Co-option of immune effectors by the hormonal signalling system triggering metamorphosis in *Drosophila melanogaster*

Catarina Nunes[1*], Takashi Koyama[2], Élio Sucena[1,3*]

[1] Evolution and Development Laboratory, Instituto Gulbenkian de Ciência, Oeiras, Portugal

[2] Section for Cell and Neurobiology, Department of Biology University of Copenhagen, Copenhagen, Denmark

[3] Departamento de Biologia Animal, Faculdade de Ciências, Universidade de Lisboa, Lisbon, Portugal

* Corresponding authors: cdnunes@igc.gulbenkian.pt (CN); esucena@igc.gulbenkian.pt (ES)

Running title: Hormonal control of immunity at metamorphosis

Keywords: Ecdysone, Anti-Microbial Peptides (AMP), Insect Metamorphosis, Drosomycin

Abstract

Insect metamorphosis is regulated by the production, secretion and degradation of two peripheral hormones: 20-hydroxyecdysone (ecdysone) and juvenile hormone (JH). In addition to their roles in developmental regulation, increasing evidence suggests that these hormones are involved in innate immunity processes, such as phagocytosis and the induction of antimicrobial peptide (AMP) production. AMP regulation includes systemic responses as well as local responses at surface epithelia that contact with the external environment. At pupariation, *Drosophila melanogaster* increases dramatically the expression of three AMP genes, *drosomycin (drs)*, *drosomycin-like 2 (drsl2)* and *drosomycin-like 5 (drsl5)*. We show that the systemic action of *drs* at pupariation is dependent on ecdysone signalling in the fat body and operates via the ecdysone downstream target, Broad-Z4. In parallel, ecdysone also regulates local responses, specifically through the activation of *drsl2* expression in the gut. Finally, we confirm the relevance of this ecdysone dependent AMP expression for the control of bacterial persistence by showing that flies lacking *drs* expression in the fat body have higher bacterial persistence over metamorphosis. Together, our data emphasize the importance of the association between ecdysone signalling and immunity using *in vivo* studies and establish a new role for ecdysone at pupariation, which impacts developmental success by regulating the immune system in a stage-dependent manner. We speculate that this co-option of immune effectors by the hormonal system may constitute a pre-emptive mechanism to control bacterial numbers in the pupa at the core of metamorphosis evolution.

Introduction

Insect development and physiology are mainly regulated by two peripheral hormones: the steroid hormone, 20-hydroxyecdsyone (hereafter, ecdysone) and the sesquiterpenoid hormone, juvenile hormone (JH) (1,2). In vertebrates, steroid hormones and their nuclear receptors are key regulators of systemic immune responses, namely through the enhancement of inflammation (3). Similarly, in insects, steroid hormones are also known to be involved in innate immunity (4–9). Ecdysone titre is tightly regulated to control developmental transitions and as such, steroid hormone-dependent activation of innate immunity seems appropriate for stage-specific regulation of immunity.

When in contact with a microorganism, insects rely on the activation of three tightly related immunity processes: i) cellular immunity (i.e. phagocytosis and encapsulation of invading microorganisms); ii) the induction of proteolytic cascades, that culminate in melanisation; and iii) production of antimicrobial peptides (AMPs), which is primarily regulated at the transcriptional level through two distinct signalling pathways, Toll and Imd, triggered by sensing of Lys-type peptidoglycan and β-1,3-glucan or meso-diaminopimelic acid (DAP)-type peptidoglycan, respectively (10–12). In insects with complete metamorphosis (holometabolans), AMP genes are usually silent in the absence of an immune challenge and their expression is induced upon injury and/or infection (13). However, indirect evidence suggests that AMPs may be up-regulated at specific developmental stages irrespective of pathogen presence. Studies in the moth *Manduca sexta* show that expression of lysozyme and of the AMPs *cecropin A*, *cecropin B* and *hemolin* increases dramatically during metamorphosis, although it is not clear what regulates this increase and its role(s) *in vivo* (14–16). This transcriptional AMP peak occurs before the end of histolysis of the larval midgut, that is, before cells are potentially exposed to any pathogen or bacterium. In this context, the accumulation of AMPs at the end of the feeding stage may constitute a first response against the possible harmful effects to the pupa of expanding bacteria carried-over from the gut remodelling process (17–20). Nonetheless, studies in dipterans show that some species of bacteria in the larval gut can persist inside the host throughout metamorphosis (19–22). In *Drosophila melanogaster*, RNAseq analysis revealed a peak in the expression of AMPs at pupariation, of which around 95% consists of three AMPs: *drs*, *drosomycin-like 2 (drsl2)* and *drosomycin-like 5 (drsl5)* (23). Furthermore, five different AMPs (*diptericin, drs, attacin-A, metchnikowin* and *cecropin A1*) are shown to contain putative *cis*-regulatory elements for potential binding of the functional ecdysone receptor complex, suggesting an ecdysone-dependent control of their expression (24). Importantly, the compelling association between

ecdysone signalling and immunity at this particular stage of development is not restricted to

the humoral arm of the immune response. An ecdysone-dependent increase in phagocytic

capacity of plasmatocytes at pupariation has been described and hypothesized to be

particularly important given the higher predisposition for infection at the pupal stage (6).

Considering the above, we hypothesized that ecdysone signalling controlling

development was co-opted to regulate the expression of AMPs at pupariation. Previous *in*

vitro study has shown that ecdysone promotes humoral immunity by increasing the

expression of AMP genes, such as *diptericin, cecropin* and *attacin,* via the EcR-USP receptor

complex in S2 cells (5). In addition, a microarray analysis of 20E-treated S2 cells revealed the

existence of two distinct mechanisms for 20E-regulated AMP expression: one in which the

critical step is the activation of peptidoglycan recognition protein (PGRP)-LC - a critical

pattern recognition receptor (PRR) of the Imd pathway - by ecdysone for controlling the

expression of *cecropin A1, attacin-A and defensin*; and another, in which the hormonally-

controlled mechanism is absolutely required for the expression of *drs, metchnikowin* and

diptericin (4). However, the importance of the requirement of ecdysone for the expression of

AMPs, and its role, nor the regulatory mechanism through which this hormone affects innate

immunity have been explored.

In this study, we demonstrate that ecdysone regulates the expression of AMPs *in vivo*

at pupariation, both systemically (by regulating the expression of *drs*) and locally in the

midgut (by regulating the expression of *drsl2*). Importantly, the systemic expression of *drs*

has an impact on the number of bacteria that persists and proliferates during metamorphosis,

corroborating the hypothesis that the AMP peak has a function in controlling bacteria during

metamorphosis. Furthermore, we show that this association between the expression of *drs* and

ecdysone in the absence of infection occurs solely at pupariation and through the early

ecdysone-response gene Broad-Z4, which is only expressed at the end of the feeding stage

(25). Taken together, our findings fill a gap in current knowledge by shedding light onto the

mechanisms and biological significance of hormonal control of humoral immunity at

metamorphosis with potential evolutionary importance.

Results

drs, drsl2 and *drsl5* are expressed at pupariation in a bacteria-independent manner

Around 95% of the anti-microbial peptide (AMP) peak at pupariation, mentioned

above (23), consists of three AMPs: *drs, drsl2* and *drsl5* (Supplementary Figure 1). Upon gut

remodelling at metamorphosis, an ineffective gut purge could lead to the canonical activation

of immunity pathways, resulting in a peak of AMP expression. To test if the presence of

bacteria constitutes the trigger for the expression of *drs, drsl2* and *drsl5*, we performed real-

time quantitative PCR (qPCR) in mid-L3 larvae (L3) and newly pupariated (P0) samples of

germ-free (GF) or standardly-raised individuals. We confirmed that expression increases at

pupariation for all AMPs tested (Figure 1, S1 table, Supplementary Figure 2), including *drs*

*(lsmean, pairwise~{w-};+;+ | Stage*drs<0.0001), drsl2*

*(lsmeans(pairwise~{w};+;+|Stage*drsl2 <0.0001)) and drsl5 (lsmeans(pairwise~{w-*

*};+;+|Stage*drsl5<0.000)).* This increment is not lost under GF conditions with the putative

exceptions of *cecropinA1* and *defensin*. Importantly, the three main AMPs under scrutiny,

drs, drsl2 and *drsl5*, show a marked independence of the presence of microbes, including

yeast, for their expression at this developmental transition

*(lsmeans(pairwise~{w};+;+|Stage*drs <0.0001); lsmeans(pairwise~{w-};*

*+;+|Stage*drsl2<0.0001); lsmeans(pairwise~{w};+;+|Stage*drsl5 <0.0001))* (Figure 1, S1

table). In turn, this is not the case for other AMPs, such as for example *cecropinA1* or

defensin, which show decreased expression in the absence of gut bacteria (Supplementary

Figure 2, S1 table).

Figure 1. Expression of *drs*, *drsl2* and *drsl5* is independent of bacterial presence. The expression

levels of *drs*, *drsl2* and *drsl5* increase at pupariation and are not lost under GF conditions. Different letters

represent statistically significant differences in foldchange. Foldchange was determined using the ΔΔCT method.

Together, these results reject the hypothesis that expression of the three main AMPs

at pupariation is dependent on microbial induction and suggest that it may be hardwired to the

developmental programme.

<u>Ecdysone regulates the expression of *drs*</u>

We focused primarily on two main sources of AMP expression with systemic action,

the fat body and haemocytes (12). We manipulated ecdysone signalling sensitivity in these

tissues, simultaneously and specifically, to ensure no perturbation of normal development and

pupariation timing. For that we used *Cg-Gal4* combined with a *tub-Gal80[ts]*, a thermo-

sensitive allele of *Gal80* under the control of the tubulin promoter (hereafter *Cg[ts]*), to drive

the expression of a dominant negative ecdysone receptor under the control of the UAS

sequence (26) *(EcR-A DN W650A TP3*, hereafter *EcRDN)*. The reduction of ecdysone

sensitivity was triggered from the onset of L3 or at wandering stage, and resulted in the

elimination of the *drs* peak at P0, compared to control conditions (Figure 2A,

(lsmeans(pairwise~Stage|Cg[ts]>mcD8GFP)=0.0001, lsmeans(pairwise~Stage|*Cg[ts]*

>EcRDN) =0.0017, lsmeans(pairwise~Genotype|P0) <0.0001)). However, the expression of

drsl2 and *drsl5* (Figure 2A, S2 Table) and of the other AMPs (Supplementary Figure 3-1, S2

Table) was not eliminated. Furthermore, *drs* expression still increases in mutant flies for *dif,*

the NF-ϰB factor that triggers *drs* expression upon activation of the Toll pathway

(Supplementary Figure 3-2, lsmeans(pairwise~Stage|*{w-};+;+<0.0001,*

lsmeans(pairwise~Stage|{w-};dif1;+)<0.0001, lsmeans(pairwise~Genotype|P0)= 0.0703)),

suggesting that the expression of *drs* at pupariation is partially independent of the action of

the NF-ϰB factor.

Figure 2. Expression of drs at pupariation is developmentally regulated by ecdysone in the fat

body. (A) Foldchange increase in drs expression (but not of *drsl2* or *drsl5*) at pupariation was eliminated when

ecdysone sensitivity is decreased specifically in the fat body and haemocytes simultaneously. (B) Reduced

ecdysone sensitivity in the haemocytes does not affect the expression of the AMPs under study. (C) Reduced

ecdysone signalling in the fat body resulted in decreased *drs* expression at pupariation

(lsmeans(pairwise~Stage|AkhR>mcD8GFP <0.0001, lsmeans(pairwise~Stage|AkhR>EcRDN)=0.6709), without

affecting the expression of *drsl2* and *drsl5* (lsmeans (pairwise~Stage|AkhR>mcD8GFP)<0.0001,

lsmeans(pairwise~Stage|AkhR>EcRDN) <0.0001), for both genes). Different letters represent statistically

significant differences in foldchange. Foldchange was determined using the $\Delta\Delta$CT method.

This result was further confirmed by targeting haemocytes and fat body

independently, using the specific drivers *Hemolectin-Gal4* (*Hml-ΔGal4*) for the haemocytes

and *Adipokinetic hormone receptor-Gal4* (*AkhR-Gal4)* for the fat body. When ecdysone

sensitivity was reduced in the haemocytes, expression of *drs*, *drsl2* and *drsl5,* as well as of

other four AMPs, was unaffected (*lsmeans(pairwise~Stage|Hml>mcD8GFP)<0.0001,*

lsmeans(pairwise~Stage|Hml>EcR DN)<0.0001), for the three genes), (Figure 2B and

Supplementary Figure 3-3, S3 Table). However, although reduced ecdysone sensitivity in the

fat body (*AkhR>EcRDN*) did not affect the expression of *drsl2* and *drsl5* (Figure 2C,

(*lsmeans(pairwise~Stage|AkhR >mcD8GFP) <0.0001, lsmeans*

(pairwise~Stage|AkhR>EcRDN)<0.0001), for both genes) or of other AMPs (Supplementary

Figure 3-4 , S4 Table), it resulted in decreased expression of *drs* at pupariation. (Figure 2C,

lsmeans(pairwise~Stage|AkhR>mcD8GFP) <0.0001, lsmeans(pairwise~Stage|AkhR

>EcRDN) =0.6709). It is noteworthy to mention that this reduction of *drs* expression is not

likely due to the EcR-mediated disruption of fat body metabolism or abnormal developmental

effects because most of the AMP gene expression was not altered.

Altogether, these results indicate that *drs* expression - but not *drsl2* or *drsl5* - is

systemically regulated by ecdysone signalling specifically in the fat body at pupariation.

<u>Expression of *drsl2* in the midgut is regulated by Ecdysone</u>

Having determined that the expression of *drsl2* and *drsl5* is developmentally

regulated but does not involve the fat body, we turned our attention to two of the most

important tissues for local immune response: the epithelial layers of the gut and trachea (27).

First, we overexpressed *EcRDN* specifically in the most abundant cells of the midgut, the

enterocytes, using the specific driver *Mex-Gal4* (*Mex>EcRDN*). Unlike the fat body, the gut is

not responding to the pupariation ecdysone pulse by increasing *drs* expression (Figure 3A). In

contrast, decreased ecdysone sensitivity specifically in the midgut resulted in a drastic

reduction (*circa* 600-fold) of *drsl2* expression, very close to the L3 basal levels (Figure 3A),

lsmeans(pairwise~Genotype|P0)<0.0001; lsmeans(pairwise~Stage|Mex> EcRDN)

<0.0001)).

Figure 3. Gut and tracheal expression of relevant AMPs. (A) Manipulation of ecdysone sensitivity

specifically in the midgut reduced the expression of *drsl2*, but not of *drs* or *drsl5*. (B) Knock-down of *drsl2*

specifically in the midgut resulted in an overall decrease in the expression of this AMP. Each dot represents a

sample of five pooled individuals; the lines connect the median of the samples at L3 and P0. (C) Ecdysone

signalling in the trachea does not affect the expression of any AMP under study. Different letters represent

statistically significant differences in foldchange. Foldchange was determined using the ΔΔCT method.

We further confirmed this result by inducing RNAi (through the expression of double

stranded RNA for *drsl2* under UAS control) and consequent knock-down of *drsl2* specifically

in the midgut (*Mex>ds-drsl2*). This resulted in an overall decrease in the expression of this

AMP at pupariation (Figure 3B, *lsmeans(pairwise~Genotype|P0)<0.0237;*

lsmeans(pairwise~Stage|Mex>ds-drsl2) <0.0001), which indicates that the midgut is a source

of the ecdysone-dependent production of *drsl2* at this stage. Interestingly, we failed again to

detect any difference in the expression of *drsl5*, one of the three main players in the AMP

ecdysone-dependent peak (Figure 3A, *lsmeans (pairwise~Genotype|P0)<0.4479;*

lsmeans(pairwise~Stage|Mex>EcRDN)<0.0001), S5 table). However, other tested AMPs also

appear to be, at least partially, regulated by ecdysone signalling in the midgut at pupariation.

Under ecdysone-signalling down-regulation conditions, significant decrease in

mRNA levels were observed for: *cecropin A1* (*lsmeans(pairwise~Genotype|P0) <0.0001;*

lsmeans(pairwise~Stage|Mex>EcRDN)=0.0038), defensin (lsmeans

(pairwise~Genotype|P0)<0.0001; lsmeans(pairwise~Stage|Mex>EcR

DN)=0.3866),metchnikowin (lsmeans(pairwise~Genotype|P0)=0.0060; lsmeans

(pairwise~Stage|Mex>EcRDN<0.0001), and drsl3((lsmeans(pairwise~Genotype|P0)

=0.0008;lsmeans(pairwise~Stage|Mex>EcRDN)=0.2084), Supplementary Figure 4).

On the other hand, decreased ecdysone sensitivity in the trachea, using the specific

driver *btl*-Gal4 (*btl>EcRDN*), did not have an impact on the expression of any of the three

major AMPs under study (Figure 3C, S6 Table). These results show that a layer of local AMP

action is at play through the sensing of the ecdysone peak at the onset of pupariation in the

gut epithelium.

Together the local and systemic mechanisms of action that share ecdysone control,

consisting of *drsl2* and *drs*, account for about 70% of the pupariation AMP peak.

Contrastingly, the data also point towards an alternative mechanism for regulating the

expression of *drsl5* at pupariation, which is either independent of ecdysone or is regulated by

this hormone in an alternative tissue or cell type that were not tested.

<u>Br is involved in systemic *drs* induction through the fat body at pupariation</u>

Next, we focused our efforts in trying to uncover more of the molecular regulation of

drs expression, the systemic arm of this ecdysone co-opted immune action.

Previous RNAseq data showed that the expression of *drs* markedly increases at

pupariation and gradually drops the expression in next 24 hours (Supplementary Figure 1,

(23)). We further confirmed that the expression of *dhr3* (a gene directly regulated by the

ecdysone-ecdysone receptor complex) and that of *drs* are tightly correlated and peak

exclusively at pupariation (Figure 4A). Importantly, this robust expression of *drs* at the onset

of metamorphosis seems to be a general feature regardless of their genetic background

(Supplementary Figure 5-1).

Figure 4. Ecdysone signalling regulates fat body expression of *drs* at pupariation via Br-Z4. (A)
drs expression is temporally correlated with a proxy of ecdysone activity, *dhr3*. Samples of *D. melanogaster* larvae
and pupae were precisely staged at the onset of the instars and collected every 3h. The expression of *dhr3* and *drs*
was determined by qPCR for each timepoint. Dashed black lines represent the moult to the L3 or pupariation. **(B)**
Knockdown of *br* specifically in the fat body and haemocytes leads to decreased expression of *drs* at P0. (**C**) Co-
overexpression of *br-Z4* when ecdysone sensitivity is decreased in the fat body and haemocytes is sufficient to
rescue the expression of *drs* at pupariation (**D**) Conditional CRISRP-mediated knock-outs for the common region
of *br* and *br-Z4* lead to loss of *drs* expression at pupariation. Each dot represents a sample of five pooled
individuals; the lines connect the median of the samples at L3 and P0; different letters represent statistically
significant differences in foldchange, determined using the $\Delta\Delta CT$ method.

br is a direct target of ecdysone receptor, characterized as a holometabolan pupal
specifier with increased expression before pupariation (25,28,29). Because the transcriptional
peak of *drs* is only found at the moult from the L3 to pupa but not from the L2 to L3, Br
seems a good candidate for regulation of the *drs* expression. We thus examined the
association between *br* and the ecdysone-sensitive systemic induction of *drs* at
metamorphosis by knocking-down *br* specifically in the fat body and haemocytes. This led to
a significant decrease in the expression of *drs* at pupariation, when compared to the control
(Figure 4B, *lsmeans(pairwise~Genotype|P0)= 0.0510)*), suggesting a role for *br* in the
regulation of *drs* expression. To further explore this possibility, we simultaneously reduced
ecdysone signalling and restored *br* in the haemocytes and fat body. This was sufficient to
rescue the expression of *drs* to control levels at P0 (Figure 4C,
lsmeans(pairwise~Genotype|P0)= 0.3068). Furthermore, we generated two different
conditional CRISPR-mediated knock-out constructs (30,31), one targeting a common region
to all *br* isoforms and, the other, a region specific to *br-Z4,* previously associated with AMP
expression using *in vitro* techniques in a different species (32). Knock-out of all *br* isoforms
or of *br-Z4* alone in haemocytes and fat body, led to the elimination of the *drs* peak at
pupariation (Figure 4D, *lsmeans(pairwise~Stage|Cg> +;Cas9;+)*
<0.0001;lsmeans(pairwise~Stage| Cg>Cas9;br KO)=0.0001,
lsmeans(pairwise~Stage|Cg>Cas9;br-Z4 KO)=0.4691, S8 table), supporting that Br is
involved in the regulation of *drs* expression at pupariation downstream of the ecdysone
receptor complex in the fat body.
To further explore this regulation of *drs* expression by Br-Z4, we used the JASPAR
(http://jaspar.genereg.net) matrix MA0013.1 to run a comprehensive search for Br-Z4 binding
sites over 2 kb of putative promoter region that is upstream of the coding sequence of *drs*,
obtained from Flybase (http://flybase.net/), using FIMO software (33) (Supplementary Figure

5-2). We identified three putative Br-Z4 binding sites (p-value<0.0001) in the predicted 5'

promoter region of *drs* (Supplementary Figure 5-3).

Together, these results support the idea that Br, specifically isoform Br-Z4, is

involved in the regulation of the expression of *drs* either directly or indirectly at pupariation.

<u>*drs* is necessary to reduce bacteria derived from imperfect larval gut purge</u>

Having establish the basis of the regulation of *drs* at the onset of metamorphosis, we

set to determine its relevance to the control of bacterial numbers throughout pupal

development. Indeed, before pupariation and metamorphosis, larvae purge their gut contents

and any imperfection in this process creates the conditions in the pupa for a putatively

rampant infection. Thus, we examined whether or not gut purge eliminates all bacteria from

the gut and how this process may be dependent on the systemic action of Drs.

Figure 5 (A-F) Bacteria quantification (*Lactobacillus* (L) and *Acetobacter* (A)) in P0 pupae and pharate adults in wild-type and drs mutants. (A-B) In control flies *({w-};+;+)*, the number of pupae with more bacteria decreases between P0 and pharate adult stages. (C-D) In the *drs* mutant line *({w-};+; Drs r{w+})*, there are more individuals with higher loads of bacteria persisting from P0 to pharate adult. (E-F) Slopes for the number of *Lactobacillus* in control and the mutant lines. (E) Control samples have negative slopes indicating a decrease in the number of bacteria between stages. (F) *drs* mutant samples have positive slope values, representative of an increase in the number of bacteria across metamorphosis. (G-H) Slopes for the number of *Acetobacter* in the control and the mutant lines. (G) Control samples distribution show negative slopes, i.e., a decrease in the number of bacteria between stages. (H) *drs* null mutant displays positive slope values. Doted lines represent the 0.05 and 0.95 quantiles; full line represents the mean slope.

Under our standard rearing conditions, the mortality between P0 and pharate adult is negligible, which allows us to infer and correlate the bacterial numbers detected in each of these developmental stages (Supplementary Figure 6, S7 Table). After gut purge, approximately 5% of control P0 individuals contained bacteria in the order of the thousands and another 12% in the order of the hundreds (Figure 5A). However, at the pharate adult stage, the number of individuals in these two categories decreased alongside an increase in the number of individuals without detectable bacteria (Figure 5B). In contrast, *drs* null mutants showed an increase rather than a decrease in the number of pupae with more bacteria between these two stages (Figure 5C and 5D), supporting that Drs is necessary to eliminate gut derived bacteria during metamorphosis.

Using a resampling strategy, we determined that most coefficients associated with the control line were negative (Figure 5E (*Median: -2.279 (IQR: -2.682 -1.803); One-way Wilcoxon test for median<0: <2.2e-16, r= 0.864)* and Figure 5G (*Median: -2.317 (IQR: -2.907 -1.858); One-way Wilcoxon test for median<0: <2.2e-16, r=0.866)*). On the other hand, the coefficients associated with *drs* null mutant were mostly positive for both bacteria types (Figure 5F *((Median: 0.596 (IQR: 0.359; 0.757); One-way Wilcoxon test for median> 0: <2.2e-16, r= 0.845)* and Figure 5H (*Median: 2.055 (IQR: 1.897; 2.192); One-way Wilcoxon test for median> 0: <2.2e-16, r=0.866)*). These results suggest that, throughout metamorphosis, a process that is dependent on the increase of AMP expression at pupariation is necessary for controlling the persistence of bacteria originating from gut purge imperfections.

When ecdysone signalling activity is decreased in the fat body and haemocytes (*Cg[ts]>EcRDN*), a similar pattern can be observed: there is a higher proportion of individuals with larger loads of persisting bacteria (Figure 6A-B). The resampling strategy revealed that *Cg[ts]>EcRDN* samples have positive slope values for both *Lactobacillus*

(Figure 6C, *Median: 2.746 (IQR: 2.562; 2.930); One-way Wilcoxon test for median>0:*

<2.2e-16, r=0.866) and *Acetobacter* (Figure 6D, *Median: 1.981 (IQR: 1.795; 2.184); One-*

way Wilcoxon test for median>0: <2.2e-16, r=0.866), which is in accordance with increased

bacterial loads during metamorphosis. Importantly, *Mex>EcRDN* individuals do not have

increased bacterial loads during metamorphosis, suggesting that the local immune response

does not have a measurable antibacterial effect relatively to the systemic response that is still

operating in these conditions (Supplementary Figure 7).

330
331

Figure 6 (A-D) Quantification in P0 pupae and pharate adults of *Lactobacillus* (L) and *Acetobacter* (A) with or without ecdysone signalling in the fat body and haemocytes. (A-B) When ecdysone sensitivity is decreased in fat body and haemocytes, the number of both bacteria types increases in P0 and pharate adults. Y-axis represents the proportion of individuals in each bacterial count category. (C-D) Coefficient (slopes) distribution in *Cg[ts]>EcRDN* samples of *Lactobacillus* (C) and *Acetobacter* (D). Doted lines represent the 0.05 and 0.95 quantiles; full line represents the mean slope.

Discussion

In this study in *D. melanogaster*, we establish the association between ecdysone and the increased expression of *drs* and its paralogues at pupariation and the biological consequence of this process. We determine the functional link, to our knowledge yet undescribed in any species, between the endocrine and immune systems, acting both systemically and locally during metamorphosis to control the number of bacteria in the pupal case. The biological significance of the AMP peak at the onset of metamorphosis is revealed by the systemic expression of *drs*, as both mutant and ecdysone sensitivity-reduced individuals showed an increase rather than a decrease in the number of bacteria between P0 and pharate adult stages. Interestingly the effect was detected for both Gram-positive (*Lactobacillus*) and Gram-negative (*Acetobacter*) bacteria. Although Drs is generally characterized as an antifungal AMP, previous studies already demonstrated that it can also be induced by both Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria (35–41). As such, the unexpected higher impact of *drs* absence on *Acetobacter* may be explained by a direct impact on Gram-negative bacteria. Indeed, a previous study demonstrated that *drs* is induced in the fat body after a systemic infection with *Ecc15* (34), which suggests this AMP responds to the presence of Gram-negative bacteria and may be relevant under an infection scenario. Alternatively, the impact seen on Gram-negative bacteria might be due to some compensatory mechanism driven by other AMPs in the absence of Drs. Also of note that the humoral arm of defence is not the only one acting at this stage of development. Regan and colleagues demonstrated that at pupariation, ecdysone is required to activate haemocytes and to orchestrate the active migration of these cells towards wounding sites (6). Therefore, at this stage both ecdysone-regulated cellular and humoral mechanisms are likely to act in synergy to decrease the probability of a damaging infection.

Surprisingly two of the actors in this process, *drsl2* and *drsl5*, have not been found to have any antibacterial activity (34). However, both these AMPs are upregulated in the gut upon *Erwinia carotovora* infection, which suggests that they may be relevant during an

immune challenge (34) and aligns with our findings. Further studies should ascertain the

exact mode of action of these drosomycin-like peptides.

Because *drsl2* and *drsl5* are not proven to act as AMPs and given that the lack of

local expression of *drsl2* did not affect bacterial persistence *per se*, we focused our efforts on

disentangling more of the molecular regulation of *drs* expression in the fat body. We showed

that the expression of *drs* at this stage depends upon the expression in the fat body of the

ecdysone receptor target, *br-Z4*. This is in accordance to previous indications that Br is

essential for the PGRP-LC-independent hormonal regulation of *drs* in S2 cells (4). However,

these previous studies did not demonstrate this association *in vivo*, thus not establishing the

spatial and temporal range of Br action on AMPs nor its relation to pupal viability.

Furthermore, similar ecdysone-mediated immune activation through Br has been previously

observed. Studies in the silkworm *Bombyx mori* showed that during metamorphosis, ecdysone

activates the transcription of lysozyme via Br-Z2 (42) and of the AMP *lebocin* via Br-Z4 (32).

This intermediary role of Br in the regulation mechanism of ecdysone over the AMPs

may explain why these effectors are only upregulated at pupariation, as revealed by our

expression profile data. Although ecdysone controls all the moults throughout development,

drs expression increases in response to this hormone specifically at pupariation, when Br is

expressed in Holometabola (25,43). The regulation of AMPs by Br is also fecund regarding

the interpretation of AMP expression throughout development between holo- and

hemimetabolan insects. Johnston and colleagues demonstrated that these two insect groups

have different AMP expression patterns, with holometabolans showing a strong upregulation

of immunity that coincides with metamorphosis timing and Br expression(44). In contrast,

hemimetabolans do not undergo a dramatic increase in immunity, possibly correlating with

much less drastic changes in body remodelling during progressive metamorphosis. In

accordance, there is indication that insects with complete metamorphosis suffer a reduction in

density, diversity and altered composition of bacterial populations during metamorphosis (45–

47), whereas those with incomplete metamorphosis show a constant increase in microbial

density and diversity throughout development (48). These data, as ours, are consistent with

the previously proposed hypothesis that complete metamorphosis elicits a prophylactic

immune response (15,16). However, until now it was unclear how ecdysone could temporally

regulate the expression of AMPs at pupariation.

Alterations in immunity at life stages with higher risk of infection seem to be a

general feature of development, finding some parallels in both vertebrates and invertebrates.

In *Drosophila triauraria*, genes of the *drs* family are induced during diapause, which is also

considered to be a more susceptible period (49). Most interestingly, data from *Xenopus* also

point towards an association between the timing of metamorphosis and a shift in the immune

response (50). For example, Major Histocompatibility Complex I (MHC class I) molecules,

which bind to peptide fragments derived from pathogens, are first detected at the beginning of

metamorphosis (51) and the expression of MHC class II molecules is not triggered if

metamorphosis is chemically blocked (52).

Together, our data suggest a regulatory mechanism through which ecdysone co-opted

the immune system possibly to enhance the success of metamorphic processes. This study

reveals a novel association between the endocrine and immune systems in *D. melanogaster*,

which act both systemically and locally during metamorphosis. This recruitment of immunity

mechanisms by the holometabolan metamorphosis programme presents other interesting

features. Three AMPs explain around 95% of the peak observed at the L3 to pupal transition.

Interestingly, these three AMPs have been co-opted differently and complementarily to

produce, what we interpret as a full-fledged immune prophylactic response despite the

absence of solid evidence of an antibacterial role for *drsl2* and *drsl5*. However, this

speculation is tempting. *Drsl2*, was recruited to one of the main exposed surface epithelia of

larvae, the midgut, that undergoes extensive remodelling at metamorphosis and *drs* is

produced in the fat body at metamorphosis initiation, exerting its antibacterial action in a

systemic fashion. These two mechanisms, with local and systemic action, share ecdysone

control and account for close to 70% of the pupariation AMP peak.

This multi-layered developmentally-regulated immune response at the onset of

pupariation underscores the sophistication and versatility of the co-option process (53–59)

and hints at a possible contribution of this process to the success of metamorphosis as a

whole.

Materials and methods

Drosophila stocks and husbandry

If not otherwise noticed, *w[1118]* flies were obtained from Dr. Luís Teixeira

(Instituto Gulbenkian de Ciência, Portugal) and used as the reference wild-type strain. The

following lines were obtained from the Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center: *w;UAS-*

mCD8GFP (#5137), *Cg-Gal4* (#7011), *tub-Gal80[ts]*(#7017), *w; UAS-Cas9 P2*(#58986),

w;UAS-brZ4 (#51193) and *w;UAS-dsBroad* (#104648). Several stocks were generously

shared by our colleagues, Drs Lynn Riddiford, University of Washington, USA (*w;UAS-*

EcRADN TP3 W650A), Marc Dionne, Imperial College London, UK (*Hml-Gal4*), François

Leulier, IGFL, France (*Mex-Gal4*), Kim Rewitz, University of Copenhagen, Denmark (*AkhR-*

Gal4), Bruno Lemaitre, EPFL, Switzerland (*iso;iso;Drs$^{r(w+)}$* and the respective background

control). The rescue lines *w;UAS-mCD8GFP; P{UAS-br.Z4}37-6* and *w;UAS-EcRADN TP3*

W650A; P{UAS-br.Z4}37-6 were generated in house at Instituto Gulbenkian de Ciência

(Portugal) by the Fly Transgenesis Service (Dr Gastón Guilgur). Standardly raised flies were

kept on food with the following composition (g/mL): 4,5% molasse, 7,5% sugar, 7%

cornmeal, 2% yeast extract, 1% agar, 2,5% Nipagin 10%. All fly lines we kept at 25ºC in a

12L:12D photoperiod. For the ecdysone decreased sensitivity experiment and tissue specific

CRISPR, animals were maintained at 17ºC until the moult to the L3 and then transferred to

29ºC to activate Gal4 activity.

CRISPR knock-out flies

The tissue-specific UAS *br* CRISPR knockout constructs were cloned into pCFD6

vector (www.crisprflydesign.org, Addgene #73915) according to manufacturer's instructions.

Four independent gRNA constructs were cloned to target introns (see primers listed in S9

Table) of the *br* core region genomic DNA sequence for *br* common construct and Z4 isoform

specific sequence for *br-Z4* construct to target only native genes but not transgenes. After

sequenced, the constructs were inserted on either the second chromosome in a recipient line

carrying phiC31 integrase and attP40 landing cite with an in-house modified line (*y,w,*

P{y+.nos-int.NLS}; P{CaryP y+}attP40) or the third chromosome in a recipient line carrying

phiC31 integrase and attP2 landing site, *y,w, P(y[+].nos-int. NLS); P(CaryP)attP2* (gift from

Dr. Diogo Manoel, Sidra Medical and Research Center, Qatar). Transgenesis was carried out

in-house at Instituto Gulbenkian de Ciência (Portugal) by the Fly Transgenesis Service (Dr

Gastón Guilgur).

Larval and pupal staging

Larvae were resynchronized every 2h and kept in normal food for the appropriate

time before collection in Trizol. Egg collections were performed on standard *Drosophila* food

plates at 25ºC, unless mentioned otherwise. All larvae used for this study were resynchronised

either at the onset of the L2 or L3, as previously described (60). Eggs were collected every 4

hours and larval densities kept around 200 larvae/60 mm diameter plate. Newly moulted L2

or L3 larvae were collected every 2 hours. Collected larvae (up to a maximum of 30

larvae/vial) were raised in vials with standard food at 25°C for an additional twenty-four

hours. Staged larvae were collected in Trizol for RNA extraction and stored at -80ºC until

use. For collection of white pre-pupae (P0), bottles with L3 larvae were monitored every 20

minutes, between 48 and 72h after the moult to the L3. Across this study, P0 were identified

as motionless pre-pupae with evaginated anterior spiracles. After collection, samples were

immediately stored in Trizol and stored at -80ºC until RNA extraction.

<u>P0 and pharate adult collection and plating</u>

P0 samples were collected as aforementioned. Pharate adults were identified as fully

developed adults (with tanned wings and pigmented eyes) still to eclose. Pharate adults were

dissected out of the pupal case and collected in 20 minutes intervals 48h to 72h after P0

collection. All samples were surface sterilized once with Milli-Q water, 70% ethanol and 13%

bleach and rinsed (3x) with sterile water to eliminate bleach traces. After these treatments,

each pupa was macerated in 300 μL of LB medium, of which 50 μL were spread onto MRS or

D-Mannitol plates. The plates were incubated at 25ºC for 48h for bacterial growth. For each

stage and medium a sample size of 100 pupae/pharate was collected per genotype.

<u>Statistical analysis for bacterial growth across stages</u>

To compare the pattern of variation between P0 and pharate adults across genotypes,

we followed a resampling strategy (61): the initial sample was resampled in subsets of 50

entries, with no replacement, 2000 times, generating a simulated dataset. In each cycle, a

negative binomial regression (*glm.nb(datat$cfu_pupae ~ data$Stage)*) – which does not

assume the variance and the mean of the data to be equivalent - was performed to model the

change of bacteria according to the stage, generating a regression coefficient, or slope.

At the end of the 2000th cycle, a set of these coefficients was obtained for each

genotype. This strategy allows us to estimate a set of values that the negative binomial

generalized linear regressions may assume, instead of getting just one value. In turn, this set

can allow us to explore location and variation statistics, as well as better estimate the

parameters of the sampling distribution of the coefficients, with a better notion of its

precision.

Subsequently, we assessed if the central tendency of the population is greater or less

than 0 using one-sided hypothesis tests. In parallel, a measure of the effect size was also

calculated. Following a Shapiro-Wilk test of normality, a parametric or non-parametric

approach for hypothesis testing and effect size calculation was applied. All data was analysed

and all graphics were generated using Rstudio 1.2.5033.

Germ-free flies

Newly laid eggs were collected into a sterile embryo basket and washed with

autoclaved MilliQ water. The eggs were dechorionated and sterilised using a 13% Bleach

solution (Sigma Aldrich®) for 10 minutes, washed again with Milli-Q water and sterilized

using a 1% Virkon solution for 2 minutes. The sterilized embryos were transferred to axenic

media with or without antibiotics (200 mg/mL Rifampicin, 100 mg/mL Tetracycline, 100

mg/mL Streptomycin, 15 mg/mL gentamicin). The axenic media contained all the normal

ingredients of fly food, is autoclaved prior to use and supplemented with the fungicide

Bavistin, which guarantees absence of any traces of microorganisms, including yeast. All

plates and bottles were kept inside sterilised containers at 25ºC and all manipulations were

conducted in a horizontal flood hood, using sterile materials. After the treatment, the germ-

free status was validated by plating surface-sterilized adult flies (from both germ free and

control conditions) onto MRS and D- Mannitol media.

RNA extraction, cDNA synthesis and real-quantitative PCR

RNA was isolated using the Direct-zol™ RNA MiniPrep Kit (Zymo®), following

manufacturer's instructions. DNase I treatment and cDNA synthesis were preformed using

the RQ1 RNASE-FREE DNASE 1* (Promega®) and the RevertAid H Minus First

Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit (Thermo Scientific®), respectively. qPCR was performed using

the SYBR® Green PCR Master Mix (Applied Biosystems®) and ABI 7900HT (Applied

Biosystems). The PCR conditions used in all experiments were: initial denaturation/ enzyme

activation, 95ºC for 10'; followed by 45 cycles of denaturation, 95ºC for 10"; annealing, 60ºC

for 10"; extension, 72ºC for 30". Specificity of PCR amplification was verified by melting

curve: 95ºC for 10", 65ºC for 1', 97ºC for 1"; cooling, 37ºC, 30". Primers used for all qPCR

reactions are represented in S10 Table. Foldchange was determined using the ΔΔCT method,

which compares the expression of a given gene of interest to a housekeeping gene between

experimental and control samples (62,63). Control L3 samples were used as reference. The

data was analysed with a general linear model, using the genotype, stage and gene as

explicable variables, as follows: glm(log(Foldchange)~Genotype*Stage*Gene, data=mydata).

The expression level for each gene at P0 and pharate was compared within and between

genotypes through multiple comparisons using the *lsmeans* package from Rstudio 1.2.5033.

Br binding sites prediction

The DNA binding motif matrix for Br-Z4 was obtained from the JASPAR database

(http://jaspar.genereg.net) and the 5' 2kb region of the *drosomycin* gene was acquired in

Flybase (http://flybase.org). Both sequences were uploaded in FIMO software (http://meme-

[suite.org/tools/fimo](http://meme-suite.org/tools/fimo)) (33), using a p-value < 0.0001 as a filter.

Acknowledgements

We thank Drs Lynn Riddiford, Marc Dionne, Luís Teixeira, Bruno Lemaitre, François Leulier, Kim

Rewitz and Pedro Domingos for stock sharing. We thank Liliana Vieira and Sandra Crisóstomo for

technical assistance, Gastón Guilgur for transgenesis services and André Barros for help with statistical

analysis. Stocks obtained from the Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center (NIH P40OD018537) were

used in this study. This work was supported by: Instituto Gulbenkian de Ciência/Fundação Calouste

Gulbenkian; Fundação para a Ciência e a Tecnologia (FCT, Portugal) to CN (PD/BD/114344/2016);

CONGENTO, project LISBOA-01-0145-FEDER-022170, co-financed by Lisboa Regional Operational

Programme (Lisboa 2020), under the Portugal 2020 Partnership Agreement, through the European

Regional Development Fund (ERDF), and Fundação para a Ciência e a Tecnologia (FCT, Portugal).

Author Contributions

543 CN, Conceptualization, Formal analysis, Investigation, Visualization, Methodology, Writing—original

544 draft, review and editing;

545 TK, Conceptualization, Investigation, Methodology, Writing—review and editing;

546 ES, Conceptualization, Supervision, Investigation, Funding acquisition, Methodology, Writing—

547 original draft, review and editing.

References

1.   Nijhout HF. Insect hormones. Princept: Princeton University Press; 1994.

2.   Gilbert, L. I., Rybczynski, R., Tobe SS. Endocrine cascade in insect metamorphosis. In: Gilbert,
L.I., Tata, J.R., Atkinson BG, editor. Metamorphosis, postembryonic reprogramming of gene
expression in amphibian and insect cells. Academic Press Inc; 1996. p. 59–107.

3.   Webster JI, Tonelli L, Sternberg EM. Neuroendocrine regulation of immunity. Annu Rev Immunol.
2002;20(1):125–63.

4.   Rus F, Flatt T, Tong M, Aggarwal K, Okuda K, Kleino A, et al. Ecdysone triggered PGRP-LC
expression controls Drosophila innate immunity. EMBO J [Internet]. 2013;32(11):1626–38.
Available from: http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/emboj.2013.100

5.   Flatt T, Heyland A, Rus F, Porpiglia E, Sherlock C, Yamamoto R, et al. Hormonal regulation of the
humoral innate immune response in Drosophila melanogaster. J Exp Biol. 2008;211(16):2712–24.

6.   Regan JC, Brandão AS, Leitão AB, Mantas Dias ÂR, Sucena É, Jacinto A, et al. Steroid hormone
signaling is essential to regulate innate immune cells and fight bacterial infection in Drosophila.
PLoS Pathog. 2013;9(10).

7.   Dimarcq JL, Imler JL, Lanot R, Ezekowitz RAB, Hoffmann JA, Janeway CA, et al. Treatment of
l(2)mbn Drosophila tumorous blood cells with the steroid hormone ecdysone amplifies the
inducibility of antimicrobial peptide gene expression. Insect Biochem Mol Biol. 1997;27(10):877–
86.

8.   Wang JL, Chen L, Tang L, Zhao HB, Liu XS, Wang YF. 20-hydroxyecdysone transcriptionally
regulates humoral immunity in the fat body of Helicoverpa armigera. Insect Mol Biol.
2014;23(6):842–56.

9.   Nunes C, Sucena É, Koyama T. Endocrine regulation of immunity in insects. FEBS J. 2020;(2):1–
20.

10.   Hoffmann JA, Reichhart JM, Hetru C. Innate immunity in higher insects. Curr Opin Immunol.
1996;8(1):8–13.

11.   Du Pasquier L. The immune system of invertebrates and vertebrates. Comp Biochem Physiol - B
Biochem Mol Biol. 2001;129(1):1–15.

12.   Lemaitre B, Hoffmann J. The host defense of Drosophila melanogaster. Annu Rev Immunol.
2007;25(1):697–743.

13.   Cociancich S, Bulet P, Hetru C, Hoffmann JA. The inducible antibacterial peptides of insects.
Parasitol Today. 1994;10(4):132–9.

14.   Yu XQ, Kanost MR. Developmental expression of Manduca sexta hemolin. Arch Insect Biochem
Physiol. 1999;42(3):198–212.

15.   Russell VW, Dunn PE. Lysozyme in the midgut of Manduca sexta during metamorphosis.
1991;80(12777):67–80.

16.   Russell V, Dunn PE. Antibacterial proteins in the midgut of Manduca sexta during metamorphosis. J
Insect Physiol. 1996;42(1):65–71.

17.   Hakim RS, Baldwin K, Smagghe G. Regulation of midgut growth, development, and

metamorphosis. Annu Rev Entomol. 2010;55(1):593–608.

18.   Judy KJ, Gilbert LI. Histology of the alimentary canal during the metamorphosis of Hyalophora
cecropia (L.). J Morphol. 1970;131(3):277–99.

19.   Bacot A. On the persistence of Bacilli in the gut of an Insect during metamorphosis. Parasitology.
1911;4:497–500.

20.   Leach JG. The method of survival of bacteria in the puparia of the seed-corn maggot (Hylemyia
Cilicrura Rond.). Zeitschrift für Angew Entomol. 1934;20(1):150–61.

21.   Bakula M. The persistence of a microbial flora during postembryogenesis of Drosophila
melanogaster. J Invertebr Pathol. 1969;14(3):365–74.

22.   Duneau DF, Lazzaro BP. Persistence of an extracellular systemic infection across metamorphosis in
a holometabolous insect. Biol Lett. 2018;14(2):10–3.

23.   Thurmond J, Goodman JL, Strelets VB, Attrill H, Gramates LS, Marygold SJ, et al. FlyBase 2.0:
The next generation. Nucleic Acids Res. 2019;47(D1):D759–65.

24.   Zhang Z, Palli SR. Identification of a cis-regulatory element required for 20-hydroxyecdysone
enhancement of antimicrobial peptide gene expression in Drosophila melanogaster. Insect Mol Biol.
2009;18(5):595–605.

25.   Zhou X, Riddiford LM. Broad specifies pupal development and mediates the "status quo" action of
juvenile hormone on the pupal-adult transformation in Drosophila and Manduca. Development.
2002;129(9):2259–69.

26.   Cherbas L, Hu X, Zhimulev I, Belyaeva E, Cherbas P. EcR isoforms in Drosophila: Testing tissue-
specific requirements by targeted blockade and rescue. Development. 2003;130(2):271–84.

27.   Davis MM, Engström Y. Immune response in the barrier epithelia: Lessons from the fruit fly
Drosophila melanogaster. J Innate Immun. 2012;4(3):273–83.

28.   Truman JW, Riddiford LM. The origins of insect metamorphosis. Nature [Internet]. 1999 Sep
30;401(6752):447–52. Available from: http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/46737

29.   Belles X. Origin and evolution of insect metamorphosis. eLS. 2011;1–11.

30.   Port F, Chen HM, Lee T, Bullock SL. Optimized CRISPR/Cas tools for efficient germline and
somatic genome engineering in Drosophila. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2014;111(29).

31.   Xue Z, Wu M, Wen K, Ren M, Long L, Zhang X, et al. CRISPR/Cas9 mediates efficient conditional
mutagenesis in Drosophila. G3 Genes, Genomes, Genet. 2014;4(11):2167–73.

32.   Mai T, Chen S, Lin X, Zhang X, Zou X, Feng Q, et al. 20-hydroxyecdysone positively regulates the
transcription of the antimicrobial peptide, lebocin, via BmEts and BmBR-C Z4 in the midgut of
Bombyx mori during metamorphosis. Dev Comp Immunol [Internet]. 2017;74:10–8. Available
from: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.dci.2017.04.002

33.   Grant CE, Bailey TL, Noble WS. FIMO: Scanning for occurrences of a given motif. Bioinformatics.
2011;27(7):1017–8.

34.   Buchon N, Broderick NA, Poidevin M, Pradervand S, Lemaitre B. Drosophila Intestinal Response
to Bacterial Infection: Activation of Host Defense and Stem Cell Proliferation. Cell Host Microbe
[Internet]. 2009;5(2):200–11. Available from: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.chom.2009.01.003

35.   Lemaitre B, Reichhart JM, Hoffmann JA. Drosophila host defense: Differential induction of

antimicrobial peptide genes after infection by various classes of microorganisms. Proc Natl Acad
Sci U S A. 1997;94(26):14614–9.

36. Leulier F, Rodriguez A, Khush RS, Abrams JM, Lemaitre B. The Drosophila caspase Dredd is
required to resist Gram-negative bacterial infection. EMBO Rep. 2000;1(4):353–8.

37. Foley E, O'Farrell PH. Nitric oxide contributes to induction of innate immune responses to gram-
negative bacteria in Drosophila. Genes Dev. 2003;17(1):115–25.

38. Tanji T, Hu X, Weber ANR, Ip YT. Toll and IMD pathways synergistically activate an innate
Immune Response in Drosophila melanogaster. Mol Cell Biol. 2007;27(12):4578–88.

39. Li Y, Li S, Li R, Xu J, Jin P, Chen L, et al. Genome-wide miRNA screening reveals miR-310 family
members negatively regulate the immune response in Drosophila melanogaster via co-targeting
Drosomycin. Dev Comp Immunol [Internet]. 2017;68:34–45. Available from:
http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.dci.2016.11.014

40. Zhan MY, Yang PJ, Rao XJ. Molecular cloning and analysis of PGRP-L1 and IMD from silkworm
Bombyx mori [Internet]. Vol. 215, Comparative Biochemistry and Physiology Part - B:
Biochemistry and Molecular Biology. Elsevier Inc; 2018. 19–30 p. Available from:
http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.cbpb.2017.10.002

41. Tzou P, Ohresser S, Ferrandon D, Capovilla M, Reichhart J, Lemaitre B, et al. Tissue-specific
inducible expression of antimicrobial peptide genes in Drosophila surface epithelia. 2000;13:737–
48.

42. Ma H, Abbas MN, Zhang K, Hu X, Xu M, Liang H, et al. 20-Hydroxyecdysone regulates the
transcription of the lysozyme via Broad-Complex Z2 gene in silkworm, Bombyx mori. Dev Comp
Immunol [Internet]. 2019;94(November 2018):66–72. Available from:
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dci.2019.01.014

43. Erezyilmaz DF, Riddiford LM, Truman JW. The pupal specifier broad directs progressive
morphogenesis in a direct-developing insect. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2006;103(18):6925–30.

44. Johnston PR, Paris V ronique, Rolff J. Immune gene regulation in the gut during metamorphosis in a
holo- versus a hemimetabolous insect. Philos Trans R Soc B Biol Sci. 2019;374(1783):1–6.

45. Johnston PR, Rolff J. Host and Symbiont Jointly Control Gut Microbiota during Complete
Metamorphosis. PLoS Pathog. 2015;11(11):1–11.

46. Hammer TJ, McMillan WO, Fierer N. Metamorphosis of a butterfly-associated bacterial
community. PLoS One. 2014;9(1).

47. Kim JK, Han SH, Kim CH, Jo YH, Futahashi R, Kikuchi Y, et al. Molting-associated suppression of
symbiont population and up-regulation of antimicrobial activity in the midgut symbiotic organ of
the Riptortus-Burkholderia symbiosis. Dev Comp Immunol [Internet]. 2014;43(1):10–4. Available
from: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.dci.2013.10.010

48. Sudakaran S, Salem H, Kost C, Kaltenpoth M. Geographical and ecological stability of the
symbiotic mid-gut microbiota in European firebugs, Pyrrhocoris apterus (Hemiptera,
Pyrrhocoridae). Mol Ecol. 2012;21(24):6134–51.

49. Daibo S, Kimura MT, Goto SG. Upregulation of genes belonging to the drosomycin family in
diapausing adults of Drosophila triauraria. Gene. 2001;278(1–2):177–84.

50. Robert J, Ohta Y. Comparative and developmental study of the immune system in Xenopus. Dev
Dyn. 2009;238(6):1249–70.
51. Flajnik MF, Du Pasquier L. MHC class I antigens as surface markers of adult erythrocytes during
the metamorphosis of Xenopus. Dev Biol. 1988;128(1):198–206.
52. Rollins-Smith LA, Blair P. Expression of class II major histocompatibility complex antigens on
adult T cells in Xenopus is metamorphosis-dependent. Dev Immunol. 1990;1:97–104.
53. McQueen E, Rebeiz M. On the specificity of gene regulatory networks: How does network co-
option affect subsequent evolution? [Internet]. 1st ed. Vol. 139, Current Topics in Developmental
Biology. Elsevier Inc.; 2020. 375–405 p. Available from:
http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/bs.ctdb.2020.03.002
54. Denise R, Abby SS, Rocha EPC. The Evolution of Protein Secretion Systems by Co-option and
Tinkering of Cellular Machineries. Trends Microbiol [Internet]. 2020;28(5):372–86. Available from:
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tim.2020.01.005
55. Duncan EJ, Johnson TK, Whisstock JC, Warr CG DP. Capturing embryonic development from
metamorphosis: how did the terminal patterning signalling pathway of Drosophila evolve? Curr
Opin Insect Sci. 2014;(1):45–51.
56. Vreede BMI, Lynch JA, Roth S, Sucena É. Co-option of a coordinate system defined by the EGFr
and Dpp pathways in the evolution of a morphological novelty. Evodevo. 2013;4(1):1–12.
57. Litman GW, Rast JP, Fugmann SD. The origins of vertebrate adaptive immunity. Nat Rev Immunol.
2010;10(8):543–53.
58. Peel AD. The evolution of developmental gene networks: Lessons from comparative studies on
holometabolous insects. Philos Trans R Soc B Biol Sci. 2008;363(1496):1539–47.
59. True JR, Carroll SB. Gene co-option in physiological and morphological evolution. Annu Rev Cell
Dev Biol. 2002;18:53–80.
60. Koyama T, Mirth CK. Growth-Blocking Peptides As Nutrition-Sensitive Signals for Insulin
Secretion and Body Size Regulation. PLoS Biol. 2016;14(2):1–23.
61. Fieberg JR, Vitense K, Johnson DH. Resampling-based methods for biologists. PeerJ. 2020;2020(3).
62. Livak KJ, Schmittgen TD. Analysis of relative gene expression data using real-time quantitative
PCR and the 2-$\Delta\Delta$CT method. Methods. 2001;25(4):402–8.
63. Schmittgen TD, Livak KJ. Analyzing real-time PCR data by the comparative CT method. Nat
Protoc. 2008;3(6):1101–8.
699

Supplementary Figures and Tables

Supplementary Figures

Supplementary Figure 1

Supplementary Figure 1. High-throughput temporal AMP expression. Expression refers to whole body, with levels represented as linear and scaled to maximum expression (publicly available on Flybase http://flybase.org/ (Thurmond et al., 2019)).

Supplementary Figure 2

Supplementary Figure 2. The expression levels of *cecropin A1*, *defensin*, *metchnikowin* and *drsl3* increase at pupariation and are not lost in GF conditions, albeit to different degrees.

Supplementary Figure 3

Supplementary Figure 3-1. Reduced expression of ecdysone sensitivity in the fat body and haemocytes does not affect the expression of *cecropin A1*, *defensin*, *metchnikowin* and *drsl3*.

Supplementary Figure 3-2. *drs* expression increases at P0 in *{w-};dif1;+* mutant.

Supplementary Figure 3-3. Reduced ecdysone sensitivity in the haemocytes does not affect the expression of of *cecropin A1*, *defensin*, *metchnikowin* and *drsl3*.

Supplementary Figure 3-4. The expression of *cecropin A1*, *defensin*, *metchnikowin* and *drsl3* is unaffected by decreased ecdysone sensitivity specifically in the fat body.

Supplementary Figure 4

Supplementary Figure 4. Decreased ecdysone signalling in the midgut results in significant decrease in mRNA levels for: *cecropin A1 (lsmeans(pairwise~Genotype|P0)<0.0001; lsmeans(pairwise~Stage|Mex>EcRDN)= 0.0038), defensin (lsmeans(pairwise~Genotype|P0) <0.0001; lsmeans(pairwise~Stage|Mex>EcRDN)=0.3866), metchnikowin (lsmeans (pairwise~Genotype|P0)=0.0060; lsmeans (pairwise~Stage|Mex>EcRDN<0.0001),* and *drsl3 ((lsmeans(pairwise~Genotype|P0)=0.0008; lsmeans(pairwise~Stage|Mex>EcRDN)=0.2084).*

Supplementary Figure 5

Supplementary Figure 5-1. The expression of *drs* increased at pupariation regardless of the genetic background (*lsmeans(pairwise~Stage|w1118)<0.0001; lsmeans(pairwise~Stage|outbred <0.0001; lsmeans(pairwise~Stage|Iso)<0.0001*). Each dot represents a sample of five pooled individuals; the lines connect the median of the samples at L3 and P0; different letters represent statistically significant differences in fold-change. Fold-change was determined using the ΔΔCT method.

Supplementary Figure 5-2. JASPAR DNA binding motif MA0013.1 for Br-Z4

Motif ID	Alt ID	Sequence Name	Strand	Start	End	p-value	q-value	Matched Sequence
MA0013.1	br(var.4)	Drs	+	1022	1032	8.65e-06	0.0254	AAGTAAACAAA
MA0013.1	br(var.4)	Drs	-	1189	1199	1.9e-05	0.0279	TAATAAACAAC
MA0013.1	br(var.4)	Drs	+	755	765	7.17e-05	0.0703	TAGAAAAGAAA

Supplementary Figure 5-3. Br-Z4 binding motifs predicted by FIMO [29] software (http://meme-suite.org/tools/fimo) to be present in 2kb region of the 5'-end of the *drs* gene, using a p-value<0.0001 as filter.

Supplementary Figure 6

Supplementary Figure 6. Control (*{w-};+;+*) and *drs* mutant (*{w-};+; Drs r{w+}*) lines showed no differences in mortality between L3, pupae and adults (*lsmeans(pairwise~Stage|Genotype) <0.0001; lsmeans(pairwise~Genotype|Stage)<0.0001*).

Supplementary Figure 7

Supplementary Figure 7. (A-B) Quantification in P0 pupae and pharate adults of *Lactobacillus* (L), growing in selective MRS medium, and *Acetobacter* (A), growing on selective D-Mannitol. The number of individuals with more bacteria is greater in P0 samples (A) than in pharate adults (B). Y-axis represents the proportion of individuals in each bacterial count category. (C-D) Coefficient (slopes) distribution in *Mex>EcRDN* samples of *Lactobacillus* (C) (*Median: -5.455 (IQR: -6.279; -4.895); One-way Wilcoxon test for median<0: <2.2e-16, r=0.866*) and *Acetobacter* (D) (*Median: -3.134 (IQR: -5.656; -2.342); One-way Wilcoxon test for median>0: <2.2e-16, r=0.866*). Doted lines represent the 0.05 and 0.95 quantiles; full line represents the mean slope.

Supplementary Tables

Gene	lsmeans, pairwise~Genotype | Stage	p-value
cecropin A1	{w-};+;+ vs {w-};+;+ GF | L3	<0.0001
	{w-};+;+ vs {w-};+;+ GF | P0	<0.0001
defensin	{w-};+;+ vs {w-};+;+ GF | L3	0.0096
	{w-};+;+ vs {w-};+;+ GF | P0	<0.0001
metchnikowin	{w-};+;+ vs {w-};+;+ GF | L3	0.0089
	{w-};+;+ vs {w-};+;+ GF | P0	0.1038
drs	{w-};+;+ vs {w-};+;+ GF | L3	<0.0001
	{w-};+;+ vs {w-};+;+ GF | P0	0.0978
drsl2	{w-};+;+ vs {w-};+;+ GF | L3	<0.0001
	{w-};+;+ vs {w-};+;+ GF | P0	0.0226
drsl3	{w-};+;+ vs {w-};+;+ GF | L3	0.2113
	{w-};+;+ vs {w-};+;+ GF | P0	0.0058
drsl5	{w-};+;+ vs {w-};+;+ GF | L3	<0.0001
	{w-};+;+ vs {w-};+;+ GF | P0	0.0105

Gene	lsmeans, pairwise~Stage | Genotype	p-value
cecropin A1	{w-};+;+	<0.0001
	{w-};+;+ GF	<0.0001
defensin	{w-};+;+	<0.0001
	{w-};+;+ GF	0.0752
metchnikowin	{w-};+;+	<0.0001
	{w-};+;+ GF	<0.0001
drs	{w-};+;+	<0.0001
	{w-};+;+ GF	<0.0001
drsl2	{w-};+;+	<0.0001
	{w-};+;+ GF	<0.0001
drsl3	{w-};+;+	<0.0001
	{w-};+;+ GF	<0.0001
drsl5	{w-};+;+	<0.0001
	{w-};+;+ GF	<0.0001

S1 Table. **Statistical analysis of AMPs expression in an isogenic line (*{w-};+;+*) in normal and germ-free (GF) conditions at L3 and P0 stages**. lsmeans, pairwise~Genotype | Stage represents differences within the same stage, between genotypes. lsmeans, pairwise~Stage | Genoype represents the difference between L3 and P0 within each genotype.

Gene	lsmeans, pairwise~Genotype ∣ Stage	p-value
cecropin A1	*Cg[ts]>mcD8GFP* vs *Cg[ts]>EcR DN* ∣ L3	0.0057
	Cg[ts]>mcD8GFP vs *Cg[ts]>EcR DN* ∣ P0	0.0064
defensin	*Cg[ts]>mcD8GFP* vs *Cg[ts]>EcR DN* ∣ L3	0.8361
	Cg[ts]>mcD8GFP vs *Cg[ts]>EcR DN* ∣ P0	0.6428
metchnikowin	*Cg[ts]>mcD8GFP* vs *Cg[ts]>EcR DN* ∣ L3	<0.0001
	Cg[ts]>mcD8GFP vs *Cg[ts]>EcR DN* ∣ P0	0.0012
drs	*Cg[ts]>mcD8GFP* vs *Cg[ts]>EcR DN* ∣ L3	0.7558
	Cg[ts]>mcD8GFP vs *Cg[ts]>EcR DN* ∣ P0	<0.0001
drsl2	*Cg[ts]>mcD8GFP* vs *Cg[ts]>EcR DN* ∣ L3	0.6216
	Cg[ts]>mcD8GFP vs *Cg[ts]>EcR DN* ∣ P0	0.0192
drsl3	*Cg[ts]>mcD8GFP* vs *Cg[ts]>EcR DN* ∣ L3	<0.0001
	Cg[ts]>mcD8GFP vs *Cg[ts]>EcR DN* ∣ P0	0.1326
drsl5	*Cg[ts]>mcD8GFP* vs *Cg[ts]>EcR DN* ∣ L3	<0.0001
	Cg[ts]>mcD8GFP vs *Cg[ts]>EcR DN* ∣ P0	0.4561
Gene	**lsmeans, pairwise~Stage ∣ Genotype**	**p-value**
cecropin A1	*Cg[ts]>mcD8GFP* ∣ L3 vs P0	<0.0001
	Cg[ts]>EcR DN ∣ L3 vs P0	<0.0001
defensin	*Cg[ts]>mcD8GFP* ∣ L3 vs P0	<0.0001
	Cg[ts]>EcR DN ∣ L3 vs P0	<0.0001
metchnikowin	*Cg[ts]>mcD8GFP* ∣ L3 vs P0	<0.0001
	Cg[ts]>EcR DN ∣ L3 vs P0	<0.0001
drs	*Cg[ts]>mcD8GFP* ∣ L3 vs P0	<0.0001
	Cg[ts]>EcR DN ∣ L3 vs P0	0..0017
drsl2	*Cg[ts]>mcD8GFP* ∣ L3 vs P0	<0.0001
	Cg[ts]>EcR DN ∣ L3 vs P0	<0.0001
drsl3	*Cg[ts]>mcD8GFP* ∣ L3 vs P0	<0.0001
	Cg[ts]>EcR DN ∣ L3 vs P0	<0.0001
drsl5	*Cg[ts]>mcD8GFP* ∣ L3 vs P0	<0.0001
	Cg[ts]>EcR DN ∣ L3 vs P0	<0.0001

S2 Table. Statistical analysis of AMP expression in samples with decreased ecdysone sensitivity in the fat body and haemocytes (*Cg>EcRDN*). lsmeans, pairwise~Genotype ∣ Stage represents differences within the same stage, between genotypes. lsmeans, pairwise~Stage ∣ Genotype represents the difference between L3 and P0 within each genotype.

Gene	lsmeans, pairwise~Genotype	Stage	p-value
cecropin A1	*Hml>mcD8GFP* vs *Hml>EcR DN*	L3	0.0047
	Hml>mcD8GFP vs *Hml>EcR DN*	P0	0.1124
defensin	*Hml>mcD8GFP* vs *Hml>EcR DN*	L3	0.0012
	Hml>mcD8GFP vs *Hml>EcR DN*	P0	<0.0001
metchnikowin	*Hml>mcD8GFP* vs *Hml>EcR DN*	L3	0.2988
	Hml>mcD8GFP vs *Hml>EcR DN*	P0	0.1739
drs	*Hml>mcD8GFP* vs *Hml>EcR DN*	L3	0.0033
	Hml>mcD8GFP vs *Hml>EcR DN*	P0	0.0185
drsl2	*Hml>mcD8GFP* vs *Hml>EcR DN*	L3	0.0512
	Hml>mcD8GFP vs *Hml>EcR DN*	P0	0.8840
drsl3	*Hml>mcD8GFP* vs *Hml>EcR DN*	L3	0.0732
	Hml>mcD8GFP vs *Hml>EcR DN*	P0	0.3020
drsl5	*Hml>mcD8GFP* vs *Hml>EcR DN*	L3	0.0065
	Hml>mcD8GFP vs *Hml>EcR DN*	P0	0.1605
Gene	**lsmeans, pairwise~Stage	Genotype**	**p-value**
cecropin A1	*Hml>mcD8GFP*	L3 vs P0	<0.0001
	Hml>EcR DN	L3 vs P0	<0.0001
defensin	*Hml>mcD8GFP*	L3 vs P0	0.0118
	Hml>EcR DN	L3 vs P0	0.0003
metchnikowin	*Hml>mcD8GFP*	L3 vs P0	<0.0001
	Hml>EcR DN	L3 vs P0	<0.0001
drs	*Hml>mcD8GFP*	L3 vs P0	<0.0001
	Hml>EcR DN	L3 vs P0	<0.0001
drsl2	*Hml>mcD8GFP*	L3 vs P0	<0.0001
	Hml>EcR DN	L3 vs P0	<0.0001
drsl3	*Hml>mcD8GFP*	L3 vs P0	<0.0001
	Hml>EcR DN	L3 vs P0	<0.0001
drsl5	*Hml>mcD8GFP*	L3 vs P0	<0.0001
	Hml>EcR DN	L3 vs P0	<0.0001

S3 Table. Statistical analysis of AMP expression in samples with decreased ecdysone sensitivity in haemocytes (*Hml>EcRDN*). lsmeans, pairwise~Genotype | Stage represents differences within the same stage, between genotypes. lsmeans, pairwise~Stage | Genotype represents the difference between L3 and P0 within each genotype.

Gene	lsmeans, pairwise~Genotype	Stage	p-value
cecropin A1	*AkhR>mcD8GFP* vs *AkhR>EcR DN*	L3	0.2413
	AkhR>mcD8GFP vs *AkhR>EcR DN*	P0	0.0228
defensin	*AkhR>mcD8GFP* vs *AkhR>EcR DN*	L3	0.4736
	AkhR>mcD8GFP vs *AkhR>EcR DN*	P0	0.3747
metchnikowin	*AkhR>mcD8GFP* vs *AkhR>EcR DN*	L3	0.0001
	AkhR>mcD8GFP vs *AkhR>EcR DN*	P0	0.5902
drs	*AkhR>mcD8GFP* vs *AkhR>EcR DN*	L3	0.0133
	AkhR>mcD8GFP vs *AkhR>EcR DN*	P0	<0.0001
drsl2	*AkhR>mcD8GFP* vs *AkhR>EcR DN*	L3	0.7280
	AkhR>mcD8GFP vs *AkhR>EcR DN*	P0	0.4609
drsl3	*AkhR>mcD8GFP* vs *AkhR>EcR DN*	L3	0.0001
	AkhR>mcD8GFP vs *AkhR>EcR DN*	P0	0.8518
drsl5	*AkhR>mcD8GFP* vs *AkhR>EcR DN*	L3	0.0058
	AkhR>mcD8GFP vs *AkhR>EcR DN*	P0	0.3890
Gene	**lsmeans, pairwise~Stage	Genotype**	**p-value**
cecropin A1	*AkhR>mcD8GFP*	L3 vs P0	<0.0001
	AkhR>EcR DN	L3 vs P0	0.0003
defensin	*AkhR>mcD8GFP*	L3 vs P0	<0.0001
	AkhR>EcR DN	L3 vs P0	<0.0001
metchnikowin	*AkhR>mcD8GFP*	L3 vs P0	<0.0001
	AkhR>EcR DN	L3 vs P0	0.3266
drs	*AkhR>mcD8GFP*	L3 vs P0	<0.0001
	AkhR>EcR DN	L3 vs P0	0.6709
drsl2	*AkhR>mcD8GFP*	L3 vs P0	<0.0001
	AkhR>EcR DN	L3 vs P0	<0.0001
drsl3	*AkhR>mcD8GFP*	L3 vs P0	<0.0001
	AkhR>EcR DN	L3 vs P0	0.0001
drsl5	*AkhR>mcD8GFP*	L3 vs P0	<0.0001
	AkhR>EcR DN	L3 vs P0	<0.0001

S4 Table. Statistical analysis of AMP expression in samples with decreased ecdysone sensitivity in the fat body (*AkhR>EcRDN*). lsmeans, pairwise~Genotype | Stage represents differences within the same stage, between genotypes. lsmeans, pairwise~Stage | Genotype represents the difference between L3 and P0 within each genotype.

Gene	lsmeans, pairwise~Genotype | Stage	p-value
cecropin A1	*Mex>mcD8GFP* vs *Mex>EcR DN* | L3	0.0004
	Mex>mcD8GFP vs *Mex>EcR DN* | P0	<0.0001
defensin	*Mex>mcD8GFP* vs *Mex>EcR DN* | L3	0.7855
	Mex>mcD8GFP vs *Mex>EcR DN* | P0	<0.0001
metchnikowin	*Mex>mcD8GFP* vs *Mex>EcR DN* | L3	0.0371
	Mex>mcD8GFP vs *Mex>EcR DN* | P0	0.0060
drs	*Mex>mcD8GFP* vs *Mex>EcR DN* | L3	<0.0001
	Mex>mcD8GFP vs *Mex>EcR DN* | P0	0.0076
drsl2	*Mex>mcD8GFP* vs *Mex>EcR DN* | L3	0.8069
	Mex>mcD8GFP vs *Mex>EcR DN* | P0	<0.0001
drsl3	*Mex>mcD8GFP* vs *Mex>EcR DN* | L3	<0.0001
	Mex>mcD8GFP vs *Mex>EcR DN* | P0	0.0008
drsl5	*Mex>mcD8GFP* vs *Mex>EcR DN* | L3	0.9832
	Mex>mcD8GFP vs *Mex>EcR DN* | P0	0.4479
Gene	**lsmeans, pairwise~Stage | Genotype**	**p-value**
cecropin A1	*Mex>mcD8GFP* | L3 vs P0	0.0010
	Mex>EcR DN | L3 vs P0	0.0038
defensin	*Mex>mcD8GFP* | L3 vs P0	0.0028
	Mex>EcR DN | L3 vs P0	0.3866
metchnikowin	*Mex>mcD8GFP* | L3 vs P0	<0.0001
	Mex>EcR DN | L3 vs P0	<0.0001
drs	*Mex>mcD8GFP* | L3 vs P0	<0.0001
	Mex>EcR DN | L3 vs P0	<0.0001
drsl2	*Mex>mcD8GFP* | L3 vs P0	<0.0001
	Mex>EcR DN | L3 vs P0	<0.0001
drsl3	*Mex>mcD8GFP* | L3 vs P0	<0.0001
	Mex>EcR DN | L3 vs P0	0.2084
drsl5	*Mex>mcD8GFP* | L3 vs P0	<0.0001
	Mex>EcR DN | L3 vs P0	<0.0001

S5 Table. Statistical analysis of AMP expression in samples with decreased ecdysone sensitivity in the migut (*Mex>EcRDN*). lsmeans, pairwise~Genotype | Stage represents differences within the same stage, between genotypes. lsmeans, pairwise~Stage | Genotype represents the difference between L3 and P0 within each genotype.

Gene	lsmeans, pairwise~Genotype | Stage	p-value
cecropin A1	Btl>mcD8GFP vs Btl>EcR DN |L3	0.0197
	Btl>mcD8GFP vs Btl>EcR DN |P0	0.8417
defensin	Btl>mcD8GFP vs Btl>EcR DN |L3	0.1219
	Btl>mcD8GFP vs Btl>EcR DN |P0	0.0336
metchnikowin	Btl>mcD8GFP vs Btl>EcR DN |L3	<0.0001
	Btl>mcD8GFP vs Btl>EcR DN |P0	0.6789
drs	Btl>mcD8GFP vs Btl>EcR DN |L3	0.0098
	Btl>mcD8GFP vs Btl>EcR DN |P0	0.1636
drsl2	Btl>mcD8GFP vs Btl>EcR DN |L3	0.0197
	Btl>mcD8GFP vs Btl>EcR DN |P0	0.9116
drsl3	Btl>mcD8GFP vs Btl>EcR DN |L3	<0.0001
	Btl>mcD8GFP vs Btl>EcR DN |P0	0.4955
drsl5	Btl>mcD8GFP vs Btl>EcR DN |L3	0.4510
	Btl>mcD8GFP vs Btl>EcR DN |P0	0.1192
Gene	**lsmeans, pairwise~Stage | Genotype**	**p-value**
cecropin A1	Btl>mcD8GFP |L3 vs P0	<0.0001
	Btl>EcR DN |L3 vs P0	0.0001
defensin	Btl>mcD8GFP |L3 vs P0	0.0027
	Btl>EcR DN |L3 vs P0	0.0010
metchnikowin	Btl>mcD8GFP |L3 vs P0	<0.0001
	Btl>EcR DN |L3 vs P0	0.3711
drs	Btl>mcD8GFP |L3 vs P0	<0.0001
	Btl>EcR DN |L3 vs P0	<0.0001
drsl2	Btl>mcD8GFP |L3 vs P0	<0.0001
	Btl>EcR DN |L3 vs P0	<0.0001
drsl3	Btl>mcD8GFP |L3 vs P0	<0.0001
	Btl>EcR DN |L3 vs P0	0.0004
drsl5	Btl>mcD8GFP |L3 vs P0	<0.0001
	Btl>EcR DN |L3 vs P0	<0.0001

S6 Table. Statistical analysis of AMP expression in samples with decreased ecdysone sensitivity in the tracheal system (*btl>EcRDN*). lsmeans, pairwise~Genotype | Stage represents differences within the same stage, between genotypes. lsmeans, pairwise~Stage | Genotype represents the difference between L3 and P0 within each genotype.

lsmeans, pairwise~Genotype | Stage	p-value
+;+;+ vs +;+;*Drs{w+}* | L3	0.9211
+;+;+ vs +;+;*Drs{w+}* | Pupa	0.2412
+;+;+ vs +;+;*Drs{w+}* | Adult	0.7340
lsmeans, pairwise~Stage | Genotype	**p-value**
+;+;+ | L3 vs Pupa	0.1774
+;+;+ | L3 vs Adult	0.7390
+;+;+ | Pupa vs Adult	1.0000
+;+;*Drs{w+}* | L3 vs Pupa	1.0000
+;+;*Drs{w+}* | L3 vs Adult	1.0000
+;+;*Drs{w+}* | Pupa vs Adult	1.0000

S7 Table. Statistical analysis of mortality between genotypes, across stages. lsmeans, pairwise~Genotype \| Stage represents differences within the same stage, between genotypes. lsmeans, pairwise~Stage \| Genotype represents the difference between L3 and P0 within each genotype.

Gene	lsmeans, pairwise~Genotype | Stage	p-value
cecropin A1	*Cg;Cas9>+;+;+* vs *Cg;Cas9>br KO* | L3	1.0000
	Cg;Cas9>+;+;+ vs *Cg;Cas9>br-Z4 KO* | L3	1.0000
	Cg;Cas9>br KO Cg;Cas9>br-Z4 KO | L3	1.0000
	Cg;Cas9>+;+;+ vs *Cg;Cas9>br KO* | P0	1.0000
	Cg;Cas9>+;+;+ vs *Cg;Cas9>br-Z4 KO* | P0	1.0000
	Cg;Cas9>br KO Cg;Cas9>br-Z4 KO | P0	1.0000
defensin	*Cg;Cas9>+;+;+* vs *Cg;Cas9>br KO* | L3	0.6537
	Cg;Cas9>+;+;+ vs *Cg;Cas9>br-Z4 KO* | L3	1.0000
	Cg;Cas9>br KO Cg;Cas9>br-Z4 KO | L3	0.5756
	Cg;Cas9>+;+;+ vs *Cg;Cas9>br KO* | P0	0.2314
	Cg;Cas9>+;+;+ vs *Cg;Cas9>br-Z4 KO* | P0	0.0003
	Cg;Cas9>br KO Cg;Cas9>br-Z4 KO | P0	0.0831
metchnikowin	*Cg;Cas9>+;+;+* vs *Cg;Cas9>br KO* | L3	1.0000
	Cg;Cas9>+;+;+ vs *Cg;Cas9>br-Z4 KO* | L3	1.0000
	Cg;Cas9>br KO Cg;Cas9>br-Z4 KO | L3	0.7209
	Cg;Cas9>+;+;+ vs *Cg;Cas9>br KO* | P0	0.8651
	Cg;Cas9>+;+;+ vs *Cg;Cas9>br-Z4 KO* | P0	1.0000
	Cg;Cas9>br KO Cg;Cas9>br-Z4 KO | P0	0.4444

drs	*Cg;Cas9>+;+;+* vs *Cg;Cas9>br KO*	L3	1.0000
	Cg;Cas9>+;+;+ vs *Cg;Cas9>br-Z4 KO*	L3	1.0000
	Cg;Cas9>br KO Cg;Cas9>br-Z4 KO	L3	1.0000
	Cg;Cas9>+;+;+ vs *Cg;Cas9>br KO*	P0	<0.0001
	Cg;Cas9>+;+;+ vs *Cg;Cas9>br-Z4 KO*	P0	<0.0001
	Cg;Cas9>br KO Cg;Cas9>br-Z4 KO	P0	0.0002
drsl2	*Cg;Cas9>+;+;+* vs *Cg;Cas9>br KO*	L3	1.0000
	Cg;Cas9>+;+;+ vs *Cg;Cas9>br-Z4 KO*	L3	1.0000
	Cg;Cas9>br KO Cg;Cas9>br-Z4 KO	L3	1.0000
	Cg;Cas9>+;+;+ vs *Cg;Cas9>br KO*	P0	1.0000
	Cg;Cas9>+;+;+ vs *Cg;Cas9>br-Z4 KO*	P0	1.0000
	Cg;Cas9>br KO Cg;Cas9>br-Z4 KO	P0	1.0000
drsl3	*Cg;Cas9>+;+;+* vs *Cg;Cas9>br KO*	L3	1.0000
	Cg;Cas9>+;+;+ vs *Cg;Cas9>br-Z4 KO*	L3	1.0000
	Cg;Cas9>br KO Cg;Cas9>br-Z4 KO	L3	1.0000
	Cg;Cas9>+;+;+ vs *Cg;Cas9>br KO*	P0	1.0000
	Cg;Cas9>+;+;+ vs *Cg;Cas9>br-Z4 KO*	P0	0.9050
	Cg;Cas9>br KO Cg;Cas9>br-Z4 KO	P0	0.9168
drsl5	*Cg;Cas9>+;+;+* vs *Cg;Cas9>br KO*	L3	0.9520
	Cg;Cas9>+;+;+ vs *Cg;Cas9>br-Z4 KO*	L3	0.0167
	Cg;Cas9>br KO Cg;Cas9>br-Z4 KO	L3	0.2020
	Cg;Cas9>+;+;+ vs *Cg;Cas9>br KO*	P0	0.1613
	Cg;Cas9>+;+;+ vs *Cg;Cas9>br-Z4 KO*	P0	0.3062
	Cg;Cas9>+;+;+ Cg;Cas9>br-Z4 KO	P0	1.0000
Gene	**lsmeans, pairwise~Stage	Genotype**	**p-value**
cecropin A1	*Cg;Cas9>+;+;+*	L3 vs P0	<0.0001
	Cg;Cas9>br KO	L3 vs P0	<0.0001
	Cg;Cas9>br-Z4 KO	L3 vs P0	<0.0001
defensin	*Cg;Cas9>+;+;+*	L3 vs P0	<0.0001
	Cg;Cas9>br KO	L3 vs P0	<0.0001
	Cg;Cas9>br-Z4 KO	L3 vs P0	<0.0001
metchnikowin	*Cg;Cas9>+;+;+*	L3 vs P0	<0.0001
	Cg;Cas9>br KO	L3 vs P0	<0.0001
	Cg;Cas9>br-Z4 KO	L3 vs P0	<0.0001
drs	*Cg;Cas9>+;+;+*	L3 vs P0	<0.0001
	Cg;Cas9>br KO	L3 vs P0	0.0001
	Cg;Cas9>br-Z4 KO	L3 vs P0	0.4691
drsl2	*Cg;Cas9>+;+;+*	L3 vs P0	<0.0001
	Cg;Cas9>br KO	L3 vs P0	<0.0001

	Cg;Cas9>br-Z4 KO	L3 vs P0	<0.0001
drsl3	*Cg;Cas9>+;+;+*	L3 vs P0	<0.0001
	Cg;Cas9>br KO	L3 vs P0	<0.0001
	Cg;Cas9>br-Z4 KO	L3 vs P0	<0.0001
drsl5	*Cg;Cas9>+;+;+*	L3 vs P0	<0.0001
	Cg;Cas9>br KO	L3 vs P0	<0.0001
	Cg;Cas9>br-Z4 KO	L3 vs P0	<0.0001

S8 Table. Statistical analysis of AMP expression when *br* or *br-Z4* are knocked-out specifically in the fat body and haemocytes. lsmeans, pairwise~Genotype | Stage represents differences within the same stage, between genotypes. L3 is coloured in red and P0 in blue. lsmeans, pairwise~Stage | Genotype represents the difference between L3 and P0 within each genotype.

Primer name	*5'-Sequence-3' (Capital: gRNA sequences)*
br_common_PCR1_F01	cggcccgggttcgattcccggccgatgcaGGGGAGTTGGCAATATAGAGgtttcagagctatgctggaaac
br_common_PCR1_R01	TGGGCTCACCAATGCCAATCtgcaccagccgggaatcgaacc
br_common_PCR2_F01	GATTGGCATTGGTGAGCCCAgtttcagagctatgctggaaac
br_common_PCR2_R01	GCGAGGTGTGCGGTGCGACCtgcaccagccgggaatcgaacc
br_common_PCR3_F01	GGTCGCACCGCACACCTCGCgtttcagagctatgctggaaac
br_common_PCR3_R01	attttaacttgctatttctagctctaaaacCTGCCCACACATGACGTGTCtgcaccagccgggaatcgaacc
br_Z4_PCR1_F01	cggcccgggttcgattcccggccgatgcaGGAATTTATCTGGCTCTCATgtttcagagctatgctggaaac
br_Z4_PCR1_R01	CAACAACTAGACATGAACGCtgcaccagccgggaatcgaacc
br_Z4_PCR2_F01	GCGTTCATGTCTAGTTGTTGgtttcagagctatgctggaaac
br_Z4_PCR2_R01	CCTCCCGATCCACCCGCCGCtgcaccagccgggaatcgaacc
br_Z4_PCR3_F01	GCGGCGGGTGGATCGGGAGGgtttcagagctatgctggaaac
br_Z4_PCR3_R01	attttaacttgctatttctagctctaaaacCCGTACTCCTGTCCGCCTCCtgcaccagccgggaatcgaacc

S9 Table. 5'-3' sequences of primers used for tissue specific CRISPR. Guide RNA (gRNA) sequences are represented in capital letters.

Primer name	5'-Sequence-3'
rpl32 F01	CCAGTCGGATCGATATGCTAA
rpl32 R01	GTTCGATCCGTSACCGATGT
dif F01	CACAGTGGGCAACTCAAAAGTG
dif R01	GATGTCGTCCTTGGCAATCTTC
relish F01	ACAAAGGACGAGGATTCCGTGG
relish R01	TGATTCAGCAGCGAACAGAGCC
drosomycin F01	CTCTTCGCTGTCCTGATGCTGG
drosomycin R01	GACAGGTCTCGTTGTCCCAGAC
diptericin F01	TACTTTGGCTTATCCGATGCCC
diptericin R01	GTGCTGTCCATATCCTCCATTC
cecropin a1 F01	GTTTTCGTCGCTCTCATTCTGG
cecropin a1 R01	CTTGTTGAGCGATTCCCAGTC
defensin F01	TCGCTTTTGCTCTGCTTGCTTG
defensin R01	GTTGCAGTAGCCGCCTTTGAAC
metchnikowin F01	AGCGATTTTTCTGGCCCTGCTGG
metchnikowin R01	CTTGGTTGGTTAGGATTGAAGG
drsl2 F01	CCTGGCTGTGATGACAATTGTTG
drsl2 R01	ACTGATATGTCCCTCCTCCTTGC
drsl3 F01	TCCTAATGGAGGCCAACACTG
drsl3 R01	TCCCTCCTCAATGCAGAGACG
drsl5 F01	TCCTGGCTGTGATGACCATCTTC
drsl5 R01	ACTGGATCGTCCTTCCTCCTTG
br F01	CAATGCCAACGACGAACACAGCAA
br R01	ATTGGGAAAGTTGAAGGCGGCTG
Br-Z4 F01	GAACCACCACTCGTATTTCCAC
bR-Z4 R01	ACCGCCCACATTAACGCTATTG

S10 Table. 5'-3' sequences of primers used for qPCR