined for each sample. Scale bar: 20 μm. (**C** and **D**) BODIPY staining (green) of LDs in the fat body of *ppl-GAL4>Rel.68* and *ppl-GAL4>Rel.68,plin^{38}* adult flies (up panel, one-week age; middle panel, two-week age; low panel, three-week age). The corresponding statistics of the distribution of LDs' size was shown in (**C1**) for *ppl-GAL4>Rel.68* flies and in (**C2**) for *ppl-GAL4>Rel.68,plin^{38}* flies (n =30 cells), and the corresponding statistics of the average size of LDs (**D**). Nuclei of fat body cells were stained with DAPI (blue). Eight fat bodies were examined for each sample. Scale bars: 20 μm. (**E**) Relative TAGs level in the whole body of indicated flies before/after starvation. The change of TAG levels was normalized to that of 0 h for each genotype. Six independent replicates for each sample were performed (n =12 per repeat). (**F**) Survival curves of indicated flies (n = 60) with starvation. (**G** and **H**) BODIPY staining (green) of LDs (**G**) and the corresponding statistics of the average size of LDs (n =30 cells) (**H**) in the fat body of indicated adult flies (up panel, one-week age; low panel, two-week age). Eight fat bodies were examined for each sample. Each scattering dot represents the data from one fat body cell. Nuclei of fat body cells were stained with DAPI (blue). Scale bars: 20 μm. (**I**) Nile red staining (red) of LDs and Bmm-GFP located on the surface of LDs (green) in the fat body of indicated flies. Arrow indicated contact site of LDs. Eight fat bodies were examined for each genotype. Scale bars: 10 μm. Values of plotted curves represent mean ± s.d. of at least three independent repeats (**E-F**). Error bars represent the mean with range (**D, H**). Data were analyzed by Student t-tests (**D-E**), Multiple t-tests (**H**) and Kaplan–Meier (**F**). **p < 0.01; ***p < 0.001; ns, no significance. **See also in Supplementary Figure 4.**

Figure 4

Fig. 4. *plin1* participates in the susceptibility of flies to bacterial infection. (**A** and **B**) Survival curves (**A**) and bacterial loads (CFUs) (**B**) of wild type and *plin1^{38}* flies (n =60) post *S. typhimurium* infection. (**C** and **D**) Survival curves (**C**) and bacterial loads (CFUs) (**D**) of *ppl-GAL4>plin1 RNAi* and control flies (n =60) post *S. typhimurium* infection. (**E** and **F**) Survival curves (**E**) and bacterial loads (CFUs) (**F**) of *ppl-GAL4>plin1* and control flies (n =60) post *S. typhimurium* infection. (**G** and **H**) Survival curves (**G**) and bacterial loads (CFUs) (**H**) of *ppl-GAL4>plin1* and control flies (n =60) post *E. coli* infection. (**I**) BODIPY staining (green) of LDs in the fat body of *GS106-GAL4>plin1* and *GS106-GAL4>plin1 RNAi* flies after 3 days with (lower panel) or without (upper panel) RU486 treatment. Eight fat bodies were examined for each sample. Scale bar: 20 μm. (**J** and **K**) Survival curves (**J**) and bacterial loads (CFUs) (**K**) of above flies (*I*) (n =60) post *S. typhimurium* infection. Values of plotted curves represent mean ± s.d. (**A, C, E, G, J**) of at least three independent repeats. Each scattering dot (CFUs) represents one technical replicate, line represents the mean of four independent repeats (**B, D, F, H, K**). Data were analyzed by Kaplan–Meier (**A, C, E, G, J**) and Multiple t-tests (**B, D, F, H, K**). *$p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$. **See also in Supplementary Figure 5.**

Figure 5

Fig. 5. The formation of large LDs ameliorates sustained inflammation induced oxidative stress. (**A**) ROS level indicated by GFP intensity (green) of *gstD-GFP* reporter in the fat body of wild type flies infected with *E. coli* (upper panel) or *S. typhimurium* (lower panel) at indicated time points. The statistics of GFP intensity was plotted in (**A1**) for *E. coli* infection and in (**A2**) for *S. typhimurium* infection. Eight fat bodies were examined for each sample and each scattering dot represents the data from one image. Scale bar: 20 μm. (**B**) ROS level indicated by DCFH-DA staining (green) in the fat body of indicated flies with (lower panel) or without (Upper panel) RU486 treatment for 5 days. The statistics of fluorescence intensity was plotted in (**B1**) for *GS106-GAL4>Rel.68* flies, in (**B2**) for *GS106-GAL4>PGRP-LCx* flies and in (**B3**) for *GS106-GAL4>PGRP-LCa* flies. Eight fat bodies were examined for each sample and each scattering dot represents the data from one image. Scale bar: 20 μm. (**C**) Survival curves of wild type flies (n=60 flies) with or without NAC treatment at indicated time post *S. typhimurium* infection. (**D**) Correlation analysis between the percentage of small LDs (< 2 μm, green) and intracellular ROS level (red) in fat body cells at indicated time points post *S. typhimurium* infection. The regression analysis was performed, respectively. Red regression dash line presents the change of intracellular ROS level (r^2 = 0.59) and green regression dash line present the change of small LDs percentage (r^2 = 0.87). The Pearson's correlation of these two set of data was analyzed (Pearson's correlation coefficient R=0.74). (**E**) ROS level indicated by DCFH-DA staining (green) in the fat body of indicated flies. The statistics of fluorescence intensity was plotted in (**E1**) for *plin1[38]* and in (**E2**) for *ppl-GAL4>plin1* and *ppl-GAL4>plin1-RNAi* flies and their genetic controls, respectively. Dashed circle indicated LDs. Eight fat bodies were examined for each sample and each scattering dot represents the data from one image. Scale bar: 20 μm. (**F**) ROS level indicated by DCFH-DA staining (green) in the fat body of indicated flies with (lower panel) or without (upper panel) RU486 treatment for 5 days. The statistics of fluorescence intensity was plotted in (**F1**) for *GS106-GAL4>plin1* and in (**F2**) for *GS106-GAL4>plin1 RNAi* flies. Eight fat bodies were examined for each sample and each scattering dot represents the data from one image. Scale bar: 20 μm. (**G**) ROS level indicated by DCFH-DA staining (green) in the fat body of *ppl-GAL4>Rel.68*，*ppl-GAL4>Rel.68, plin[38]* flies and control flies. The corresponding fluorescence intensity was quantified in (**G1**). Eight fat bodies were examined for each sample and each scattering dot represents the data from one image. Scale bar: 20 μm. (**H**) Survival curves of *ppl-GAL4>Rel.68, ppl-GAL4>Rel.68,plin[38]* one-week old adult flies and control flies (n =60) after *S. typhimurium* infection. PBS injection as a control. (**I**) The lifespan curves of indicated flies at normal condition (n =60 per genotype). Error bars represent the mean with range (**A1-2, B1-3, C, E1-2, F1-2, G1**). Values of plotted curves represent mean ± s.d. of at least three independent repeats (**C, H, I**). Data was analyzed by One-Way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple-comparison test (**A1-2, E2, G1**), Student's t test (**B1-3, E1-2, F1-2**) and Kaplan–Meier (**C, H, I**). *$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$; ***$p < 0.001$.

Figure 6

Fig. 6. Adaptive large LDs formation contributes to eliminate excessive intracellular ROS. (**A** and **B**) BODIPY staining (green) of LDs (**A**) and the corresponding statistics of LDs' size (n =30 cells) (**B**) in the fat body of indicated flies after 5 days with (lower panel) or without (upper panel) N-acetyl-L-cysteine (NAC) treatment. Eight fat bodies were examined for each sample. Scale bar: 20 μm. (**C** and **D**) BODIPY staining (green) of LDs (**C**) and the corresponding statistics of LDs' size (n =30 cells) (**D**) in the fat body of indicated one-week old adult flies. Eight fat bodies were examined for each sample. Scale bar: 20 μm. (**E** and **F**) ROS levels indicated by DCFH-DA staining (green) in the fat body of indicated one-week old adult flies and control flies (**E**). The corresponding fluorescence intensity was quantified in (**F**). Eight fat bodies were examined for each sample and each scattering dot represents the data from one image. Scale bar: 20 μm. Error bars represent the mean with range. Data was analyzed by One-Way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple-comparison test (**B, D, F**) and Student's t test (**B, F**). *$p < 0.05$; ***$p < 0.001$; ns, no significance.

Figure 7

Fig. 7. The schematic diagram of LDs' morphogenesis mediated by Plin1 during infection-induced pathogenesis. LD's growth induced by downregulation of *plin1* at early-stage of *E. coli* infection. And enlarged LDs provides antioxidant role and benefits the host for anti-infection. While, sustained hyper-inflammation induced either by *S. typhimurium* infection or genetic manipulation triggers progressively enhanced LDs' lipolysis. And *plin1* deficiency accelerates excessive decomposition of large LDs, which results in energy wasting and severe lipotoxicity, thus deteriorated pathogenesis.

SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

Supplemental Information includes five figures, and one table.

Supplementary Figure Legends

Figure S1

Fig. S1. IMD signaling modifies lipid metabolism and LDs morphology. Related to Figure 1. (**A**) Relative *Dptericin* (*Dpt*) mRNA expression (black) and TAGs level (gray) in the fat body of wild type flies at indicated time points after sterile PBS injection. The fold change of mRNA expression was normalized to that of 0 h and four independent repeats (n =20 flies per repeat) were performed at each time point. Total TAGs level of 25 flies' fat body tissues was quantified in six biological replicates at each time point. (**B** and **C**) Relative TAGs levels in the whole body of wild type flies at indicated time points post *E. coli* (**B**) or *S. typhimurium* (**C**) infection. Sterile PBS injection as a control. The change of TAG levels was normalized to that of 0 h, respectively. Six independent replicates for each time point were performed (n =12 flies per replicate). (**D**) The statistics of LDs' size (n =30 cells) in the fat body of wild type flies at indicated time point post *E. coli* or *S. typhimurium* infection. Each scattering dot represents the data from one fat body cell. (**E-G**) Relative *Dpt* mRNA expression in the fat body of *GS106-GAL4> PGRP-LCx* (**E**) and *GS106-GAL4> PGRP-LCa* (**F**) and *GS106-GAL4>Rel.68* (**G**) flies at indicated time point after with or without RU486 feeding. The data was normalized to that of 0 h without RU486 treatment. Four independent repeats at each time point were performed (n = 20 per repeat). (**H** and **I**) TAGs level in the whole body of *GS106-GAL4> PGRP-LCx* (**H**) and *GS106-GAL4> PGRP-LCa* (**I**) flies at indicated time point after with or without RU486 feeding. Six independent replicates for each time point were performed (n =12 flies in each replicate). (**J**) Relative *Dptericin* (*Dpt*) mRNA expression (black) and TAGs level (Grey) in the fat body of wild type flies at indicated time points post heat-killed *E. coli* (HK-*E. coli*) infection. The sample were treated and analyzed in the same way as above (**A**) described. (**K-L**) BODIPY staining (green) of LDs (**K**) and the corresponding statistics of LDs' size (n =30 cells) (**L**) in the fat body of IMD pathway mutant flies and corresponding genetic control flies. Eight fat bodies were examined for each sample. Scale bar: 20 μm. Error bars represent mean ± s.d. (**A-C, E-J**) or mean with range (**D, L**). Data were analyzed by One-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple-comparison test (**A-D, H-J**) and Multiple t-tests (**B-C, E-I, L**). *$p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$; ns, no significance.

Figure S2

A

B

C

Fig. S2. The expression profile of genes involved in the regulation of LDs metabolism during IMD activation. Related to Figure 2. (**A** and **B**) Relative mRNA expression of a set of genes related to LD metabolism in the fat body of wild type flies at the indicated time points post *E. coli* (**A**) or *S. typhimurium* (**B**) infection. All measurements were normalized to that of 0 h (red line). Four independent repeats at each time point were performed (n = 20 per repeat). (**C**) Relative mRNA expression of genes *APGAT2*, *DGAT2*, *Rfabg* and *Plin1* in the fat body of *ppl-GAL4>Rel.68* flies compared with its genetic control flies of *ppl-GAL4> +*. Four independent repeats at each time point were performed (n = 20 per repeat). Error bars represent mean ± s.d.. Data were analyzed by Multiple t-tests. *** $p < 0.001$.

Figure S3

Fig. S3. Relish/NF-κB potentially regulates the transcription of *mrt* or *pzg* in *Drosophila* subgroups. Related to Figure 2. (**A**) Relative *pzg* mRNA levels in the fat body of wild type flies post *E. coli* or *S. typhimurium* infection. Flies treated with sterile PBS were used as a control. The fold change of mRNA expression was normalized to that of 0 h. Four independent repeats (n=20 flies fat body tissues per repeat) were performed at each time point for each group. (**B and C**) Predicted Relish/NF-κB-binding motifs in the promoter locus of *mrt* (**B**) and *pzg* (**C**) genes of five *Drosophila* subgroups. Dmel, *Drosophila melanogaster*; Dsim, *D. simulans*; sec, *D. sechelia*; Dyak, *D. yakuba*; Dere, *D. erecta*. S1-S5 represent the location site (red color) of conserved binding motifs. Sequence alignment is analyzed by BLAST in flybase website. TSS: transcription start site. (**D**) Relative luciferase activities of *pzg* (1.5 KB upstream of ATG, all predicted Relish binding sites are covered) reporter in S2* cells after double strand RNA (dsRNA) and PGN (35 μg/ml) treatment. All data were normalized to dsGFP control group at 0 h. Three independent repeats were performed at each time point for each treatment. (**E**) Schematic diagram of the *mrt* promoter locus and the plasmid constructs used for luciferase assay. The full length (F-*mrt*(RelB):-1.5k to +1bp), truncated length (T-*mrt*(RelB):-870 to +1bp) and mutant length (T-*mrt*:-870 to +1bp without binding motifs) of *mrt* promoter were indicated. Error bars represent the mean ± s.d.. Data were analyzed by One-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple-comparison test (**A**) and Student's t test (**D**). *$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$; ***$p < 0.001$; ns, no significance.

Figure S4

A

Whole body TAG

TAGs level change

ppl-GAL4> +
ppl-GAL4>Rel.68
ppl-GAL4>Rel.68;plin1³⁸

] *
] ***

61.15
72.01
79.53

1 W   3 W

Age

B

Whole body TAG

TAGs level (nmol /mg fly)

150
100
50
0

***   ***

Rel.68
Rel.68; Bmm RNAi
Rel.68; plin1³⁸
Rel.68;plin1³⁸ ,Bmm RNAi

ppl-GAL4 >

Fig. S4. *plin1* deficiency enhances Bmm/ATGL-dependent lipolysis in the condition of sustained IMD activation. Related to Figure 3. (**A**) TAGs level change in the whole body of indicated one-week or three-week old flies. The change of TAG levels at 3 w was normalized to that of 1w for each genotype. The number on the right of each line represents the percentage reduction of TAGs level at 3 w compared with 1 w for each genotype. Six independent replicates at each time point for each genotype were performed (n =12 flies per replicate). (**B**) Relative TAGs levels in the whole body of indicated one-week old adult flies. All values of TAGs level were normalized to that of 0h of *ppl-GAL4>+* control flies. Six independent replicates for each genotype were performed (n =12 flies per replicate). Error bars represent the mean ± s.d.. Data were analyzed by One-way ANOVA with Student t-test. *$p < 0.05$; ****$p < 0.001$.

Figure S5

Fig. S5. Overexpression *plin1* compromises AMP responses. Related to Figure 4. (**A** and **B**) Relative *diptericin (Dpt)* and *attacin-A (AttA)* mRNA expression in the fat body of *plin1³⁸* mutant flies and wild type flies at indicated time points post *E. coli* (**A**) or *S. typhimurium* (**B**) infection. Four independent repeats were performed (n = 20 per repeat). (**C** and **D**) Relative *diptericin (Dpt)* and *attacin-A (AttA)* mRNA expression of *ppl-GAL4> plin1* flies and *ppl-GAL4> +* control flies at indicated time points post *E. coli* (**C**) and *S. typhimurium* (**D**) infection. Four independent repeats were performed (n = 20 per repeat). Error bars represent mean ± s.d. Data was analyzed by Multiple t-tests. **$p < 0.01$; ***$p < 0.001$.

 Table S1: Primers used in this study.

Genes	Forward primer	Reverse primer
	qRT-PCR primers	
Rp49	AGATCGTGAAGAAGCGCACCAAG	CACCAGGAACTTCTTGAATCCGG
Dpt	GGCTTATCCGATGCCCGACG	TCTGTAGGTGTAGGTGCTTCCC
AttA	CACAACTGGCGGAACTTTGG	AAACATCCTTCACTCCGGGC
plin1	CAGCGCATACCACTGGTCTAT	GCATTACCGATTGCTTGACAG
plin2	CGAGCGCCTCCTTGAATAC	AGAACTCTTGCCATTCTGCAC
DGAT2/CG1942	GATTACTTTCCCGTGGAGCTGG	CCCATGTTAATGCCAATGCCTG
DGAT1/mdy	AAGACAGGCCTCTACTATTGT	CCCATCATGCCCATAAATGCC
DGAT/CG1941	GTTGCTGCCGTGCTGTTCTAT	GTGGGTTCTCTTGTGATTCGC
DGAT/CG1946	CTTCTTTACGCTGCCCATCTCG	CCATTACCTTCCATAATGCCG
GPAT1/CG5508	CCTTTTGGCCTTCACTTCC	TCTCGATCTGCTTCGTGTTC
APGAT4/CG4753	CTTCACATGCGGATTCTTCGTC	ACCATTCCGCCACACAGACAAG
APGAT3/CG4729	CTCTGTCCTGCATTTTCTACTACG	CTTGCTGATCTGCGTCTTGTTG
APGAT2/CG3812	GCTGGCCTAATCTTCATCG	CCCACAGTTTGATACGTTGC
APGAT1/CG17608	CTGTGCGTGCCCTTTATGATTC	CAGACCACGAACCTCCATTG
Lipin	GACATCCGCGATCTGTTTCCC	GGACTGGAATGTTTGGGTCAGC
Lip4	GACCGAACAAGGGACTTGG	CGAGTACGTATTGCCACGAA
ACC	GGAACACTGAACTGGGGAAA	GCAATCACGCTGGAGTTGTA
FASN	CGAATCCATCAATATGCCCG	ACATAGTGACCACCACCCAGGT
ACSL	TTCCGGCAAGATTATGCGTC	CAGTTGCTCCACAATTTGCTCA
dHSL	TTGCCCTCTTCAATGACAATCTG	CTGGTGGGTGTCCTTTCCA
BMM	AAGTATGCACCGCATCTGTTG	CAAATCGCAGAGGAGACAGC
sws/CG2212	CTGGATGGCGGCTATGTGAATAA	CCATTTCTTGTAGAGCAGCCAC
Cct1	TCCACCTCGCAGCAATTCTTC	GTAGTCACATCTATCCCGCTCC
Fatp	GAAATCCTTCTCGCGAATTCCT	GGAGATGAAAGCCATATCGCC
Rfabg	GGTTTCTGGCATATTGTTGA	TAGGGTGCGTATGCC ATCAA
DUOX	GCTGCACGCCAACCACAAGAGACT	CACGCGCAGCAGGATGTAAGGTTT
mrt	GGAGGATATTCTCGGAGTGGAGC	GCTTCCTGCCTCGTAGTCGAAC
pzg	GCTGAGGAACCACAACCATCTGAC	GTAACCTCGCCTTCGCCAGATT
	Primers for plasmid construction and dsRNA synthesis	
F-*mrt*(RelB)-luc	CGAGATCTGCGATCTAAGTATAACG TCGTAGCGCACACGCACACC	CAGTACCGGAATGCCAAGCTGGGT GCACCCTTTGATCAAGGTCTT
pzg-luc	CGAGATCTGCGATCTAAGTACACAG TAGCAGCACAACGGAGACG	CAGTACCGGAATGCCAAGCTCTGT AGCAGTTCTCGACGGACGCGT
T-*mrt*(RelB)-luc	CGAGATCTGCGATCTAAGTAGCCAC TTTGTCGCAGTGTATCTGT	CAACAGTACCGGAATGCCAGCTGG GTGCACCCTTTGATCAAG
T-*mrt*-luc	CGAGATCTGCGATCTAAGTACGTTA GCTTTTTGCTGTCATTCGT	CCAACAGTACCGGAATGCCAGATG CTGTTGGAAAACAAGCAA
dsRelish	TAATACGACTCACTATAGGGAGATC AAACACGTGCCGC	TAATACGACTCACTATACCCAGACT CACGCTCTGTCTC
dsGFP	TAATACGACTCACTATAGGGAGAAT GGTGAGCAAGGGCGAGGA	TAATACGACTCACTATAGGGAGACT TGTACAGCTCGTCCATGC

Supplementary Information for

Adaptive modification of lipid droplets mediated by Plin1 functions in infection-induced pathogenesis in *Drosophila*

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This PDF file includes:
SI Materials and Methods
Fig. S1 to S5 legend.
Table S1.

SI Materials and Methods.
Drosophila stocks and bacterial strain.
All flies were propagated at 25°C on standard cornmeal food (1 L food contains 77.7 g cornmeal, 32.19 g yeast, 10.6 g agar, 0.726 g CaCl2, 31.62 g sucrose,63.2 g glucose, 2 g potassium sorbate and 15 ml 5% Tegosept),30%-55% humidity with a 12h/12h light/dark cycle. Fly resources that were used in this study as follows: *w^{1118}* were used as wild-type controls if no additional indication. *plin1^{38}*, *UAS-plin1* mcherry, *UAS-plin1 RNAi*, *Bmm-GFP* knock-in and *ppl-GAL4* were kindly gifted from Dr. Xun Huang (Institute of Genetics and Developmental Biology, CAS). *UAS-gstD-GFP* was kindly gifted from Dr. ZhiWei Liu (Shanghai Ocean University). *w^{1118};P{GD5139=UAS-Bmm RNAi }*(VDRC, V37877 and V37880) were kindly gifted from Dr. Yong Liu (College of Life Sciences, Wuhan University). *w^{1118}*, *w[1118];P{w[+mW.hs]=Switch1}106*, *Bmm^{1}*, *w[*];P{w[+mC]=UAS-FLAG-Rel.68}i21-B; TM2/TM6C, Sb[1], y[1] w[*]; P{w[+mC]=UAS-PGRP-LC.x}1* and *y[1] w[*]; P{w[+mC]=UAS-PGRP-LC.a}3* were obtained from Bloomington stock center. *UAS-PGRP-LC.x* and *UAS-PGRP-LC.a* were back-crossed to the *w^{1118}* flies for more than three generations prior to use. All flies used in this study were male. Two bacterial strain, *E. coli* (*DH5a*) and *S. typhimurium (SR-11)* (a gift from Dr. ZhiHua Liu, Institute of Biophysics, CAS) were used in this study.

Cloning and double-strand RNAs
To construct the *mrt* and *pzg* reporter vector (*mrt*-luc and *pzg*-luc), the *mrt* and *pzg* promoter sequence (about -1500 bp or -1000 bp to 0 bp) was PCR amplified from Drosophila genomic DNA and introduced into *pGL3* vector (Progema) at HindIII restriction site by using recombination technology (Hieff Clone® Plus One Step Cloning Kit, YEASEN). All the plasmid constructs were verified by nucleotide sequencing. *pAC5.1*-renilla plasmid as a normalized reporter. Double-stranded RNAs (dsRNAs) against relish or GFP used in the luciferase reporter assay were synthesized using MEGAscript T7 kit (Invitrogen). Primers used for PCR amplification are listed in Supplementary Table 1.

Infection and survival rate counting
Bacterial strains used in this study are *E. coli* (*DH5a*) and *Salmonella typhimurium* (*S. typhimurium*). Two days before infection, both bacteria from glycerol stocks were streaked onto Luria Broth (LB) agar plates and grown overnight at 37°C. The plate could be stored at 4 °C for up to 1 week. A single colony was inoculated to 6 ml fresh LB medium and grown at 37°C with shaking (200 rpm). Grow the bacteria to an OD600 of 0.7 to 0.8 (about 3.5 hours). The bacterial culture was pelleted with sterile phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) to the desired concentration. We injected 50.6 nl of bacterial suspension into dorsal prothorax of each fly with Nanoject II injector (Drummond). All flies used were 1 week old after eclosion. The final optical density (O.D. / ml) at 600 nm for injection were *E. coli* (O.D. 10) and *S. typhimurium* (O.D. 6 or O.D. 3). For *E.coli* infection, each fly obtained about 1x10^6 CFUs. For *S. typhimurium* infection, each fly obtained the lower dose (about 2x10^5 CFUs) or the higher dose (about 1x10^6 CFUs) according to the experiment design. Infected flies about 23 per vial were

maintained at 25°C. Death was recorded at the indicated time point, and alive flies were transferred to fresh food every day for the survival analysis and CFUs assay.

Lifespan counting
For lifespan analysis, male flies were collected within three days after adult emergence and raised in incubator (temperature: 25°C, humidity: 55%, 12:12 light: dark cycle). These flies were randomly divided into a separate vial in a number of 25 with at least three biological replicates. Dead flies were counted every three days and alive flies were flipped to fresh food.

Bacterial loads assay
To monitor bacterial loads of the flies during infection, the number of colony forming units (CFUs) grown on LB agar plate was determined as follow: 5 living flies were randomly collected in a 1.5 ml EP tube, rinsed with 70% ethanol two times by vertex for 10s to sterile the surface adherent bacteria, then rinsed with sterile deionized water two times by vertex for 10 s, and then homogenized in 200 μl of sterile PBS with three fly body volumes of ceramic beads (diameter: 0.5 mm) in the Minilys apparatus (Bertin TECHNOLOGIES) at highest speed for 30 s. The suspensions obtained were then serially diluted in PBS and plated on LB agar. Specially noted for S. typhimurium plating, PBS was substituted with PBS + 1% Triton X-100. For the bacterial load at zero time point, flies were allowed to rest for 10 min after bacterial injection before plating as described above. The agar plate was maintained at 37°C for 18 hours before CFUs counting. CFUs were $\log_{10}$ transformed.

Cell culture, transfection and luciferase assay
S2* cells (a gift from Dahua Chen, Institute of Zoology, CAS) were maintained in Drosophila Schneider's Medium (Invitrogen) supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum (Gibco), 100 units/ml of penicillin, and 100 mg/ml of streptomycin at 28°C. Transient transfection of various plasmids, dsRNA was performed with lipofectamine 3000 (Invitrogen), according to the manufacturer's manual. Luciferase reporter assays were carried out using a dual-luciferase reporter assay system (Promega). Where indicated, cells were treated with PGN (35 μg/μl, 6 h) purified from Erwinia carotovora carotovora 15 (*Ecc15*) referring to previous study(1).

qRT-PCR
For quantification of mRNA level, about 20 flies carcass/fat body tissue were dissected in sterile PBS buffer on ice at indicated time points post infection, immediately homogenized in 200 μl cold TRIzol with three fly body volumes of ceramic beads (diameter: 0.5 mm), then supplied additional 300 μl TRIzol to reach total 500 μl volume and samples were stored at -80°C.RNA extraction was referred to the manual of commercial kit (Magen, Hipure Total RAN Plus Micro Kit), this kit can effectively remove genomic DNA contamination. cDNA was synthesized by using the kit (abm, 5X All-In-One MasterMix) with total 1μg isolated RNA as template in a 20 μl reaction system. Quantitative real-time PCR (qRT-PCR) was performed using a SYBR green kit

(abm, EvaGreen supermaster Mix) on an ABI 7500 or ViiATM 7 thermocycler (Life Technology). Samples from at least four independent biological replicates per genotype were collected and analyzed. House-keeping gene rp49 as the reference gene for data normalization. Primer data for qRT-PCR are provided in Supplementary Table 1.

Lipid droplet staining and counting
For lipid droplet staining, adult male carcass/fat body tissues were dissected and fixed in 4% fresh prepared paraformaldehyde (PH=7.5) in PBS for 10 min on ice. Tissues were then rinsed twice with PBS (3 min each time), then incubated in PBS containing 1μg/ml of BODIPY 493/503(Invitrogen) dye or 0.5 μg/ml Nile Red (Sigma) for 30 min on ice, DAPI (1μg/μl, final concentration) was added to stain nuclei at last 5 mins of staining process. After staining, tissues were rinsed three times with PBS (3 mins each time), then mounted in mounting medium (Vector, H-1000) for microscopy analysis. To quantify the average lipid droplet size, the average diameter of the three largest lipid droplets per cell was measured generally, with the exception of *plin1* deficiency associated flies, we just measured their biggest lipid droplet in one cell (2). 30 fat body cells of each genotype fly randomly selected from eight confocal images were used to analysis the lipid droplet size. To count the size distribution of lipid droplets, the average percentage of the indicated size range of lipid droplets per cell from 30 fat body cells were determined by using the "Analyze Particles" tool embedded in ImageJ software (https://imagej.nih.gov/ij/).

TAG assay
TAG amounts were measured using a TG Quantification Kit (BIOSINO, TG kit). Briefly, for whole body TAG quantification, groups of 12 one-week old male flies were collected and weighted (about 10 mg) in a 1.5 ml EP tube, then immediately stored at -80°C for subsequent assay. Stored flies were homogenized in 200 μl lysis buffer (10mM KH$_2$PO4, 1mM EDTA, PH=7.4) with three fly body volumes of ceramic beads, and inactivated in water bath at 75°C for 15 min. The inactivated homogenate was homogenized again for 30 s and kept on ice ready for assay. For each TAG measurement, 3 μl of homogenate was incubated with 250 μl reaction buffer at 37°C for 10 min. After removal debris by centrifugation (2000 rpm, 2 min), 150 μl of clear supernatant was used to perform a colorimetric assay in 96 well plate (Corning® Costar) for absorbance reading at 505 nm. TAGs level was normalized with fly weight in each homogenate (unit: nmol/mg.fly). For fat body TAG quantification, 25 fly's carcass/fat body tissues were dissected and following assay as described above. TAGs level was normalized with per 25 flies (unit: nmol/25.fly).

RU486 treatment
RU486 induction was described as before (3). Briefly, A 10 mg/ml stock solution of RU486 (mifepristone; Sigma) was dissolved in DMSO. Appropriate volumes of RU486 stock solution was diluted with water containing 2% ethanol to final concentration of 50 μg/ml.100 μl of the diluted RU486 solution was dipped onto the surface of fresh food in vials (Diameter: 2 cm). The vials were then allowed to dry at room temperature

for half day or 4℃ for overnight. Flies were transferred to RU486-contained food and raised in 25℃ and fresh food was changed every two days.

NAC Treatment

N-acetyl-L-cysteine (NAC) (Beyotime) fresh solution was prepared by dissolving 0.5 g of NAC powder in 10 ml distilled water, the solution could be aliquoted into 1 ml per EP tube and frozen or stored at -80 °C. 100 μl of NAC solution was dipped onto the surface of fresh food in vials (Diameter: 2 cm). The vials were then allowed to dry at room temperature for half day or 4℃ for overnight. Flies were transferred to NAC-contained food and raised in 25℃ and fresh food was changed every day.

ROS detection

We used two methods to detect ROS in fat body, which are *gstD-GFP* reporter flies and dichlorofluorescein diacetate (DCFH-DA) labeling. The oxidative stress reporter construct *gstD-GFP* for evaluating cellular ROS levels has been describe before (4). Briefly, the carcass/fat body of transgenic flies containing a *gstD-GFP* reporter construct were dissected in sterile PBS, fixed in 4% formaldehyde for 10 min on ice, rinsed twice with ice-chilled PBS (3 min each time), then the flaky fat body cells attached to the inner carcass shell were dissected out to mount and confocal image (Vector, H-1000). DCFH-DA (Beyotime, Reactive Oxygen Species Assay Kit) labeling of fresh dissected carcass/fat body tissues was performed according to the manufacturer's manual, which based on the ROS-dependent oxidation of DCFH-DA to fluorescent molecule 2 -7dichlorofluorescein (DCF). In brief, the tissues were incubated with PBS containing 20 μM DCFH-DA for 30 min at 37℃, washed with sterile PBS for three times (3 min each) to remove free DCFH-DA that do not uptake by the cell, then the flaky fat body cells attached to the inner carcass shell immediately were dissected out to mount and confocal image (Vector, H-1000). It should be noted that the slices were confocal imaged using the exact same settings for control and experimental groups. The fluorescence intensity is proportional to the ROS levels, fluorescence intensity of GFP or DCF was quantified by using ImageJ software.

Starvation test

Adult male flies were collected within three days after eclosion and raised on standard fly food at 25˚C. One week later, flies were randomly distributed in groups of 20 flies/vial and starved on 1% agar (dissolved in distilled water), new agar vial was changed every day. For the survival counting, the deaths were scored every two hours until all experimental files were dead. For the TAG assay, 12 alive flies were randomly collected at indicated time point, and delivered to TAG assay as describe above.

Microscopy and software

LSM700 (Leica) and Olympus FV-1200 confocal laser scanning microscopy were used for imaging. Captured images were analyzed by implemented soft respectively. ImageJ (https://imagej.nih.gov/ij/) was used for analysis of fluorescence intensity and lipid droplets size.

Statistical analyses

All replicates are showed as the mean ± SD or mean with range. Statistical significance was determined using a paired Student's t-test for two measurements, one-way ANOVA (Tukeys HSD) with a multiple t-tests and Multiple t-tests for pairwise comparisons. Kaplan–Meier test for survival curves comparison. All data processing was used with GraphPad Prism 7.0.

Supplementary Figure Legends

References for SI

1. Gottar M GV, Michel T, Belvin M, Duyk G, Hoffmann JA, Ferrandon D, Royet J. (2002) The Drosophila immune response against Gram-negative bacteria is mediated by a peptidoglycan recognition protein. *Nature* 11(416(6881)):640-644.

2. Bi J*, et al.* (2012) Opposite and redundant roles of the two Drosophila perilipins in lipid mobilization. *Journal of cell science* 125(Pt 15):3568-3577.

3. Poirier L SA, Zheng J, Seroude L. (2008) Characterization of the Drosophila gene-switch system in aging studies: a cautionary tale. *Aging Cell. 2008 Oct;* 7(5)(758-70.).

4. Sykiotis GP & Bohmann D (2008) Keap1/Nrf2 signaling regulates oxidative stress tolerance and lifespan in Drosophila. *Developmental cell* 14(1):76-85.