A genetic program boosts mitochondrial function to power 1 macrophage tissue invasion 2 3 4 5 Shamsi Emtenani¹, Elliott T. Martin², Attila Gyoergy¹, Julia Bicher¹, Jakob-6 Wendelin Genger⁴, Thomas R. Hurd³, Thomas Köcher⁵, Andreas Bergthaler⁴, Prashanth 7 Rangan², Daria E. Siekhaus¹* 8 9 10 1) Institute of Science and Technology Austria, 3400 Klosterneuburg, 11 Austria 12 2) University at Albany, Department of Biological Sciences, RNA Institute, Albany, NY 13 12222 14 3) Department of Molecular Genetics, University of Toronto, Toronto, Ontario, M5G 1M1, 15 Canada. 16 4) CeMM Research Center for Molecular Medicine of the Austrian Academy of Sciences, 17 1090 Vienna, Austria 18 5) Vienna BioCenter Core Facilities, 1030 Vienna, Austria 19 *Correspondence: daria.siekhaus@ist.ac.at 20 21 22 **SUMMARY** 23 Metabolic adaptation to changing demands underlies homeostasis. During inflammation or 24 metastasis, cells leading migration into challenging environments require an energy boost, 25 however what controls this capacity is unknown. We identify a previously unstudied nuclear 26 protein, Atossa, as changing metabolism in Drosophila melanogaster immune cells to 27 promote tissue invasion. Atossa's vertebrate orthologs, FAM214A-B, can fully substitute for 28 Atossa, indicating functional conservation from flies to mammals. Atossa increases mRNA 29 levels of Porthos, an unstudied RNA helicase and two metabolic enzymes, LKR/SDH and 30 GR/HPR. Porthos increases translation of a gene subset, including those affecting 31 mitochondrial functions, the electron transport chain, and metabolism. Respiration 32 measurements and metabolomics indicate that Atossa and Porthos powers up mitochondrial 33 oxidative phosphorylation to produce sufficient energy for leading macrophages to forge a 34 path into tissues. As increasing oxidative phosphorylation enables many crucial physiological 35 responses, this unique genetic program may modulate a wide range of cellular behaviors 36 beyond migration. 37 38 Keywords: immune cell, invasion, metabolism, mitochondria, translation, oxidative 39 phosphorylation, RNA helicase, tissue infiltration, migration

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41 **INTRODUCTION**

42 Charged with protecting the organism against continuously changing threats, the immune 43 system must constantly adapt, altering the location, number, and differentiation status of its 44 different immune cell subtypes (Nicholson, 2016). Such continuous adjustment comes at a 45 cost, as it requires high levels of energy. However, how immune cells adjust their metabolic 46 capacities to achieve these increased metabolic requirements is just beginning to be

47 understood (Guak et al., 2020; O'Neill et al., 2016). The main energy currency in the cell is 48 ATP. The conversion of carbohydrates into ATP is mediated mostly by cytoplasmic 49 glycolysis and the mitochondrial TCA cycle that feeds electron donors into oxidative 50 phosphorylation (OxPhos) complexes I through IV. Anaerobic glycolysis is quick and does 51 not require oxygen, but respiratory OxPhos extracts considerably more ATP from a single 52 molecule of glucose, albeit more slowly (Berg et al., 2002). Amino acids and fatty acids also 53 feed into the TCA cycle and fuel OxPhos (O'Neill et al., 2016). OxPhos is most directly 54 regulated by the activity and the amount of complexes I through V that carry it out 55 (Hüttemann et al., 2007), but can also be affected by mitochondrial fusion (Rambold et al., 56 2015) and biogenesis (Le Bleu et al., 2014). Upregulation of OxPhos is known to be required 57 for many important immune cell functions, such as B cell antibody production (Price et al., 58 2018), pathogenic T cell differentiation during autoimmunity (Shin et al., 2020), and CD8+ 59 memory T cell development and expansion (van der Windt et al., 2012; van der Windt et al., 60 2013), T reg suppressive function (Angelin et al., 2017; Weinberg et al., 2019; Beir et al., 61 2015) and the maturation of anti-inflammatory macrophages (Vats et al., 2006). However, 62 what genetic programs immune cells utilize to upregulate OxPhos remains unclear and how 63 such shifts in metabolism could influence immune cell migration is unexplored.

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65 Immune cells move within the organism to enable their distribution and maturation (Kierdorf 66 et al., 2015; Masopust and Schenkel, 2013), as well as to detect and respond to homeostatic 67 challenges, injuries, tumors or infections (Woodcock et al., 2015; Luster et al., 2005; 68 Ratheesh et al, 2015). To migrate across unimpeded environments cells expend energy to 69 restructure their own actin cytoskeleton, activate myosin ATPase, and reorganize their cell 70 membrane (Bernstein and Bamburg, 2003; Cuvelier et al., 2007; Rottner and Schaks, 2019; 71 Li et. al, 2019). Even greater energy requirements exist when cells must also remodel their 72 surroundings as they move ahead against the resistance of flanking cells or extracellular 73 matrix (Zanotelli et al., 2018; Zanotelli et al., 2019, Cunniff et al., 2016; Kelley et al., 2019). 74 Most studies on the metabolism that enables immune cell migration *in vitro* or *in vivo* have 75 highlighted the importance of glycolysis, in macrophages, dendritic cells and regulatory T 76 cells (Guak et al., 2018; Kishore et al., 2018; Semba et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2019). To our 77 knowledge, only one study has demonstrated a need for a functional electron transport chain 78 (ETC) to speed neutrophil migration in vivo (Zhou et al., 2018) potentially through polarized 79 secretion of ATP to amplify guidance cues (Bao et al., 2015). In cancer cells an increase in 80 the transcription of mitochondrial genes, mitochondrial biogenesis and thus OxPhos by PGC-81 1 appears to underlie enhanced invasion and metastasis (Le Bleu et al., 2014). OxPhos is 82 particularly required in the first cancer cell leading coordinated chains into challenging 83 environments in vitro (Khalil et al., 2010; Commander et al., 2020); these leader cells have 84 been shown to need higher ATP levels to create a path (Zhang et al., 2019). Although the 85 ability of immune cells to invade tissues or tumors also depends on movement against 86 surrounding resistance, it is not known if immune cells similarly require OxPhos for such 87 infiltration.

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89 To identify new mechanisms governing *in vivo* migration, we study *Drosophila* 90 macrophages, also called plasmatocytes. Macrophages are the primary phagocytic and

91 innate immune cell in Drosophila and share remarkable similarities with vertebrate 92 macrophages in ontogeny, functional properties, and migratory behavior (Brückner et al., 93 2004; Nourshargh and Alon, 2014; Ratheesh et al., 2015; Weavers et al., 2016; Wood and 94 Martin, 2017; Weavers et al., 2020). Phagocytic macrophages not only resolve infections, 95 but also influence development and homeostasis (Caputa et al., 2019; Riera-Domigo et al., 96 2020; Buck et al., 2016; Bunt et al., 2010). Embryonic Drosophila macrophages follow 97 guidance cues to disseminate along predetermined routes (Cho et al., 2002; Brückner et al., 98 2004; Wood et al., 2006) from their initial site of specification. During embryogenesis a 99 dynamic chain of macrophages invades into the extended germband between the closely 100 apposed ectoderm and mesodermal tissues, moving against the resistance of surrounding 101 tissues (Siekhaus et al., 2010; Ratheesh et al., 2018; Valoskova et al., 2019). Importantly, 102 the rate limiting step for this tissue invasion is the infiltration of the pioneer macrophage, a 103 process affected both by the properties of the surrounding tissues (Ratheesh et al., 2018) as 104 well as macrophages themselves (Valoskova et al., 2019; Belyaeva et al., 2021).

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106 Here we identify a program that powers the invasive capability of these pioneer 107 macrophages in vivo. We characterize a metabolic shift orchestrated in these immune cells 108 by a single previously unexamined nuclear factor that we name Atossa. We show that 109 Atossa induces higher mRNA levels of two metabolic enzymes and a previously unstudied 110 helicase. This helicase which we name Porthos enhances translation of a diverse set of 111 proteins, including those affecting mitochondrial and metabolic function, to increase 112 OxPhos and ATP. Our work thus reveals a detailed cellular mechanism that induces 113 concerted metabolic and mitochondrial reprogramming to support higher energy levels. 114 Given that we find that Atossa's mammalian orthologs maintain its function, our data lay 115 the foundation for mammalian studies on diverse pathological conditions, from 116 autoimmunity to cancer, as well as those independent of invasion.

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118 RESULTS

119 CG9005 is required in macrophages for their early invasion into the extended germband 120 To identify unknown molecular pathways mediating germband invasion, we searched for 121 previously uncharacterized genes enriched in macrophages prior to and during germband 122 tissue entry. Examining the BDGP in situ project (https://insitu.fruitfly.org/cgi-123 bin/ex/report.pl?ftype=1&ftext=FBgn0033638) we identified CG9005 as a gene fitting these 124 requirements. CG9005 is enriched in macrophages from their birth through their invasion of 125 the germband. CG9005 is maternally deposited and expressed in all mesodermal cells during 126 stage 4-6 when macrophages are specified in the head mesoderm. CG9005 is further 127 upregulated in macrophages starting at Stage 7 while its expression decreases in the 128 remaining mesoderm. CG9005 continues to be expressed during Stage 9-12 in macrophages, 129 during their ingression, dissemination, and movement towards and into the germband. After 130 invasion, CG9005 is downregulated in macrophages to match the lower expression levels 131 found ubiquitously in the embryo.

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133 We examined a P element insertion allele, $CG9005^{BG02278}$, henceforth abbreviated to

134 $CG9005^{PBG}$, visualizing macrophages through expression of a nuclear fluorescent marker. 135 Quantification of the number of macrophages within the germband in fixed embryos at Stage 136 12 revealed a 36% decrease in $CG9005^{PBG}$ mutant embryos compared to the control (Figs. 137 1A-B and 1D), similar to that seen when $CG9005^{PBG}$ was placed over either Df(2R)ED2222138 or Df(2R)BSC259 that remove the gene entirely (Fig. 1D), demonstrating that $CG9005^{PBG}$ is a 139 genetic null for macrophage germband invasion. Expressing CG9005 in macrophages in the

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Figure 1. CG9005 acts in macrophages to spur pioneer cell infiltration into the germband tissue. Fig 1A-141 142 C. Representative confocal images of Stage 12 embryos from the control, the $P(GT1)CG9005^{BG02278}$ P element mutant (henceforth called $CG9005^{PBG}$), and $CG9005^{PBG}$ with CG9005 expression restored in macrophages. 143 144 Macrophages (red) and phalloidin to visualize embryo (green). "mac" represents the srpHemo-Gal4 driver. 145 Germband edge indicated by dotted white line. Fig 1D. Quantification reveals a significant decrease in the 146 number of macrophages that have penetrated the germband in Stage 12 embryos from $CG9005^{BG}$ (n=56), and 147 from $CG9005^{BG}$ over two deficiencies (Df) that completely remove the gene ($CG9005^{PBG}/Df1(2R)$ n=25 and 148 $CG9005^{PBG}/Df2(2R)$ n=9), compared to the control (n=35). Macrophage expression of CG9005 rescues the 149 mutant phenotype arguing that CG9005 is required only in macrophages for germband penetration (n=18 for 150 rescue, p<0.0001 for control vs mutant, p=0.98 for control vs rescue, p=0.001 for mutant vs rescue). 151 Df1(2R) = Df(2R)ED2222. Df2(2R) = Df(2R)BSC259. Fig 1E. Macrophage specific knockdown of CG9005 by 152 UAS RNAi lines under the control of srpHemo-GAL4 can recapitulate the mutant phenotype (control 1 n=22, 153 CG9005 RNAi 1 (VDRC 106589) n=20; p<0.0001; control 2 n=21, CG9005 RNAi 2 (VDRC 36080) n=23; 154 p<0.0001; control 3 n=35, CG9005 RNAi 3 (BL33362) n=28, p<0.0001). Fig 1F. Stills from two-photon movies 155 of control and CG9005^{PBG} mutant embryos showing macrophages (nuclei, red) migrating starting at Stage 10 156 from the head towards the germband and invading into the germband tissue. Elapsed time indicated in minutes. 157 The germband edge (white dotted line) was detected by yolk autofluorescence. Fig 1G-H. Quantification shows 158 no change in macrophage migration speed (G) in the head or (H) between the yolk sac and the germband edge 159 in the $GG9005^{PBG}$ mutant compared to the control. Head speed: control and mutant=2.2 µm/min; movie #: 160 control=8, mutant=3; track #: control=360, mutant=450, p=0.65. Between yolk sac and germband speed: 161 control=2.6 and mutant=2.4 µm/min; # movies: control=7, mutant =3; # tracks: control=46, mutant=19, p=0.62. 162 Fig 11. The time required for the first macrophage nucleus to enter into the extended germband is increased by 65% in the CG9005^{PBG} mutant compared to the control (control=22.8 min, n=7, mutant=37.4 min, n=5, 163 p<0.0001). Fig 1J-K. The migration speed of the first and second macrophage into the germband between the 164 mesoderm and ectoderm is significantly slower in the $CG9005^{PBG}$ mutant compared to the control. First 165 166 macrophage speed: control=2.5 and mutant =2.1 µm/min, movie #: control=6, mutant=5, p=0.012. Second 167 macrophage speed: control=2.9 and mutant=2.2 μ m/min, movie #: control=5, mutant=5, p=0.03. Fig 1L. The 168 migration speed of the third to fifth macrophage nuclei along the first 25-30 um of the path between the germband mesoderm and ectoderm is similar in the $CG9005^{PBG}$ mutant and the control (speed: control=2.5 and 169 170mutant=2.4 µm/min, movie #: control=5, mutant=4, p=0.17). In schematics, macrophages are shown in red and 171 analyzed macrophages in light blue, the ectoderm in green, the mesoderm in purple, and the yolk in beige. 172 Macrophage nuclei visualized by *srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry* expression. See also Fig. S1 and Videos 1 and 2.

Throughout this work, embryos were staged based on germband retraction away from the anterior of less than 29% for stage 10, 29%-31% for stage 11, and 35%–40% for stage 12. In all figures and histograms show mean \pm SEM and ns=p>0.05, *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001, ****p<0.0001. One-way ANOVA with Tukey for (**D**-**E**), and unpaired t-test for (**G**-**L**). Scale bars: 50 µm in (**A**-**C**), 30 µm in (**F**).

See also **Figure S1** and **Videos 1** and **2**: representative movies of macrophage migration into the germband in the control (**Video 1**) and the $CG9005^{PBG}$ (*atos*) mutant (**Video 2**). Macrophages (red) are labeled with *srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry*. Arrow indicates first macrophage moving into the germband. The time interval between each acquisition is 40 s and the display rate is 15 frames/s. Scale bar: 20 µm.

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mutant completely restored their capacity to invade the germband (Figs. 1C-D). Depleting *CG9005* by driving any one of three independent RNA interference (RNAi) lines in macrophages caused a 37-40% decrease in macrophages within the germband compared to controls (Fig. 1E). We also observed 24-27% more macrophages sitting on the yolk near the entry site that have not yet invaded the germband in $CG9005^{PBG}$ (Fig. S1A) and in the RNAi

188 lines (Fig. S1B) compared to their controls. This finding supports the conclusion that 189 macrophages in these backgrounds migrate normally up to the germband but are less able to 190 enter. We counted macrophages migrating along the ventral nerve cord (vnc) in late Stage 12 191 embryos, a route guided by the same factors that lead into the germband (Brückner et al., 192 2004; Cho et al., 200; Wood et al., 2006) but that does not require tissue invasion (Siekhaus 193 et al., 2010; Weavers et al., 2016). There was no significant difference in both the CG9005^{PBG} mutant (Fig. S1C) and the CG9005 RNAi-expressing macrophages (Figs. S1D-F) 194 195 compared to their controls, arguing that basic migratory processes and recognition of 196 chemotactic signals are unperturbed. Moreover, we detected no significant change in the total 197 number of macrophages for any of these genotypes (Figs. S1G-H). Taken together, these 198 results from fixed embryos clearly suggest that CG9005 is specifically required in 199 macrophages for the early steps of germband invasion.

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201Atossa (CG9005) promotes efficient invasion of pioneer macrophages into the202germband tissue

203 To directly assess CG9005's role in germband invasion, we conducted two-photon live 204 imaging. We labeled macrophages with the nuclear marker srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry in control and CG9005^{PBG} embryos (Figs. 1F and S1I, Videos 1 and 2). We observed no 205 206 significant change in speed or directionality during macrophage migration from their initial 207 position at Stage 9 in the head mesoderm up to the yolk neighboring the germband entry point in CG9005^{PBG} (Fig. 1G, Figs. S1J-L) (speed in the head and yolk: 2.2 µm/min for both 208 209 the control and $CG9005^{PBG}$; p=0.65, p=0.78 respectively), nor in their directionality within 210 these regions (directionality: 0.39 in control and 0.37 in mutant in both regions, p=0.74 for 211 head, p=0.86 for yolk). We also observed no significant change in migration speed for macrophages moving between the volk and ectoderm (control=2.6 and $CG9005^{PBG}$ =2.5 212 µm/min, p=0.62) (Fig. 1H). However, the first macrophage in CG9005^{PBG} required 65% 213 214 more time than the control to enter into the germband tissue (time to entry: control=23 min and CG9005^{PBG}=38 min, p<0.0001) (Fig. 1I). The speed of the first two pioneering 215 216 macrophages is also significantly slower as they invade along the path between the mesoderm and ectoderm in CG9005^{PBG} mutant embryos compared to the control (1st cell: control=2.5 217 and CG9005^{PBG}=2 µm/min, p=0.012; 2nd cell: control=2.9 and CG9005^{PBG}=2.1 µm/min, 218 219 p=0.03) (Figs. 1J-K). However, the speed of the next few cells migrating along this path was not affected (3rd-5th cells: control=2.5 and CG9005^{PBG}=2.4 µm/min, p=0.17) (Fig.1L). We 220 221 conclude that CG9005 specifically regulates tissue invasion, facilitating the initial entry into 222 and subsequent movement within the germband tissue of the first two pioneer macrophages. Since the macrophage stream invading the germband becomes a trickle in $CG9005^{PBG}$ we 223 named the gene atossa (atos), for the powerful Persian queen whose name means trickling. 224

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Atossa (CG9005) is a nuclear protein whose conserved motifs and TADs are important for macrophage tissue invasion, a function conserved by its vertebrate orthologs

Atossa (Atos) contains a conserved domain of unknown function (DUF4210) and a Chromosome segregation domain (Chr_Seg) (Fig. 2A). Atos also displays two transactivating domains (TADs) common among transcription factors as well as three nuclear

232 localization signals (NLS) and a nuclear export signal (NES). We first tested the subcellular 233 distribution of the Atos protein, transfecting the macrophage-like S2R+ cell line with a 234 FLAG::HA tagged form of atos under the control of the macrophage promoter srpHemo. We 235 found Atos mainly in the nucleus colocalized with DAPI, and also partially in the cytoplasm 236 (Fig. S2A). When expressed *in vivo* in macrophages, Atos is also predominantly a nuclear 237 factor (Fig. 2B). To assess the importance of the conserved domains and TADs, we made 238 versions of Atos lacking these regions. All mutant forms were present in the nucleus similarly 239 to wild-type Atos (Fig. S2A). While expression of wild-type Atos in the macrophages of atos 240 embryos completely rescues germband invasion (Figs. 2C-D), Atos lacking either the 241 conserved DUF2140, the Chr_Seg domain, or either or both of the two TAD motifs failed to 242 do so (Figs. 2D, S2B-C). Consistent with a germband invasion defect, expression of these

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Figure 2. CG9005/Atossa requires conserved domains linked to transcriptional activation to enhance tissue invasion, a function maintained by its mammalian orthologs.

246 Fig 2A. Deduced protein structure of Drosophila CG9005/Atossa (Atos) and its murine orthologs, mFAM214A 247 and B. These proteins all contain the same conserved motifs: a domain of unknown function (DUF4210), a 248 domain associated with Chromosome segregation (ChromSeg), at least one transcriptional activation domain 249 (TAD), nuclear localization signal (NLS) and nuclear export signal (NES). FAM214A and B are 44-45% 250 identical to Atos. Fig 2B. Macrophages (red) near the germband in Stage 11/12 embryos display colocalization 251 252 of Atos tagged with HA (HA antibody, green) with the nucleus stained by DAPI (blue). srpHemo-atos::H2A line utilized. Fig 2C. Representative confocal images of Stage 12 embryos from the control, *atos^{PBG}*, and 253 $atos^{PBG}$ expressing Atos itself or variants lacking particular domains in macrophages. Fig 2D. Germband macrophage quantification in control, $atos^{PBG}$, and $atos^{PBG}$ expressing Atos or its altered forms in macrophages. 254 255 The tissue invasion defect in *atos^{PBG}* can be fully rescued by Atos expression in macrophages unless Atos lacks 256 the conserved DUF4210, ChrSeg, or TADs. Control n=32, mutant n=56, WT rescue n=18, DUF4210⁻ rescue 257 n=17, ChrSeg rescue n=21, DUF4210/ChrSeg rescue n=19, TAD1/TAD2 rescue n=25. For control vs mutant 258 p<0.0001, for control vs rescue p=0.99, for mutant vs rescue p=0.0014. Fig 2E. Representative confocal images 259 of atos^{PBG} rescued with a murine ortholog, mFAM214A or mFAM214B, expressed in macrophages. Fig 2F. 260 Quantification of macrophages in the germband in Stage 12 embryos from the control, *atos^{PBG}*, and *atos^{PBG}* 261 embryos expressing mFAM214A or mFAM214B in macrophages shows that Atos's mammalian orthologs can rescue *atos*'s macrophage tissue invasion defect. Control n=25, $atos^{PBG}$ n=56, rescue with *atos* n=18, with 262 263 mFAM214A n=22, with mFAM214B n=25. For control vs mFAM214A and mFAM214B rescues p>0.05, for 264 atos^{PBG} vs mFAM214A and mFAM214B rescues p<0.005. mFAM214A or B are expressed under the direct 265 control of the srpHemo promoter. Throughout paper > indicates GAL4 UAS regulation. In (C) and (E) 266 macrophages (red) are visualized by srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry expression and actin by Phalloidin staining 267 (green). One-way ANOVA with Tukey for (**D**) and (**F**). Scale bars are 5 μ m in (**B**) and 50 μ m in (**C**) and (**E**). 268 See also Figure S2.

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Atos mutants led to a higher number of macrophages sitting on the yolk at the germband entry site prior to invasion than in the rescue with wild-type Atos (Fig. S2D). These data clearly show that the conserved domains and TADs are critical for the primarily nuclear protein, Atos, to facilitate macrophage invasion.

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Atos's uncharacterized murine orthologs, mFAM214A and mFAM214B, maintain these domains, displaying 40% identity to their *Drosophila* counterpart (Fig. 2A). Expression in macrophages of either mFAM214A or B in *atos*^{*PBG*} rescued the germband invasion defect as efficiently as the *Drosophila* protein itself (Figs. 2E-F) and restored the normal number of macrophages on the yolk next to the extended germband (Fig. S2E). Therefore, we conclude that the molecular functions that enable Atos to promote macrophage tissue invasion are maintained in vertebrates.

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Atos raises mRNA levels of an RNA helicase and metabolic enzymes, which are each required for germband invasion

285 Given Atos's nuclear localization and requirement for TADs, we hypothesized that Atos 286 might modulate transcription in macrophages to aid their initiation of germband invasion. To 287 identify potential targets, we performed RNA-sequencing analysis on FACS isolated macrophages from wild type and *atos^{PBG}* embryos during germband invasion in early Stages 288 11-12 (Fig. S3A) (Supp. Data 1). Transcriptome analysis revealed 25 genes with reduced 289 290 mRNA levels and 39 genes with higher ones in the absence of Atos, requiring a P value<0.05 291 (Fig. S3B). Gene ontology analysis (GO term) indicates that the significantly downregulated 292 genes are involved in oxidation-reduction (redox) processes, stress responses as well as the 293 nervous system (Fig. S3C). We therefore conclude that the presence of Atos in macrophages 294 controls the mRNA levels of a small set of proteins.

We tested the hypothesis that the *atos*^{PBG} macrophage germband invasion defect is caused by 295 the lower levels of the downregulated genes. We focused only on the 5 genes that had at least 296 297 a >5-fold change in expression and were enriched in embryonic macrophages or had an 298 identified molecular function (Fig. 3A). We expressed RNAi constructs against them in 299 macrophages and observed a significant reduction in germband macrophage numbers for three 300 of these 5 candidates (Figs. 3B-G, S3D-E). For all three we also observed an increase in the 301 number of macrophages sitting on the yolk next to the germband before invasion, consistent 302 with a specific defect in germband invasion (Figs. S3F-H). These were a predicted ATP-303 dependent RNA helicase (CG9253) we name Porthos (Pths) (Martin et al., 2021) (Figs. 3B, 304 E), and two metabolic enzymes, Glyoxylate Reductase/Hydroxypyruvate Reductase 305 (*dGR/HPR*, CG9331) (Figs. 3C and 3F) and Lysine α -Ketoglutarate Reductase/Saccharopine 306 Dehydrogenase (dLKR/SDH, CG7144) (Figs. 3D, G). Downregulation of Glycerophosphate 307 oxidase 2 (Gpo2, CG2137) (Fig. S3D) and Golgi matrix protein 130 kD (GM130, CG11061) 308 (Fig. S3E) did not produce any invasion defect. GR/HPR is highly conserved from bacteria to 309 mammals and the *Drosophila* form shows 48% identity to its human ortholog (NCBI

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Figure 3. Atos leads to higher mRNA levels of an RNA helicase and metabolic enzymes required for germband invasion.

313 Fig 3A. A selection of genes down-regulated in *atos^{PBG}* mutant macrophages compared to the control, chosen 314 for having a >5 fold change in expression as well as an identified biological function. Fig 3B-D. Representative 315 confocal images of early Stage 12 embryos from the control, and lines expressing an RNAi against (B) porthos, 316 (C) dGR/HPR or (D) dLKR/SDH specifically in macrophages (red). srpHemo-H2A::3XmCherry labels 317 macrophages. Fig 3E. Quantification of Stage 12 embryos reveals that expression of a porthos RNAi in 318 macrophages decreases their number in the germband by 48%. Control n=36, porthos RNAi (BL36589) n=28, 319 p<0.0001. Fig 3F-G. Quantification of Stage 12 embryos indicates that fewer macrophages have moved into the 320 germband upon the expression in macrophages of any of (F) three different RNA is against dGR/HPR or (G) two 321 322 different RNAis against *dLKR/SDH*, arguing that these metabolic enzymes are required in macrophages for tissue invasion. Control 1 n=18, dGR/HPR RNAi 1 (VDRC 44653) n=18, p<0.0001, control 2 n=21, dGR/HPR 323 RNAi 2 (VDRC 107680) n=24, p<0.0001, control 3 n=15, dGR/HPR RNAi 3 (VDRC 64652) n=23, p=0.08. 324 *dLKR/SDH RNAi 1* (VDRC 51346) n=17, control 2 n=21, *dLKR/SDH RNAi 2* (VDRC 109650) n=23, p<0.0001. 325 Fig 3H. Schematic illustrates how the bifunctional enzyme dGR/HPR can catalyze the reduction of glyoxylate 326 into glycolate and convert hydroxypyruvate into D-glycerate by oxidation of the cofactor NAD(P)H. Fig 31. 327 Schematic shows the metabolic pathway in which Drosophila Lysine a-Ketoglutarate Reductase/Saccharopine 328 Dehydrogenase (dLKR/SDH) catalyzes the first two steps of the lysine catabolism pathway, resulting in the 329 production of glutamate and acetyl-CoA, a TCA substrate, through several downstream enzymatic reactions. 330 Glu: Glutamate, α -KG: α -Ketoglutarate, AASA: α -Aminoadipate δ -semialdehyde. Unpaired t test for (E-G). 331 Scale bar: 50 µm in (B-D). See also Figure S3 and Data S1. Data S1: Annotated primary and normalized RNA 332 sequencing data from FACS sorted control and atos macrophages.

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334 BLAST). GR/HPR is the linchpin of the glyoxylate cycle, catalyzing the reduction of 335 glyoxylate into glycolate and the conversion of hydroxypyruvate into D-glycerate (Fig. 3H) 336 (Booth et al., 2006). This contributes to glucose and urea synthesis. The bifunctional 337 enzyme dLKR/SDH is also highly conserved, with 71% identity to its human counterpart 338 (identified by NCBI BLAST). It catalyzes the first two steps of lysine catabolism and can 339 participate in the production of Acetyl CoA (Bhattacharjee, 1985) (Fig. 3I). We therefore 340 conclude that Atos enhances macrophage tissue invasion by increasing the levels of the 341 metabolic enzymes dLKR/SDH and dGR/HPR and the helicase ortholog Porthos.

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The nuclear RNA helicase, Porthos, functions downstream of Atos in pioneer macrophages to allow their initiation of germband invasion

345 Atos's target *porthos* (CG9253) displayed the strongest invasion defect upon RNAi 346 knockdown (KD) (Fig 3E). Porthos is a conserved DEAD-box RNA helicase (Fig. S4A) 347 sharing 71% identity and 84% similarity with its human ortholog, the helicase DDX47, 348 including the conserved DEAD motif and helicase C terminal domain, with which DDX47 349 interacts with RNA structures. *porthos* is expressed in the embryo by *in situ* analysis in a 350 pattern similar to atos but a few stages later, to atos in Drosophila embryos, being enriched 351 in macrophages in the head region during Stages 9-12 (https://insitu.fruitfly.org/cgi-352 bin/ex/report.pl?ftype=1&ftext=FBgn0032919). In S2R+ cells, HA-tagged Porthos 353 colocalized with markers for the nucleus (DAPI) and the nucleolus (Fibrillarin), where 354 ribosome assembly and rRNA processing occur (Fig. 4SB). In embryonic macrophages 355 HA-tagged Porthos also localized to the nucleus, detected by DAPI (Fig. 4A).

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Figure 4. The nucleolar RNA helicase, Porthos, acts as a key downstream target of Atos to promote pioneer macrophage germband invasion.

359 Fig 4A. Macrophages (red) near the germband in Stage 11/12 embryos show partial colocalization of the HA 360 antibody labeling Porthos (green) with the nucleus stained by DAPI (blue). Embryo express srpHemo-361 porthos::HA. Fig 4B. Stills starting at Stage 11 from two-photon movies of control embryos and those 362 expressing *porthos RNAi* in macrophages; stills show macrophage migration from the head mesoderm towards 363 and into the germband at the indicated time points. White dotted line indicates the germband edge. Macrophage 364 nuclei labeled by srpHemo-H2A:: 3xmCherry. UAS-porthos RNAi (BL36589) expressed by srpHemo-GAL4. Fig 365 4C-H. Quantification of macrophage migration parameters from two-photon movies. (C-D) Macrophages 366 expressing *porthos RNAi* migrate with a similar speed in the head and between the yolk sac and the germband 367 edge compared to the control. Speed in head: control=2.01 µm/min, porthos RNAi=2.09 µm/min; movie #: 368 control=4, porthos RNAi=6; track #: control=507, porthos RNAi=859, p=0.56. Speed between yolk sac and 369 germband mesoderm: control=2.17 µm/min, porthos RNAi=2.41 µm/min, p=0.45; movie #: control n=5, porthos 370 RNAi n=5, track #: control n=40, porthos RNAi n=51. Fig 4E. The time required for the first macrophage 371 nucleus to enter into the germband is significantly increased in embryos expressing porthos RNAi compared to 372 the control. Control=21.5 min, n=6, porthos RNAi=36.2 min, n=4, p<0.0001. Blue arrow in schematic indicates 373 route analyzed. Fig 4F-G. The speed of the first and second macrophage invading into the germband along the 374 path between the mesoderm and ectoderm is significantly slower in embryos expressing porthos RNAi 375 compared to the control. First macrophage speed: control=2.99 and porthos RNAi=2.0 um/min; p=0.009; # 376 movies: control n=4, porthos RNAi n=4. Second macrophage speed: control=2.61 and porthos RNAi=1.98 377 μ m/min; p=0.037; # movies: control n=6, porthos RNAi n=4. Fig 4H. The speed of the third to fifth 378 macrophages invading the germband is similar in macrophages downregulated for porthos and the control (speed: control=2.66 and *porthos RNAi*=2.31 μ m/min; p=0.21; # movies: control n=5, *porthos RNAi* n=4). Fig **4I.** Representative confocal images of early Stage 12 embryos from control, *atos^{PBG}*, and *atos^{PBG}* expressing 379 380 381 atos::FLAG::HA or porthos::FLAG::HA in macrophages (red) through srpHemo-GAL4 control of UAS 382 constructs. Embryo detected by phalloidin staining (green). Fig 4J. Quantification of macrophages in the germband shows that the $atos^{PBG}$ mutant phenotype can be substantially rescued by expressing *porthos::FLAG::HA* in macrophages. Control (n=15), $atos^{PBG}$ (n=22), $atos^{PBG}$ with *srpHemo>atos::FLAG::HA* 383 384

385 (n=27), srpHemo>porthos::FLAG::HA (n=30). For control vs $atos^{PBG}$ p<0.0001, for control vs atos rescue of $atos^{PBG}$ p<0.0001, for control vs porthos rescue of $atos^{PBG}$ p=0.0007. Macrophages detected by cystoplasmic srpHemo-3xmCherry in (**A**) and nuclear srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry in movies and in (**I**). Unpaired t test for (**C**-**B**), and one-way ANOVA with Tukey for (**J**). Scale bars: 50 µm in (**A**) and 30 µm in (**B**).

See also Figure S4 and Videos 3 and 4. Representative movies of macrophage migration into the germband in
 the control (Video 3) and the *porthos RNAi* embryos (Video 4). Macrophages (red) are labeled with *srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry*. Arrow indicates first macrophage moving into the germband. The time interval between each
 acquisition is 40 s and the display rate is 15 frames/s. Scale bar: 20 μm.

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394 To determine at which step in macrophage germband invasion Porthos is needed, we 395 examined wild type embryos and those expressing porthos RNAi in macrophages. In fixed 396 embryos we observed no change in migration along the non-invasive route of the vnc (Fig. 397 S4C) or in the total number of macrophages compared to the control (Fig. S4D), arguing 398 that Porthos is specifically required for migration into or within the tissues of the 399 germband. We then utilized 2-photon imaging of live embryos and tracked macrophages as 400 they moved from their initial position within the head towards the germband and then 401 during their infiltration into this tissue (Videos 3-4, Fig. 4B and 4SE). We observed no 402 significant change in speed or directionality in the head or on the yolk (Fig. 4C, Fig S4F-H) 403 (speed: in head, 2 µm/min for control and *porthos RNAi*, p=0.56, and on yolk, control=2.1 404 and porthos RNAi=2.2 µm/min, p=0.35; directionality: in head, control=0.35 and porthos 405 RNAi=0.37, p=0.27, and on yolk, control=0.42 and *porthos* RNAi=0.39, p=0.58). 406 Moreover, we detected no significant change in the speed of macrophages moving on the 407 volk and beneath the germband beyond the entry point (control=2.2 and porthos RNAi=2.4 408 μ m/min, p=0.45) (Fig. 4D). However, *porthos RNAi* macrophages waited 69% longer than 409 the control to enter the germband tissue, (control=21.5 and porthos RNAi=36.3 min, 410 p<0.0001) (Fig. 4E). Once within the germband, the first two macrophages invading 411 between the mesoderm and ectoderm progressed significantly slower than the control (Fig. 4F-G) (1st cell: control=3.0 and *porthos RNAi*=2.0 µm/min, p=0.009, 2nd cell: control=2.6 412 and porthos RNAi=2.0 µm/min, p=0.037). In contrast, the speed of the subsequent 413 macrophages was not significantly altered by porthos RNAi (Fig. 4H) (3rd-5th cells: 414 415 control=2.7 and porthos RNAi=2.3 µm/min p=0.21). Thus, porthos RNAi phenocopies 416 atos's migration defect. Finally, we expressed Porthos in atos^{PBG} to restore its higher levels in macrophages. This strongly improves the atos mutant phenotype (87% rescue) (Figs. 4I-417 418 J). Thus, we conclude that Porthos is a key player downstream of Atos, exerting an 419 essential role in pioneer macrophages to specifically allow their initiation of germband 420 invasion.

421

422 **Porthos alters translation of a subset of mRNAs**

423 Given the helicase Porthos's nucleolar localization we hypothesized that it might modulate 424 translation. We purified ribosomes and polysomes by sucrose density gradient fractionation 425 of the control and S2R+ cells treated with *porthos* dsRNA (Fig. 5A). We observed a 426 reduction in polysomes, the 40S small subunit, and 80S ribosome fraction (Fig. 5B) along 427 with an increase in the large 60S subunit peak in the porthos KD. This data suggests that 428 Porthos is required for normal levels of 40S biogenesis, ribosome and polysome assembly, 429 and supports the idea that the higher levels of Porthos triggered by Atos could affect mRNA 430 translation.

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432 Figure 5. Porthos increases translation of an mRNA subset including many involved in mitochondrial 433 OxPhos and metabolic processes. Fig 5A. Sucrose density gradient fractionation allowed purification of 434 ribosome subunits and polysomes. Polysomal or total cellular mRNA fractions were isolated following dsRNA 435 treatment and RNA sequencing libraries were prepared. Fig 5B. Sedimentation analysis showing the relative 436 abundance of 40S, 60S, and 80S ribosomes indicates that porthos depletion by dsRNA markedly reduces the 437 ratio of polysomes to monosomes. A non-targeting dsRNA was used as a control. Profiles were aligned on the 438 basis of the 40S ribosome peak's position and labeled with distinct colors, black for control and red for porthos 439 KD, n=3 biological replicates. Fig 5C. Scatter plot of Translational efficiency (TE) values from porthos dsRNA 440 S2R+ vs control gfp dsRNA cells. Red (down-regulated, DR) and green (up-regulated, UP) dots represent genes 441 with log₂ TE changes that meet the 2 standard deviation cutoff. Fig 5D. DR mRNAs in porthos dsRNA treated 442 versus Control dsRNA treated S2R+ cells. 71% of the genes encoded proteins with predicted functions, the 443 number corresponding to a functional category is shown. Proteins involved in mitochondrial-related functions, 444 metabolic processes, and redox processes are highlighted. Fig 5E. Porthos modulates the translation of RNAs 445 encoding components of mitochondrial OxPhos, including subunits of mitochondrial complexes III, and the 446 ATP synthase complex V along with assembly factors for complexes I and IV. Porthos also enhances the TE of 447 mitochondrial transporting channels, structural proteins as well as those involved in mitochondrial translation. 448 **Fig 5F.** List of the proteins encoded by mRNAs that are downregulated in *porthos dsRNA* treated S2R+ cells 449 that are involved in metabolic pathways. NF: Not Found. See also Figure S5 and Data S2. Data S2: Complete 450 set of TE values from polysome-sequencing data from control gfp dsRNA and porthos dsRNA treated S2R+cells.

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452 To examine which mRNA transcripts depend on Porthos for their efficient translation, we 453 performed polysome-profiling, sequencing transcripts associated with highly translationally 454 active polysomes as well as all the transcripts in the S2R+ cells (Fig 5A, Supp. Data 2). We 455 calculated translational efficiency (TE) as the ratio of the normalized reads present for each 456 gene in the mRNAs from the polysome fraction to those in the total mRNA levels; this ratio 457 was determined for the data from both the control GFP RNAi and porthos KD cells. We 458 plotted the mean TE values for control (GFP KD) and porthos KD replicates and calculated 459 the mean change in TE (Δ TE) for each gene as the ratio of TEs between control (GFP KD) 460 and porthos KD replicates (Fig. 5C). Targets were defined as genes falling 2 standard 461 deviations from the median ΔTE as previously described (Flora et al., 2018). We identified 462 204 annotated coding genes that were less efficiently translated and 102 that were more 463 efficiently translated in *porthos KD* cells.

464 The mRNA targets whose TE Porthos enhances are involved in respiration, 465 transport and translation in mitochondria, metabolic processes, transcription, translation, 466 signal transduction, immune responses as well as redox processes (Fig. 5D-F, Fig. S5A-B). 467 The targets include several components of mitochondrial OxPhos, namely ubiquinol 468 cytochrome C reductase (complex III, UQCR-Q), ATP synthase subunit G and coupling 469 factor F(o) (complex V), predicted assembly factors for complex I and IV, and proteins 470 involved in mitochondrial translation and transport (Fig. 5E) as well as other metabolic 471 pathways (Fig. 5F).

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473 Porthos is required for mitochondrial oxidative respiration and energy production

Mitochondria generate ATP through OxPhos mostly from the pyruvate formed by the glycolytic pathway (Pavlova and Thompson, 2016; Vander Heiden et al., 2009) (Fig. S6A) and thus can utilize metabolites downstream of the two enzymes we identified as Atos targets, LKR/SDH and GR/HPR. To directly investigate if Porthos regulates mitochondrial energy production, we generated S2R+ cells producing 56% of *porthos's* normal mRNA levels with CRISPR/Cas9-mediated mutagenesis (which we call *porthos-KD* cells) (Fig.

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480 S6B). We then utilized a Seahorse assay in which the oxygen consumption rate (OCR) (Llufrio et al., 2018) is determined before and after sequential treatment with compounds 481 482 affecting different steps in OxPhos (Figs. 6A, S6A). By comparing the OCR observed upon 483 the different treatments we calculated OxPhos-dependent basal and maximum respiration 484 and found that both were reduced 64% in *porthos-KD* (Figs. 6A-C) (see Methods). We also 485 found significant decreases in OxPhos-dependent spare respiration capacity and as well as 486 OxPhos-independent respiration (72% and 42% reduction, respectively) (Fig. 6C). S2R+ 487 cells utilize primarily mitochondrial OxPhos rather than glycolysis for ATP production 488 (Freijie et al., 2012); this remains the case even in the *porthos KD* cells (Fig. S6C) as we 489 also observed a 60% reduction in the basal extracellular acidification rate (ECAR), a 490 measure of lactate production through complete glycolysis (Fig. S6D). In totality, ATP 491 production through OxPhos was reduced by 50% upon *porthos* depletion (Fig. 6C). Given 492 that Porthos modulates the translation of subunits of mitochondrial complex III and the 493 ATP synthase complex V, our data argues that Porthos induces a shift in metabolic capacity 494 and flux that contributes to the upregulation of the OxPhos pathway and higher levels of 495 energy production.

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497 Mitochondrial respiration is required for metabolism and energy production in 498 macrophages to initiate invasion into the germband tissue

499 We sought to directly assess the importance of the OxPhos complexes whose TE is 500 upregulated by Porthos for macrophage germband invasion in the embryo. Therefore, we 501 tested the effect of a dominant negative form of *complex V*, the ATP synthase which 502 converts the electron gradient produced during OxPhos into ATP (CV-DN) (Figs. 6D-F). 503 We also expressed RNA is against different subunits of *complex III* and the α subunit of 504 complex V in macrophages (Figs. 6G-H). Consistent with the polysome-profiling results from porthos-KD S2R+ cells, these treatments significantly reduced macrophage numbers 505 506 within the germband (Figs. 6D-H) and increased them on the yolk at the germband entry site (Figs. 6F, S6E), phenocopying the germband invasion defect of atos^{PBG} or porthos 507 508 *RNAi* in macrophages. We observed no significant difference in macrophage numbers on 509 the vnc in late Stage 12 upon expression of CV-DN (Fig. S6F) or of the RNAis (Fig. S6G) 510 compared to the control, indicating normal general migration. This data strongly supports 511 the conclusion that higher levels of the OxPhos complexes III and V are required 512 specifically for macrophage tissue invasion.

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⁵¹⁴ Figure 6. Higher levels of mitochondrial respiration are required in macrophages to power their 515 germband tissue invasion. Fig 6A. Schematic of the procedure for mitochondrial energetic profiling in wild-516 type and *porthos KD* S2R+ cells with a Seahorse efflux assay. Fig 6B. The Oxygen Consumption Rate (OCR, 517 pmols O₂/min) was assessed as a representative parameter of OxPhos in control and porthos KD S2R+ cells by a 518 Seahorse Bioscience XF96 Extracellular Flux Analyzer. The ATP synthase inhibitor oligomycin (2 µM), the 519 uncoupler FCCP (2 μ M), and the mitochondrial complex I inhibitor Rotenone (1 μ M) with antimycin A (1 μ M) 520 were injected sequentially (see S6A). Fig 6C. Calculation from relative OCR values at different stages assesses 521 basal and maximum OxPhos respiration, spare OxPhos respiration capacity, OxPhos ATP production, and non-522 OxPhos respiration rates. At least three independent biological experiments (n>6 technical replicates in each 523 repeat). Fig 6D-E. (D) Representative confocal images and (E) quantification of Stage 12 embryos reveals that 524 the number of macrophages (red) that penetrated into the germband in Stage 12 embryos is significantly 525 decreased upon the expression of a dominant negative c-ring of the ATP synthase (CV-DN) compared to the 526 control. Control n=24, CV-DN n=20, p=0.003. Fig 6F. Quantification of macrophages on the yolk in fixed early 527 Stage 12 embryos shows a significant increase in the CV-DN embryos compared to the control. Control n=21,

528 CV-DN n=17, p=0.003. Fig 6G-H. (G) Representative confocal images and (H) quantification of Stage 12 529 embryos indicates that fewer macrophages (red) move into the germband upon the expression in macrophages 530 of any of three different RNAis against mitochondrial OxPhos Complex III (Ubiquinol-cytochrome c reductase, 531 UQCR), or an RNAi against Complex V (F1F0, CG3612), arguing that these two components are required in 532 macrophages for germband tissue invasion. Control n=34; Complex III (Cyt-c1, CG4769): RNAi 1 (VDRC 533 109809) n=20, p=0.0001; Complex III (UQCR-cp1, CG3731): RNAi 2 (VDRC 101350) n=18, p<0.0001; 534 Complex III (UQCR-cp2, CG4169): RNAi 3 (VDRC 100818) n=16, p=0.0027; Complex V: (F1F0, CG3612) 535 RNAi (VDRC 34664) n=24, p<0.0001. Fig 61. A single plane confocal microscope image during germband 536 entry in early Stage 12 embryos from control (Ctrl) or atos^{PBG} embryos, or lines expressing porthos RNAi or 537 CV-DN in macrophages. Antibodies used against the phosphorylated at S293 and thus inactivated Pyruvate 538 Dehydrogenase (pPDH, green) or total PDH (magenta) in macrophages (red). Higher pPDH levels are usually 539 found when ATP/ADP levels are high and input into the TCA cycle is being downregulated (Patel et al., 2014). 540 Fig 6J. Quantification of normalized values for pPDH/PDH levels calculated from fluorescence intensities in 541 macrophages from the genotypes in (6I) during initial germband invasion in early Stage 12. The pPDH/PDH 542 ratio is significantly reduced in all compared to the control, arguing that decreasing the function of CV, atos or 543 porthos in macrophages results in lower cellular ATP/ADP ratios compared to the control. Control n=10, CV-DN n=9, p=0.0002; $atos^{PBG}$ n=13, level p=0.0002; control n=7, macro>porthos RNAi n=8, p=0.0002. Three 544 545 independent experiments. Macrophages visualized in (C) and (G) with nuclear srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry 546 expression and (I) with cytoplasmic srpHemo-3xmCherry. Unpaired t test for (B-C), (E-F), and (H-J). Scale 547 bars: 50 µm in (D) and (G), 10 µm in (I). See also Figure S6. 548

549

Atos and its target Porthos increase macrophage bioenergetics for germband tissueinvasion

552 To examine the bioenergetic state of embryonic macrophages in vivo in the absence of 553 Porthos or Atos, we first assessed the Pyruvate dehydrogenase complex (PDH), which allows 554 pyruvate formed by glycolysis to feed into the TCA cycle. PDH is a key point of metabolic 555 regulation (Patel et al., 2014) (see Fig. 7A). Metabolites produced by the TCA cycle increase 556 PDH's phosphorylation thereby inhibiting it and thus the running of the cycle; metabolites 557 utilized by the TCA cycle decrease PDH phosphorylation and activate it. Importantly, when 558 energy levels fall and mitochondrial ADP levels rise, PDH is unphosphorylated and active, 559 opening the gate to the TCA cycle and OxPhos (Patel et al., 2014). By antibody staining we 560 determined the levels of phosphorylated inactive PDH (pPDH) and the total amounts of PDH 561 (Lieber et al., 2019) in embryonic macrophages. We assessed the pPDH/PDH ratio; a smaller 562 number indicates less inhibition and thus more activity of PDH. As a positive control we first 563 examined macrophages expressing CV-DN, which blocks mitochondrial ATP synthase, and 564 thus increases ADP levels. Indeed we observed a lower pPDH/PDH ratio than in the control 565 (Fig. 6J). We also observed significantly lower pPDH/PDH ratios in macrophages invading the germband in *atos^{PBG}* embryos as well as those expressing *porthos* RNAi in macrophages 566 567 compared to the control (Figs. 6I-J). Our results support the conclusion that in the absence of 568 Atos or Porthos, macrophages in vivo have reduced ATP/ADP ratios, leading the cells to 569 keep PDH in its active form to try to generate more ATP by converting pyruvate into acetyl 570 CoA that can feed into the TCA cycle.

571

572 Atos enhances cellular metabolism and ATP/ADP levels

573 To investigate the full complement of metabolic changes that Atos enables, we performed

- 574 untargeted comparative metabolite profiling by capillary liquid chromatography-tandem mass
- 575 spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) (Figs. S7A, 7A) characterizing extracts from control and *atos*^{PBG}
- 576 embryos. Most importantly, consistent with the results we had observed in the Seahorse assay

577 and the p-PDH/PDH ratio measurement, we observed a significantly decreased ATP/ADP 578 ratio in the absence of Atos (Fig. 7B). Thus our metabolic data supports that Atos regulates a 579 set of targets that shift metabolism to enhance ATP production. Consistent with Atos's role in increasing GR/HPR levels, in atos^{PBG} we observed higher levels of this enzyme's substrate, 580 4-hydroxy α -ketoglutarate (4-H α KG) (Figs. S7B-C) and of hydroxy-L-proline (HLP), the 581 582 metabolite just upstream of 4-H α KG (Fig. 7A). We also observed significantly higher levels 583 of dipeptides containing HLP (Fig. 7D). Atos also regulates LKR/SDH; we observed a 584 reduction to 60% of control levels of its product alpha-amino adipic semialdehyde (ASAA), 585 by targeted-metabolomics profiling (Fig. 7A).

586

587 Fig 7. Mitochondrial metabolism is enhanced by Atos and Porthos. Fig 7A. Schematic depicting ATP-588 generating pathways in eukaryotic cells: glycolysis, the Pentose Phosphate Pathway (PPP), fatty acid 589 oxidation (FAO), the TCA cycle, and the mitochondrial respiratory electron transport chain (ETC). Blue stars 590 mark porthos targets. Green indicates individual metabolites with statistically significant upregulation in 591 atos^{PBG} compared to the control. Fig 7B-F. Cellular metabolites were measured by LC-MS-based metabolomics from extracts of Stage 11 embryos (Control n=5, atos^{PBG} n=7). Fig 7B. Normalized ATP/ADP 592 593 ratio values are decreased in atos^{PBG} compared to control embryos. (p-value=0.028). Fig 7C. Quantification in 594 $atos^{PBG}$ compared to wild-type embryos shows an increase in the pyruvate/glucose ratio (p-value=0.035), but 595 none for the Lactate/Glucose ratio (p-value=0.65). Fig 7D-F. Heatmap of non-targeted metabolites in atos^{PBG} 596 compared to wild-type embryos shown with average \log_2 fold change (FC) reveals (**D**) a significant increase in 597 some dipeptides including those containing hydroxyproline, (E) increases in intermediates of mitochondrial 598 fatty acid β -oxidation (FAO), including different carnitine-conjugated lipids, and (E-F) a significant increase 599 in ketone body substituents compared to the control. *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001, ****p<0.0001. Values 600 are obtained from untargeted metabolomic analysis in (B, D-F). Fig 7G. Our model: Atos raises mRNA 601 transcript levels of the helicase Porthos and the metabolic enzymes GR/HPR and LKR/SDH in macrophages. 602 Metabolic pathways downstream of GR/HPR and LKR/SDH are known to produce metabolites that feed into 603 glycolysis and the TCA cycle to produce ATP. Porthos enhances the translational efficiency of mRNAs, 604 including those encoding mitochondrial OxPhos components and a mitochondrial carnitine transporter. 605 Macrophages with elevated mitochondrial OxPhos can meet the demands for the energy needed to create a 606 path for tissue invasion. However, the absence of Atos leads to reduced levels of GR/HPR, LKR/SDH and 607 Porthos. This decreases generation of ATP through OxPhos leading to defective tissue infiltration of the 608 pioneering macrophages. Unpaired t-test for (B-F). See also Figure S7 and Data S3. Data S3: Primary 609 metabolomics data from control and atos mutant embryos.

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611 As the metabolomics was conducted on embryos constitutively defective in Atos, 612 we expected to see some compensatory changes as well. Matching our previous data, no 613 indications of a metabolic shift away from mitochondrial OxPhos towards aerobic 614 glycolysis in the absence of Atos were present (Figs. 7C, S7D-F). Instead we observed 615 results consistent with a backup of some metabolites whose products would normally be 616 fed into glycolysis and the TCA cycle. We found significantly higher levels of β -617 hydroxybutyrate, which can be broken down to acetyl-CoA (Puchalska and Crawford, 618 2017) along with increases in carnitine-conjugated fatty acids (Figs. 7E-F). There were 619 strong increases in thymidine, which can be catabolized to a product that is fed into 620 glycolysis (Tabata et al., 2017), and uridine which can be interconverted with thymidine, 621 along with other purine and pyrimidine nucleotides (Figs. S7G-H). We observed a small increase in most amino acids in atos^{PBG} (Fig. S7I). Additionally strong reductions occurred 622

623 in the glycine-related metabolite sarcosine (N-methylglycine) known to be a biomarker of

highly metastatic prostate cancer (Fig. S7J) (Sreekumar et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2012).

625 In sum, the metabolomics profiling data in combination with our other findings strongly

- 626 supports the conclusion that Atos is a powerful regulatory protein, increasing the efficiency
- and amount of OxPhos by inducing a metabolic shift that affects the ETC and complex V

628 as well as the TCA cycle (Fig. 7G).

629

630 **DISCUSSION**

631 We identify a key regulator of energy levels in *Drosophila* macrophages as a highly 632 conserved and previously uncharacterized nuclear protein, that we name Atos. Atos mRNA is 633 deposited maternally and is ubiquitously expressed at low levels. However Atos mRNA is 634 also developmentally upregulated in macrophages several hours prior to tissue invasion and 635 down regulated after invasion is completed. Live imaging shows that the presence of Atos 636 speeds the tissue entry and forward movement within the germband tissue of only the first 637 two macrophages, the invasion pioneers. RNA sequencing indicates that Atos leads to the 638 upregulation in macrophages of mRNAs encoding two metabolic enzymes, dGR/HPR by 6.5-639 fold and dLKR/SDH by 25-fold, as well as a 10-fold increase in the mRNA encoding an 640 ATP-dependent RNA helicase, named Porthos. Each of these three proteins is required for 641 normal amounts of invasion. We show in S2R+ cells that two-fold higher levels of Porthos 642 mRNA correspond to two-fold higher OxPhos activity, a process that generates ATP by 643 transferring electrons from NADH and FADH2 produced by the TCA cycle to oxygen 644 (Martínez-Reyes and Chandel, 2020). We thus favor the hypothesis that these two metabolic 645 enzymes act in pathways that ultimately feed into the TCA cycle and thus the ETC. We 646 identify an increase in the active state of the PDH enzyme in *porthos* and *atos* mutant 647 macrophages, an indirect indication that ATP could be lower without these proteins. 648 Importantly, we directly detect two-fold lower ATP/ADP levels in *atos* mutant embryos. 649 Given that Atos is much more highly expressed in macrophages at this stage than in the rest 650 of the embryo, the effects within these immune cells will be even greater. In sum our data 651 argues that the developmentally programmed upregulation of Atos triggers a metabolic shift 652 by upregulating this triad of targets, ultimately significantly increasing ATP/ADP in all 653 macrophages and thereby enabling pioneer macrophages to power the creation of a path for 654 tissue infiltration against surrounding resistance. Our findings are consistent with previous 655 work indicating that higher ATP levels are needed in the first cell to migrate through 656 extracellular matrix (Kelley et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2019). However, to our knowledge our 657 work is the first to identify a concerted molecular pathway that can produce the higher energy 658 levels needed to speed pioneer cell invasion.

659

The target of Atos that we have focused on in this study is a previously uncharacterized protein we call Porthos. Porthos belongs to a family of ATP-dependent DEAD-box RNA helicases that have essential roles in RNA metabolism (Martin et al., 2021, Bourgeois et al., 2016; Venema et al., 1997; Venema and Tollervey, 1995). We find Porthos localized to the nucleolus in macrophages, suggesting a function in ribosome production or assembly (Baßler and Hurt, 2019). Porthos' vertebrate ortholog, DDX47, binds rRNA precursors (Sekiguchi et al., 2006); its *S. cerevisiae* ortholog, RRP3, can separate short RNA 667 helices and is required for the RNA processing that produces the 18S rRNA component of the 668 40S ribosomal subunit (O'Day et al., 1996; Garcia et al., 2012). Consistent with this in S2R+ 669 cells treated with porthos dsRNA we find a lower ratio of the 40S to the 60S ribosome 670 subunits along with a strong decrease in multiple ribosomes sitting on an mRNA, called 671 polysomes. Importantly, Porthos also enhances the translational efficiency (TE) of a subset of 672 mRNAs. A significant subset of the mRNAs whose TE is enhanced by Porthos encode 673 mitochondrial proteins. These are orthologs of proteins shown to affect many aspects of the 674 organelle's biology, from its specialized translation, its import of proteins and their insertion 675 into the inner membrane where the ETC resides, to its import of fatty acids as fuel. Some of 676 these targets are also components directly involved in OxPhos. We identify two orthologs of 677 proteins that affect the assembly and function of OxPhos complexes I and IV (Formosa et al., 678 2015; Dennerlein et al., 2015), one of which causes mitochondrial disease if mutated (Calvo 679 et al., 2010). The yeast ortholog of the complex III subunit we identify as a target, QCR9, is 680 required to strongly increase reductase activity (Brandt et al., 2017). We identify a protein 681 whose ortholog has been implicated in ATP synthase function (Belogrudov, 2002; 682 Belogrudov, 2008). Another, complex V subunit G, fosters complex dimerization, thereby 683 contributing to cristae formation (Davies et al., 2011; Hahn et al., 2016), as does another 684 target, Mics1 (Oka et al., 2008). More cristae correlate with higher levels of OxPhos (Brandt 685 et al., 2017), and have been proposed to foster ATP production (Mannella, 2020). Thus the 686 increased OxPhos we see in cells with more Porthos could result from improved efficiency 687 through multiple avenues; more translation of Porthos targets would be predicted to increase 688 the amount, localization, and assembly of OxPhos components as well as the extent of the 689 membrane folds in which they are localized. Co-regulation to increase this set of 690 mitochondrial proteins could thus allow a concerted enhancement of OxPhos and 691 mitochondrial energy production by avoiding that invidual steps become rate limiting.

692 Atos's two mammalian orthologs, FAM214A and B, can fully substitute for Atos during 693 macrophage invasion, arguing that they maintain Atos's ability to increase ATP/ADP. All of 694 Atos's targets that we show act during invasion have highly conserved human orthologs 695 whose mRNAs are broadly expressed along with FAM214A and B (Sekiguchi et al., 2006; 696 Human Protein Atlas, BioGPS). Thus Atossa's vertebrate orthologs could be utilized by 697 particular mammalian cell types in energetically demanding circumstances. In the immune 698 system FAM214A appears particularly enriched within plasmacytoid dendritic cells (pDCs) 699 and B cells (Table 1); pDCs upregulate OxPhos in response to IFN-1s during anti-viral 700 responses (Wu et al., 2016) and B cells upregulate OxPhos during differentiation for effective 701 antibody secretion (Price et al., 2018). Furthermore, FAM214A and B are well expressed in 702 the brain which utilizes large amounts of energy and produces almost all of its ATP though 703 OxPhos (Raichle and Gusnard, 2002; Hall et al., 2012). A shift from aerobic glycolysis to 704 OxPhos is required for neural stem cell differentiation and neural survival (Zheng et al., 705 2016); many neurodegenerative diseases are associated with defects in OxPhos (Koopman et 706 al., 2013). Interestingly, four different single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNP) in FAM214A 707 introns have been linked to more severe Alzheimer's disease or neurofibrillary tangles in 708 genome wide association studies while another SNP in a transcription factor-binding region 709 was associated with increased general intelligence (p-value for all variants $\leq 5 \times 10^{-6}$; 710 https://www.ebi.ac.uk/gwas/search?query=FAM214A), Sherva et al., 2020; Beecham et al.,

711 2014; Wang et al., 2020; Davies et al., 2018). The importance of OxPhos enhancers for brain 712 function is demonstrated by the many neurodegenerative diseases connected to defects in 713 PGC-1 (Zheng et al., 2010; Cui et al., 2006; Weydt et al., 2006). PGC-1 activates OxPhos 714 through transcription of mitochondrial genes and thus mitochondrial biogenesis (Lin et al, 715 2005). In contrast, Atossa increases translation from mitochondrial mRNAs that already exist 716 by raising levels of the helicase Porthos. The closest Drosophila ortholog of PGC-1 also 717 raises transcription of mitochondrial proteins and OxPhos (Tiefenbock et al., 2010) and is 718 expressed in invading macrophages at levels comparable to Atossa in our RNAseq. We 719 hypothesize that these two regulators of mitochondrial function could work in concert, with 720 Atossa allowing faster and more easily reversible control of enhanced energy production. 721 Thus investigating the mammalian version of the regulatory network that we identified in this 722 work and strategies to modulate it in the brain and immune system is of wide interest.

Altogether, our work uncovers a surprising molecular genetic view into the physiology of the organism, revealing a heretofore unsuspected cross-regulatory mechanism that spans different levels of the biological organization of cellular metabolism, cell biology and the tissue invasiveness of the immune system.

727

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743

744 Author Contributions

S.E., E.T.M. A.G. J.B. J-W.G. and T.K. conducted experiments, T.R.H. and A.B. provided
resources, S.E., T.R.H., J.B. J-W. A.G, T.K. P.R. and D.E.S. designed experiments, S.E.,
E.T.M., and D.E.S. wrote the paper, S.E., E.T.M. and J-W.G. conducted formal analysis, all
authors reviewed and edited the paper, A.B., D.E.S. and P.R. conducted Supervision and
Project Administration, S.E., D.E.S. and P.R carried out Conceptualization. D.E.S., P.R. A.B.
and T.R.H. acquired funding.

751

752 **Declaration of Interests**

- The authors declare no competing interests.
- 754

755

756 EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

757

758 Fly work

759 Flies were raised on food bought from IMBA (Vienna, Austria) which was prepared 760 according to the standard recipe of agar, cornmeal, and molasses with the addition of 1.5% 761 Nipagin. Adults were placed in cages in a Percival DR36VL incubator maintained at 29°C 762 and 65% humidity or a Sanyo MIR-153 incubator at 29°C within the humidity controlled 763 25°C fly room; embryos were collected on standard plates prepared in house from apple 764 juice, sugar, agar and Nipagin supplemented with yeast from Lesaffre (Marcq, France) on the 765 plate surface. Embryo collections for fixation (7-8 hour collection) as well as live imaging (4-766 5 hour collection) were conducted at 29°C.

767

768 Fly lines obtained used in this work

srpHemo-GAL4 was provided by K. Brückner (Brückner et al., 2004). The RNA lines tested
in this paper (Table S1) were obtained from the Bloomington *Drosophila* Stock Centre
(Bloomington, USA) and the Vienna *Drosophila* Resource Center (VDRC, Vienna, Austria).
Lines w; P{w[+mC] srpHemo-3xmCherry}, w; P{w[+mC] srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry}

773 were published previously (Gyoergy et al., 2018).

774

775 Embryo fixation and immunohistochemistry

- 776 Embryos were collected on apple juice plates from between 6-8.5 hours at 29°C. Embryos 777 were incubated in 50% Chlorox (DanClorix) for 5 min and washed. Embryos were fixed with 778 17% formaldehyde/heptane (ThermoFisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) for 20 min 779 followed by methanol or ethanol devitellinization. PDH and p-PDH staining utilized hand-780 devitellinized embryos. Fixed embryos were blocked in BBT (0.1 M PBS + 0.1% TritonX-781 100 + 0.1% BSA) for 2 hours at RT and then incubated overnight at 4°C. Antibodies were 782 used at the following dilutions: Mouse anti α -GFP (Aves Labs Inc., Tigard, Oregon, 1:500), 783 Rat anti-HA (Roche, Basel, Switzerland, 1:100), Mouse anti-PDH E1 α (Abcam, Cambridge, 784 UK, ab110334, 1:200) and Rabbit antiphoshpo-PDH E1 α (S293) (Abcam, Cambridge, UK, 785 ab92696, 1:200). Afterwards, embryos were washed in BBT for 2 hours, and incubated with 786 secondary antibodies at RT for 2 hours, and washed again for 2 hours. Secondary antibodies 787 and Phalloidin were used at the following dilutions: anti-rat 488 1:300, anti-chicken 488 788 1:500, anti-mouse 488 1:500 or anti-mouse 633 1:200, anti-rabbit 488 1:300, and Phalloidin 789 1:300 (all from ThermoFisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) (Table S2). The embryos 790 were mounted overnight at 4°C in Vectashield mounting medium (Vector Laboratories, 791 Burlingame, USA), which contains DAPI. Embryos were placed on a slide and imaged with a 792 Zeiss Inverted LSM800 Confocal Microscope using a Plain-Apochromat 20X/0.8 Air 793 Objective or a Plain-Apochromat 63X/1.4 Oil Objective.
- 794

795 S2R+ cell work and immunostaining

S2R+ cells (a gift from Frederico Mauri of the Knöblich laboratory at IMBA, Vienna) were
grown in Schneider's medium (Gibco) supplemented with 10% FBS (Gibco) and transfected
with the *srpHemo-HA::CG9005(atos)*, or *UAS-CG9005(atos)::FLAG::HA*, *UAS-*

799 CG9253(porthos)::FLAG::HA and srpHemo-GAL4 constructs using Effectene Transection 800 Reagent (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) following the manufacturer's protocol (Table S3). 801 Transfected S2R+ cells were grown on Poly-L-Lysine coated coverslips (ThermoFisher 802 Scientific, Waltham, Massachusetts, USA) in complete Schneider's medium (Gibco) 803 supplemented with 10% FBS (Sigma-Aldrich, Saint Louis, Missouri, USA) to a confluency 804 of 60%. For antibody staining, cells were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde (Sigma-Aldrich, 805 St Louis, MI, USA) in PBS for 15 minutes at room temperature (RT). Cells were washed 806 three times with PBS followed by permeabilization with 0.5% Triton X-100 (Sigma-Aldrich) 807 in PBS for 15 minutes and then blocked in BBT (see above) for at least 1 hour. Antibodies 808 were diluted in blocking buffer and incubated for 2 hours at RT. Primary antibodies were 809 used at the following working dilutions: Chicken anti-GFP (clone 5G4, Ogris lab, MFPL, 810 1:100), Rat anti-HA (Roche, Basel, Switzerland, 1:50), Mouse anti-Lamin (DSHB, lamin 811 Dm0, ADL1010, 1:50), and Mouse anti-fibrillarin (gift from Rangan lab, 1:1). Cells were 812 subsequently washed three times with PBS-Triton X-100 (0.05%) for 5 minutes each, 813 followed by secondary antibody incubation in blocking/permeabilization buffer for 1 hour at 814 RT. Secondary antibodies were used at the following working dilutions: anti-rat Alexa Flour 815 488 (1:50), anti-mouse Alexa Flour 488 (1:200), and anti-mouse Alexa Flour 633 (1:100) (all 816 from ThermoFisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). Cells were counterstained with DAPI 817 (ThermoFisher Scientific) for 10 minutes in PBS-Triton X-100 (0.05%). After 818 immunoblotting, cells were mounted with Vectashield (Sigma-Aldrich). Images were 819 acquired using the Zeiss inverted LSM-800 confocal microscope. Pictures were processed 820 with ImageJ.

821

822 DNA isolation from single flies

823 Single male flies were frozen overnight before being grounded with a pellet homogenizer 824 (VWR, Radnor, USA) and plastic pestles (VWR, Radnor, USA) in 50µl of homogenizing 825 buffer (100 mM Tris-HCl, 100 mM EDTA, 100 mM NaCL, and 0.5% SDS). Lysates were 826 incubated at 65°C for 30 minutes. Then 5 M KAc and 6 M LiCl were added at a ratio of 1:2.5 827 and lysates were incubated on ice for 10 min. Lysates were centrifuged for 15 minutes at 828 20,000xg, supernatant was isolated and mixed with Isopropanol. Lysates were centrifuged 829 again for 15 minutes at 20,000xg, the supernatant was discarded and the DNA pellet was 830 washed in 70% ethanol and subsequently dissolved in distilled water.

831 832

833 FACS sorting of macrophages

834 For embryo collections, adult flies of either w^+ ; srpHemo-3xmCherry or w^+ ; CG9005^{BG02278}; srpHemo-3xmCherry genotypes were placed into plastic cages topped with 835 836 apple juice plates with yeast for egg laying. Collections were performed at 29°C at 8h-20h 837 light-dark cycle. Macrophages were collected from Stage 11-early Stage 12, when 838 macrophages initiate invasive migration into the extended germband. Briefly, adult flies 839 laid eggs for 1 hour, then the isolated plates with embryos were kept at 29°C for an 840 additional 4 hours 45 minutes to reach the desired age. Embryos were collected for 2 days 841 with about 6-7 collections per day and stored meanwhile at $+4^{\circ}C$ to slow down 842 development. Collected embryos were dissociated and the macrophages were sorted

according to the procedure described in (Gyoergy et al., 2018). The cells were sorted using
a FACS Aria III (BD) flow cytometer. Emission filters were 600LP, 610/20 and 502 LP,
510/50. Data was analyzed with FloJo software (Tree Star). The cells from the negative
control embryos were sorted to set a baseline plotAbout. Approximately 1-1.5x10⁵
macrophages were sorted within 30 minutes.

848

849 Sequencing of the macrophage transcriptome

850 Total RNA was isolated from the FACS-sorted macrophages using the Qiagen RNeasy 851 Mini kit (Cat No. 74104). The quality and concentration of RNA was determined using the 852 Agilent 6000 Pico kit (Cat No. 5067-1513) on the Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer: about 100 ng of total RNA was extracted from 1.5 X 10⁵ macrophages. RNA sequencing was performed 853 854 by the CSF facility of the Vienna Biocenter according to their standard procedures 855 (https://www.vbcf.ac.at/facilities/next-generation-sequencing/). Briefly, a cDNA library 856 was synthesized using the QuantSeq 3' mRNA-seq Library Prep kit and 4 replicates of each of the genotypes $(w+; +; srpHemo::3xmCherry \text{ or } w^+; CG9005^{BG0\overline{2}278}; srpHemo-$ 857 858 3xmCherry) were sequenced on the Illumina HiSeq 2500 platform.

859 The reads were mapped to the Drosophila melanogaster Ensembl BDGP6 reference 860 genome with STAR (version 2.5.1b). The read counts for each gene were detected using 861 HTSeq (version 0.5.4p3). The Flybase annotation (r6.19) was used in both mapping and 862 read counting. The counts were normalised using the TMM normalization from the edgeR 863 package in R (Anders and Huber, 2015; Dobin et al., 2013). (Prior to statistical testing the 864 data was transformed and then the differential expression between the sample groups was 865 calculated with the limma package in R. The functional analyses were done using the 866 topGO and gage packages in R.

867

868 **Time-lapse imaging**

869 Embryos were dechorionated in 50% bleach for 4 min, washed with water, and mounted in 870 halocarbon oil 27 (Sigma) between a coverslip and an oxygen permeable membrane (YSI). 871 The anterior dorsolateral region of the embryo was imaged on an inverted multiphoton 872 microscope (TrimScope, LaVision) equipped with a W Plan-Apochromat 40X/1.4 oil 873 immersion objective (Olympus). mCherry was imaged at an 820 nm excitation wavelength, 874 using an optical parametric oscillator technology (Coherent Chameleon Compact OPO). 875 Excitation intensity profiles were adjusted to tissue penetration depth and Z-sectioning for 876 imaging was set at 1µm for tracking. For long-term imaging, movies were acquired for 877 180-200 minutes with a frame rate of 40 seconds. Embryos were imaged with a temperature 878 control unit set to 29°C.

879

880 Image Analysis

881 Macrophage cell counts

Autofluorescence of the embryo was used to measure the position of the germband to determine the stages for analysis of fixed samples. Embryos with germband retraction of between 29-31% were assigned to Stage 11. Embryos with 35-40% retraction (Stage 12) were analysed for the number of macrophages that had entered the germband. Embryos with above 50-75% retraction were used for the number along the ventral nerve cord (vnc) and in

the whole embryo. Macrophages were visualized using confocal microscopy with a Zresolution of 2 μ m and the number of macrophages within the germband or the segments of the vnc was calculated in individual slices (and then aggregated) using the Cell Counter plugin in FIJI. Total macrophage numbers were obtained using Imaris (Bitplane) by detecting all the macrophage nuclei as spots.

892

893 Macrophage tracking, speed, directionality and time for macrophage entry analysis

894 Embryos in which the macrophage nuclei were labeled with *srpHemo-H2A::3XmCherry* 895 were imaged and 250X130X36 μm^3 3D-stacks were typically acquired with a constant 0.5X0.5X1 µm³ voxel size at every 40-41 seconds for approximately 3 hours. Images 896 897 acquired from multiphoton microscopy were initially processed with InSpector software 898 (LaVision Bio Tec) to compile channels from the imaging data (Table 3). Afterwards, the 899 exported files were further processed using Imaris software (Bitplane) to visualize the 900 recorded channels in 3D and the movie from each imaged embryo was rotated and aligned 901 along the AP axis for further tracking analysis.

902 To analyze the movies by Imaris, the following analyses were applied:

903 i. To calculate the migration parameters while macrophages migrate from the head mesoderm
904 to the yolk zone, movies were cropped in time to that period (typically 60 minutes from the
905 original movie was used for analysis).

ii. To calculate the migration parameters of the macrophage moving on the yolk zone into the
edge of germband, movies were acquired from the time point of the first macrophage
appearing in the yolk zone and recorded until the onset of germband retraction.

909 iii. Macrophage nuclei were extracted using the spot detection function and tracks generated 910 in 3D over time. We could not detect all macrophages in the head mesoderm as spots because 911 of limitations in our imaging parameters. Tracks of macrophages which migrate towards the 912 dorsal vessel, ventral nerve cord (vnc) and to the anterior of the head were omitted. The edge 913 of the germband was detected using autofluorescence from the yolk and the mean position of 914 the tracks in X- and Y-axis was used to restrict analysis to before macrophages reach the

- 915 edge of the germband.
 916 iv. Nuclei positions in XYZ-dimensions were determined for each time point and used for
- 917 further quantitative analysis.

v. The time point when the first macrophage nucleus reached the germband was defined as T0 and the time point when the macrophage nucleus was within the germband and moved forward along the route between the ectoderm and mesoderm was taken as T1 and T1-T0 was defined as time for macrophage entry. T0 and T1 were determined by precisely examining macrophage position in xy and z dimensions (examination of individual 2 micron slices) over time.

- vi. To measure the speed along the route between the germband edge and the yolk, tracks
 generated from macrophages from the time when the first macrophages started to move along
- 926 the mentioned path until germband retraction onset were utilized.

927 vii. To calculate the speed of migration of the first or second macrophages in the germband928 the track generated for the first or second macrophages alone was used to obtain the nuclei

929 position in XYZ-dimensions. Moreover, the average speed of the third through fifth

930 macrophages moving along the same route was also measured. Speed was calculated within

931 the first 30-35 µm of the patrh between the germband ectoderm and mesoderm. The mean 932 position of the tracks in X- and Y-axis was used to restrict analysis to either of the migratory 933 zones (head, yolk, germband entry, route along the germband ectoderm and mesoderm, route 934 along the germband mesoderm and the yolk).

935 Macrophage migratory parameters, including cell speed and directionality 936 (persistence), were calculated in Matlab (The MathWorks Inc.) from single cell positions in 937 3D for each time frame measured in Imaris (Bitplane), as described elsewhere (Smutny et al., 938 2017). Briefly, instantaneous velocities from single cell trajectories were averaged to obtain a 939 mean instantaneous velocity value over the course of the measurement. To calculate 940 directionality values, single cell trajectories were split into segments of equal length (l; l = 10)941 frames) and calculated via a sliding window as the ratio of the distance between the 942 macrophage start-to-end distance (D) over the entire summed distance covered by the 943 macrophage between each successive frame (d_i) in a segment. Calculated directionality 944 values were averaged over all segments in a single trajectory and all trajectories were 945 averaged to obtain a directionality index (I) for the duration of measurement (with 0 being 946 the lowest and 1 the maximum directionality) as follows:

$$I(l) = \sum_{k=1}^{n-l} \frac{\left(\frac{D_k}{\sum_{i=k}^{k+l} d_i}\right)}{n-l}$$

947 where n defines the total number of frames, i the sum of frame-to-frame distances over one

948 segment and k the sum over all segments of a trajectory.

949 Embryos from the control (w^+ ; +; *srpHemo::3xmCherry*) and the CG9005 mutant (w^+ ; 950 *CG9005^{BG02278}*; *srpHemo::3xmCherry*) were used for calculating the time for macrophage 951 entry. Briefly, 100X130X34 μ m³ 3D-stacks were typically acquired with a constant 952 0.28X0.28X2 μ m³ voxel size at every 40-41 seconds for approximately 3 hours.

953

954 **Cloning of constructs**

955 Standard molecular biology methods were used and all constructs were sequenced by the 956 Mycrosynth company (Vienna, Austria) before injection into flies. The enzymes Notl, T4 957 Polynucleotide Kinase (PNK) and DpnI were obtained from New England Biolabs, Ipswich, 958 Massasuchetts, USA (Frankfurt, Germany). PCR amplifications were performed with GoTaq 959 G2 DNA polymerase (Promega, Madison, USA) using a peqSTAR 2X PCR machine from 960 PEQLAB, (Erlangen, Germany). All Infusion cloning was conducted using an Infusion HD 961 Cloning kit (Clontech's European distributer). The relevant oligo sequences were chosen 962 using the Infusion primer Tool at the Clontech website 963 (http://bioinfo.clontech.com/infusion/convertPcr sInit.do).

964

965 Construction of srpHemo-CG9005

A 3894 bp fragment containing the CG9005 ORF was amplified from the UASCG9005::FLAG::HA construct (Table S3) (Drosophila Genomics Resource Centre, DGRC)
using relevant primers (Table S4). The fragment was cloned into the srpHemo plasmid (a gift

969 from Katja Brückner (Brückner et al., 2004) after its linearization with NotI, using an

970 Infusion HD cloning kit (Clontech's European distributor).

971

972 Construction of *srpHemo-FAM214A* and *srpHemo-FAMB214B*

973 Fragments of 3225 bp and 1615 bp containing the FAM214A and FAMB214B ORFs,

- respectively, were amplified from cDNA prepared from dendritic cells (a gift from M. Sixt'slab) with FAM214A Fwd and Rev primers, and with FAM214B Fwd and FAM214B Rev
- lab) with FAM214A Fwd and Rev primers, and with FAM214B Fwd and FAM214B Rev
 primers (Table S4). The fragments were cloned into the *srpHemo* plasmid using an Infusion
- 970 primers (rable S4). The fragments were cloned into the *srpriento* plasmid using an infusion977 HD cloning kit after its linearization with *NotI* (NEB).
- 978

979 Construction of mutant forms of *srpHemo-atossa*

Mutant forms of *atossa* (CG9005) were generated by removing the desired region from the CG9005 cDNA sequence by using inverse PCR followed by blunt end ligation and related primers (Table S4). Afterwards, *atossa* mutant constructs in the Bluescript vector were amplified and cloned into the *srpHemo* plasmid after its linearization with *NotI*, using an Infusion HD cloning kit.

985

986 Transgenic fly line production

987 The *srpHemo* and *UAS* constructs (Table S4) was injected into syncytial blastoderm stage
988 embryos of M{3xP3-RFP.attP}ZH-86Fb (BL 24749) line (obtained from Peter Duchek of
989 IMBA) to generate inserts on third chromosome by C31-mediated integration (Table S3)
990 (Bischof et al., 2007; Gyoergy et al., 2018).

991

992 CRISPR sgRNA production and cloning

993 sgRNA target sequences for CRISPR-Cas9 based gene knock down for CG9253 (porthos) 994 were designed as 20 nt sequences upstream of an NGG PAM motif in the Drosophila genome 995 (https://www.flyrnai.org/crispr/) (Basset and Liu, 2014). The targeting oligonucleotides 996 incorporated into *porthos* sgRNAs are given in (Table S4, The annealed oligo inserts were 997 cloned into BspQ1-digested pAC-sgRNA-Cas9 vector (Addgene, plasmid # 49330) before 998 transformation. Positive clones were confirmed by sequencing with pAC-sgRNA-Cas9-U6F 999 primer (Table S4). All CRISPR-Cas9 constructs contain three distinct cassettes for 1000 expression of Cas9, an sgRNA against *porthos*, and a puromycin resistance marker.

1001

1002 Generation of *porthos* depleted S2R+ cells

1003 To make the stable depleted cell lines, S2R+ Cells (2 X 10⁵) were seeded in Schneider 1004 medium plus 10% FCS (Gibco 21720024, Sigma F9665) in a 24-well plate. Plasmid sgRNA 1005 CRISPR porthos was co-transfected (1 µg of total DNA per well) with Effectene Transfection 1006 Reagent (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) following the manufacturer's protocol. 4 hours after 1007 transfection the medium was changed and the cells were incubated for 72 hours at 25°C. 1008 Cells were then transferred to a 6-well plate before addition of 5µg/ml Puromycin. Selection 1009 with Puromycin took place for 7 days. Surviving cells were incubated without selection 1010 medium for 24 hours, after that they were added to 96-well cell culture plates in conditioned 1011 medium at a density of 1 cell/well. After 7 days we checked the wells for growing colonies to 1012 rule out that more than 1 colony was present per well. When cells were dense enough we first transferred them to a 24-, then a 12- and finally a 6-well plate. Once the cells reached
confluency, we extracted the genomic DNA to perform a PCR-based prescreening of *porthos*-depleted cells to detect effective CRISPR (Table S4).

1016

1017 Quantitative Real Time-PCR (qRT-PCR) analysis

1018 To verify the effective knockdown of genes, we first isolated RNA from S2R+ cells $(1x10^7)$ 1019 for the control and KD cells) according to the manufacturer's protocol (Qiagen RNeas Mini 1020 Kit Cat No./ID: 74104). We used 500 ng of isolated RNA for cDNA synthesis, according to 1021 the manufacturer's protocol (Qiagen Omniscript RT, Cat No./ID: 205111). Afterwards we 1022 performed qPCR to assess the mRNA expression of atossa and porthos, using RpS20 as an 1023 internal control. Primer sequences for Drosophila atossa (CG9005) and porthos (CG9253) 1024 transcripts were designed using NCBI's primer design tool 1025 (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/tools/primer-blast/) and primer sequences for RpS20 gene, as an 1026 obtained from internal control gene, were the FlyPrimerBank 1027 (http://www.flyrnai.org/FlyPrimerBank) (Table S5). We amplified 4 µL cDNA (50 ng) using 1028 10 µL of TakyonTM No Rox SYBR MasterMix Blue dTTP (Eurogentec, Liege, Belgium), 2 µL 1029 of each reverse and forward primers (10 mM). The thermal cycling conditions were as 1030 follows: 40 cycles of amplification each consisting of 10 s at 95°C, 15 s at 60°C and 10 s at 1031 72°C, and cooling at 4°C. The experiments were carried out in technical triplicates and three 1032 biological replicates for each data point. The qPCR experiment was run on a LightCycler 480 1033 (Roche, Basel, Switzerland) and data were analyzed in the LightCycler 480 Software and Prism 1034 (GraphPad Software). To calculate the fold change in *atossa* and *porthos* mRNA levels 1035 compared to the house-keeping gene mRNA levels, we averaged the Ct values of the technical 1036 replicates of each trial. We measured Δct by subtracting the housekeeping gene Ct average 1037 from the Ct average of *atossa* or *porthos*. Afterwards, the 2^{-} det was calculated for each trial.

1038

1039 **Polysome profiling in** *porthos***-KD S2 cells**

1040 **RNAi treatment of S2 cells**

1041 dsRNA for porthos (CG9253) was prepared as described by the SnapDragon manual 1042 (https://www.flyrnai.org/snapdragon). Briefly, template was prepared from S2 cell cDNA 1043 using following designed the primers using SnapDragon 5'-1044 TAATACGACTCACTATAGGATAAG GAAGGGGACAGCGAG-3' and the reverse 1045 primer: 5'-TAATACGACTCACTATAGGTTTGAAATGCCAGTTCCCTC-3' both of 1046 which contain a T7 polymerase promoter. As a negative control, we made non-targeting 1047 against GFP following primers: 5'dsRNA using the 1048 5'-TAATACGACTCACTATAGGGGGAGCGCACCATCTTCTTCAA-3' and 1049 TAATACGACTCACTATAGGGCTGCTTGTCGGCCATGATATAG-3'. We performed in 1050 vitro transcription overnight at 37°C using the T7 Megascript kit (AM1334) following 1051 manufacturer's instructions (Table S4). The RNA was treated with DNAse and purified using 1052 acid-phenol chloroform extraction and ethanol precipitated. The resulting RNA was annealed 1053 by heating at 65°C for 5 minutes and slow cooling to 37°C for an hour. Knocking down in S2 1054 cells was performed using 1 μg of dsRNA as previously described 1055 (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC4465107/). 0.5-1.0 X 10⁶ cells were seeded 1056 30 minutes prior to transfection to adhere. Prior to transfection, the media was changed for

1057 500 μ l of fresh media. The seeded cells were treated with 500 μ l of transfection complexes

1058 per well of a 6-well plate. 48 hours post transfection, cells were passaged to 10 cm dishes.

1059 After 3 more days cells were harvested for further analysis.

1060

Polysome profiling and polysome sequencing

1062 Polysome sequencing was performed as described by (Flora et al., 2018) with minor 1063 modifications. Cells were incubated with fresh medium 2-4 hours before harvesting. 1064 Cycloheximide (100 μ g/ml) was first added to the medium for 3 min at RT, and the cells 1065 were subsequently centrifuged at 800 xg for 3 min. The cell pellet was afterwards washed 1066 two times with ice-cold phosphate-buffered saline (1X PBS, pH 7.4). The supernatant was 1067 discarded and the pellet was gently resuspended in 300 µl of lysis buffer A (300 mM NaCl, 1068 15 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 15 mM EDTA, 1 mg/ml heparin, 1% Triton-X100, and 100 µg/ml 1069 cycloheximide) and lysed for 15 min on ice. The lysate was clarified by centrifugation at 1070 8500 xg for 5 min at 4°C. 20% of the lysate was kept aside as an input. The clarified lysate 1071 was loaded onto a 10%-50% sucrose gradient in Buffer B (300 mM NaCl, 15 mM Tris-HCl, 1072 pH 7.5, 15 mM MgCl₂, supplemented with 100 μ g/ml cycloheximide) and centrifuged for 3 1073 hours at 35,000 rpm in an SW41 rotor in a Beckman L7 ultracentrifuge (Beckman Coulter, 1074 Krefeld, Germany). The gradients were simultaneously fractionated on a Density Gradient 1075 Fractionation System (#621140007) at 0.75 ml/min. We added 20 µl of 20% SDS, 8 µl of 0.5 1076 M pH 8 EDTA, and 16 µl of proteinase K (#P8107S) to each polysome fraction and 1077 incubated them for 30 min at 37°C. The RNA from each fraction was extracted by standard 1078 acid phenol: chloroform purification followed by 80% ethanol precipitation. The polysome 1079 fractions were then measured for RNA content and RNAseq libraries were prepared.

1080

1081 **Polysome-seq library preparation and mRNA sequencing**

1082 The RNA was first treated with Turbo DNAse (TURBO DNA-free Kit, Life Technologies, 1083 AM1907) and then purified using DNAse Inactivation buffer. The RNA was then centrifuged 1084 for 1.5 min at 1000 xg and the supernatant was collected and centrifuged once more at the 1085 same condition. The RNA quantity was determined by measuring the absorbance at 260 nm 1086 (NanoDrop 2000 spectrophotometer; Peqlab).

1087 Poly-A selection was performed according to manufacturer's instructions (Bioo Scientific 1088 Corp., 710 NOVA-512991). Following Poly-A selection mRNA libraries were prepared 1089 according to manufacturer's instructions (Bioo Scientific Corp., NOVA-5138-08), except that 1090 the RNA was incubated at 95°C for 13 min to generate optimal fragment sizes. The 1091 sequencing library quantity was determined using Qubit (Thermo Fisher Scientific). The 1092 library integrity was assessed with a Bioanalyzer 2100 system (RNA 6000 Pico kit, Agilent 1093 Technologies). The libraries on biological duplicates from each genotype were subjected to 1094 75 base-pair single-end sequencing on Illumina NextSeq500 at the Center for Functional 1095 Genomics (CFG).

1096

1097 Data analysis of S2 cell polysome sequencing

First the reads were assessed for their quality using FastQC. Mapping of the reads was
performed against *Drosophila* Genome (dm6.01, <u>www.fruitfly.org</u>) using Hisat version 2.1.0.
Mapped reads were then assigned to feature using featureCount version v1.6.4. To calculate

1101 Translation efficiency (TE), TPMs (transcripts per million) values for polysome-libraries 1102 were calculated (Flora et al., 2018). All transcripts with zero reads were discarded from 1103 libraries for further analysis. The log2 ratio of TPMs between the polysome fraction and total 1104 mRNA was measured. This ratio represents TE. The TE value of each replicate was averaged 1105 and delta TE (Δ TE) was calculated as (*porthos* dsRNA TE)/(GFP dsRNA TE). Targets were 1106 defined as transcripts falling greater or less than two standard deviations (SD) from the 1107 median of Δ TE (Table S5).

1108

1109 Extracellular flux measurements for bioenergetic profiling

1110 Cellular respiration was assessed using a Seahorse XF96 extracellular flux analyzer (Agilent 1111 Technologies, Santa Clara, CA USA). The oxygen consumption rate (OCR) as a measure of 1112 oxygen utilization of cells is an important indicator of mitochondrial function. The 1113 extracellular acidification rate (ECAR) is a measure of glycolytic activity measured via 1114 extracellular acidification due to lactate release, formed during the conversion of glucose to 1115 lactate during anaerobic glycolysis. Prior to measurement, wild-type and *porthos* KD cells were seeded at 10 X 10⁵ cells per well in Seahorse XF96 polystyrene tissue culture plates 1116 1117 (Agilent) and incubated in unbuffered Seahorse RPMI assay medium (Agilent) supplemented 1118 with glucose (25 mM; Sigma-Aldrich), sodium pyruvate (1 mM; Gibco), and glutamine (2 1119 mM; Gibco) in a non-CO2 incubator at 25°C and pH 7.4 for 1 h before the experiment. 1120 Cellular oxygen consumption was assessed in basal condition (prior to any addition) and after 1121 addition of oligomycin ($2 \Box \mu M$; Agilent) Carbonyl cyanide-4 (trifluoromethoxy) 1122 phenylhydrazone (FCCP, 2 µM; Sigma-Aldrich), antimycin A and rotenone (both at 1 µM; 1123 Agilent). The three drugs were injected into the XF96 plate sequentially. This allowed for 1124 calculation of OCR linked to ATP production, maximal respiration capacity and spare 1125 respiratory capacity. Basal respiration was measured prior to injection of oligomycin A. Both 1126 OCR and ECAR were measured every 4 min with a mixing of 2 min in each cycle, with 4 1127 cycles in total for the first step and 3 cycles thereafter.

Different parameters from the OCR graph were measured as follows. ATP turnover was calculated by subtracting the "last rate measurement before oligomycin" from the "minimum rate measurement after oligomycin injection". Maximal respiration was defined as (maximum rate measurement after FCCP) - (non-mitochondrial respiration). Spare respiratory capacity (SRC) was measured by subtracting basal respiration from maximal respiration (Mookerjee et al., 2017).

1134

1135 Metabolomics profiling analysis

1136 Samples for metabolomics were assessed by the VBCF metabolomics facility according to 1137 al. with slight modifications Rao et 1138 (https://www.viennabiocenter.org/facilities/metabolomics/) (Rao et al., 2019). 1 gr of wild-1139 type or *atos* embryos were extracted using an ice-cold MeOH:ACN:H2O (2:2:1, v/v) solvent 1140 mixture. A volume of 1mL of cold solvent was added to each pellet, vortexed for 30 s, and 1141 incubated in liquid nitrogen for 1 min. The samples were thawed at room temperature and 1142 sonicated for 10 min. This cycle of cell lysis in liquid nitrogen combined with sonication was 1143 repeated three times. To precipitate proteins, the samples were incubated for 1 h at -20° C, 1144 followed by centrifugation at 13,000 rpm for 15 min at 4°C. The supernatant was removed

and evaporated. The dry extracts were reconstituted in 100 μ L of ACN:H2O (1:1, v/v), sonicated for 10 min, and centrifuged at 13,000 rpm for 15 min at 4°C to remove insoluble debris. The supernatants were transferred to Eppendorf tubes, shock frozen and stored at -80°C prior to LC/MS analysis. A volume of 1 μ L of the metabolite extract was injected on a I149 ZIC-pHILIC HPLC column operated at a flow rate of 100 μ L/min, directly coupled to a TSQ Quantiva mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific).

1151 We used the following transitions for quantitation in the negative ion mode: AMP 346 1152 m/z to 79 m/z, ADP 426 m/z to 134 m/z, ATP 506 m/z to 159 m/z, IMP 347 m/z to 79 m/z, 1153 GMP 362 m/z to 211 m/z, GDP 442 m/z to 344 m/z, GTP 522 m/z to 424 m/z, taurine 124 1154 m/z to 80 m/z, malate 133 m/z to 115 m/z, citrate 191 m/z to 111 m/z, pyruvate 87 m/z to 43 1155 m/z, lactate 89 m/z to 43 m/z, NADH 664 m/z to 408 m/z, NAD 662 m/z to 540 m/z, hexose 1156 phosphates 259 m/z to 97 m/z, Acetyl CoA 808 m/z to 408 m/z, CoA 766 m/z to 408 m/z, 1157 succinate 117 m/z to 73 m/z. Glutamine 147 m/z to 130 m/z, glutamate 148 m/z to 84 m/z, 1158 serine 106 m/z to 60 m/z were calculated in the positive ion mode. For all transitions, the 1159 optimal collision energy was defined by analyzing pure metabolite standards. 1160 Chromatograms were manually interpreted using trace finder (Thermo Fisher Scientific), 1161 validating experimental retention times with the respective quality controls. All 1162 measurements were within the linear range of detection.

1163 For the metabolomics analysis, the metabolite concentration was normalized using a 1164 Z-score normalization method with the formula of $y = (x-\alpha)/\lambda$, in which x refers to the real 1165 concentration, α indicates the mean value of all samples, and λ is the variance of all samples. 1166 The normalized concentrations of metabolites were applied to generate a heatmap, which 1167 showed the concentration difference of all metabolites. For KEGG (<u>http://www.kegg.jp</u>, 1168 Tokyo, Japan) pathway analysis, the clusterProfiler R package was employed.

1169

1170 Statistics and repeatability

1171 Statistical tests as well as the number of embryos/ cells assessed are listed in the figure 1172 legends. All statistical analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism and significance was 1173 determined using a 95% confidence interval. Data points from individual experiments/ 1174 embryos were pooled to estimate mean and SEM. No statistical method was used to 1175 predetermine sample size and the experiments were not randomized. Unpaired t-test or 1176 Mann-Whitney was used to calculate the significance in differences between two groups and 1177 One-way Anova followed by Tukey post-test followed by Conover or Dunn's post-test for 1178 multiple comparisons. All measurements were performed in 3-50 embryos. Representative 1179 images illustrated in Figures 1A-C, Figures 2B-C, Figures S2A-B, Figures 3B-D, Figure 1180 4A,I, Figure S4B, and Figure 6D,G,I were from separate experiments that were repeated at 1181 least 3 and up to 7 times. Stills shown in Figure 1F, Figure S1I, Figure 4B, and Figure S4E 1182 are representative images from two-photon movies, which were repeated at least 3 times. 1183 Raw data from embryo scoring and analyzed tracking output from each movie is in Data S4.

1184

1185 Exact genotype of *Drosophila* lines used in Figures:

1186 **Figure 1 and Figure S1**

1187 **Figs.** 1A-C: Control: *w*-; +; *srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry*, CG9005 mutant: *w-*: *P{EP}CG9005^{BG02278}*: 1188 srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry, CG9005 rescue: *w-*: 1189 P{EP}CG9005^{BG02278}; srpHemo-CG9005, srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry. Fig. 1D: Control: w-; +; srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry, CG9005 mutant: w-; P{EP}CG9005^{BG02278}; srpHemo-1190 *P{EP}CG9005^{BG02278}/* Df(2R)ED2222;1191 H2A::3xmCherry, Df1: *w-*: srpHemo-*P*{*EP*}*CG*9005^{*BG*02278}/*Df*(2*R*)*BSC*259; 1192 H2A::3xmCherry, Df2: *w-*: srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry, CG9005 rescue: w-; P{EP}CG9005^{BG02278}; srpHemo-CG9005, srpHemo-1193 1194 H2A:: 3xmCherry. Fig. 1E: Control 1: $w^{-}P(w+)UAS$ -dicer/w-; $P\{attP, y[+], w[3^{-}]/+; w[3^{-}]/$ 1195 srpHemo-Gal4 UAS-GFP, CG9005 RNAi 1: UAS-Dicer2/w-; CG9005 RNAi (v106589)/+; 1196 *srpHemo-Gal4 UAS-GFP, UAS-H2A::RFP/+*, Control 2: $w^{-} P(w+)UAS$ -dicer/w-; +; 1197 srpHemo-Gal4 UAS-GFP, CG9005 RNAi 2: UAS-Dicer2/w-; CG9005 RNAi (v36080)/+; 1198 srpHemo-Gal4 UAS-GFP, UAS-H2A::RFP/+, Control 3: $w^{-}P(w+)UAS$ -dicer/w-; 1199 P{attP,y[+],w[3]]/+; srpHemo-Gal4 UAS-GFP, CG9005 RNAi 3: UAS-Dicer2/w-; CG9005 1200 RNAi (v33362)/+; srpHemo-Gal4 UAS-GFP, UAS-H2A::RFP/+. Figs. 1F-L: Control: w-; +; *srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry*, CG9005 mutant: *w-; P{EP}CG9005*^{BG02278}; 1201 srpHemo-1202 H2A::3xmCherry.

Fig. S1A: Control: *w-; +; srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry,* mutant: *w-; P{EP}CG9005*^{BG02278}; 1203 srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry, Df1 cross: w-; P{EP}CG9005^{BG02278}/Df(2R)ED2222; srpHemo-1204 H2A::3xmCherry, Df2 cross: w-; $P{EP}CG9005^{BG02278}/Df(2R)BSC259$; srpHemo 1205 H2A::3xmCherry, CG9005 rescue: w-; P{EP}CG9005^{BG02278}; srpHemo-CG9005, srpHemo-1206 1207 H2A:: 3xmCherry. Figs. S1B,H: Control 1: $w^{-}P(w+)UAS$ -dicer/w-; $P\{attP, y[+], w[3^{-}]/+; w[3^{$ 1208 srpHemo-Gal4 UAS-GFP, CG9005 RNAi 1: UAS-Dicer2/w-; CG9005 RNAi (v106589)/+; 1209 srpHemo-Gal4 UAS-GFP, UAS-H2A::RFP/+. Control 2: w P(w+)UAS-dicer/w-; +; 1210 srpHemo-Gal4 UAS-GFP, CG9005 RNAi 2: UAS-Dicer2/w-; CG9005 RNAi (v36080)/+; 1211 *srpHemo-Gal4* UAS-GFP, UAS-H2A::RFP/+. Conrol 3: w⁻ P(w+)UAS-dicer/w-; 1212 P{attP,y[+],w[3`]/+; srpHemo-Gal4 UAS-GFP, CG9005 RNAi 3: UAS-Dicer2/w-; CG9005 RNAi (v33362)/+; srpHemo-Gal4 UAS-GFP, UAS-H2A::RFP/+. Figs. S1C,G: Control: w-: 1213 $P{EP}{CG9005^{BG02278}}$: 1214 *srpHemo- H2A::3xmCherry*, mutant: *w-*; srpHemo-+; 1215 H2A::3xmCherry. Fig. S1D: Control 1: $w^{-}P(w+)UAS$ -dicer/w-; $P\{attP, y[+], w[3^{-}]/+; w]$ 1216 srpHemo-Gal4 UAS-GFP, CG9005 RNAi 1: UAS-Dicer2/w-; CG9005 RNAi (v106589)/+; 1217 srpHemo-Gal4 UAS-GFP, UAS-H2A::RFP/+. Fig. S1E: Control 2: w⁻ P(w+)UAS-dicer/w-; 1218 +; srpHemo-Gal4 UAS-GFP, CG9005 RNAi 2: UAS-Dicer2/w-; CG9005 RNAi (v36080)/+; 1219 srpHemo-Gal4 UAS-GFP, UAS-H2A::RFP/+. Fig. S1F: Conrol 3: $w^{-}P(w+)UAS$ -dicer/w-; 1220 P{attP,y[+],w[3]]/+; srpHemo-Gal4 UAS-GFP, CG9005 RNAi 3: UAS-Dicer2/w-; CG9005 1221 RNAi (v33362)/+; srpHemo-Gal4 UAS-GFP, UAS-H2A::RFP/+. Figs. S1I-L: Control: w-; +; srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry, CG9005 mutant: w-; P/EP/CG9005^{BG02278}; srpHemo-1222 1223 H2A::3xmCherry.

1224

1225 Figure 2 and Figure S2

Fig. 2B: w-;+; UAS-atossa::FLAG::HA, srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry. Figs.
2C,D: Control: w-; +; srpHemo- H2A::3xmCherry, atos mutant: w-; atossa ^{BG02278};
srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry, Atossa rescue: w-; atossa ^{BG02278}; srpHemo- atossa, srpHemoH2A::3xmCherry, rescue: w-; atossa ^{BG02278}; srpHemo- atossa ^{DUF4210-}, srpHemoH2A::3xmCherry, rescue: w-; atossa ^{BG02278}; srpHemo- atossa ^{CherSeg-}, srpHemo-

H2A::3xmCherry, rescue: w-; atossa ^{BG02278}; srpHemo- atossa ^{DU4210-/CherSeg-}, srpHemoH2A::3xmCherry, rescue: w-; atossa ^{BG02278}; srpHemo- atossa ^{TAD1-/TAD2-}, srpHemoH2A::3xmCherry. Figs. 2E,F: Control: w-; +; srpHemo- H2A::3xmCherry, mutant: w-;
atossa ^{BG02278}; srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry, rescue: w-; atossa ^{BG02278}; srpHemo-FAM214A,
srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry, rescue: w-; atossa ^{BG02278}; srpHemo-FAM214B, srpHemoH2A::3xmCherry.

Figs. S2B: Rescue: w-; atossa^{BG02278}; srpHemo-atossa^{TAD1-}, srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry, 1237 rescue: w-; atossa^{BG02278}; srpHemo-atossa^{TAD2-}, srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry. Fig. S2C: 1238 Control: w-; +; srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry, atos mutant: w-; atossa^{BG02278}; srpHemo-1239 atossa^{BG02278}; srpHemo-atossa, *w-*; 1240 H2A::3xmCherry, Atossa rescue: srpHemoatossa^{BG02278}. TAD1srpHemo-atossa 1241 H2A::3xmCherry, rescue: *w-*: srpHemoatossa^{BG02278}: TAD2-H2A::3xmCherry, 1242 *w-*: srpHemorescue: srpHemo-atossa 1243 H2A::3xmCherry. Fig. S2D: Control: w-; +; srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry, mutant: w-; atossa^{BG02278}; srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry, rescue: w-; atossa^{BG02278}; srpHemo-atossa, 1244 srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry, rescue: w-; atossa^{BG02278}; srpHemo-atossa^{DUF4210-}, 1245 srpHemo-^{BG02278}; srpHemo-atossa CherSeg*w-*: atoss 1246 rescue: H2A::3xmCherry. srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry, rescue: w-; atossa^{BG02278}; srpHemo-atossa^{DUF4210-/CherSeg-} 1247 2srpHemoatossa^{BG02278}. srpHemo-atossa^{TAD1-}. 1248 H2A::3xmCherry rescue: w-; srpHemoatossa^{BG02278}: srpHemo-atossa^{TAD2-}. 1249 H2A::3xmCherry, srpHemorescue: *w-*: atossa^{BG02278}; srpHemo-atossa^{TAD1-/2-}, 1250 H2A::3xmCherry, srpHemorescue: w-; 1251 H2A::3xmCherry. Fig. S2E: Control: w-; +; srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry, atos mutant: w-; atossa^{BG02278}; srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry, Atossa rescue: w-; atossa^{BG02278}; srpHemo-atossa, 1252 *srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry*, rescue: *w-: atossa*^{BG02278}; *srpHemo-FAM214A*, 1253 srpHemoatossa^{BG02278}: 1254 rescue: H2A::3xmCherry, *w-*: srpHemo-FAM214B, srpHemo-1255 H2A::3xmCherry.

1256

1257 Figure 3 and Figure 3S

1258 Figs. 3B,F: Control (for porthos or CG9253): w/y,w[1118]; $P\{attP,y[+],w[3']\}$; srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry/+, CG9253 RNAi (porthos): w-; porthos RNAi 1259 (v36589)/+; srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry/+. Fig. 3C: Control 1 (for CG9331 1260 1261 *GR/HPR*): w/y,w[1118]; $P\{attP, y[+], w[3']\};$ srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemoor 1262 H2A::3xmCherry/+, CG9331 RNAi 1 (GR/HPR): UAS-Dicer2/ w-; GR/HPR RNAi 1263 (v44653)/+; srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry/+. Fig. 3D: Control 1 (for CG7144 1264 srpHemo-*LKR/SDH*): w/y,w[1118]; $P\{attP, y[+], w[3']\};$ srpHemo-Gal4, or 1265 H2A::3xmCherry/+, CG7144 RNAi 1 (LKR/SDH): UAS-Dicer2/ w-; LKR/SDH RNAi 1266 (v51346)/+; srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry/+. Fig. 3F: Control 1: w/y,w[1118]; 1267 P{attP,y[+],w[3']}; srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry/+, CG9331 RNAi 1 1268 (GR/HPR): UAS-Dicer2/ w-; GR/HPR RNAi (v44653)/+; srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo-1269 H2A::3xmCherry/+, Control 2: w/y,w[1118]; P{attP,y[+],w[3']}; srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo-1270 H2A::3xm- Cherry/+, CG9331 RNAi 2 (GR/HPR): UAS-Dicer2/ w-; GR/HPR RNAi 1271 (v10780)/+; srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry/+, Control 3: w/y,w[1118]; 1272 P{attP,y[+],w[3']}; srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry/+, CG9331 RNAi 3 (GR/HPR): UAS-Dicer2/ w-; GR/HPR RNAi (64652)/+; srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo-1273

H2A::3xmCherry/+. Fig. 3G: Control 1: w/y,w[1118]; P{attP,y[+],w[3']}; srpHemo-Gal4,
srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry/+, CG7144 RNAi 1 (LKR/SDH): UAS-Dicer2/ w-; LKR/SDH
RNAi (v51346)/+; srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry/+, Control 2: w/y,w[1118];
P{attP,y[+],w[3']}; srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry/+, CG7144 RNAi 2
(LKR/SDH): UAS-Dicer2/ w-; LKR/SDH RNAi (v109650)/+; srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemoH2A::3xmCherry/+.

Figs. S3A-B: Control: *w-; +; srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry*, mutant: *w-; P{EP}CG9005^{BG02278}*: 1280 srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry. Fig. S3D: Control 1: w/y, w[1118]; P[attP, y[+], w[3']];1281 srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry/+, CG2137 RNAi 1 (Gpo2): w-/y,w[1118]; 1282 1283 Gpo2 RNAi (v41234)/+; srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry/+, Control 2: 1284 w/y,w[1118]; P{attP,y[+],w[3']}; srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry/+, CG2137 1285 RNAi 2 (Gpo2): w-/y,w[1118]; Gpo2 RNAi (68145)/+; srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo-1286 H2A::3xmCherry/+. Fig. S3E: Control 1: w/y,w[1118]; P{attP,y[+],w[3']}; srpHemo-Gal4, 1287 srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry/+, CG11061 RNAi 1 (GM130): w-/y,w[1118]; GM130 RNAi 1288 (v330284)/+; srpHemo-Gal4 UAS-GFP, UAS-H2A::RFP/+, Control 2: w/y,w[1118]; 1289 P{attP,y[+],w[3']}; srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry/+, CG11061 RNAi 2 1290 w-/y,w[1118]; GM130 RNAi (64920)/+; srpHemo-Gal4, (*GM130*): srpHemo-1291 H2A::3xmCherry/+. Fig. S3F: Control (for CG9253 or porthos): w/y,w[1118]; 1292 P{attP,y[+],w[3']}; srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry/+, CG9253 RNAi (porthos): 1293 w-; porthos RNAi (v36589)/+; srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry/+. Fig. S3G: 1294 Control 1: w/y,w[1118]; P{attP,y[+],w[3']}; srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry/+, 1295 CG9331 RNAi 1 (GR/HPR): UAS-Dicer2/w-; GR/HPR RNAi (v44653)/+; srpHemo-Gal4, 1296 srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry/+, Control 2: w/y,w[1118]; P{attP,y[+],w[3']}; srpHemo-Gal4, 1297 srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry/+, CG9331 RNAi 2 (GR/HPR): UAS-Dicer2/w-; GR/HPR RNAi (v10780)/+; srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry/+, Control 3: w/y,w[1118]; 1298 1299 P{attP,y[+],w[3']}; srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry/+, CG9331 RNAi 3 1300 (GR/HPR): UAS-Dicer2/ w-; GR/HPR RNAi (64652)/+; srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo-1301 H2A::3xmCherry/+. Fig. S3H: Control 1: $w/y,w[1118]; P\{attP,y[+],w[3']\}; srpHemo-Gal4,$ 1302 srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry/+, CG7144 RNAi 1 (LKR/SDH): UAS-Dicer2/ w-; LKR/SDH 1303 RNAi (v51346)/+; srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry/+, Control 2: w/y,w[1118]; 1304 *P{attP,y[+],w[3']}; srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry/+,* CG7144 RNAi 2 1305 (LKR/SDH): UAS-Dicer2/w-; LKR/SDH RNAi (v109650)/+; srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo-1306 H2A::3xmCherry/+.

1307

1308 Figure 4 and Figure 4S

1309 Fig. 4A: w-;+; UAS-porthos::FLAG::HA, srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo::3xmCherry. Figs. 4B-1310 *w/v.w[1118]*: $P\{attP, y[+], w[3']\};$ **H**: Control: srpHemo-Gal4. srpHemo-1311 H2A::3xmCherry/+, CG9253 RNAi (porthos): w-; porthos RNAi (v36589)/+; srpHemo-1312 Gal4, srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry/+. Figs. 4I-J: Control: w-; +; srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry, atos mutant: w-; atossa^{BG02278}; srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry, Atos rescue: w-; atossa^{BG02278}; 1313 1314 UAS-atossa::FLAG::HA, srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry, rescue: w-; atossa^{BG02278}; UAS-porthos::FLAG::HA, srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry. 1315

1316 Figs. 4SC-H: Control: w/y,w[1118]; P{attP,y[+],w[3']}/+; srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo 1317 H2A::3xmCherry/+, CG9253 RNAi (porthos): w-; porthos RNAi (v36589)/+; srpHemo 1318 Gal4, srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry/+.

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1320 Figure 6 and Figure 6S

1321 Fig. 6D-F: Control: w-; +; srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry, dominant negative 1322 inhibitor of Complex V (CV-DN): w-; UAS-CVDN; srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry. Figs. 6G-H: Control: w-; P{attP,y[+],w[3`]}/+; srpHemo-Gal4, 1323 1324 srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry, Complex III (Cyt-c1, CG4769) RNAi 1: w-; cyt-c1 RNAi 1325 (v109809)/+; srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry, Complex III (UQCR-cp1, 1326 CG3731) RNAi 2: w-; UQCR-cp1 RNAi (v101350)/+; srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo-1327 H2A::3xmCherry, Complex III (UQCR-cp2, CG4169) RNAi 3: w-; UQCR-cp2 RNAi 1328 (v100818)/+; srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo -H2A::3xmCherry, Complex V (ATP synthase F1F0, CG3612) RNAi: w-; RNAi (v34664)/+; srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry. Fig. 6J: 1329 Control: w-; +; srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo-3xmCherry, atos mutant: w-; atossa^{BG02278}: 1330 1331 srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo-3xmCherry, Control: w/y,w[1118]; P{attP,y[+],w[3']};srpHemo-1332 Gal4, srpHemo-3xmCherry/+, CG9253 RNAi (porthos): w-; porthos RNAi (v36589)/+; 1333 srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo-3xmCherry/+, Control: w-; +; srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo-1334 3xmCherry, CV-DN: w-; UAS-CV DN; srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo-3xmCherry. 1335 **Fig. 6SF:** Control: w-; P{attP,y[+],w[3`]/+; srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry, 1336 Complex III (Cyt-c1, CG4769) RNAi 1: w-; cyt-c1 RNAi (v109809)/+; srpHemo-Gal4, 1337 srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry, Complex III (UQCR-cp1, CG3731) RNAi 2: w-; UQCR-cp1 1338 RNAi (v101350)/+; srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry, Complex III (UOCR-cp2, 1339 CG4169) RNAi 3: w-; UQCR-cp2 RNAi (v100818)/+; srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo-1340 H2A::3xmCherry, Complex V (ATP synthase F1F0, CG3612) RNAi: w-; CG3612 RNAi 1341 (v34664)/+; srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry. Figs. 6SG-H: w-; +; srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo-3xmCherry, atos mutant: w-; atossa^{BG02278}; srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo-1342 1343 3xmCherry. Control: w/y,w[1118]; $P\{attP, y[+], w[3']\}; srpHemo-Gal4,$ srpHemo-

- 1344 3xmCherry/+, CG9253 RNAi (porthos): w-; porthos RNAi (v36589)/+; srpHemo-Gal4, 1345 srpHemo-H2A::3xmCherry/+, Control: w-; +; srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo-3xmCherry, CV-
- 1346 DN: w-; UAS-CV DN; srpHemo-Gal4, srpHemo-3xmCherry
- 1347

1348 Figures 7 and S7:

Figs. 7B-H, SB-I: Control: w-; +; srpHemo-3xmCherry, mutant: w-; atossa^{BG02278};
 srpHemo-3xmCherry.

1351 **Resource Availability:**

Fly lines, plasmids and other reagents utilized are available upon request from the Leadcontact: <u>daria.siekhaus@ist.ac.at</u>

- 1354 Original reads from RNA sequencing and Polysome profiling has been deposited at: (will be
- 1355 done once paper is in revision).

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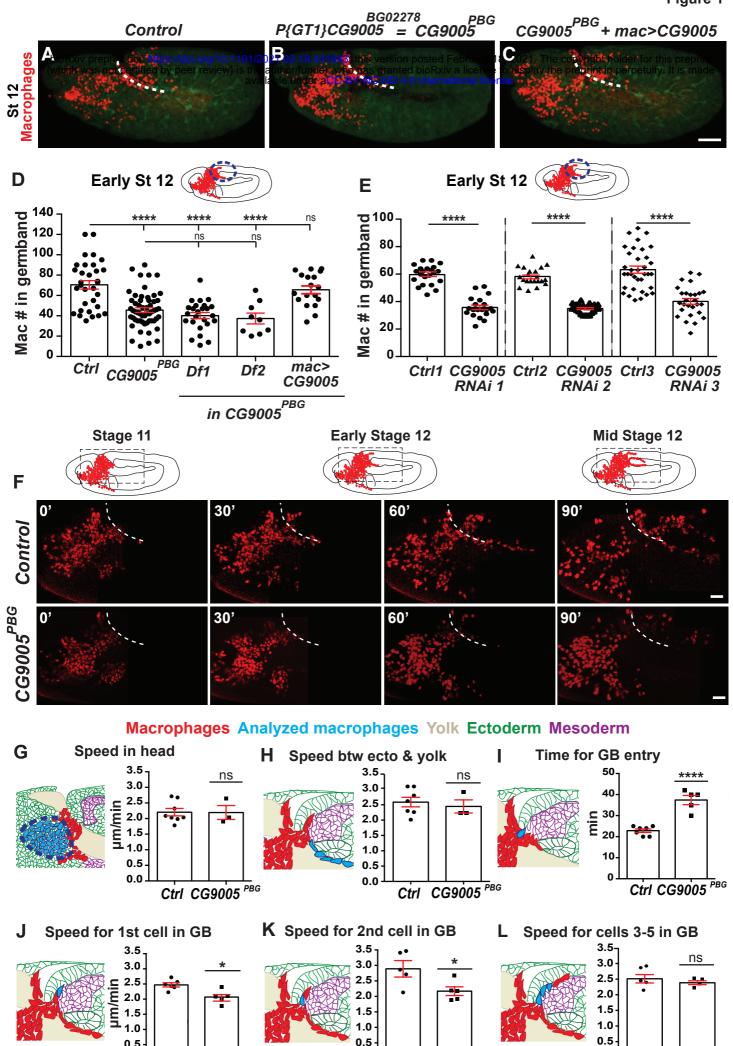
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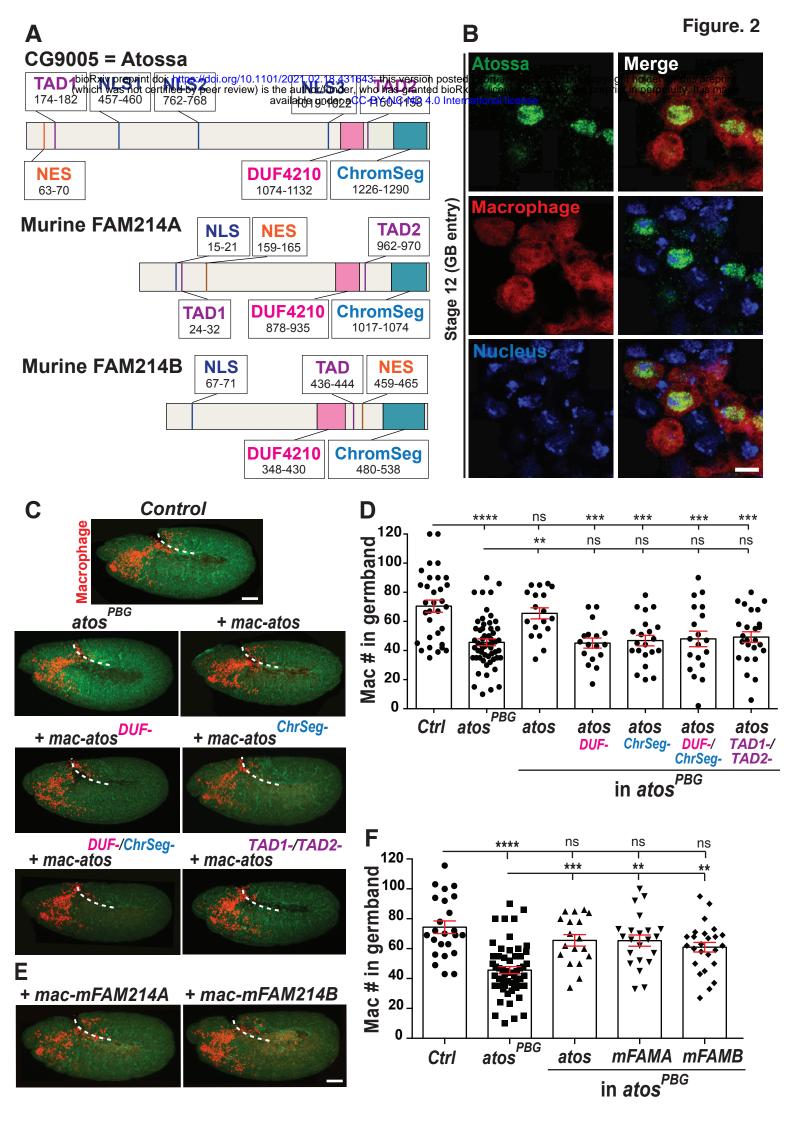
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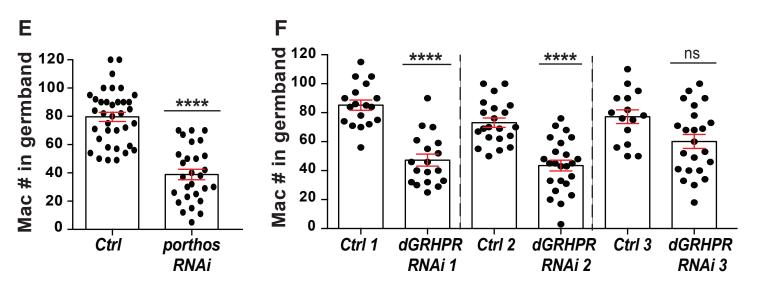
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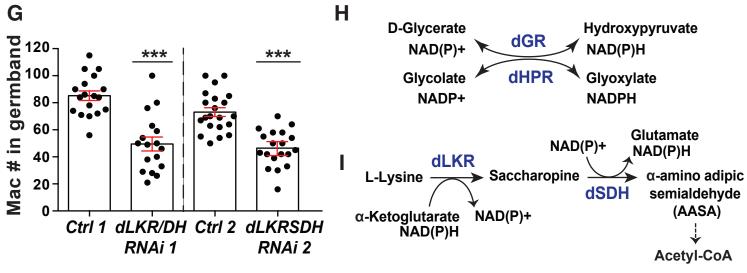


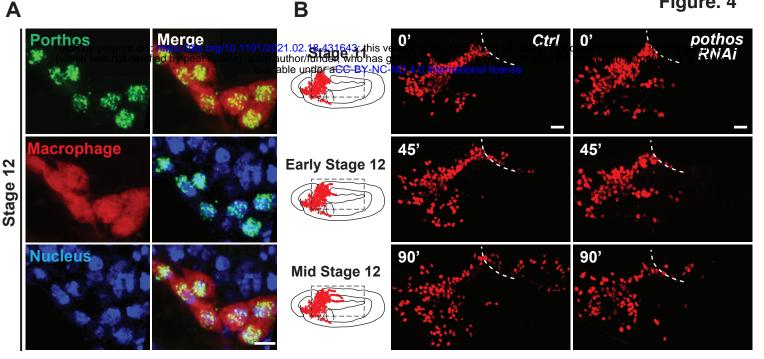
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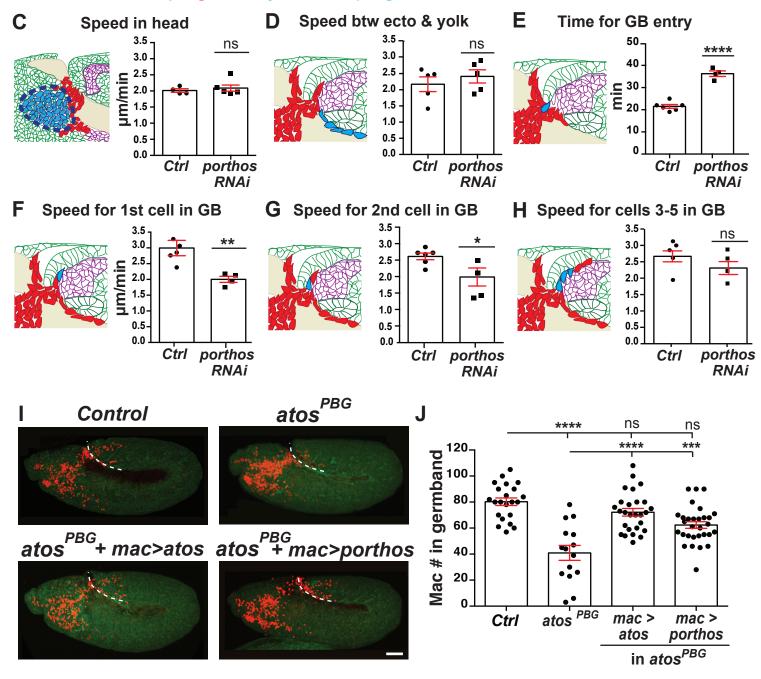
0	Expression				and the second		
Gene	WT atos mut FC		FC	Biological functions			
CG9253 (porthos)	144	14	-10	ATP-dependent RNA heilcase	C Ctrl1	GRHPR RNAi 1	
CG2137 (Gpo2)	31	0.95	-33	Glycerophosphate oxidase 2		J. S. Mark	
CG11061 (GM130)	27.5	3.4	-8	Connects Golgi compartments	D Ctrl1	LKRSDH RNAi 1	
CG9331 (dGR/HPR)	20.7	3.2	-6.5	Glyoxylate Reductase/ Hydroxypyruvate Reductase			
CG7144 (dLKR/SDH)	16.4	0.64	-25	Lysine α-Ketoglutarate Reductase/ Saccharopine Dehydrogenase			

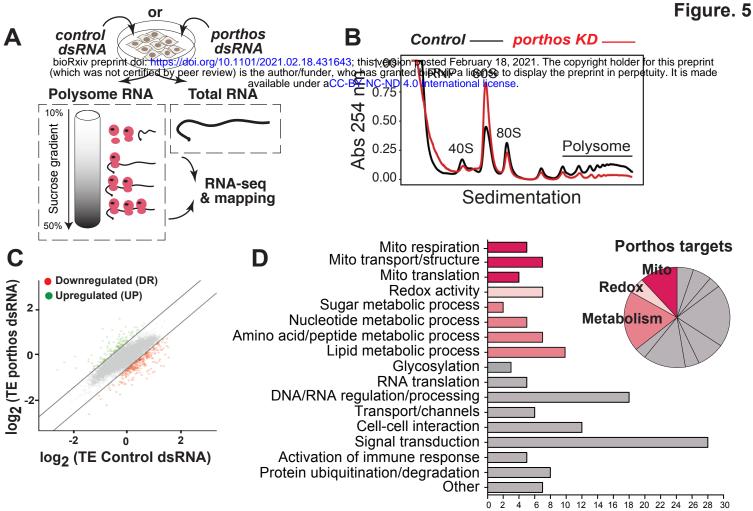






Macrophages Analyzed macrophages Yolk Ectoderm Mesoderm





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Cellular function	Gene symbol	Description of Porthos targets	Vertebrate Cellular ortholog function		Gene symbol	Description of Porthos targets	Vertebrate ortholog
Mito respiration	CG3270	Complex I, NADH:ubiquinone oxidoreductase, predicted assembly factor	Foxred1			UDP-sugar diphosphatase	Nudt14
	CG8764	Complex III, ubiquinol-cytochrome c reductase, Oxen Qcr9	Uqcr10	metabolism	CG14212	Haloacid dehalogenase, sugar dephosphorylation	Phospho1
	CG34242	Complex IV, mitochondrial cytochrome c oxidase predicted assembly factor	Smim20	Nucleotide	CG30016 CG3788	Hydroxyisourate hydrolase, purine metabolism Uridine phosphorylase	Urah Upp1
	CG6105	Complex V, ATP synthase, Fo portion,	Atp5l	metabolism	CG5828	Pantothenate kinase	Pank4
	CG10731	subunit G (ATPsynG) Complex V, ATP synthase, coupling factor B	Dmac2l		CG33514	Phosphatidylinositol bisphosphate binding	Clvs1
	CG1158	Tim17b1, Mito protein-transporting ATPase	Timm17a		CG7735	ADP ribosylation factor-like 6	Arl6
	CG8860	Mitochondrial protein-transporting ATPase	Sec61g		CG5840	P5cr-2, Pyrroline-5-carboxylate reductase-like 2	Pycrl
M:4 -	CG9090	Mpcp1,Mitochondrial phosphate carrier protein 1	Slc25a3		CG7768	Peptidylprolyl isomerase	Ppif
Mito transport/	CG5646	Acyl carnitine transmembrane transporter	SIc25a45	Amino acid/	CG11843	Acylaminoacyl-peptidase	F12
structure	CG1287	Mics1,Mitochondrial morphology/ cristae structure 1	Ghitm	peptide metabolism	CG34041	Methylation of glycine to generate sarcosine	P4ha2
	CG34132	Protein localization into MIM	Timm13		CG6188	Gnmt, Glycine N-methyltransferase	Gnmt
	CG11110	Serine peptidase, protein targeting to mitochondrion	Immp2I		CG14990	SPH97, serine-type endopeptidase	Tpsab1
	CG2854	Predicted mitochondrial T cell activation inhibitor	Tcaim		CG10764	Acylaminoacyl-peptidase	NF
	CG32531	mRpS14, mitochondrial ribosomal small protein S14	Mrps14		CG7367	Carboxylesterase	Liph
Mito	CG13608	mRpS24, mitochondrial ribosomal small protein S24	Mrps24		CG17562	Fatty-acyl-CoA reductase	Far2
translation	CG34147	mRpL34, mitochondrial ribosomal large protein L34			CG11052	Acylphosphatase	Acyp2
	CG34147		Mrpl34	Lipid	CG8303	Fatty-acyl-CoA reductase (alcohol-forming)	Far1
	CG11679	Predicted positive regulator of mito translation	Rmnd1	metabolism	CG9709	Acox57D-d, acyl-Coenzyme A oxidase	Acox1
	CG9363	GstZ2, glutathione metabolic process	Gstz1	stz1		Acbp1, Acyl-CoA binding protein 1	Acbd7
	CG11512	Mitochondrial GstD4, glutathione metabolic process	Gstt1		CG13091	Sgroppino, fatty-acyl-CoA reductase	Far2
Redox	CG6461	Ggt-1, glutathione metabolic process	Ggt1		CG2985	Yolk protein 1, carboxylesterase	Lipi
	CG14221	Glutathione metabolic process	Nme8		CG11129	Yolk protein 3, carboxylesterase	Lipi
	CG6762	Sulfiredoxin, response to oxidative stress	Srxn1	rxn1		N-Acetylgalactosaminyltransferase 4	Galnt10
	CG7460	Polyamine oxidase, redox process	Paox	Glycosylation	CG33774	Protein N-linked glycosylation	Ost4
	CG5653	Redox process	Paox		CG3253	Glucuronosyltransferase, O-linked mannosylation	B4GAT1

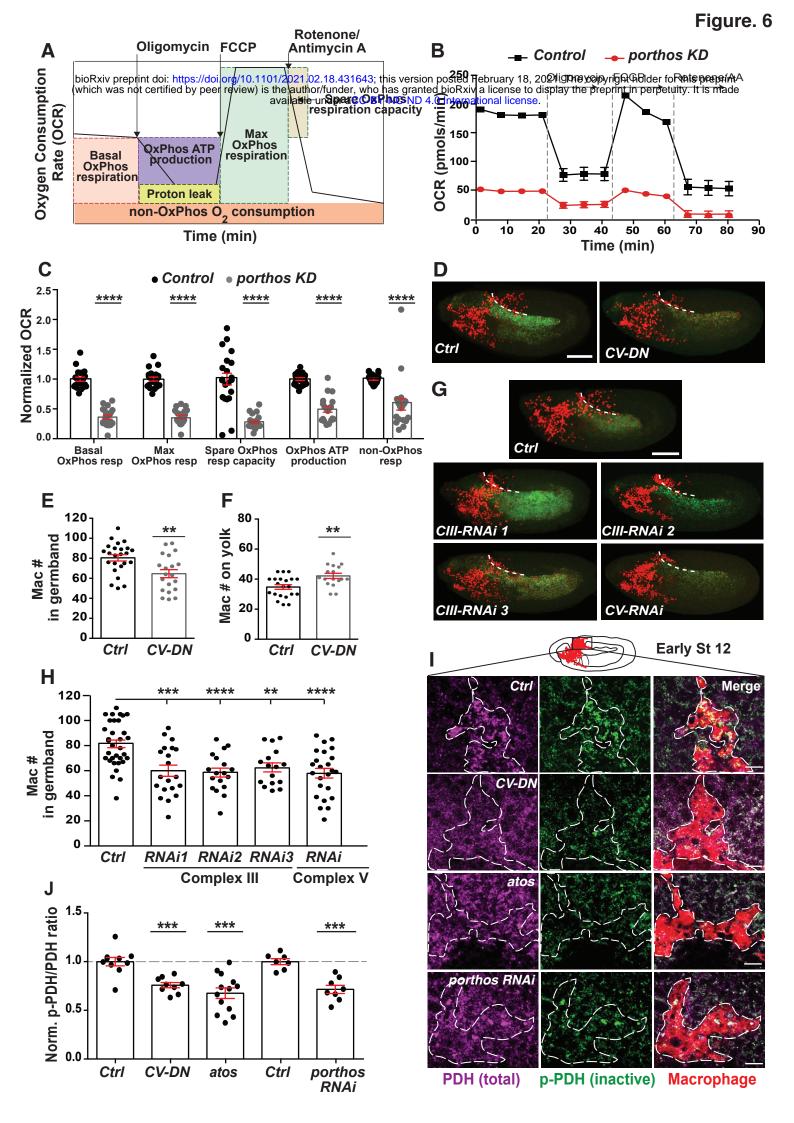


Figure. 7

Altered metabolic pathways in *atos* embryos: Significantly upregulated metabolites compared to the control

Α

